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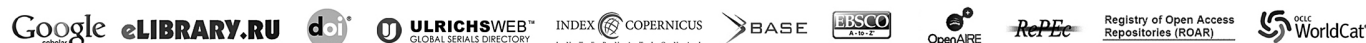
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Section 1. History

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THE POSITION OF THE SYRIAN ARMENIANS REGARDING THE ISSUES OF ALEXANDRET SANJAK DURING THE YEARS OF THE “SETTLEMENT” (1936–1939)

Abstract: On the threshold of the Second World War, to ensure Turkey’s friendship and armament, France and England fragmented the territory of Syria and “donated” Alexandret Sanjak to Turkey. For the whole protection of Syria’s territorial integrity and for Arabian Sanjak, both the Armenian Sanjaks and Syrian Armenians were with the people throughout the struggle.

However, the majority that made up the Arab and Armenian population’s opinion was not only dismissed, but also as the result of Sanjak’s gradual Turkization, Alexandret was unfairly given to Turks.

Keywords: Alexandret Sanjak, status, mandate, France, League of Nations, position of Syrian Armenians, Geneva agreement.

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Позиция сирийских армян в годы «урегулирования» проблемы Александретского санджака (1936–1939 гг.)

Аннотация: Для обеспечения дружбы и поддержки Турции накануне Второй мировой войны Франция и Англия пошли на раздел территории Сирии и «подарили» Александретский санджак Турции. В течение всего периода борьбы за арабский санджак и сохранение территориальной целостности Сирии армяне санджака, как и все сирийские армяне были бок о бок с народом Сирии. Однако мнение арабов и армян, составляющих большинство, не только не было принято во внимание, но и в результате поэтапного отуречивания санджака Александрет несправедливо был передан Турции.

Ключевые слова: Александретский санджак, статус, мандат, Франция, Лига Наций, позиция сирийских армян, Женевское соглашение.

Ближний Восток был и остаётся сложнейшим клубком как международных отношений, так и жизненноважной составляющей деятельности мировой экономической системы. Особый интерес представляет изучение некоторых особенностей внешней политики Турции накануне Второй мировой войны. Более того, ухудшение турко-сирийских отношений уходит корнями к событиям, происходившим ещё в 1920–1930-е гг. В этом контексте необходимо подвергнуть всестороннему анализу самую «морщинистую» проблему — принятую армянами санджака и в целом сирийскими армянами позицию в процессе «регулирования» проблемы Александретского санджака (Искандерун).

Александретский санджак, который находится в Северной Сирии, по Мудросскому договору от 30 октября 1918 г. перешёл под контроль войск Антанты. 27 ноября 1918 г. в качестве самостоятельной административной единицы был создан «Александритский автономный санджак» [1]. По франко-турецкому соглашению от 20 октября 1921 г. Александритский санджак вошёл в состав Сирии, которая, в свою очередь, находилась под французским мандатом [2].

По статье 7-й договора предусматривалось «предоставить санджаку особый статус управления, а местному турецкому населению — определённые культурные привилегии» [3]. По инициативе турецкой стороны и с согласия французского правительства рассмотрение вопроса Александретского санджака в декабре 1936 года было перенесено в Совет Лиги Наций (в Женеву). 8 декабря министр иностранных дел Турции Р. Арас отправил секретарю Совета Лиги наций Жозефу Авнолю телеграмму, в которой предлагал внести в повестку чрезвычайного заседания Лиги Наций обсуждение «Существующих между Турцией и Францией споров относительно будущего Александрета-Антиохии и прилегающих к ним территорий». Пользуясь

«благоволением» Франции, турецкие экстремисты санджака последовательно требовали отделения округа от Сирии или его непосредственного присоединения к Турции, отмечая, что «Искандерунский санджак находился в пределах национального завета» (Примечание наше. А. М.). С этой целью ещё задолго до этого были созданы комитеты «освобождения» Александра и полувоенизированные турецкие организации, которые, действуя в обстановке безнаказанности, вели открытую политику террора в отношении местного арабского и армянского населения. На основе именно таких идей была основана вся деятельность экстремистской группировки «Алк-Эви» (Народные дома). Бывший депутат Франции и специалист по восточным вопросам Анре Лпен в статье по тематике «Сирия после Киликии», осуждая проводимую Францией политику, затрагивал насущные проблемы: «Что происходит в Сирии: неужели в точности повторится игра Киликии, которая была настоящим злодеянием». Автор статьи, обращая также к судьбе киликийских армян, писал: «В Сирии есть сотни тысяч армян, правда ещё больше семей перебили, между тем как нам было поручено защищать их. Мы должны хладнокровно и варварски сдать этих верных друзей нашей страны» [4], — добавляет автор.

Факты свидетельствуют, что армянское население санджака и армянские общественно-политические группировки в целом приняли политическую линию, соответствующую борьбе за независимость Сирии. «В период конфликта 1936–1937 гг. армяне совместно с арабами создали единый политический фронт» [5], — свидетельствует Тойнби.

Арабские деятели тоже неоднократно восхваляли деятельность армян санджака: «35 тысяч армян Александретского санджака проявили себя как отличные сирийцы. Их отношения с сирийцами всегда были прекрасными, а их замечательная

позиция в дни Александретского противостояния ещё более упрочила их отношения», — говорил во время данного армянским журналистам Каира интервью известный политический деятель А. Шахбандар [6].

О тесном сотрудничестве армян и арабов свидетельствует тот факт, что во время выборов в санджаке из имеющих право голоса в голосовании участвует 5504 армянина и по закону выбирают 5 депутатов [7]. Произошёл «процентный рост» турецких избирателей, достигнувший 63%.

Изучив внутривластическое положение санджака 31 декабря 1936 г., в то время, как наблюдательская миссия была ещё занята, комиссия наблюдателей прибыла в санджак и встречалась с смешанным арабским, армянским, турецким, туркменским населением.

Наблюдатели утверждают, что «не существует никаких разногласий, турки, арабы и армяне проживают в обстановке абсолютного дружелюбия» [8]. Наблюдательская группа подтверждает также факт осквернения турками армянских могил на христианских кладбищах.

Армяне Сирии так же, как и армяне Александрита в эти судьбоносные для санджака дни направили телеграмму Верховному комиссариату Сирии и в Лигу Наций: «Мы, представители армянской общины, избравшие Сирию в качестве своей второй родины, надеемся, что всегда будем жить с арабами Сирии в обстановке полнейшей дружбы. Выражаем свои опасения Верховному Собранию (Лиге Наций) относительно одной из частей Сирии — Александретского санджака в том, что турки, не имея на то никакого права, хотят отделить его от Сирии. Будучи уверенными в правоте подхода сирийцев в отношении санджака, хотим обратить внимание цивилизованного мира на бедственные последствия, которые ожидают тысячи армян, расположившихся в санджаке, если будет признано посредническое право Турции. Следовательно, хотим поставить в известность Верховное Собрание о безогово-

рочной преданности нашей сирийской родине и, в частности, неотъемлемой части губернии — Александретскому санджаку, и просим Лигу Наций, чтобы при решении проблемы санджака принимались во внимание и наши чувства» [9].

Об отношении армян отмечали и государственные деятели Сирии, и арабские авторы. «Мы очень довольны армянами, так как они в вопросе санджака проявили благородство и всячески взаимодействовали с нами, искренне посвятив себя сирийскому аспекту. Мы очень довольны сотрудничеством и дружбой армян и арабов... Турецкие газеты могут сколько угодно писать об армянах, будьте уверены: им никто не верит, арабы прекрасно знают о искренности и патриотизме армян и больше не верят таким рассказам» [10], — объявлял известный государственный и политический деятель Сирии доктор А. Рахман.

Бейрутское издание «Ла Сири», обращаясь к позиции армян санджака, пишет: «Известно, что армяне санджака согласны с сирийской позицией и борются против турецких аспектов». Издание выражает также свою обеспокоенность судьбой армянского населения: «... если новая администрация санджака каким-либо образом установит главенство Турции, то армяне более уже не будут в безопасности, и им будет грозить опасность новой депортации. В Сирии, где некоторые члены избиенной и разгромленной нации сумели возродиться, они должны находиться вне опасности» [11].

В этом контексте считаем необходимым подчеркнуть, что согласно статье 55-й статута, основным закон санджака и новый статус должны вступить в силу 29 ноября 1937 года, с условием, что до этого вступит в силу французский пакт. Однако это ни в коей мере не помешало Н. Менемджиоглы объявить о том, что «новый статус санджака и основной закон, естественно, вступят в силу 29-го числа того же месяца [12]», — пишет дю Веу. Несмотря на то, что в Сирии продолжал действовать французский мандат 1937 г.

и французско-сирийский договор ещё не вступил в силу, тем не менее, французские мандатские власти, приняв во внимание ряд внешних и внутренних фактов, уступили требованиям турок и 29-го ноября 1937 г. официально объявили о новом статусе санджака и вступлении в силу основного закона.

Сложная международная обстановка и желание Франции видеть Турцию в числе своих союзников никоим образом не оправдывает нелегальный стиль действия последней. Этими действиями ещё более укрепилось убеждение в том, что вся ответственность за оккупацию Александрийского санджака со стороны Турции ложится на Францию. Принимая во внимание это обстоятельство, разделяем мнение английского автора А. Урани о том, что «... сирийское правительство не могло сделать ничего, кроме как жаловаться» [13].

После окончания этого длительного спектакля, 2-го сентября 1938 года в Антиохии было созвано первое заседание новоизбранной ассамблеи санджака, Александрийский санджак был переименован в «Хатайское государство», президентом которого был «избран» Тайфур Сёкмен [14].

Таким образом, вынесев на повестку дня вопрос статуса Александрийского санджака, турецкая сторона в результате многоэтапной стратегии и с присущим ей поведением создала в санджаке напряжённую обстановку и «решила» вопрос предпочтительным образом. Не приняв во внимание мнение арабов и армян, составляющих абсолютное большинство, англо-французская дипломатия для предотвращения присоединения Турции к германской группировке пошла на раздел территории Сирии и передала Александрийский санджак Турции.

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"HARD BREXIT" VS. "SOFT BREXIT" IN THE UK

Abstract: The article gives the terms "hard Brexit" and "soft Brexit". The author suggests what will happen with the country in general if the UK chooses a variant of "hard Brexit" or another one — "soft Brexit". The article reflects the ideas of British pro-EU politicians as well as Eurosceptics. The author comes to the conclusion that it will be very difficult for the PM to reach her interests without taking into consideration that British variant of Brexit does not suit the EU one.

Keywords: British referendum on June 23, 2016, "hard Brexit", "soft Brexit", Eurosceptic, pro-EU politicians.

The negotiations on withdrawal of the UK from the European Union (EU) began in Brussels on June 19, 2017. As in any negotiations, compromises must be sought in the Brexit negotiations, and the British Parliament should help choose and approve its government's decision. Without support of a parliamentary majority (the Conservatives had 329 out of all 650 seats in the House of Commons) it was impossible for the Prime Minister to make her decision. This was one of the reasons why the Prime Minister appointed early elections on June 8, 2017.

If before the referendum on withdrawal from the EU as of June 23, 2016 T. May was in favor of the country's EU membership, for example, in April 2016 she said: "If we really vote to leave the EU, we run the risk of harming the development of a single market, we run the risk of losing investors and firms in other EU member states, and we run risks in the area of international trade" [1].

After the referendum in January 2017 T. May said in her Brexit speech: "If we did not have access to a single market, we could easily change the basis of the British economic model.

As for EU, this would mean new trade barriers with one of the largest economies in the world. This would endanger European investments in the UK

that amount to more than half a trillion pounds ... and I do not think that EU leaders will really tell German exporters, French farmers, Spanish fishermen, young unemployed of the euro zone and millions of other people that they want to make them more poor just to punish the UK" [2].

Thus, her position changed dramatically — now she stands for the toughest version of "divorce" with EU.

Majority of members of the Parliament were against Brexit before and after the referendum. But the UK population voted for withdrawal from the EU (17,4 million citizens of the country; the turnout was 72,2%) [3].

As for the Laborites, the leading members of the party might have wanted to say that they were against the withdrawal, but then they would have had the risk of losing the elections. It is to be recalled that the Labor Party campaigned against withdrawal from the EU during the referendum in 2016. Now, according to the latest manifesto, the Labor Party thinks that it is necessary to follow the referendum results and seek to "close new relations with the EU" with the protected rights of workers [4].

And the Labor leader J. Corbyn said that if he became the British Prime Minister, then in the first

place he would call German Chancellor Angela Merkel and French President Emmanuel Macron in order to change the tone of Brexit negotiations and also to guarantee the rights of EU citizens, who reside in the UK [5].

Conservatives won in the general election, held on June 8, 2017, which means that the UK is likely to take a tough stance, but both options should be considered — hard and soft.

“Tough (or hard) Brexit” is Brexit, in which the United Kingdom ceases to be a member of the European single market and gets full control over its legislation and immigration [6].

With such an option, the UK refused from full access to a single market and the EU customs union. The British would have full control over their borders, conclusion of new trade transactions and application of laws on their own territory.

All this would mean that the UK will return to the rules of the World Trade Organization (WTO) for trade with its former EU partners, like any other country, which is not the EU member.

Liam Fox, International Trade Secretary, said that a tough approach would be more beneficial for the UK, because it would make the country a global participant of foreign trade. During his speech in Geneva he said among other things: “As an independent member of the WTO outside of the EU, we will continue to fight for trade liberalization and we will also help potentially developing markets to climb out of poverty by giving them privileged access to our markets” [7].

But under “hard Brexit” British goods and services fall under EU tariffs, and, for example, British agriculture will become defenseless before cheap imports from overseas.

Moreover, withdrawal from the EU customs union means a significant increase of bureaucratic inspections of goods that pass through ports and airports.

Eurosceptics insist on conducting “hard Brexit” in order to satisfy the results of the referendum on the Britain’s EU membership, held on June 23, 2016. According to the voting results, which were an-

nounced on June 24, 2016, eurosceptics won – they had 51,9% of the votes [8].

Anna Soubry, former minister for Small Business, Industry and Enterprise, who is a dedicated pro-European, insists that the Prime Minister should greatly soften her plans for Brexit [9].

The former leader of the Conservative Party and former Prime Minister David Cameron made an exception and expressed his opinion during a business conference in Poland: “I think that pressure will be exerted to conduct a softer Brexit” [10].

Under “soft Brexit” the UK would be outside the EU, but retain strong economic ties, make budgetary contributions and there would be free movement of people [11].

In other words, due to this approach Britain’s relations with the EU would remain as close as possible and it would be more preferable for many opponents of Brexit.

Britain would no longer be EU member and would not have seats in the European Council, would lose its membership in the European Parliament, but would retain unobstructed access to the European single market.

British goods and services would be sold on a duty-free basis to other EU member states, and financial firms would retain their “EU passporting rights” for the sale of services and the ability to manage their branches in the EU. The UK would remain within the EU customs union, and this would mean that export goods would not be subject to checks.

Under “soft Brexit” the UK would remain part of the European economic space, like Norway, which is not the EU member. Under such a model the country should make payments to the EU budget and adopt the rule of “four freedoms” — free movement of goods, services, capital and people [12].

The pro-European members of the British parliament argue that maintenance of proper relations in trade with EU member states is an issue of national interest.

Senior Member of Parliament from the Conservative Party Neil Carmichael said that "sharp Brexit" should be avoided at all costs, because it can "harm not only our economy, but the country as a whole and actually Europe" [13].

Experts warn that a serious blow will be stricken for the positions of the City of London if the United Kingdom withdraws from a single market. The head of the British banking lobby A. Brown acknowledged that some bankers could leave London as a result of Brexit, but the capital would remain one of the world's leading financial centers [14].

The head of the second largest investment bank in the world Goldman Sachs warned in BBC interview that Brexit could lead to stagnation of London as a financial center. And he said that the bank was elaborating plans on transferring employees to other countries if negotiations with the EU turn out to be not very successful [15].

After the results of the referendum on withdrawal from the EU were announced, many European Eu-

rosceptics stated that they are ready to follow the example of Great Britain.

British political scientist Adrian Campbell said: "There is already some informal agreement with the European side that "hard Brexit" is better for everyone than "soft Brexit". As "soft Brexit" gives an example to other EU members. And "hard Brexit" is a distinct withdrawal. Other EU members are unlikely to venture upon this, because it carries the possibility of unalleviated risks [16].

When Conservatives could not get a majority in the House of Commons following the election as of June 8, 2017, senior members of the party began to make calls for a softer Brexit agreement.

T. May can not hope either that she will dictate her terms in negotiations on withdrawal from the EU, or that she will conclude a bargain beneficial only for the UK, or that other member states, inspired by the example of the British, will follow her example and withdraw from the EU.

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POST-SANCTIONS IRAN: IMPLICATIONS FOR THE NATIONAL ECONOMY AND GLOBAL ENERGY MARKETS

Abstract: Hampered by economic sanctions imposed by global powers, The Islamic Republic of Iran suffered stagnation in national economy and global trade. Notwithstanding its huge potential as one of the major hydro-carbon producers world-wide, Iran could not reach their full-potential due to restrictions. However, the post-sanctions period is a messenger of a better-integrated Iran, and the majority of policy makers both in Iran and outside of the country believe that not only would it help the country put the economy at a faster pace of development, but also it would alter regional geopolitics.

Keywords: Iran, economic sanctions, post-sanctions period, hydrocarbon resources, energy politics.

Iran, being home to the fourth largest crude oil (9%) and largest gas reserves (18%), had long been blocked to reach its full potential as a regional power, specifically, its sale of hydro-carbon resources had been limited hampered by crippling economic sanctions imposed by the European Union, United Nations and U.S., following their security concerns on Iran's nuclear enrichment activities [2]. Solely since 2012, — in the aftermath of the intensification of international trade and financial sanctions, estimations indicate that restrictions on exporting oil resources have cost Tehran around \$160 bn and

more than \$100 bn Iranian assets kept frozen overseas in restricted accounts [1]. As a matter of fact, the national economy experienced a precipitous fall by about 9 percent in 2012–2013 and 2013–2014 campaigns, respectively. The depreciation of the national currency, — rial, by 56 percent accompanied by supply-side disruptions paved the way for a zenith of 45 percent inflation rate in June 2013, following by the growing unemployment rate hitting some 20 [3]. Tightening economic barriers led to remarkably high declines in total factor productivity and capital accumulation, too (see Table 1).

Table 1. – Annual Value Added, Productivity and Employment Growth

| | 2008–10 Average | 2012 | 2013 |
|----------------------------------|-----------------|-------|------|
| Non-Oil Labor Productivity | 5.4 | –1.5 | –4.9 |
| Contribution from: | | | |
| Capital per Worker | 3.5 | 1.3 | –1.3 |
| TFP and Human Capital per Worker | 1.9 | –2.9 | –3.6 |
| Non-Oil Employment Growth | 0.1 | 0.6 | 3.4 |
| Non-Oil Value Added | 5.5 | –1.0 | –1.5 |
| Oil Employment Growth | –5.9 | –1.0 | –1.0 |
| Oil Value Added | –0.8 | –46.8 | –9.3 |

Source: International Monetary Fund

Financially isolated Iran, was not, however, the only one suffocating from ratcheting international sanctions and embargos. By enforcing business restrictions, the National Iranian American Council claim that the U. S. has sacrificed more than 130 billion USD in potential export revenue lost for businesses between 1995 and 2012, as well [5]. Preventing further diplomatic and economic isolation of Iran in pursuit of putting the country back on the path of development, and thus effectively negotiating with major powers on the nuclear program to lift

the sanctions were the cornerstones of Mr Hassan Rouhani's campaign pitches before he took office in 2013 [5].

At last, on July 14, 2015, following nearly the two years of negotiations between the Islamic Republic of Iran and P5+1 group of world powers, the landmark agreement on the nuclear program, — the Joint Comprehensive Action Plan, was signed. The deal does not permit Tehran to build a nuclear bomb one way or another by blocking all its pathways to get enough fissile material (See Figure 1).



Figure 1. Blocking Iran's Potential Pathways to Fissile Material

Source: wh.gov/iran-deal

According to the Plan, Iran had to follow the below-mentioned major amalgam of pre-conditions if it wanted to receive relief from the world powers nuclear-program related sanctions and in case of violations, the sanctions would snap back into place:

- To cancel its stockpile of medium-enriched uranium, and reduce the stockpile of low-enriched uranium by 98% to 300kg;
- To decrease the number of uranium enrichment centrifuges in Natanz and Fordo fields by more than 65% to be installed no more than 5,060 for 10 years;
- To maintain the level of uranium enrichment only at 3,67% and not construct heavy-water facilities for the next 15 years;

– To guarantee that the International Atomic Energy Agency, the global nuclear watchdog experts have sufficient access to Iran's nuclear facilities they deem suspicious to monitor, verify and inspect [6].

For Iran followed many positive steps towards the normalization of relations after the agreement, the second phase of the plan, — lifting nuclear-related international sanctions, was activated in the January of 2016. Currently, translating a corrupt and mismanaged energy sector into a revitalized industry is a main priority for Rouhani's government. Ever since the institutions imposed sanction on Iran, the country's export volume has fallen by 50% (see Figure 1). Thus Tehran seeks to attract major foreign investors to enter new

projects specially, in its economically key oil and gas industry. Not only would the reintegration of the Islamic Republic of Iran into the global energy markets generate windfall profits and restore long-lost economic vitality of the country, but also this move carries the potential to re-structure regional and global geo-politics and energy infrastructure.

Could the Islamic Republic emerge as an important energy player in coming years, this move will eventually shape the energy geopolitics globally. Inevitably, Iran will become a very strong energy competitor for the Russian Federation both in Europe and Asia [7]. Diversification of its energy routes to alleviate its over-dependence on its main energy suppliers, specially Russia, is the main target of the EU's energy security plans. To achieve this, Iran could also play a pivotal role with its vast hydro-carbon resources had the country completed its production and development targets. While Tehran would not want to weaken its energy relations with Asian partners from a purely commercial standpoint, joining the European Union related energy projects would be of both political and economic rationale as well. Among the projects thereof, the Southern Gas Corridor project which would bring the Azerbaijani gas from its Shahdeniz Field to Europe through Georgia and Turkey is of the greatest importance [8]. Azerbaijan has a capacity to export 10 bcm of gas per year to Europe through the TANAP and TAP pipelines with a potential to add one bcm more per year. Keeping in mind the growing trend of gas demand of the EU, this, however, may not be enough to fulfill the Union's import target. By 2026, it is projected to import more than 30 bcm a year through the TANAP pipeline, and once the infrastructure projects implemented this number will hit some 60 bcm. Thus the EU officials work hard to attract more players to join the SGC corridor besides Azerbaijan, and among them, Turkmenistan and Iran are considered as the most realistic options. The president of the State Oil Company of the Republic of Azerbaijan (hereinafter, SOCAR), Mr. Rovnag Abdullayev too has stated that SOCAR is ready to share its 8%

from the total 58% stake, as Azerbaijan would deplete all its gas reserves in nearly 40 years if it continues to use its resources at today's pace. Not only would the transportation of the Iranian and Turkmen gas would double the importance of Azerbaijan as an important energy hub for both EU and Turkey, but also this promises an effective diversification of the energy routes for the latter two.

Compared to piped gas flows, the floating pipeline is more flexible over distances, and has shorter duration of contracts due primarily to technological advances. It is estimated that the EU's import of natural gas in the form of LNG will increase by 24 percent by 2020, and by 40% by 2030 [4]. Up until now, Tehran has attempted to develop its LNG sector and build facilities, there is only one LNG project being implemented currently in the phase 12, though. For now, Pars LNG and Persian LNG, phases 11, 13, 14 respectively, are on hold because of financing problems (see Figure 1). Other than the EU, the Islamic Republic looks forward to agree on a deal with the Brazilian Petrobras, China and India to export its LNG, as well.

The Chinese customs data indicate that the overall trade volume between China and Iran was 52 billion USD solely in 2014, and the latter has supplied the former's 12% of total crude oil need, and will be a key in securing China's gas supply in the near future with its both piped and LNG gas output. The nuclear agreement opens doors for the Chinese leading energy companies to enter the Iranian market as well, and to increase their shares. With the construction of D Line of the Central-Asia — China pipeline, the Sino-Iran energy relations would incentivize. The implementation of a new project would allow China to export 85 bcm gas only through this pipeline. As Iran and Turkmenistan already have a pipeline infrastructure, connecting Iran to the Central-Asia-China pipeline will be cost-effective, too. Another route to transport the Iranian gas to China is to expand Iran-Pakistan pipeline until Xinjiang by using the China-Pakistan Economic Corridor.

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Section 2. Cultural studies

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THE THREE FACES OF GREEK AND ARISTOTELIAN RHETORIC

Abstract: The need for the persuasion is often informed by a dire or grave situation which one needs to wriggle out from. Persuasion may also be necessitated by a person's disposition to a subject, development, or topic in view. The art of persuasion through speech is what scholars, ancient and modern, call rhetoric or oratory. The Greek traditional theorists, who invented rhetoric, divided the art into three types: the judicial (dicanic or forensic), the deliberative (symbouleutic) and the demonstrative (epideictic). Broadly, Greek rhetoric also has a tripartite part: invention, arrangement and style. Similarly, by Aristotelian theory, rhetoric is the art of persuasion which functions by three means: by appeal to people's reason (*logos*); by the appeal to their emotions (*pathos*) and by the appeal of the speaker's personality or character (*ethos*). What exactly did the Greeks and, indeed, Aristotle mean by these terms and their functions? This paper, while highlighting the general conception of the Greek rhetoric and its three-way nature, surveys the Aristotelian tripartite division and functionality of rhetoric through a simple method of content analysis of selected ancient and modern texts. It submits that a *rhetor* (rhetorician/orator) is not firm in his trade if he does not artfully possess and execute the Aristotelian three modes of persuasion in contexts of necessity or grave situations.

Keywords: Greek rhetoric, oratory, Aristotle, ethos, pathos, logs.

Introduction

One of the major legacies of the Graeco-Romans and which has continued to be of profound utilitarian value in contemporary art is rhetoric. According to the classical tradition, the origin and growth of rhetoric is credited to the duo of Tisias and Corax, who flourished in the city-state of Syracuse on the Greek island of Sicily in the mid fifth century

B. C. The invention took place after the expulsion of the city's tyrants and the Syracusans' enthronement of democracy. Right from the beginning of its civilization, the Greek society thrived on oral expression. This was evident not only in its system of politics as shall be seen below, but also in its plethora of literatures and philosophy which later became written after the epic poems had been invented. The

development of rhetoric was facilitated by the Greek discovery of democracy, a political system which operated through the direct speech of citizens in the *ekklesia* (assembly) and the courts. Complaints, defenses and appeals were verbally conveyed by citizens before the magistrates (*areopagus*, *boule*, and *heliaea*) and the public juries (*dikasteria*).

The fundamental principles of Greek *demokratia* had required *equality*, *freedom*, and *the rule of law*. This is true at least as far as Athens was concerned. The equality of all free adult male citizens (the *demos* — the many — who had the sovereign power) in formulating and deciding public policy was a cardinal feature of democratic theory. By this equality, firstly, we mean all the free adult male citizens had the fundamental right to speak and vote in the assembly (*ekklesia*), irrespective of birth, class, occupation, education, wealth, or anything else. Secondly, equality was secured by the composition of the executive Council (*boule*), which was the most fundamental of all Greek democratic constitutions, and, in effect, the principal committee of the assembly of the people. Thirdly, the principle of equality was enshrined in the composition of the panels of judges in the jury courts (the courts of the people – *demos*). The members of the Council were annually selected by lot from the whole adult male population of citizens irrespective of background or social status; the judges for the jury (supreme) courts were also appointed annually from the same adult male citizens who made up the assembly, though in this regard, they volunteered to serve. This type of Greek democracy held that the collective judgment of the whole *demos* meeting in assembly (*ekklesia*) to talk, debate and finally make decisions by majority vote, was superior to the judgment of any select hand of experts. It was, of course, recognized that the oral submission of certain professional or individual expert, within the particular field of his expertise, was superior in ability and judgment to the individual non-expert; but according to the theory of democracy, what was best for the community was the collective judgment

of men of all classes, occupations, educational and wealth backgrounds.

This important aspect of the fundamental theory of *demokratia* emphasised that the Greeks had great faith in the speech and reasoning faculty of the common man. They had a profound belief in his critical wisdom and ability to deliberate and execute the ordinary business of public life. This idea, which clearly emerges from a passage of Plato's *Protagoras* sums up the Greek fundamentals. Socrates converses with his interlocutor, Protagoras (Plato, *Protagoras*. 319 b–323 a):

Socrates: When the Athenian people gather for assembly, if the city has something to do about buildings, the advice of building-specialists is sought, if the business is ship-building, the shipwrights are called upon especially for their advice, and so on and so forth with everything that can be taught and learned. And in such cases, if any non-expert tries to interrupt with his own advice, the assembly refuses to listen to him however rich or aristocratic he may be, but jeers and boos the speaker until he either shuts up or is removed by the police. This is how the Athenian people behave on technical questions. But when the debate is on general questions of government, anyone gets up and gives his advice: carpenters, smiths, leather-workers, businessmen, ship-captains, rich or poor, noble or humble; and no one ever complains that the speaker is untrained in the subject under discussion.

Protagoras: The natural gifts and accomplishments of men are varied, but all alike possess a natural sense of decency and fair-play. While decisions on technical questions require the advice of trained men, political decisions depend on justice and fair-play.

This takes us to the root of Greek participatory *demokratia*: the Greek democrat believed in the ability of the ordinary man to make sound speech and decisions whether on political issues, as speakers in the assembly, judges in the law courts, or in matters aesthetic though the place of the expert was fully

recognized (Thucydides. 2.36 ff.). Thus, in the language of Greek politics, *demokratia* is often synonymous with freedom (cf. Aristotle *Pol.* 1317a). The democracy did not mean, as Plato and others sometimes suggest, licence, chaos and anarchy where everyone was free to talk and do exactly what he liked. Plato himself must have known that this is nonsense (Plato, *Rep.* 8.557; etc; Barker, 2009: 336–7). *Demokratia*, rather, cherished individual freedom of action and of speech subject to the laws. This meant both personal and political freedom for the full citizen and even the resident foreigner, though the latter did not have the freedom to take an active part in government. But he had the liberty to speak his mind on political affairs. And so for an Athenian, talk was the breath of life for any man could speak in the assembly meeting if he could get others to listen. Unlike the highly regimented and totalitarian state of Sparta, where no one was allowed to carelessly make statement against its government, democratic Athens, flourished with men — satirists, comedians, philosophers, journalists, and so on — who were at liberty to talk and make public criticisms of fellow Athenians and their institutions.

Therefore, as seen above, the application of the famed Athenian democracy on a large scale to political meetings and judicial courts was a huge factor in the blossoming of rhetoric in Athens in the fifth century B.C. Given the above situation, the need arose for men of vocal power to bring their talents and abilities to bear on both the political and judicial spaces. In different city-states with varied challenges, the desire and ability to speak persuasively and convincingly became so expedient that men earnestly sought the services of teachers of oratory called *rhetors* who, in turn, developed theories for successful speech making and delivery. Success in this engagement circumstances depended on one's ability to persuade large audiences in the assembly or the courts, the latter of which became more important after the judicial reforms of Ephialtes in 462 (Worthington, 1994: 17).

The first band of notable Greek *rhetores*, as noted above, was Tisias and Corax, who actually taught techniques and methods of judicial oratory to those unaccustomed to public speaking especially at the law courts. It is said that while Corax was an orator who taught political speech, Tisias concentrated more on the writing of judicial speeches, especially those required during defences and appeals. Besides these, there were the sophists who travelled from *polis* to *polis*, teaching politics, philosophy and the art of persuasion to young citizens sometimes for some fees. It is said that rhetoric, as a self-conscious art, was extended by the sophists, especially Georgias (Diodorus Siculus, 12.53.2). In this group of early sophists belonged Protagoras, Georgias, Prodicus and Hippias who largely taught rhetoric as an important part of Greek education and civil life. The other batch of fifth century B.C. Attic *rhetores* was Isocrates and Lysias. Some of the distinguished disciples of these early rhetoricians include Demosthenes, Pericles, and Plato. Other lesser figures include Thrasymachus, Theodorus, Antiphon, Antisthene, Alcidas, Theodectes, and others who either modified, improved or influenced the status, standards and forms of rhetoric — some improving on its definitions, style, structure, divisions, figures of speech, delivery, etc. (Kennedy, 1963: 52–80).

The traditional theory of Greek rhetoric: the tripartite kinds and the tripartite parts

Among the Greeks of the fifth century B.C, three kinds of rhetoric were clearly recognized: the sym-bouleutic rhetoric also referred to as 'deliberative speech or oratory'; the epideictic rhetoric otherwise called 'demonstrative speech'; and the judicial rhetoric also known as 'dicanic or forensic oratory or speech'. While the judicial (dicanic/forensic) oratory was practiced in the courts of law (*dikasteria*) and sometimes the assembly (*ekklesia*), the epideictic (demonstrative) oratory embraced all forms of funeral, panegyric and festival orations including sophistic oratory. The sym-bouleutic (demonstrative) oratory was common within the purview of politics,

political assemblies or history; it was the common tool of political demagogues. Historians such as Herodotus and Thucydides recorded great speeches credited to politicians and statesmen who were greatly influenced by the rules of fifth century judicial speeches and techniques even though many of them were not trained in rhetoric by the then travelling teachers, sophists. Many of these politicians and statesmen neither prepared their speeches nor published them until much later when rhetoric became an art in literary form (Kennedy, 1963: 203–204).

At its beginning, the deliberative (symbouleutic) rhetoric was not presented as published speeches as many politicians never received formal training in political speaking in schools until the time of Aristotle and Anaximenes (Hudson-Williams, 1951. p. 68 ff). Unlike the judicial rhetoric which gained wider spread than any other by the fifth century, the deliberative art of persuasion did not gain popularity until much later, the earliest extant work — published and delivered — being Andocides' *On the Peace with Sparta*. The event that facilitated its publication was warranted. Andocides, an Athenian, had been exiled in 391 B. C. after he and his colleagues failed to the Athenians to make a truce with the Spartans on account of the protracted Peloponnesian War. In exile, he was forced to plead and seek justice through the publication of his political speech since he was in no way able to do in person at Athens. Apart from Andocides' work, other extant deliberative speeches later published were the speeches of statesmen and politicians such as Isocrates (*The Plataicus*, *On the Peace* and *Areopagiticus*) and Demosthenes (*On the Chersonese* and *the Fourth Philippic*). As characteristic of the deliberative kind of oratory, many speeches, published or delivered with some educational tones, were attempts at political persuasion.

Epideictic rhetoric etymologically derived from the term *epideixeis* (demonstrations), that is, speeches that were neither deliberative nor judicial in nature. Aristotle (Aristotle. *Rhetoric*, 1358b2ff) notes that epideictic speeches aimed at the praise or blame

of something of someone; they were intended to point out (demonstrate) the honourable and the dishonourable either by way of address to observers, spectators or in form of a write up to be read out to them (Aristotle. *Rhetoric*, 1414 a 18). They are speeches, delivered, 'not for the sake of contest but of demonstration', to reflect the ability of the speaker (Aristotle. *Rhetoric*, 144 ob 13). Hence, epideictic speeches encompassed not only funeral, panegyric and festival orations but also all manners of encomium and invective speeches. Pericles is known to have delivered a famous funeral oration in 440 B.C in the wake of the plague that ravaged the Athenian camp during the stirring times of the Peloponnesian War (Thucydides, 2. 34–35). Other notable epideictic rhetoricians include Lysias, Georgias, Socrates, Hyperides, Antisthenes, Hippias, etc.

The most prominent type of Greek oratory was the judicial one, the spread of which, as noted above was facilitated by the efflorescing of Athenian *demokratia* that required litigants to address the courts in defence or appeal. Although the Athenian court system allowed litigants to seek the assistance of third parties or advocates who could address the court, nevertheless, the litigants had to make their own speech first. Advocates worked both as speech writers and lawyers, searching for evidence, examining the law and advising on the conduct of their clients. Sometimes the speech-writer lawyer could assist his client to rehearse by listening to the client's delivery of the written speech and advising him about necessary gestures and polishing of his oral presentation (Kennedy, 1963: 127–128). In this group of speech-writers, logographers and lawyers belonged, Antiphon, Lysias, Isaeus, Isocrates, Demosthenes, Hyperides and other lesser rhetoricians whose works were masterpieces of the art of persuasion.

Among the fifth century Greeks, the traditional theory of rhetoric recognised three main parts: invention (Grk. *euresis*), arrangement (Grk. *taxis*) and style (Grk. *lexis*). According to Kennedy, 'invention' (*euresis*) is the part of oratory that is concerned with

the subject itself, with finding out the grave questions at hand (called the *stasis*) and the appropriate argument that must be used in proof or repudiation. In this part, proofs would include, first, all direct evidence to support the *stasis* (Kennedy, 1963: 10–12). Such evidence could be witnesses, contracts, and oaths. Other proofs are the argumentations from the direct evidence and this would be done by means of syllogisms. Final proofs could require other means of persuasion such as the orator's use of emotional appeals, pathos, gestures, and passionate words — for instance, weeping children, slaughtered girls, famished orphans, bloody swords, anger and calmness, friendliness and enmity etc. (Aristotle. *Rhetoric*, 2.2.27).

Arrangement (*taxis*) refers to the organization of speech, both written and oral, into various segments. The segments are:

- a) The prooemium (Grk. *prooimion*), which covers 'the introduction';
- b) The narration (Grk. *diegesis*), which refers to 'the exposition' of the background and factual details;
- c) The proof (Grk. *pistis*), which is a firmer exposition of the main body;
- d) The conclusion or epilogue (Grk. *epilogos*), that is the summary and final submission.

All these segments have their functions. The prooemium is intended to secure the interest and attention of the audience from the start with the speaker giving an indication that he does not know how to speak eloquently. The narration aims at presenting brief, sharp and persuasive exposition of the unfolding issues at hand and must be supported firmly with evidential proofs. The conclusion aims at *stirring the emotion of the audience* through appeals, refutations, counter-refutations and recapitulation of points earlier affirmed or exposed at the beginning (Kennedy, 1963: 11).

Style (*lexis*) usually involves the organization of rhetorical speeches around four parameters of 'correctness' of details/facts; 'clarity' of speech to remove all ambiguities; 'propriety' of speech, methods, etc.; and adornment (ornamentation) with figures

of speech, elevated diction, polished prose rhythm, etc. Various rhetoricians, between fifth and fourth centuries, either modified or expanded these basic tripartite segments of rhetoric by introducing the fourth and fifth segments respectively called 'memory' (Grk. *mneme*) and 'delivery' (*hypokrisis*). While 'memory' relates to the use of mnemonic strategies while delivering speech, 'delivery' refers to the control of voice (Kennedy, 1963: 11–12).

Speech as a key tool of persuasion

As with modern method, speech (*logos*), beside write-ups, was the single indispensable tool for the Greek art of persuasion; it was equally a requisite instrument for the Greek philosophers who sought the relationships between speech itself, truth, and morality. The Greeks' socio-political and cultural mechanics were primarily in form of oral expressions, best emblazoned in their classic democracy, judiciary, Homeric epics, entertainment, memoirs, myths, orations, literatures, philosophy, drama, and so on (Kennedy, 1963: 4). Several oral literatures only became written long after rhetoric had significantly expedited the leap in Greek intellectual life. The Graeco-Romans generally were aware of the crucial role of good speech, verbal expressions, as a tool for distinguishing humans (*homo sapientes*) from brutes. Quintilian, whose work sums up the tradition and theory of rhetoric, described the art as '*bene dicendi scientia*', the science of speaking well (Quintilian, 2.15). For later writers after Quintilian, 'science' was not too convenient a term for rhetoric and so the term 'art' was preferred, the explanation being that 'oratory' refers to actual speech while 'rhetoric' would embrace both the speech and the theory or technique of good speaking or persuasion. On the overall, good verbal expression was the basis of civilization. And in the words of Isocrates (Isocrates. *Nicodes* 5 ff.; *Antidosis* 253 ff), even re-echoed by Cicero much later (Cicero. *De Oratore* 1.30 ff), speech is a *sine qua non* to any meaningful development, thought or action:

In most of our abilities we differ not at all from the animals; we are in fact behind in swiftness and

strength and other resources. But because there is born in us the power to persuade each other and to show ourselves whatever we wish, we not only have escaped from living as brutes, but also by coming together have founded cities and set up laws and invented arts; and speech has helped us attain practically all of the things we have devised. For it is speech that has made laws about justice and injustice, and honor and disgrace, without which provisions we should not be able to live together. By speech we refute the wicked and praise the good. By speech we educate the ignorant and inform the wise. We regard the ability to speak properly as the best sign of intelligence, and truthful, legal, and just speech is the reflection of a good and trustworthy soul. With speech we contest about disputes and investigate what is unknown. We use the same argument in public councils as we use in persuading private individuals. We call orators those who are able to discourse best among themselves. If I must sum up on this subject, we shall find that nothing done with intelligence is done without speech, but speech is the marshal of all actions and of thoughts and those who most use it have the greatest wisdom.

Aristotle's rhetoric: the tripartite means and functionality

According to tradition and if the work of Plutarch (*Lives of the Ten Orators*) is to be believed, there were ten distinguished Attic Greek orators, namely: Antiphon, Lysias, Andocides, Isocrates, Isaeus, Demosthenes, Aeschines, Lycurgus, Hyperides, and Dinarchus. Aristotle, although featured most prominently in the field of philosophy, contributed quite significantly to the efflorescing of rhetoric through his monumental work, *Rhetoric*. Aristotle defines rhetoric as 'the counterpart (*antistrophos*) of dialectic (Arist. *Rhetoric*, 1.1.1–2). He says rhetoric is the ability of the *rhetor*, in grave situations, to see the available means of persuasion, and make use of the appropriate modes of persuasion — *ethos*, *pathos* and *logos* — the modes/terms are explained below. He also notes that rhetoric is a

branch of philosophy along with logic and dialectic. To Aristotle, while logic is concerned with reasoning to reach some scientific certainty, rhetoric and dialectic are more focused on probability which is a subject or tool best fitted for human affairs. While dialectic is a tool for philosophical debates, rhetoric functions as a tool for practical debates, aimed at persuading a general audience through the use of practical matters.

Like the general traditional Greek theory, the Aristotelian oratory is also divided into three parts: the judicial (dicanic/forensic), the deliberative (symbouleutic) and the epideictic (demonstrative). The judicial oratory finds the law court as an avenue for its expression, while deliberative oratory is often made to advise political assemblies on the making of policies. The epideictic oratory is for ceremonial occasions of praise or blame over current events. In each, there is the conscious attempt to persuade the audience to perceive something in the light of a speaker's appraisal.

Persuasion, by Aristotelian theory, is rhetoric which functions by three means: by appeal of the speaker's personality or character (*ethos*), by the appeal to the audience's emotions (*pathos*), and by appeal to their reason (*logos*) (Corbett, 1990: 37). The Greek words, *ethos*, *pathos* and *logos* are, according to Aristotle, the three means of oratory. *Ethos*, basically, is a projection of personality or good character of the orator which must be worthy of respect from the audience. It is concerned with the establishment of the persuader's credibility. *Pathos* functions by putting the audience in an appropriate mood, by playing on its feelings. It is intended to evoke pity or anger from the audience by means of a speaker's deployment of *touching* words on the emotions or areas of psychic activity of the audience. *Logos* (logic) is a word which carries many meanings; in relation to rhetoric, its plainest meaning is 'rational argument' which is aimed at proving or disproving a matter or case under review (Lanham, 2012: 166). *Logos* must be a sound reasoning that will appeal to the audience.

Corbett writes in respect of the Aristotelian means of rhetoric (Corbett, 1990: 5):

Instead of moving on the surface as the ordinary rhetorician did, with his precepts for each part of the speech and each type of oration, Aristotle goes to the sources of persuasion. He investigates the form of rhetorical proofs, the enthymeme or incomplete syllogism, and the means of arousing emotion and of conveying a favorable impression of the speaker's character, which are to him excellent elements equal in importance to demonstration. Rhetoric thus connects on the one hand with dialectic, on the other with ethics and psychology; the orator must be able to syllogise and must also have knowledge of human character and emotions.

Ethos

By Aristotle standards, a person's good reputation naturally attracts respect from the society. An individual's wealth, social status and other contributions to the welfare of his community may also serve to enrich his already existing good reputation. An individual's wisdom, virtue, integrity, goodwill, and trustworthiness are some constituents of the ethical appeal. By inference, these aforementioned qualities are capable of producing arguments based on sound reasoning. The speech itself creates in the audience an impression that 'the speaker is a person of sound sense (*phronesis*), high moral character (*arête*), and benevolence (*eunoia*). It is the speech itself that must create this impression' (Corbett, 1990: 80). Since *ethos* is the ethical appeal thus focuses on reputation, caution must be taken by the orator as regards his conducts for every speech affords a speaker the opportunity of maintaining or building upon the already familiar reputation which he had among the audience. An iota of error or illogical reasoning may be perceived by the audience as a display of instability on the part of the speaker. Inconsistencies may be very severe for the speaker. Grave situations may occur where two speakers are pitched wit-for-wit against each other; one speaker may triumph over the other not because the truth was emphasized but

because his *ethos* appealed more to the audience. Thus in *ethos*, character and charisma are brought to bear on the overall speech.

Pathos

Aristotle explains *pathos* as an appeal to the emotions of the audience. In this mode of persuasion, the witty speaker deploys every piercing word in his arsenal to effect desired responses and reactions from the audience, and since this means is more result-oriented in the forensic (dicanic) space, his target is usually at the jurors so that in the end justice will swing in his (or his client's) favor.

Appeals to audience's emotions usually mount pressure on the human will in such a manner that true or 'correct justices' may not run its full course, or worse still, become thwarted. The ability to conjure up images in the mind's eye is usually the calculated attempt of every skilled *rhetor*. He attempts to make the audience imagine a scenario that often evolves pity or anger. In doing this, the speaker could make use of exaggeration as a device of persuasion and appeal, especially in a situation where the speaker or even his client assumes a pitiable demeanor, or even resorts to acting skills to aid delivery in court. Oftentimes, a mode of persuasion may subtly manifest in a discourse where another mode features more prominently. Aristotle thus presupposes that *pathos*, although figures more prominently in judicial oratory, can also manifest in the deliberative oratory where *ethos* predictably holds sway because most policies are made as a result of direct legal tussle or influence. Both kinds of rhetorical discourses are similar in nature because a speaker either proposes or opposes an argument to the end that his proposition may be accepted.

Logos

Logos, the Aristotelian third mode of persuasion, is the skilled speaker's sound appeal to the reason of the audience. It is the orator's ability to argue constructively, based on sound logical proofs including testimonies, documents, scientific analysis, laws and other forms of evidence. This is most likely to draw

admiration and respect from an audience. Aristotle thus postulates two types of logical proof:

1. Deductive Argument:

In this regard, the proofs or premises must be scientifically demonstrated. Another term for scientifically proven deductive argument is *sylogism*. If the premises, however, are only probably true, the term for the argument is *enthymeme*. Syllogism and the enthymeme are the schematic devices used by Aristotle to analyze and test deductive reasoning. While syllogism is a three-line argument to state proof, enthymeme is often a two line structure, and may be referred to as an imperfect syllogism. Both expressions may be considered below:

Sylogism: All lecturers are honest; Professor Henry is a lecturer; Therefore, Professor Henry is an honest man.

Enthymeme: Professor Henry must be a lecturer; hence, he loves to talk and lecture.

In the syllogism, there is a combination of two truths or arguments arriving at a logical conclusion, while the enthymeme expresses a knowledge based on an observation, leading to a probable conclusion. Conclusions from both are often made with the use of function words such as 'therefore', 'hence', 'consequently', and so on.

2. Inductive Argument:

This type of argument is intended to appeal to the audience, the orator accounts for all instances to support the phenomenon or matter at hand. Such induction is also scientific. However, if only selected instances are cited, the argument is from examples (Lanham, 2012: 166). The inductive form of reasoning projects 'examples' as its logical equivalent, unlike the deductive which uses the enthymeme. While both proofs hinge on inferences, the inductive dwells so much on phenomena that could be easily verified, whereas 'statements' are the reference points of the deductive form of reasoning.

Speakers applying the inductive form of reasoning often allude to instances or situations that are similar to the one in view, to the end that an analogy could be

drawn from both before a conclusion is arrived at. The example and the enthymeme share a common weakness, that is, the conclusion is often woven around a probability, even though the former may have strong persuasive value. By sound reasoning too, the opposing speaker might also allude to familiar circumstances where proposed measures, (perhaps as examples given by the first speaker) were taken, but negative results were achieved. In inductive argument, the appeals, argues or provides evidence from the particular to the general to arrive at desired conclusions, whereas the reverse is the case with the deductive counterpart. Thus, through deductive and inductive reasoning, the orator can reach a desired knowledge or proof.

Aristotle's three modes of rhetoric also relates to three kinds of times and audiences: the past, present and the future. The past is concerned with the forensic (judicial) type of rhetoric which deals with determining of facts and assigning faults. Here, one man accuses the other, while the other defends himself, both referring to events done in the past. The present refers to the demonstrative (epideictic) type of oratory which emphasizes values, praises and blames, rights and wrongs. In this case, all men, during funeral or ceremonial oratory, either praise or blame themselves in view of present or existing circumstances. As for the deliberative (symbolleutic) type of oratory, a kind of political debates, this relates to decision-making about what to do in the future. The political orator is concerned with policies that might influence the future, about things to be done or jettisoned and he argues in support of either.

Aristotle also believes that the audience is defined along three lines: the speaker, subject and the person being addressed — the last of which judges or determines the gravity or persuasiveness of the speech (Arist. *Rhetoric*, 1358b). The listener, who is being addressed, is similarly a three-party listener. He could be a juryman who would need to take decision based on appeal/speech before him concerning an event that happened in the past or he could be an observer who merely makes decisions

or forms an opinion based on an orator's speech or skill of persuasion. Moreover, he could be an assembly man who needs to be convinced by the orator's speech so as to decide on future policies that would be of benefit to his people. Thus, in Aristotle's view, rhetoric is more associated with speaking than writing and functions in a number of ways. It enables the speaker to skillfully put forward truth and jus-

tice, where these have failed through inefficient speech. It provides effective defense; it enables the speaker to prove opposites and refute an opponent, who might be making unfair use of arguments (Aristotle, *Art of Rhetoric*. Freese J. H. trans. xxxii). In retrospect, the table below provides a summary of both the Greek and Aristotle's three faces of rhetoric as examined in this paper.

Table 1.

| | The three Types | The Three Parts | The Three Means | The Three Elements | The Three Times | The Three Listeners |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|------------------------|---------------------------|------------------------|----------------------------|
| Greek and Aristotelian Rhetoric | Symbouleutic/ Deliberative | Invention (<i>euresis</i>) | Ethos | Speaker | Future | Members of the assembly |
| | Epideictic/ Demonstrative | Arrangement (<i>taxis</i>) | Pathos | Speech | Present | Observers at ceremonials |
| | Judicial/ Dicanic | Style (<i>lexis</i>) | Logos | Listener | Past | Jurymen at the courts |

Conclusion

The art of speaking and writing well, elegantly and effectively is rhetoric that is intended to persuade or influence people. Whether its product or language is completely true or otherwise is another issue. It however aims at persuading or motivating target audiences in specific situations by appealing to their emotional and logical sentiments and leveraging on their weakness or gullibility on a particular subject which they know little or nothing about. As seen in the foregoing, the ancient Greek theoreticians divided rhetoric into three types and segments. And by the recommendation of Aristotle, the art of persuasion can be executed through

the modes of *pathos*, *ethos*, and *logos* for a speaker is not firm on his oratorical stand if he is not capable of possessing the minds of his audience by executing the three modes of persuasion in contexts of necessity. Thus, the art of persuasion is rhetoric, deployed in circumstances where difficulties arise in convincing an audience or providing the proof of a matter. And in situations where truth is literally missing and cases appear terribly bleak, probability, rather than dead end, would predictably be the next resort of the audience if the orator is able to effectively deploy a proper mode and method of Aristotelian rhetoric.

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A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS: LINGUISTIC INTEGRATION OF MEXICANS IN THE UNITED STATES AND TURKS IN GERMANY

Abstract: This paper aims to conduct a comparative analysis on the linguistic integration both in the case of Turkish immigrants in Germany, and Mexican immigrants in the United States within a historical perspective. These integrative policies will be studied first by giving certain background information on the migratory history of the two countries, Mexican immigration to the US, and Turkish immigration to Germany, respectively. These two cases were picked as the analytical subjects of this paper because both immigrant nations migrated to the related country to constitute a labour force since there was a huge need for that due to several reasons such as the loss of manpower after certain wars or revolutions. At the end of this comparative study, it is speculated to be found that there are certain parallels between these two immigrant societies in the way that they speak their native languages as part of their cultures in the receiving country since both nations have a conventionalist nature which makes them tend more to protect their own culture and pay less effort to integrate into the society in which they are living. Even though this integration might be realized in certain forms such as economic status and exogamy, it does not cover all segments nor is there any desire of the receiving government to integrate the immigrants but rather they make policies to isolate them.

Keywords: culture, German Turks, immigration, integration, language, Mexican Americans.

Introduction

This research paper aims to conduct a comparative analysis on the linguistic integration both in the case of Turkish immigrants in Germany, and Mexican immigrants in the United States within a historical perspective. These integrative policies will be studied first by giving certain background information on the migratory history of the two countries, Mexican immigration to the US, and Turkish immigration to Germany, respectively. These two cases were picked as the analytical subjects of this paper because both immigrant nations migrated to the related country to constitute a labour force since there was a huge need for that due to several reasons such as the loss of manpower after certain wars or revolutions. At the end of this comparative

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This paper will use a qualitative method which is fundamentally based on the interpretative data drawn from several sociological or ethnographic

studies conducted in the field. The primary and secondary resources of this paper will cover academic books, journal articles, particularly those reporting interviews with the immigrants, and certain governmental documents as well as publicized statistics regarding the subject of analysis. Even though the original plan of this paper was to analyse cultural reflections of both immigrant groups under the categories of language, festivals, and food, this could not be realized due to the lack of scientific data and sources. By the use of the aforementioned methodology and resources, the conventionalist nature of the two immigrant nations is planned to be presented as the unifying factor in the way that Mexicans in the US and Turks in Germany reflect and protect their culture in the form of language.

I. Migratory history of Mexican immigrants in the US

The history of the Mexican immigration to the US is loaded with stories of difficulties. The assimilation process is even more complicated, and it needs to be analysed with a larger analysis of the generations of Mexican immigrant families. The core issue of this chapter addresses the question whether the Mexican Americans were assimilated in the contemporary US or not. Within this scope, a brief history of immigration to the US will be presented before moving to the current situation of Mexican Americans in the US. Within a sociological perspective, the potential impact of the attitudes of other ethnics on the lives of the Mexican Americans is also analysed through the conducted interviews. Ultimately, a discussion on the so-called assimilation process of the Mexican Americans will constitute the conclusive part of this section.

The concept of immigration to the US is a term that holds a sort of diversity within. The history of this phenomenon does not start with the international migrations that are voluntarily conducted. Instead, there is a series of immigration waves by people from various races, nationalities, and backgrounds. Such different immigrant people in the United States

also were bound by the promise of a better future and opportunities. From the times of the conquest till the colonial periods, from the time period of slave trade till the territorial expansion, the immigration waves were carried out by people from all around the world. What is going to be concentrated in this part, though, is the voluntary international migrations.

David A. Gerber analyses the most important voluntary international migrations in three waves [2, P. 2]. The first massive flow of migrants comes in the 1840s and 1850s, while the second one takes place during the late 1890s and World War I. Mostly Mexicans, Europeans and Asians constitute the majority of the immigrant population. What is common in these two time periods is that they have a transitive aspect from the rural to the urban life for the US since it was a time when the industry was accelerating. The aforementioned immigrants also meant the cheap labour for the industrial factories of employers. Gerber lists the third wave as the recent decades, in other words, the post-1965 period. This date is important because the amendments in the Immigration and Nationality Act of 1965 [4] in the United States marked the open gates for the immigrants by omitting the national origins quota system. This Act abolishes the quota system based on the national origin, and instead, allocates visas for those with priorities such as the 'immediate relatives' of the citizens of the US. In this regard, this third wave differs itself from the previous waves. This sort of an open doors policy has its disadvantages as well as its welcoming aspects, though. This immigration wave is the signal of the illegal or undocumented position of the newcomers. Since the majority of the immigrants are non-white, they are most likely to be discriminated in political, social and economic terms in the American society. Additionally, the last wave led to the changes in the opportunity structure of the US as the country was de-industrialized, thereby, offering less-paying jobs and a different socioeconomic status [2, P. 3].

The issue of discrimination towards the non-white was observable throughout the whole process

of immigration. The immigrants faced several harsh treatments during the registration processes at the immigrant inspection stations at certain border cities of the United States such as Ellis Island and Angel Island.

When it comes to the main question of this section, there is a lot to be examined to answer. Ethnicity of a group plays a major role in determining the attitudes towards that group particularly in the American society. As for the population of Mexican immigrants in the US, they constitute the highest proportion of immigrants, accounting for 29 percent of immigrants according to the 2000 Census [9, 109]. This does not stop there, of course, since there is always an immigration wave from Mexico to the United States. Furthermore, Jiménez asserts that the continuing flow of Mexicans to the US has a considerable impact on their ethnic-identity formation [5, 1530]. This ethnic identity also gets stronger when the Mexican Americans are exposed to the nativist approaches by particularly white ethnics. Higham defines nativism as “an intense opposition to an internal minority on the ground of its foreign or native connections.” For this reason, the discrimination among the American society might take a radical form [3, P.4]. Jiménez shares his observations in his article by presenting pieces of speech from 123 interviews he has carried out with later-generation Mexican Americans in two cities of the US, Garden City, Kansas, and Santa Maria, California [5, P. 1527–1567]. Later-generation Mexican Americans constitute the last generation of the Mexicans who are the grandchildren of the first generation immigrants. They are mostly born in the US. The second generation Mexicans are the children of the first generation Mexican immigrants. In his interviews, Jiménez observes the signs of the structural assimilation in the second and later generation Mexican Americans by demonstrating reasons such as persistent discrimination, low human capital and hourglass economy [5, P. 1535]. He adds that intermarriage is another key figure in determining assimilation in Mexican Americans as they also

create symbolic ethnicity among whites so the Mexican Americans can comfort to the life with another person from a different origin [5, P. 1536]. It is important to mention the significance of the loose ties to the connections in Mexico for the last generation Mexican Americans. For these reasons, the gap between the first generation and the later-generation Mexican Americans gets more visible as the former still keeps its traditional ties while the latter are more assimilated due to the afore-mentioned factors.

The reasons for the assimilation process of the Mexican Americans, as illustrated before, actually date back to the discriminative attitudes between the white and the non-white ethnics within the migratory history of the US. Those attitudes led Mexican Americans, particularly the second and later generations, to naturally go into an assimilatory process. This process has its negative impacts when it comes to the losing connections between the first and the later generation Mexicans. It also has its positive sides since it has enabled the Mexican Americans to integrate better with the rest of the American society and culture. In this regard, the assimilatory effect on the Mexican Americans accordingly changes the course of their relations with the other segments of the society from different ethnics.

II. Migratory history of Turkish immigrants in Germany

Turkish immigration to Germany takes three major waves to be analysed. First massive immigration has been facilitated by the guest worker program, while the second wave majorly based on the reunification of the families of the first-wave workers. Ultimately, the last and the current wave was marked by the German-born individuals within Turkish families and the importation of Turkish women for marriage [10, 420].

Although the guest worker program was planned for the time period between 1961 and 1973 in a rotational manner in which each worker would stay for two years only, and then they would be replaced by the new workers from Turkey for another two years

[7]. By this way, more people would benefit from the employment program initiated by the German government of the time period. However, this rotation of Turkish workers did not turn out to be how it was previously planned. These workers would rather stay in Germany and keep working under a company or run their own business than go back to Turkey and try to survive as an unemployed person or work with a low salary particularly when it was then hard to find a job in their home country.

Sometime later, when it became clear that these Turkish workers decided to settle in there to spend their lifetime, at least till their retirement for some, the married ones wanted their families (spouses and children) with them so they would provide their families with better standards of living compared to the one in Turkey. This would be the stage of “re-unification of families” constituting the second wave of Turkish immigration to Germany. However, this dream of living in higher standards in a seemingly wealthy European country turns out to be a sort of disappointment for them. According to Katzenson, Germany’s assimilationist model for immigrants created an immigrant society which feels “isolated, alienated, and lost”, and this led especially Turks to be oriented by the Muslim faith [6, 38]. Mueller, likewise, defines such an immigrant community as the “parallel society” since such groups are culturally and socially so isolated that they are driven into their traditional and cultural values, which is also described as the phenomenon of “back to the Turkish roots” [10, P. 432]. Such an isolated image would push the Turks connect more with the Islamist organizations or mosques to strengthen their collective identity as Turks in Germany. This approach towards a kind of “fundamentalism” does not offer any hope for integration of the Turks nor do the Germans desire this group to be a part of a potential cultural assimilation. As a result of this, most native Germans distance themselves from Muslim immigrants, most of who are composed of Turkish residents. Mueller defines such an alienated situation, which leads the im-

migrant groups to return to their ethnic origins to form a strong cultural or religious solidarity among themselves, as “distantiation of the Turks from the German society” in particular [10, P. 436]. Consequently, the concept of cultural or social integration is pushed away even more by the tense distance created between different segments of the society. This phenomenon of *distantiation* might also result from a class-based distinction among Turkish origin people as well since white collar Turkish people having relatively prestigious jobs, even though they constitute a very small part of the Turkish-origin immigrants, do normally get along with their German counterparts.

The striking features of the last wave of Turkish migration to Germany are those children who were born into the Turkish families in Germany, and Turkish women brought from Turkish rural areas upon the request of Turkish men in Germany for the purpose of marriage. This aspect of expansion of families within the same ethnic, cultural and religious sphere also tells a lot about the conventionalist nature of the Turkish community whose residency is concentrated in certain areas of Germany, such as Kreuzberg district of Berlin. The increasing tendency to be a member of the afore-mentioned Islamist organizations is another mark of such conventionalism. These communities are so isolated and alienated from the rest of the German society that they feel the need of over-emphasizing their own ethnic and religious identity by gathering under such collective organizations. In this regard, the act of resorting to participate in such organizations by even the second and later-generation German Turks demonstrates the disintegrative behaviour of this community actually as a reaction against the disfavouring approach of the native Germans, including the government officials, towards the immigrant groups, particularly Turkish-origin people as the largest one among them.

The policies on immigration in Germany were quite strict and unfriendly for immigrants for a long time until the German government was pushed in

the early 2000s by the EU to take some serious policy measures for the better integration of foreigners into the society. These measures would also bring about a shift in the notion that “Germany is not a country of immigration” as stated in the Transatlantic Council on Migration in 2009 [12, P. 1]. Even though the government has paid many efforts in producing integrative policies for immigrants, it has still been seen inadequate in various areas such as “integration and social cohesion”, “equality for third-country nationals”, and “modern labour migration policies” [12, P. 1]. The major blocker behind this inadequacy of providing or encouraging integration seems to be the economic crisis that Germany has been going through. Due to this crisis, labour market protectionism allowing mostly domestic workers to have more job opportunities was highly supported. As a consequence, there has been a high number of unemployment among immigrant workers. The estimated one-third of the working German Turks found themselves unemployment all of a sudden during the German economic recession of 2001–2 [10, P. 435]. This high rate of unemployment among immigrant minorities also leads to a negative effect on their social relations with the German nationals. As a result of such dramatic socioeconomic image of the majority of immigrants, the afore-mentioned phenomenon of distantiation becomes inevitable. For the reasons listed above, the German government is found to be unsuccessful in accomplishing neither social integration nor cultural assimilation of immigrant groups, especially Turkish-origin communities.

III. Comparing linguistic integration of Mexicans in the US and Turks in Germany

The linguistic reflections of several generations of Mexicans residing in the United States and Turks in Germany will be discussed in this section by mentioning integrative policies. Looking at the whole journey of immigrant groups, both of them carried their own cultural values to somewhere they were unfamiliar with at first, and this paved the way for the establishment of a rather different and unique form of

cultural activities still surviving in the migrated lands. Mexican Americans seem to be culturally invading especially the southern American lands by their high use of the Spanish language, festivals of Cinco de Mayo (Cinco de Mayo (The Fifth of May) is the yearly celebration of the Mexican victory over the French at the Battle of Puebla in 1862.) (The Fifth of May) and Dia de los Muertos (Dia de los Muertos (Day of the Dead) is celebrated on November 1 to honour the dead. The message of this day is to see death as a part of life, and celebrate it instead of mourning after the dead. This celebration is also associated with Catholic and Aztec rituals.) (Day of the Dead), and restaurants of Taco. Similarly, there is a cultural invasion in Germany by Turkish immigrants who maintain their values with the use of Turkish, religious holidays of Ramadan and the Feast of Sacrifice, and their restaurants or shops serving Doner Kebab. All these cultural factors can still survive outside one's homeland. This is actually what Mexican Americans and German Turks did in the first place, and they still keep these rituals alive inside the regional communities they formed to solidify their cultural identity. The reason behind this act of protecting one's own culture wherever they go seems to be the result of the conventionalist nature of both immigrant groups. According to Koumakhov, “conventionalist rules of linguistic or scientific behaviour appear as specific examples of rules of action. This makes it possible to apply conventionalist tenets in different ways to study other areas of social interaction” [8, 225]. Drawing from this argument, it is observed that both immigrant groups reflect their conventionalist behaviour by the act of using their native languages either within a small sphere or in larger public spheres. Likewise, this also has something to do with ‘staying in the safe zone’. People have the tendency of feeling safe with the ‘unchanged’ or ‘conventional’ in this case due to several reasons such as not feeling proficient in certain subjects in the migrated society. Particularly the immigrant societies want to live and communicate in the safer way since they perceive their close settlements

and the use of their native language as such. Savaş, in his study of linguistic education of immigrant groups, exemplifies this situation as follows: “For instance, a great number of Turkish people in Germany prefer living together in the same districts of towns not only because rents are low there, but they feel safe as they do not speak German fluently and find it difficult to integrate with the German society” [11, 267]. Similar image can be attributed to the Mexican immigrants in the southern states of the United States. They form their own community in a specific district, and speak Spanish, sometimes reflected as *Spanglish*, (Spanglish is the name for the mixed use of Spanish and English mostly by Mexican Americans living at the southern states of the US.), to express their cultural identity as well as their conventional attitude towards language.

The use of native language by immigrant groups in question is quite widespread in the country to which they have migrated. Both first-generation Mexicans and Turks were linguistically insufficient when they first went to a foreign country where they were hired as temporary workers. The blockage of communication between the new immigrant groups and the natives of the land was a big problem for both parties. The immigrants could not actively engage in a conversation with the natives, therefore, there has been a social distance between the immigrants and the native citizens. The children of these families were raised in a small environment such as the family house or the district in which most of the community is composed of the immigrants in the similar profile with themselves. Only the latest generation of immigrants were able to speak the language of the country hosting them. This was provided mostly thanks to the integration of some native languages (Spanish for Mexican-origin people and Turkish for Turkish-origin people) into the educational programmes of schools. Even then, there is a huge deficiency in the language of the migrated country for these immigrant people. According to a research in Berlin, “two-thirds of the children from disadvantaged families require

supplementary language training” [10, P. 431]. These linguistic barriers apparently lead to the failure at school as well. Having sufficient skills in language would also be effective in finding better job opportunities after a certain age. Similarly, a research conducted by Davila and Mora at the US-Mexico border suggests that “(...) English proficiency affects labor market outcomes in geographic areas which depend on a minority language suggests that residents with poor English fluency should have access overall linguistic skills. One method to achieve this goal is through educational programs designed for limited-English-proficient children” [1, 153–154]. In short, it is acceptable to say that the integration of linguistic programs as a governmental policy should still be worked on for the reason that the immigrant groups can easily communicate with the rest of the society as well as find better jobs.

Conclusion

The continuing lives of both Mexicans in the United States and Turks in Germany are filled with various challenges as they try to survive in an environment where they are not very welcome. This challenging process of integration in terms of language shows that the immigrant communities could not fully adapt to the hosting culture, even though there is a small minority who majorly succeeds in this integration at the educational and marital level. The major reason behind these missing linguistic programmes could be thought as the disfavoured approach of the governmental policies of the migrated countries for both the case of Mexicans and Turks. Considering all the factors that contribute to the failure of the linguistic integration majorly due to the conventionalist understanding of culture of the immigrant groups, both Mexicans in the United States and Turks in Germany cannot have full rights in equal education or employment. Even though several language courses for the better integrative process of the immigrants were employed by the European Union and the States, they do not stand sufficient without the willingness of the immigrants and the positive attitude of native

people towards these immigrant groups. In conclusion, the linguistic integration of the Mexicans in the US and Turks in Germany has a long way to be fully accomplished.

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THE FESTIVAL OF UKRAINIAN SINGING POETRY «OBERIG» IN TIME AND SPACE

Abstract: The aim of the article is to highlight the establishment and development of the first Ukrainian festival of singing poetry “Oberig”. The role of the festival in popularizing Ukrainian music and singing poetry is analyzed in article.

Keywords: “Oberig”, festival, Lutsk, singing poetry.

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ФЕСТИВАЛЬ УКРАЇНСЬКОЇ СПІВАНОЇ ПОЕЗІЇ «ОБЕРІГ» У ЧАСІ І ПРОСТОРИ

Анотація: У статті здійснено спробу висвітлити історію виникнення та становлення першого в Україні фестивалю співаної поезії «Оберіг». Проаналізовано роль фестивалю в популяризації української музики та співаної поезії.

Ключові слова: «Оберіг», фестиваль, Луцьк, співана поезія.

Пік популярності української авторської пісні припав на завершення вісімдесятих років минулого століття. Теми відродження незалежності, історичної пам'яті, духовності були новими і хвилюючими для суспільства. В часи, коли преса ще не була вільною від впливу влади, і такі питання не піднімалися у ЗМІ, пісня стала важливою, адже мала публічність, відкрито висловлювала думки народу у влучно зібраних пісенних рядках. Саме наприкінці 80-х – початку 90-х років проводяться перші конкурси і фестивалі, які збирають україномовних виконавців поетичного слова.

«Волинь, — як зазначає дослідниця Лариса Ігнатова, — можна назвати початківцем, адже «Оберіг-89» був проведений ... за чотири місяці до першої «Червоної рути» і сколихнув всю Україну»

[4, 86]. Проте, на відміну від останнього, «Оберіг» залишився поза увагою науковців, пам'ять про нього існує, напевно, лише в причетних до фестивалю людей. Саме тому виникає потреба дослідити історію виникнення першого в Україні фестивалю авторської пісні та співаної поезії, який, власне, і започаткував жанр, висвітлити розвиток фестивалю, зібрати якомога більше відомостей про організаторів, учасників, лауреатів та гостей дійства, адже зведеної інформації на сьогодні не існує. Межі однієї статті не дозволяють повністю розглянути поставлені завдання, тому у статті охоплено лише створення та перший етап проведення фестивалю – до середини 90-х рр. XX ст.

Загальні тенденції фестивальної роботи в Україні з часів незалежності висвітлювалися

в працях С. Зуєва, М. Шведа, О. Дячкової, О. Москвічової, С. Чернецької та інших українських науковців. Фестивалі Луцька в плані історії створення, розвитку та трансформації охарактеризовані у наукових дослідженнях лише побіжно. Зокрема історію фестивалю співаної поезії та авторської пісні «Оберіг» висвітлює Лариса Ігнатова у статтях «Музичний салон як феномен сучасної культури», «Фрески у Zaleski» як рецепція салонної культури». Із 1990-х років залишились статті періодичних видань, спогадів учасників та організаторів, які розповідають про перебіг фестивалю того чи іншого року, ними послуговуватимемось при написанні дослідження.

Історія виникнення фестивалю співаної поезії та авторської пісні «Оберіг» є доволі цікавою. Першими ініціаторами проведення дійства були журналіст газети «Молодий лєнінець», громадський діяч Василь Ворон, заступник директора молодіжного центру «Волинь» при Волинському обкомі комсомолу Олексій Левченко, волинський письменник і бард Олег Покальчук. Думка про створення фестивалю співаної поезії виникла фактично під час планування іншого фестивалю – рок-музики. Згідно зі спогадами О. Левченка, він запропонував ідею Василю Ворону 15 травня 1989 р., а у червні цього ж року розпочався перший фестиваль авторської пісні і співаної поезії [2, 50]. Назву «Оберіг» підібрав письменник Олег Покальчук, який теж причетний до бардівського руху, оскільки організував перший вечір української авторської пісні у Київському молодіжному театрі. Директором фестивалю став досвідчений в справах організації масових акцій Олексій Левченко, оформлення сцени довірили художнику Григорію Шкуренку. Богдан Гудзяк, на замовлення дирекції, спеціально виготовив Гран-прі, за звук відповідав учасник групи «Байт» Михайло Мусієнко. До слова, спонсорами фестивалю виступили підприємства та заводи міста.

Реклама «Оберегу» у місцевих засобах масової інформації була малоефективною, але після оголошення на Республіканському телебаченні

коло конкурсантів збільшилось. Виявили бажання брати участь у фестивалі близько тридцяти виконавців із різних куточків України: з Івано-Франківська (Станіслав Щербатих, Левко Бондар, Зоя Слободян, Олесь Данилейко, Володимир Кіндратишин), Світловодська (Володимир Давидов), Харкова (Надія Бурмака), Рівного (Олександр Смик), Дубна (Микола Тимчак), Львова (Василь Жданкін, Андрій Панчишин, Олесь Дяк, Тарас Чубай), Черкас (Едуард Драч), Кіровограда (Володимир Давидов), Києва (Володимир Степашко).

«Оберіг-89» розпочався 9 червня, перший фестивальний день був дуже насиченим, адже у кіноконцертному залі «Москва» виступи конкурсантів тривали з 18 години вечора до 6 ранку! Окрім представників влади до журі входили Олександр Смик (бард, драматург), Олексій Левченко (директор фестивалю). І організатори, і співці відчували відповідальність, адже у залі зібралось близько 1,5 тисячі глядачів (за іншими даними – 1,2)! Не обійшлося і без політичного контексту, КДБ викупило три перші ряди на всі концерти, а коли зі сцени звучали слова на кшталт «Михайло Сергійович, ви не турбуйтеся про Україну, ми тут якось собі раду дамо», організатори боялись заборони фестивалю. В. Ворон згадував у статті видання «Молодий лєнінець» як «екзаменували» директора питаннями про реакцію на можливу появу українського стягу під час виступу виконавців — «Що ви будете робити, коли Морозов (один з найавторитетніших українських бардів — авт.) вийде на сцену під жовто-блакитним прапором?» [3].

Другого конкурсного дня учасники, розділені на групи по 4–6 осіб, відвідали районні центри – Горохів, Нововолинськ, Володимир-Волинський, Ковель, проте, як пригадує О. Левченко, місцеві будинки культури були зачинені. Незважаючи на те, що не вдалось дістатися сцени, співці проводили концерти прямо перед клубами, надворі, збираючи при цьому велику аудиторію. Заключний концерт був на грані зриву, оскільки теж не хотіли впускати у зал.

Подія сколихнула ЗМІ, які розповідали про перебіг дійства, ділились думками організаторів, враженнями конкурсантів. «Фестиваль тільки тоді можна назвати фестивалем, — заявив В. Ворон, — якщо він спроможний подарувати нам хоч одне відкриття. «Оберіг-89» відкрив цілу плеяду бардів...» [3]. Єдиним лауреатом першого фестивалю стала Марія Бурмака з Харкова (тепер уже народна артистка України).

У той час, коли українська преса називала луцький фестиваль генеральною репетицією «Червоної рути», який відбувся на кілька місяців пізніше, організатори «Оберегу» називали змагання співців у Чернівцях «післямовою» до Луцького фестивалю, адже журі у різних номінаціях відзначило багатьох учасників «Оберегу», зокрема Марію Бурмаку, Василя Жданкіна, Едуарда Драча, Андрія Панчишина, Володимира Давидова, Володимира Кіндратишина.

Оголошення про проведення «Оберегу-90», окрім місцевої преси, подавали до видання «Культура і життя», у результаті відгукнулось аж 300 виконавців! Учасниками були волиняни і гості з Рівненської, Житомирської, Черкаської, Тернопільської, Закарпатської, Київської, Чернігівської, Кіровоградської, Львівської, Миколаївської, Одеської областей. Саме через велику кількість охочих, довелося провести попередній відбір і обрати близько 70 виконавців.

Імпреза отримує міжнародний розголос, до Луцька завітали представники української діаспори з Чехословаччини (Василь Чинч) та Югославії (Олекса і Славка Павлиші), директор українських програм радіостанції «Свобода» в Мюнхені Богдан Нагайло, голова об'єднання українців у Польській Республіці Юрі Райт.

Чотири концерти тривали 5–6 годин у приміщенні кінотеатру «Промінь». Журналіст Василь Ворон та викладач Луцького педінституту Лариса Петліб були ведучими дійства. На сцені рясно замайоріли жовто-блакитні прапори (у зв'язку зі скасуванням 106 статті Конституції про доміну-

ючу роль компартії). Вхід відбувався за квитками, оскільки разом із зростаючою популярністю «Оберегу» та його конкурсантів, збільшилась кількість бажаючих відвідати захід. Нововведенням фестивалю 1990 року стала заміна журі глядацьким голосуванням.

Шукаючи «плюси і мінуси» фестивалю журналіст Валентина Штинько висловила зауваження, що, на жаль, багатьом виконавцям не вдалося уникнути спекулювання на найболючіших і найактуальніших темах, демонструючи відвертий несмак і відсутність не лише політичної, а й загальнолюдської культури [10].

Залишились поза увагою преси інформація про дозвілля учасників, чи вдалось організаторам втілити в життя раніше озвучені плани: концерти у містах області, вечір молодой української поезії та співаної поезії, поетичний турнір, досвідки у нічних клубах, чи відбувся круглий стіл, на попередньо озвучену тему «Українська авторська пісня: між минулим і майбутнім»?

Кращі конкурсанти повезли додому статуетки «Берегині», серед них і закордонні гості. Волинянин Сергій Шишкін був нагороджений почесним призом, а киянка Надійка Купчинська завоювала приз глядацьких симпатій.

На третій фестиваль співаної поезії та авторської пісні «Оберіг-91», що відбувся 5–9 червня, записалось майже 200 учасників, тому організатори проводили попередні прослуховування. Серед почесних гостей дійства були Марія Маланчук, Євген Білоус, Георгій Туркевич, Надія Киричук, Ігор Качуровський, Богдан Осадчук, Андрій Левицький, Богдан Матвійчук, Петро Пеленський, Володимир Яворівський, Іван Драч, Дмитро Павличко, Лесь Танюк, Віталій Коротич. Чимало нових імен відкрив фестиваль того року, наприклад, серед лауреатів та дипломантів були Ольга Богомолець, Іван Козаченко, Ігор Жук, вперше брав участь В'ячеслав Хурсенко.

Проте «Оберіг-91» засвідчив чимало проблем і прорахунків організаційного плану, внаслідок чого,

як зазначає преса, були і слабкі виконавці, концерти розпочиналися із запізненням, не було вироблено чітких критеріїв визначення лауреатів. Багато учасників із сумом говорили, що втрачається та приваблива, доброзичливо-творча атмосфера, яка панувала на першому фестивалі. Висловлювались сумніви, чи відбудеться він наступного року [10].

Для обговорення недоліків та вирішення подальшої долі дійства, наприкінці того ж 1991 р. було проведено круглий стіл, за участі музикознавців із Києва та Львова, режисера «Оберегу-91» С. Архипчука, завідуючого відділом музичних програм Українського телебачення Віктора Ліфанчука. До речі, саме він запропонував надати фестивалю статусу телевізійного. Щоб не повторювати помилок у виборі учасників, заплановано створити так зване «Коло фестивалю», куди ввійдуть представники дирекції та визнані лауреати (В. Жданкін, М. Бурмака, О. Покальчук), які здійснюватимуть відбір учасників.

Через непорозуміння між організаторами, у 1992 році було проведено два однойменних фестивалі — червневий і липневий. Всеукраїнський телевізійний фестиваль авторської пісні та співаної поезії «Оберіг-92» проходив із 8 по 12 липня під керівництвом директора попередніх імпрез О. Левченка та режисера-постановника С. Архипчука. Художньою концепцією фестивалю стала творчість Григорія Сковороди. «Мандрівками до саду пісень» назвали організатори оглядові концерти, відображалась загальна ідея і в оформленні сцени. Також запровадили дві форми відбору учасників: перша – прослуховування касет із записами виконавців (три пісні), друга – зорові оглядові концерти.

Три вечори підряд на сцену кіноконцертного залу «Промінь» виходили учасники та гості фестивалю. З-за кордону приїхали Віра Гайдамаха (Мюнхен) та відомий актор Олексій Петренко (Москва). Найвищими відзнаками були великі «Берегині», отримали ці нагороди і стали відкриттям «Оберегу-92» акторка з Києва Ганна

Лев, композитор і бард Анатолій Горчинський та Петро Приступов, який 20 років вивчає творчість Григорія Сковороди, співає пісні на його тексти, що влучно поєднувалось із концепцією дійства. Такими ж нагородами відзначено Любу Білаш з Канади, Ігоря Жука, Олега Покальчука, Василя Жданкіна, Віктора Непомняшого, Зою Слободян і Ладу Горбенко, гурти «Чорні черешні» та «АС», «Країна Рось», Марію Бурмаку, Стаса Щербатих, Олега Різника. Малою «Берегинею» нагороджено як виконавців, так і волинських художників, роботи яких розміщувались на виставці у вестибюлі кіноконцертного залу «Промінь».

Волинські ЗМІ загалом позитивно відгукнулись про дійство — «...не було, практично, халтури, сірості, одноманітності. Звучали тут і ліричні, і філософські, і сатиричні твори...», «...Програма фестивалю була розмаїтою, барвистою, насиченою» [5].

На жаль про червневий «Оберіг» практично немає відомостей, з преси відомо лише, що переможцем став Володимир Смотровитель із Хмельницького, а лауреатами — Валерій Марченко з Дубна, Андрій Саєнко зі Львова та Віктор Нестерук із Радехова.

10–13 червня відбувся «Оберіг-93», який проводили Луцький міськвиконком та фірма «Оберіг», директором став Володимир Мазур, а режисером — Олександр Смик. Фестиваль проходив у майже порожньому залі обласного музично-драматичного театру ім. Т. Шевченка. Як зазначає журналіст К. Корецька, дійство швидше можна було назвати конкурсом, тому що виконавці, які приїхали з різних областей України, фактично слухали самих себе, лише гала-концерт зібрав більшу глядацьку аудиторію (до речі, він напругу транслявався по Українському радіо) [6]. Причинами були відсутність належної реклами (афіші з'явилися лише за два дні до дійства) та інформації про вільний вхід на всі концерти. У гості завітали майже всі лауреати минулорічної оберегівської акції, які були і членами журі. Із 70 претендентів

на участь у заключних концертах було відібрано лише 24, це свідчить про не досить високий рівень майстерності конкурсантів. Переможці, яких визначили журі, були несподіванкою для глядачів. Перше місце присвоєно Лілії та Володимиру Загороднім із Володимира-Волинського, друге — Оксані Попович із Нововолинська, третю сходинку завоював дует Лілії та Діани Михальчуків з Рівного. Окрім грошових премій переможцям, були і спеціальні номінації та призи для учасників. Проте найяскравішими зірками фестивалю, як на диво, преса назвала не співаків, а поетів — О.Ірванця та В. Цибулька, які викликали фурор серед глядачів.

Зовсім іншим був телефестиваль «Оберіг-93», який змінив не лише час (цього року проходив з 21 по 24 жовтня), а й отримав нову локацію – ресторан «Лучеськ». Фестиваль відбувся у синкретизмі з новим артпроектом луцького художника Миколи Кумановського під назвою «Лабіринт». Із першого дня імпрези думки учасників «Оберегу» про поєднання авторської пісні та наукових дискусій на тему герметизму та герметичності мистецтва були найрізноманітнішими, проте більшість вважала такий експеримент цікавим. Окрім виконавців, фестиваль зібрав письменників, літературознавців, філософів, художників, серед них Оксана Забужко, Богдан Жолдак, Максим Розумний, Юрко Гедзь, Неда Неждана. Першого дня співці і поети виступали на підприємствах та установах Луцька, а учасники «Лабіринту» презентували проект герметизму. «Оберіг» в поході — таку назву мав концерт другого фестивального дня у ресторані «Лучеськ». Аншлаги зібрала заключна акція – «Бенкет мистецтв». Великими «Берегинями» серед бардів відзначені С. Мороз, Н. Бучель, тріо «Білий вітер», І. Бичков, С. Щербатих, група «Чорні черешні». Малі «Берегині» отримали К. Кольцова, З. Слободян, О. Покальчук, С. Пиркало, І. Жук, О. Богомолець, О. Різник, «Вій» та «Біокорд». Серед учасників «Лабіринту» найвищі нагороди завоювали український

піаніст, музикознавець Йозеф Ермін та Роман Дубінніков із Санкт-Петербурга, «який майже півгодини «тримав» зал у полоні шаманської медитації» [9]. Несподіванкою став спецприз, який отримав волинський гуморист і сатирик Кость Шишко. Як зазначають учасники та організатори, атмосфера «Оберегу-93» наблизилась до елітарності та камерності.

У жовтні 1994 р., всупереч фінансовим труднощам, відбувся шостий фестиваль авторської пісні та співаної поезії «Оберіг», останній у 90-х рр. Спонсором виступило підприємство, очолюване О. Левченком. За творчим задумом головного режисера та ведучого С. Архипчука, «Оберіг-94» мав назву «Місту і світові», якою організатори прагнули привернути увагу до співаної поезії та авторської пісні народжених містом. Три фестивальних концерти склались із тематичних розділів: «Оберіг почуттів» із творами ліричного характеру, до «Візерунку цнот» входили гумор та сатира, твори «на злобу дня» і філософського змісту поєднував розділ «Оберіг» — на часі та «Оберіг» — дітям». Цього року не відкрилось багато нових імен, натомість глядачі змогли почути уже відомих та улюблених виконавців — учасників та лауреатів попередніх фестивалів, проте, і вони дивували. Зокрема, неочікуваним був дует В. Жданкіна і відомого актора О. Петренка, які познайомились на «Оберезі-92», ідея заспівати разом виникла у фестивальні дні і у інших виконавців — З. Слободян і П. Приступова.

Директор дійства О. Левченко наголошував, що «Оберіг» єдиний із українських фестивалів зареєстрований у каталозі «Фестивалі світу» [1]. Підтвердженням цих слів були виступи колективів із Великобританії. Дивували луцьку публіку імпровізаційно-авангардовий дует Ніка Колдрі (клавішні) та Джима Денлі (духовні) і джаз-попкантрі колектив під назвою «Бєбі тріо». Вперше за шестирічну історію, через неможливість визначити найдостойніших, традиційні відзнаки «Берегині» вирішили не присуджувати нікому.

Наступного року фестиваль не відбувся, проте не варто недооцінювати значення виникнення «Оберегу» для становлення та посилення авторитету нового жанру у музичному житті України — жанру авторської пісні та співаної поезії.

Перші «Обереги» носили особливу загострену атмосферу патріотизму, національно-культурного розвитку. Саме на «Оберезі» «лицарі гітари із молодечим запалом доводили до серцевих нападів радянських чиновників, говорячи зі сцени про

те, про що говорили ми хіба що на кухні — про незалежність України, про невідворотність змін, що зріли у суспільстві» [8]. Згодом до фестивалів долучались митці різних напрямів, перетворивши його на загальномистецьке дійство. За шість років існування «Оберіг» відкрив чимало нових імен, декотрі з них назавжди пов'язали своє життя зі сценою і стали визнаними лідерами в жанрі співаної поезії та авторської пісні, відомими українськими виконавцями.

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Section 3. Philology and linguistics

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COMPLETIVE ATTRIBUTIVE SYNTACTICALLY INDIVISIBLE WORD COMBINATIONS IN THE MODERN UKRAINIAN LANGUAGE

Abstract:

Objectives: to characterize a completive attributive type of syntactically indivisible word combinations.

Methods: observation, generalization, descriptive, transformational and modeling methods.

Findings: in the syntactic system of modern Ukrainian, the study of the word combination traditionally comes to syntactically free phrases. Comprehensive study of syntactically indivisible word combinations as a specific type in the late 20th–early 21st centuries enabled the development of a semantic typology of syntactically indivisible word combinations. Since the core component of such word combinations does not possess sufficient semantic completeness to be considered the part of a sentence and performs only a structural function, the main meaning is conveyed by a dependent word. These word combinations generally express the complement meaning. In linguistics, two semantic types of syntactically indivisible word combinations are singled out: completive itself and syncretic. Completive attributive syncretic type of word combinations is based on the fundamental relations – completive, accompanied by attributive relations. Attributive relations express the relation of an attribute expressed by a dependent attributive component to the presentive meaning transmitted by a core component. Four semantic subtypes of completive attributive syncretic word combinations are singled out. In syntactically indivisible word combinations of the attributive subordinate type, concretizing (dependent) component, together with the core one, expresses a single notion, creating an informatively sufficient complex. The absence of an attributive component does not allow for object characterization. Its elimination makes the syntactically indivisible structure semantically defective and destroys it.

Scientific novelty: for the first time ever the article reveals the investigation of semantic subtypes of completive attributive syncretic word combinations on the basis of the mentioned above methods; besides, semantic peculiarities of their core and dependent components are characterized.

Practical relevance: semantic subtypes of completive attributive syntactically indivisible word combinations will expand the theoretical and practical material of Ukrainian grammar in general and the theory of indivisible syntactic units in particular.

Keywords: syntactically indivisible word combination, completive relations, attributive relations, core component, dependent component, completive attributive word combination.

Introduction

Syntactically indivisible word combinations form a separate type in the system of word combinations in the modern Ukrainian language. Linguists began to study them actively in the second half of the 20th century. The study of syntactically indivisible word combinations was limited mainly to the peculiarities of their structure [6; 8] and their syntactic role in the sentence [7; 11; 3; 5; 9]. The issue of their semantic typology remained beyond the researchers' attention.

Research findings

In the modern Ukrainian language, two approaches to the typology of word combinations in terms of semantic and syntactic relations have been formed. Representatives of the first approach have singled out three types of syntactically free word combinations:

1) attributive (defining) — the relation of an attribute to an object, for example, *обдарований художник, зошит учня* etc.;

2) substantive — the relation of an object to the action, process, condition and other characteristics, for example, *принести води, писати лист матері* etc.;

3) adverbial — the relation of circumstances to the action, process, condition, quality, etc., for example, *працювати влітку, творити для прийдешнього* etc. [2, P. 207–208].

Suggested typology of word combinations is too generalized and cannot be applied to the typology of syntactically indivisible word combinations.

According to some linguists, mainly N. Yu. Shvedova and A. P. Zahnitko, it is the completive relationship that identifies syntactically indivisible word combinations in the syntactic system of the Ukrainian language [10, P. 16–19; 4, P. 17]. Completive relation is a specific type of content relationships that appears when the main word in a word combination requires an informative addition, and the dependent word provides this main word with this necessary content com-

plement. Due to such a content complement, the main and dependent words together form an informatively sufficient complex [10, P. 16–19]. N. Yu. Shvedova suggests that the dependent word always has a more definite and more specific lexical meaning than the grammatically main one. Since components of such a word combination “have no properties of separability” from the point of view of the content [10, P. 16], one of them, informatively insufficient, is complemented by another, which ensures informativeness of the indivisible unity in general.

M. V. Balko points to the complexity and ambiguity of distinguishing the types of semantic and syntactic relations in syntactically indivisible word combinations. She distinguishes between two types of such relations: 1) completive themselves; 2) syncretic [1, P. 42–48].

Syncretic indivisible word combinations result from the transition phenomenon. Syncretism of their semantic and syntactical relations is manifested in their ability or capability to combine several meaning simultaneously.

Syncretic syntactically indivisible word combinations are based on the specific type of semantic and syntactic relation — completive relationships. In general, these word combinations convey complement meaning, since their main word does not possess semantic completeness to be a part of the sentence and performs only a structural function, and the main meaning is concentrated in a dependent word itself.

On the basis of M. V. Balko's classification of semantic and syntactic relations within integral word combinations [1, P. 45–46], we single out completive attributive syntactically indivisible word combination.

Completive attributive type of indivisible word combination is based on basic relations — completive, accompanied by attributive relations. Attributive relations express the relation of an attribute to an object. Completive attributive relations determine

the grammatical meaning of syncretic indivisible word combinations.

Compleitive attributive type combines the following semantic subtypes:

1. Dependent attributive component defines the feature of the core component of abstract semantics. Core and dependent components form an informatively sufficient complex. The core component has no semantic completeness; therefore, it requires an obligatory dependent attributive component. “Inferiority” of the core noun component is concerned with the failure of the latter to serve an independent function in syntactic terms. That is why the dependent component carries the major semantic load of a particular sentence member.

The dependent component combines with a core component expressed by a synsemantic noun, e.g. *чоловік, жінка, річ, справа, суб'єкт, тип, істота, штука, факт* etc. A typical form of its expression is an adjective in the nominative case or in the generic case with the preposition *з/із* (with), less often – a noun in the generic case. Compleitive attributive type with an informatively insufficient word of abstract semantics encompasses four subtypes in which attributive relationships have different manifestations:

a) the dependent attributive component defines the feature of a noun having an *indefinite substantive meaning*, compare: *серйозна справа, штука безжалісна, страшне діло* etc. For example: *Корупція — справа серйозна* (День, 17.06.16); *Війна — річ дуже небезпечна...* (О. Жолдак). The dependent component defines the feature as particularly important for the characterization of an object, a concept, etc., expressed by the core noun component;

b) the dependent attributive component points to the feature of the noun for the definition of a *generic notion*, compare: *одне з найбільших озер, один з найбільших островів* etc. For example: *Синевір — одне із найбільших озер українських Карпат* (Поступ, 10.10.15). This attribute may be expressed to a greater or lesser extent in comparison with other objects.

Sometimes the meaning of an object expressed by a noun in the form of a non prepositional generic case, serves as an attribute of the noun, compare: *одне із джерел інформації — одне з інформаційних джерел*. For example, *Але чутки — одне із джерел інформації* (В. Косенко);

c) the dependent attributive component indicates the feature of a noun having an *indefinite-personal meaning*, such as: *сучасна жінка, хороша людина*, etc. For example, *Еней був парубок моторний* (І. Котляревський); *Хороша людина — це не професія* (Брати Капранови). The core noun component has the meaning of a person, and the dependent attribute component refers to a particular feature, mainly for positive characteristic of such a person;

d) the dependent attributive component defines the feature of a noun, expressed in *prepositional-nominal and case forms*, such as *з очима, з носом, з обличчям, віку, росту, характеру, поглядом, голосом*, etc., compare: *з круглим обличчям, з білявим волоссям, статечного віку, неспокійного характеру*. For example, *Учора на прощання вїт із тхориними — швидкими й боязкими — очима також попросив для пораненого мадяра мазі* (М. Матіос); *Сухорлявий чоловік, з запалими, замащеними глиною щоками, шукав капелюха* (Ірина Вільде). The core noun component names parts of the human body, its physical or mental characteristics, etc. The dependent attributive component reflects a permanent somatic or additional feature in order to emphasize on the mentioned characteristics of a person, less often — a creature.

In syntactically indivisible word combinations, for medial attributive subordinate word combinations, the concretizing (dependent) component, together with the core one, express a single notion. The absence of an attributive component makes it impossible to characterize the object. Its elimination makes an indivisible construction semantically defective and destroys it.

2. Dependent attributive component defines the feature of a core component with a *specific substantive meaning*. The core component of this subtype in its

lexical meaning corresponds to the general syntactic meaning of the sentence part, and the dependent one specifies it, compare: *з огляду на складні обставини, о шостій годині, цього тижня, наступного дня* etc. A dependent attributive component defines a feature according to specific time characteristic, importance/unimportance for someone or something, usefulness/uselessness for someone or something. It is expressed by an adjective, a numeral or a pronoun. For example, *Одного вечора ми після довгої наради вирішили, що Макс буде дбати про городину...* (Ю. Винничук); *Напевно, з огляду на той незначний факт* йому й доручило захекане товариство належним чином зустріти високоповажного гостя (Я. Лижник).

3. The dependent attributive component defines the feature of a core component with an *indefinite meaning*. In this completive attributive subtype, the core component is expressed by an indefinite pronoun, and the dependent one defines a qualitative feature. The adjective form of the dependent component is not completely substantiated, since it retains the attributive meaning typical of adjectives or participles. The attributive substantive meaning of the dependent component is syncretic in terms of morphological characteristics. For example, *Мабуть, **хтось неприємний** спав йому на гадку, коли намагався мене впізнати* (Ю. Винничук); ***Щось** вогке обпекло руку* (М. Стельмах).

It is characteristic that in this subtype of the completive attributive syntactically indivisible word combination, indefinite pronouns are often combined with definite pronouns *такий, інший* forming semantically indivisible unities. Pronoun *інший*, performing the syntactic function of the attribute, serves to distinguish or contrast the defined object, person or phenomenon to a known or previous subject or a known person. For example, Пилип. ...

Прийшла статистика, що земство не платитиме вже за ховрахів... Денис. Обдурюй **когось іншого!** (М. Кропивницький); *Я не нездужаю, нівроку. А **щось** такеє бачить око...* (Т. Шевченко).

This subtype involves syntactically indivisible word combinations with negative meaning. Their dependent component is lexically limited, because it can be expressed only by the adjective of qualitative semantics such as *добрий, поганий, новий, цікавий* etc. For example, *Було очевидно, що вони десь гуляли, тоді вийшли на майдан, завели танок, і **нічого** тут **дивного** немає, вони так завжди роблять, і ніхто їм не боронить* (В. Діброва); *Я навіть **нічого** лихого не передчуваю* (Ю. Андрухович).

4. The dependent component defines the feature of a core component with *generalized personal meaning*. The dependent component refers to the feature for the identification of a person — pronominal personal nouns or attributive pronominal adjectives *сам, один (=сам)*, compare: *я сам (мене самого, мені самому etc.), я сама (мене самої, мені самій etc.), ми самі (нас самих, нам самим etc.), я одна (мене однієї, мені одній etc.), він один (його одного, йому одному etc.), вона одна (її однієї, їй одній etc.), ми одні (нас одних, нам одним etc.)*. Such person is indicated by pronominal lexemes, particularly *він, вона, вони*. For example, ***Вона одна** підняла голову на своїх ворогів* (В. Козаченко); — *Але ж **він сам** — лікар!.. До останнього... — передражнила Оксана* (Брати Капранови).

Thus, the completive attributive type of syntactically indivisible word combinations combines four semantic subtypes. The syncretic character of completive attributive relations is based on complementation as a specifying completive feature and attributiveness as the expression of the feature of a core component by a dependent component. Completive attributive relations reflect the grammatical meaning of completive attributive syncretic word combinations.

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INVESTIGATION ON THE GOD OF DEATH SOKAR

Abstracts: The initial meaning of the god Sokar's name most likely was «one who kills». Attributions associated with him in the ancient Egyptian culture appear to be caused by the proximity of the phonetic forms of the corresponding words to the pronunciation of his name. In the non-Egyptian traditions the deities closest to Sokar — in one aspect or another of what was associated with them and in their names — were Ishkur, Jesus Christ, Sciras (Athena), Shakra (Indra), Suhrim (Marduk) and Zagreus.

Keywords: the Esquiline, Inbu-Hedj, Iskandar, Scylax, Segomo, Sekhmet, Skanda, Southeast Asia as the initial center of metallurgy, ziggurats as burial places.

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РАЗЫСКАНИЕ О БОГЕ СМЕРТИ СОКАРЕ

Аннотация: Исходным значением имени бога Сокара с наибольшей вероятностью было «тот, кто убивает». Атрибуции, связанные с ним в древнеегипетской культуре, выглядят вызванными близостью фонетических форм соответствующих слов произношению его имени. В неегипетских традициях наиболее близкими к Сокару божествами — теми или иными сторонами того, что с ними связывалось, и их именами — были Загрей, Иисус Христос, Ишкур, Скирада (Афина), Сухрим (Мардук) и Шакра (Индра).

Ключевые слова: зиккураты как места погребений, Инбу-хедж, Искандер, Сегомон, Сехмет, Сканда, Скилак, Эскилин, ЮВА как исходный центр металлургии.

Работа выполнена на основе сочетания компаративно-лексического и иных источников исторической информации. Тематика, разбитая на блоки, рассматривается в соответствующих им параграфах второго и третьего разделов. Египетские, а также шумерские слова как наиболее ранние из дошедших до настоящего времени в письменной форме выделены и, если это возможно, сведены в пары. Написание части слов в подборках сделано более простым. Выводы отмечены звёздочками. Приношу извинения за возможные неточности.

§ 1 Божество Сокар (тема)

Сóкар (египетск. **skr** / **zkr**, др.-греческ. **Σόκαρις**) — одно из древнеегипетских божеств, связываемых со (1) смертью, (2) захоронениями и (3) миром мёртвых. Было также божеством (4) земледелия и (5) ремесла (большой частью, кажется, (5) металлообработки). Известно по меньшей мере со второй половины III тыс. до н. э. Центром почитания Сокара был город (6) Инбу-хедж (египетск. **jnbw-HD**, др.-греческ. **Μέμφις**). Изображалось в облике (7) сокола или (7) сарыча, либо человека (мумифицированного или нет) с головой

этой птицы, иногда — вместе со (8) змеем, в виде (9) холма или сидящим на (10) престоле. На празднествах в его честь люди украшали себя (15) вязе-ницами из (11) лука.

Значение имени «Сокар» неясно. Иероглифически оно могло записываться с детерминативом (12) «ладья», с которой это божество было связано и которая, как считалось тогда, (13) шла под парусом к (14) закату или рассвету, перевоза тех, кто умер. Со временем его объединили с двумя другими верховными божествами Египта: Птахом и Осирисом. Последнее, возможно, было связано с отношением к тем переменам, которые он олицетворял, как к (15) повторяемым, цикличным.

§ 2 Двухконсонантные соответствия

(1a) Египетск. **ski** «уничтожать, гибнуть» ((ст.-славянск. **изгоубити** «погубить» и **изгыбати** «гибнуть»; анемск. **zik** [1], байбай **sEk** [1], будухск. **сакъа-** [1], буна **yasiki** [1], гумузск. **šigya** [1], джерунгск. **sicam** [1], ц.-догонск. **súgó** [1], дувле **saghau** [1], идиш **aoysgeyn** יאויסגען, испанск. **sucumbir**, ительменск. **эзакас**, ц.-киче **Skamik** [1], лилауэт **zuqw-** [1], литовск. **išgaišti**, ц.-луба **sweka** [1], махоу **sàyakè** [1], ю.-миньск. **síkhì** [1], монгольск. **зорсох**, неварск. **sigu** [1], оно **seuki** [1], панаре **usuka** [1], румынск. **a sucoma**, русск. **скончаться**, санскр. **skand** स्कन्द, суэна **sikimai** [1], фуюгск. **usaga** [1], чешск. **skonat**, юэск. **sik1** (mit6) 熄(滅) — «умирать»)). Египетск. **sg**, **sHtm**, **sjkn**, **sk** (**sk**), **sxt**, **zxi** «уничтожать» (шумерск. **šag** и **sugzag** «уничтожать») ((айнск. **ushka**, аккадск. **šagāšu**, албанск. **asgjësoj**, китайск. **shāguāng** 殺光, др.-русс. **сьгноити**, русск. **(и)сконать**, ст.-славянск. **исказити**, эвенкийск. **суксами** — «уничтожать»; санскр. **skanda** «уничтожение» स्कन्द и **Sekandhara** सेकन्धर, таджикск. **Искандари**, турецк. **İskender** — «Александр III Македонский»; санскр. **Skanda** «Сканда» (бог войны и сын Шивы, в одной из традиций — шестиглавый) स्कन्द)). Египетск. **sxm** и **Ska** «убивать» (шумерск. **sag** «убивать») ((айнск. **ashkeuk**,

албанск. **shkatërroj**, английск. **scotch**, блафе **sugodai** [2], бурушаск. **esqayom** [2], готск. **usqiman**, греческ. **σκοτώνω**, гумузск. **šook'u** [2], итальянск. **sgozzare**, кире **sogi** [2], латинск. **succido**, литовск. **sukauti**, маранао **sagpek**, в.-помо **šaak'** [2], португальск. **esgotar**, др.-русс. **оуѣкати**, русск. **скашивать**, суахили **sakata**, французск. **escoffier** и **zigouiller**, ю.-цянск. **šəkəte** [2], ями **zakata(n)** [2] — «убивать»; вьетнамск. **sự giết** «убийство»)). Египетск. **sq** «погибать» ((бакве **saga/saka** [3], баскск. **ezkutatu**, итальянск. **scomparire**, кечуа **siqaykuy** [3], коса **shwaka**, латышск. **izgaist**, польск. **zaginać**, др.-русс. **оскоудѣти**, рутульск. **сугун** [3], тамазигхт **ašk**, цоцильск. **sakch'ay** [3], юкагирск. **сагаа-**, японск. **sugatawokesu** 姿を消す (**kesu** «устранять») — «исчезать»)). ((Др.-греческ. **σκοτός**, грузинск. **sikvdili** სიკვდილი, ительменск. **эсхном**, китайск. **sīkǔ** 死苦, корейск. **sageo** 사거, польск. **skon**, японск. **seikyo** 逝去 и **shikyo** 死去 — «смерть»)).

(1b) Египетск. **Sgnn** «сражаться» и **skw** «бой» ((айси **sagutubu-** [4], билакура **sikwotaga-** [4], даргинск. **уцкес**, с.-догонск. **zεgε** [4], какатайбо **šukati** [4], канури **zəgádin** [4], немецк. **sich schlagen**, с.-саамск. **soahtat** [4], синсауру **sεεg-** [4], тагальск. **sugpuin**, чадунгск. **sek8kja4shai2**, чибча **zecasqua** [4] — «сражаться»; аккадск. **ašgugu**, английск. **scuffle**, итальянск. **scontro**, казахск. **шайқас**, др.-скандинавск. **sókn**, тайск. **šúk** ศึก, хеттск. **zaahhiyaaz** — «бой»; ахтена **sghae** [5], дера **šayà** [5], гусии **esegi** [5], санскр. **skandha** स्कन्ध — «бой, война»; йоруба **ìṣigun**, киргизск. **согуш**, марийск. **согыш**, японск. **sakusen** 作戦 — «война»; ахвахск. **асика** «войска» [6]; ср.-ирландск. **saigteóir**, комск. **sugeèy'** [7], татарск. **сугышчы** — «ратник»; др.-греческ. **σεκούρω** «гладиатор»; лози **sikwenyepa** «витязь»; касситск. **Shugab** «Шугаб» (бог войны?); латинск. **Ségomon** «Сегомон» (бог войны в верованиях галлов, связываемый с орлом или соколом); санскр. **Śakataṛi** शकटारि и **Śukadeva**

शुकदेव — «Кришна» (как божественный воин), **Śákman** «Индра» (бог войны शक्मन्)). Египетск. **sAx(zA)** и **swi** «защищать» ((др.-греческ. **σκεπάω**, казахск. **сақтау**, китайск. **shǒuhù** 守護, литовск. **saugoti**, монгольск. **сахих**, украинск. **захищати**, японск. **shugosuru** 守護する — «защищать»; чаморро **esgaihon** «эскортировать» [8]; турецк. **yasakçı** «стражник»)). Египетск. **sxm** (**e/t/y**) «Сахмет» (богиня войны и защитница фараона) ((др.-греческ. **Σαχμης** «Сахмет»; лоби **Sakumo** «Сакумо» (бог войны и защитник народа))).

(1с) Египетск. **sk** «копье» ((ахвахск. **исхъ-ва** [9], баскск. **azkoia**, бинандере **suki** [9], боронгск. **wasak** [9], гаанда **sùkte/šukta** [9], др.-греческ. **σιγύνη**, дани **sege** [9], ибани **sùgbà** [9], др.-ирландск. **saiget**, каре **sagaya** [9], като **ishgot** [9], корейск. **ssag** 쌀, латышск. **šķēps**, макиритари **sukuhi** [9], малесите **sikuwan** [9], мауваке **sokoka** [9], нанайск. **сугбэ**, др.-в.-немецк. **ask**, онейда **a'shékwé** [9], папи **suuke** [9], др.-русс. **оскѣпъ**, санскр. **śakti** शक्ति, др.-скандинавск. **skapt**, суахили **sagai**, тайск. **ṣākdī** ศักดิ์, туюка **sa'kaya** [9], французск. **sagaie**, халия **saka** [9], с.-цянск. **soqudzə** [9], энсет **sohewa** [9] — «копье»; др.-скандинавск. **skjóta** «швырять копье»; венгерск. **szigony**, исландск. **skutull**, маньчжурск. **шака**, нгебере **waisuku** [10], майянгна **suksuk** [10], мискито **waisku** [10] — «острога, гарпун»; литовск. **šakės**, осетинск. **сарой**, фарси **сэку** سكو — «вилы»)). Египетск. **sHw** «кол?» (шумерск. **suku** «шест, кол») ((аккадск. **sikkutu** и **ziqīpu**, маракао **osok**, др.-русс. **соха**, турецк. **sikke** — «кол»)). Египетск. **sknh** «стрела» (шумерск. **asag/asig** «камень для пращи») ((аккадск. **assukku** «камень для пращи» и **šakudu/šukuddu**, абазинск. **сарындакъ**, албанск. **shigjetë**, арабск. **sahm** سهم, арапешск. **sikauin** [11], африкаанс **skig**, баскск. **azkon**, венгерск. **szagitta**, данск. **saga** [11], зимагани **sagapa** [11], др.-ирландск. **saiget**, като **shiiyee'k'aa'** [11], кгалагади **shegai** [11], латинск. **sagitta**, лома **soogo** [11], лонгуда **zikke** [11], махоу

séékóó [11], наби **sig** [11], нинамск. **šikawe** [11], оло **sioko** [11], румынск. **săgeată**, савила **sike** [11], санскр. **āsuga** आशुग, **sāyaka** सायक, **śikhin** शिखिन् и **sukha** सुख, тирио **sigā** [11], тувинск. **соргун**, ури **suguk** [11], хауса **suku**, эламск. **sah** — «стрела»; японск. **seki** «стрела» (счётник) 隻 и **shaken** «метательная звезда, сякен» 車検; гаа **šikotomo** [12], дани **siike** [12], инупиат **siksi** [12], др.-китайск. **shégōng** 蛇弓, киче **sqop**, куланго **sokpaka** [12], маба **seakti** [12], мурупи **zehina** [12], нинамск. **šaknahi** [12], ногайск. **соран**, теенск. **sokparo** [12] — «лук»; др.-русс. **сагодакъ** «лук со стрелами»; аккадск. **šaqašsi/šaqašti** «лучник»; латинск. **scūtāle** «праща»; китайск. **shígōng** «катапульта, арбалет» 石弓; корейск. **seoggung** «арбалет» 석궁; бура **šúkum** [13], готск. **skiutan**, инупиат **sikkaa** [13], испанск. **escopetear**, др.-скандинавск. **skjóta**, танна **asək** [13], фанамакет **soko** [13], с.-цянск. **səku** [13], эвенкийск. **эсэктэ-ми** — «стрелять»; корейск. **sagyeog** «выстрел» 사격)). Египетск. **sxm** «меч» ((валлийск. **ysgïen**, кабийск. **isekki** [14], маракао **sikoq**, монгольск. **шагть**, нгасск. **šiktòk** [14], санскр. **śakti** शक्ति, тайск. **ṣākdī** ศักดิ์ — «меч»)). Египетск. **sXa** «кинжал» ((др.-английск. **seax**, биленск. **šakiín** [15], валлийск. **ysgïen**, индонезийск. **sekin**, латинск. **sica**, санскр. **sāyikā** सायिका, сомрай **ságenu** [15] — «кинжал»)). Египетск. **sAx** «нож» ((абау **sik** [15], амеле **sigin** [15], др.-английск. **seax**, арабск. **sikin** سكين, асехск. **sikin** [15], бине **sogoturika** [15], блангск. **sak**, ванапск. **saako** [15], васембо **sugəya** [15], гоэмай **šik** [15], ийо **sukhe** [15], кайс **sogi** [15], кате **sokpe** [15], кой-али **sigā** [15], краче **osika** [15], куни **sukinakam** [15], кхаси **shaku** [15], лонгуда **sakoma** [15], марида **sokedam** [15], мианск. **sekhu** [15], мнотгск. **sak**, мурик **səgith** [15], нгамо **sokí** [15], ньоро **sokataito** [15], ц.-окинавск. **shiigu** 𑜄𑜰𑜫𑜂𑜫𑜄𑜰𑜫 [15], сунда **səkin**, тангале **səkəm** [15], фарси **сэкин** سكين, фурск. **sikin** [15], хилигайн. **skutsilyo** [15], шабо **šik(k)i** [15], к.-шотландск. **sgian** — «нож»; латинск. **saxum**, японск. **sekihi** 石匕 — «ка-

менный нож»)). (Шумерск. **zahada** «топор»)) ((биса **siga** [16], бозо **segefo** [16], ватива **sok** [16], грузинск. **sakepi** საკეპი, динка **shoka** [16]; с.-догонск. **segu** [16], конго **soka** [16], куни **saki** [16], латинск. **ascia**, монгольск. **сүх**, монгорск. **sugua** [16], нимо **saiku** [16], ньямбо **esooka** [17], сонинке **sagaade** [18], суахили **shoka**, ц.-сэлишск. **sk'wqwəm** [17], тарифит **ššaqua'** [16], тутчоне **shakhwa/shawkha** [17], фракийск. **skaplis**, эвенкийск. **сукэ**, экари **sika** [16], якутск. **сүгэ**, ями **zaig** [16] — «топор»; русск. **секач** «нож-топор»; эвенкийск. **сукэчээн**, ятвяжск. **skaplis** — «топорик»; японск. **sekifu** «каменный топор» 石斧; китайск. **shíge** «каменный клевец» 石戈)). ((Албанск. **shkop**, ванда **zikimba** [19], др.-греческ. **σκούτῆλη**, казахск. **шоқпар**, марийск. **шугыньо**, потаватоми **shkwéktan** [20], др.-русс. **соха**, саамия **esigongo** [19], з.-тохарск. **śakāto**, удмурдск. **секутбоды** — «дубина, палица»)). ((Др.-греческ. **σάγη** «вооружение» и **σχήδια** βέλη «оружие ближнего боя»; грузинск. **sachurveli** საჭურველი, зулу **isikhali** — «оружие»)).

(1d) Египетск. **swx** (y) и **Sjk** «жертвоприношение» (шумерск. **šuaḡina** «жертвоприношение»)) ((аккадск. **šagigurû**, нанайск. **сугдин** — «жертвоприношение»; армянск. **seghan** «жертвенник» սեղան)).

* Египетско-шумерский параллелизм 1) **sg** ~ **šag** («уничтожать»); 2) **sksk** ~ **sugzag** («уничтожать»); 3) **Ska** ~ **sag** («убивать»).

* Отметим соответствия 1) ст.-славянск. **изгыбати** ~ буна **yasiki** ~ идиш **aoysgeyn** ~ ительменск. **эзакас** ~ литовск. **išgaišti** ~ панаре **usuka** ~ румынск. **a sucomba** ~ фуюгск. **usaga** («умирать»); 2) джерунгск. **sicam** ~ испанск. **sucumbir** ~ ц.-киче **Skamik** ~ румынск. **a sucomba** ~ суэна **sikimai** ~ юэск. **sikmit** («умирать»); 3) ительменск. **эзакас** ~ литовск. **išgaišti** ~ монгольск. **зогсох** («умирать»); 4) египетск. **sjkn** ~ др.-русс. **сѣгноити** ~ русск. **сконать** ~ санскр. **skanda** («уничтожать, уничтожение»); 5) аккадск. **šagāšu** ~ албанск. **asgjësoj** ~ египетск. **sksk** ~ ст.-славянск. **иска-**

зити ~ русск. **скашивать** ~ шумерск. **sugzag** ~ эвенкийск. **суксами** («убивать, уничтожать»); 6) албанск. **shkatërroj** ~ английск. **scotch** ~ греческ. **σκούτώνω** ~ египетск. **sHtm** и **sxt** ~ латинск. **succido** ~ литовск. **sukauti** ~ португальск. **esgotar** ~ др.-русс. **оуѣкати** ~ суахили **sakata** ~ ю.-цянск. **šəkəte** ~ ями **zakata** («убивать, уничтожать»); 7) египетск. **sxm** ~ бурушаск. **esqayom** ~ готск. **usqiman** («убивать»); 8) айнск. **ashkeuk** и **ushka** ~ албанск. **asgjësoj** ~ бурушаск. **esqayom** ~ готск. **usqiman** ~ португальск. **esgotar** ~ др.-русс. **оуѣкати** ~ русск. **исконать** ~ ст.-славянск. **изгоубити** ~ ст.-славянск. **исказити** ~ французск. **escoffier** («убивать, уничтожать»); 9) баскск. **ezkutatu** ~ латышск. **izgaist** ~ др.-русс. **оскоюдѣти** ~ тамазигхт **ašk** («исчезать»); 10) баскск. **ezkutatu** ~ др.-русс. **оскоюдѣти** ~ японск. **sugatawokesu** («исчезать»); 11) египетск. **Sgnn** ~ итальянск. **scontro** ~ санскр. **skandha** ~ др.-скандинавск. **sókn** («бой, сражаться»); 12) айси **sagutubu-** ~ билакура ~ **sikwotaga-** ~ какатайбо **šukati** ~ канури **zəgádin** ~ с.-саамск. **soahat** («сражаться»); 13) даргинск. **ускес** ~ немецк. **sich schlagen** ~ чадунгск. **sekkjashai** ~ чибча **zecasqua** («сражаться»); 14) киргизск. **соруш** ~ марийск. **согыш** ~ японск. **sakusen** («война»); 15) египетск. **sxme** ~ латинск. **Ségomon** ~ лоби **Sakumo** ~ санскр. **Śákman** (божества войны); 16) ахвахск. **исхъва** ~ баскск. **azkoia** ~ като **ishgot** ~ др.-в.-немецк. **ask** ~ онейда **a'shékwe'** ~ др.-русс. **оскѣпъ** («копье»); 17) ахвахск. **исхъва** ~ малесите **sikuwan** ~ онейда **a'shékwe'** ~ энсет **sohewa** («копье»); 18) баскск. **azkoia** ~ каре **sagaya** ~ суахили **sagai** ~ туюка **sa'kaya** ~ французск. **sagaie** («копье»); 19) боронгск. **wasak** ~ мискито **waisku** ~ нгебере **waisuku** («копье, острога»); 20) гаанда **šukta** ~ др.-ирландск. **saiget** ~ исландск. **skutull** ~ като **ishgot** ~ санскр. **śakti** ~ тайск. **šākdi** ~ с.-цянск. **soqudzə** («копье, острога»); 21) ибани **sùgbà** ~ латышск. **šķēps** ~ нанайск. **сугбэ** ~ др.-русс. **оскѣпъ** ~ др.-скандинавск. **skapt** («копье»); 22) абазинск. **саргындакъ** ~ арапешск.

sikauin ~ баскск. **azkon** ~ египетск. **sknh** ~ санскр. **śikhin** ~ тувинск. **соруи** («стрела»); 23) аккадск. **šakudu/šukuddu** ~ албанск. **shigjetë** ~ венгерск. **szagitta** ~ др.-ирландск. **saiget** ~ латинск. **sagitta** ~ румынск. **săgeată** («стрела»); 24) африкаанс **skig** ~ лонгуда **zikke** ~ санскр. **śikhin** ~ ури **suguk** («стрела»); 25) гаа **šikotomo** ~ маба **seakti** ~ русск. **сагодакь** («лук»); 26) киче **sqop** ~ куланго **sokpaka** ~ теенск. **sokparo** («лук»); 27) мурупи **zehina** ~ нинамск. **šaknahi** ~ ногайск. **сoран** («лук»); 28) испанск. **escopetear** ~ танна **asək** ~ эвенкийск. **эсэктэми** («стрелять»); 29) готск. **skiutan** ~ др.-скандинавск. **skjóta** ~ эвенкийск. **эсэктэми** («стрелять»); 30) монгольск. **шарть** ~ нгасск. **šiktòk** ~ санскр. **śakti** ~ тайск. **šākdi** («меч»); 31) биленск. **šakiín** ~ валлийск. **ysgien** ~ индонезийск. **sekin** ~ сомрай **ságenu** («кинжал»); 32) амеле **sign** ~ арабск. **sikin** ~ асехск. **sikin** ~ куни **sukinakam** ~ сунда **səkin** ~ фарси **сэкин** ~ фурск. **sikin** ~ к.-шотландск. **sgian** («нож»); 33) бине **sogoturika** ~ маринда **sokedam** ~ мурик **segith** ~ ньоро **sokataito** ~ хилигайн. **skutsilyo** («нож»); 34) грузинск. **sakepi** ~ фракийск. **skaplis** ~ ятвяжск. **skaplis** («топор»); 35) др.-греческ. **σκυτάλη** ~ з.-тохарск. **śakāto** ~ удмурдск. **секутбоды** («дубина»).

* И близость 1) греческ. **σκοτώνω** ~ ями **zakatan** («убивать»); 2) гумузск. **šook'u** ~ в.-помо **šaak'** («убивать»); 3) санскр. **skandha** ~ йоруба **išigun** («война»); латинск. **Ségomon** ~ санскр. **Śákman** (боги войны); 4) египетск. **sAxzA** ~ японск. **shugosuru** 守護する («защищать»); 5) казахск. **сақтау** ~ литовск. **saugoti** («защищать»); 6) шумерск. **zahada** ~ сонинке **sagaade** («топор»); 7) бозо **səgefo** ~ японск. **sekifu** («топор»); 8) фракийск. **skaplis** ~ ятвяжск. **skaplis** («топор(ик)»); 9) русск. **секач** ~ эвенкийск. **сукэчээн** («нож-топор»); 10) албанск. **shkop** ~ казахск. **шоқпар** («дубина»); 11) грузинск. **sachurveli** ~ зулу **isikhali** («оружие»).

* Имя бога Сканды (как и Александра III Македонского, в восточной традиции — Ис-

кандара), вероятнее всего, передаёт значение «уничтожающий». * Из приведённых материалов также следует, что предпочтительной огласовкой имени древнеегипетской богини войны является «Сахмет».

(2а) Египетск. **zk** «рыть» ((авестийск. **uskana-**, английск. **scoop**, бамана **segin** [21], игнасиано **-seka** [21], итальянск. **scaà**, калабари **sóku** [21], кечуа **us(h)kiy** [21], кунама **èsake** [21], литовск. **iškasti**, матукар **sagai** [21], пакааснов. **šike'** [21], ст.-славянск. **ископати**, сумба **sake** [21], чероки **asgosga** [21], шведск. **schaktar** – «рыть»; баскск. **sakonune**, болгарск. **изкоп**, лози **sikoti**, сенека **uskë'e'** [22] – «яма»; ц.-догонск. **sògò**, инупиат **sikoaq**, чаморро **sàkapiku** – «кирка»; венгерск. **ásókapa**, др.-греческ. **σκαπάνη**, индонезийск. **sekop**, ротуманск. **suki** [23], с.-цянск. **səqpi** [23], японск. **suki** 鋤 – «заступ»)).

(2б) Египетск. **sAH** «быть похороненным» (шумерск. **siig** «закапывать») ((алеутск. **isxatil** [24], бемба **shùik** [24], болгарск. **закопая**, динка **zika** [24], кри **sakaschineu** [24], латинск. **sequestro**, нггвахь **šiginta** [24], суахили **zika**, чиппева **zagakin** [24] – «погребать, закапывать»; иврит **'škbh** ִשְׁכַּבְּ, итальянск. **esequie**, лукуми **isikú** [25], махоу **sùkòyà** [25], сомалийск. **aaska**, японск. **sōgi** 葬儀 — «похороны»)). Египетск. **seH** «мумия» ((йоруба **šigidi** «мумия»; биленск. **zeyáa** [26], каракалпак. **su'yek**, кгалагада **shekyokyo** [26], китайск. **sīguǐ** 死鬼 и **xiǔgǔ** 朽骨, лукуми **séku** [26], ю.-миньск. **síkhie** [27], монгольск. **сэг**, пума **siaku** [26], сомба **asek** [27], сонинке **saage**, суахили **zoga**, тайск. **sāk** ซาก, тибетск. **skuphung** སྐུཕུང и **skupur** སྐུཔུར, тувинск. **сек**, юэск. **zik6** 殖, японск. **shigai** 死骸 и **shikabane** 屍 — «останки»)). Египетск. **sHn** «могила» и **Sq(A/e)** «могила, шахтовая гробница» (шумерск. **sug** «гробница») ((др.-греческ. **σηκός**, йоруба **isà-òkú**, катоба **ya'suk** [29], китайск. **shòugōng** 壽宮, лукуми **isaku** [29], сингальск. **sohona** මොහොන, тамашек **àzəkka** и **izəkwan** [29], удмурдск. **шайгу** — «могила»; китайск.

shíguān 石棺, корейск. **seoggwan** 석관, японск. **sekkan** 石棺 — «саркофаг»; др.-греческ. **σηρός**, казахск. **сағана**, японск. **sekkaku** 石槨 — «гробница»). Египетск. **sxy(t)** «кладбище» ((турецк. **şehitlik** «(мусульманский) некрополь (павших)»)).

* Египетско-шумерский параллелизм: **Sq ~ sug** («гробница»).

* Отметим соответствия 1) авестийск. **uskana-** ~ кечуа **us(h)kiy** ~ кунама **èsake** ~ литовск. **iškasti** ~ ст.-славянск. **ископати** ~ чероки **asgosga** («рыть»); 2) венгерск. **ásókapa** ~ др.-греческ. **σκαπάνη** ~ индонезийск. **sekop** ~ с.-цянск. **səqpi** («заступ»); 3) иврит **škbh** ~ итальянск. **esequie** ~ лукуми **isikú** ~ сомалийск. **aaska** («похороны»); 4) йоруба **isà-òkú** ~ катоба **ya'suk** ~ лукуми **isaku** ~ тамашек **àzəkka** («могила»); 5) египетск. **sHn** ~ казахск. **сағана** ~ китайск. **shíguān** ~ корейск. **seoggwan** ~ сингальск. **sohona** ~ тамашек **izəkwan** ~ японск. **sekkan** («погребение»).

* И близость 1) литовск. **iškasti** ~ чероки **asgosga** («рыть»); 2) кри **sakaschineu** ~ латинск. **sequestro** («погребать»); 3) тибетск. **skuphung** ~ японск. **shikabane** («останки»); 4) египетск. **sxyt** ~ турецк. **şehitlik** («некрополь»).

(3а) Египетск. **sgA** «безмолвствовать, успокаивать(ся)» (шумерск. **sig** «безмолвствовать, успокаивать») ((аккадск. **sakātu**, арабск. **sakat** سكت, др.-саксонск. **swigon** — «безмолвствовать»; ц.-догонск. **sòókédé** [31], с.-саамск. **jaskat** [31], с.-цянск. **şquəstua** [31], ягнобск. **шук** [31], японск. **shukuzen** 肅然 — «безмолвный»; греческ. **σιγανός**, фарси **сакет** ساکت — «безмолвный, спокойный»; др.-греческ. **ἡσυχάζω** «молчать, успокаивать(ся)»; турецк. **sakin**, юэск. **zikb** 寂 — «безмолвный, неподвижный»). Египетск. **s(y)g** «оцепенение, неподвижность» ((казахск. **сақаю**, русск. **закоченеть**, чешск. **zkamenět** — «оцепенеть»; мараано **sakikir**, осетинск. **сагъ-дау** — «оцепенелый»; коптск. **sige** «неподвижный, парализованный»; амбуласск. **sayéké kiyaa** [32], ц.-догонск. **súgú** [32], др.-тюркск. **öz ket-** —

«терять сознание»; др.-греческ. **σκότωμα** «обморок»; французск. **choc** «шок»)).

(3b) Египетск. **wsxt-НН** «подземье» ((албанск. **skëterrë** «преисподняя»; др.-греческ. **σκότος**, японск. **sokonokuni** 底の国 — «подземье»; грузинск. **saik'io** «потусторонье» ზოქიო; касситск. **Shugab** «Шугаб» (божество подземья))).

* Египетско-шумерский параллелизм: **sgA ~ sig** («безмолвствовать»).

* Отметим соответствия 1) аккадск. **sakātu** ~ арабск. **sakat** ~ ц.-догонск. **sòókédé** ~ с.-саамск. **jaskat** ~ фарси **сакет** ~ японск. **shukuzen** («безмолвствовать, безмолвный»); 2) албанск. **skëterrë** ~ др.-греческ. **σκότος** ~ египетск. **wsxt-НН** («подземье»).

* И близость 1) греческ. **σιγανός** ~ турецк. **sakin** («безмолвный»); 2) др.-греческ. **σκότωμα** ~ др.-тюркск. **öz ket-** («терять сознание, обморок»).

(4а) Египетск. **skA** «обрабатывать землю» ((аймарск. **sukachaña**, английск. **scuffle**, арабск. **eazq** عازق, др.-греческ. **σκάπτω**, ю.-дунгск. **sakśən**, латышск. **uzkaplēt**, польск. **skopać**, сонинке **soxo**, тагальск. **sakahin**, тарифит **ssəymi** [33], телугу **sāgucēyu** సాగుచేయు, эрзянск. **sokams**, японск. **suku** 鋤 — «обрабатывать землю»; вьетнамск. **sự cày** «обработка земли»; китайск. **shùgǔ** «выращивать хлеб» 樹谷)). (Шумерск. **šugána** «сельскохозяйственное орудие») ((албанск. **sqepar**, бафанджи **soga** [34], венгерск. **ásókapa**, др.-греческ. **σκαπάνη** и **σκάφιον**, гхулфанск. **shakaabé** [34], с.-догонск. **soga** [34], лози **sikatiso**, оболло **àsàk** [34], рунди **isuka**, к.-татарск. **şoqaman**, тувинск. **озук**, туюка **siyo'ga** [34] — «мотыга»; лози **sikekele**, русск. **соха**, чувашск. **суха**, японск. **suki** 犁 — «рало»)). Египетск. **skA(t)** «поле, пашня» и **sxt** «поле, пастбище» (шумерск. **ašag** «поле, луг», **sug** «пойменные земли, хорошая земля», **šagtum** «пастбище») ((вапишана **zakhaphi** [35], дзонгкха **sagzhi** ས་གཟི [35], мукулу **sákiyè** [35], пума

sohon [35], санскр. **śākinam** शाकिनम्, телугу **śākaṭam** శాకాటం — «поле»; кронго **sika** [35], латинск. **seges**, телугу **sāgunēla** సాగునేల, японск. **sakuba** 作場 — «обрабатываемая земля»; санскр. **śākaśākaṭa** शाकशाकट и **śākinī** शाकिनी «огород»; даргинск. **cara**, потаватоми **shkakwan** [36], румынск. **suhāt**, русск. **ускотье**, тагальск. **sakatihan** — «пастбище»; русск. **загон** «участок поля, пашни, луга»; др.-русс. **закось** «луг»). Египетск. **Azx** «сжатое» ((баскск. **segatu**, с.-догонск. **àsági** [37], китайск. **shōuhuò** 收穫, маранао **sekit**, русск. **скашивать**, сэлишск. **sqəčə'** [37] — «убирать урожай, жать»; испанск. **siega**, сонинке **soxofo** — «жатва»). Египетск. **skA** «урожай» (шумерск. **šegazi** «сельскохозяйственная продукция») ((японск. **sakumotsu** «сельскохозяйственная продукция» 作物; каннада **suggiya** ಸುಗಿಯಿ, китайск. **shōugē** 收割 и **suīgōng** 歲功, корейск. **suhwag** 수확, хауса **shuka-shuka**, хмонгск. **sauqoobloo**, японск. **saku** 作 — «урожай»; эстонск. **saak** «добыча, урожай»; иврит **sukkōt** סוכות, японск. **shūkakusai** 収穫祭 — «праздник урожая»). Египетск. **sxtj** «крестьянин» ((йоруба **aṣògbìn** «крестьянин»; др.-греческ. **σκαφεύς**, казахск. **соқашы**, сонинке **soxaana**, эрзянск. **сокиця**, японск. **sakunin** さくにん — «земледелец»)).

4 b) Египетск. **skA** «вол» (шумерск. **šagud** «вол») ((др.-греческ. **ζεύγος** «упряжка волов, лошадей или мулов» и **σκεναγωγά** «вьючные животные»; грузинск. **sakidari** «рабочий скот» საკიდარი; санскр. **śākaṭa** «тягловое животное» शाकट, **śikhin** «бык, лошадь» शिखिनि, **śākvara** «бык, вол» शाकवर; марийск. **ўшкыж** «бык»; японск. **suigyū** «буйвол» 水牛)). (Шумерск. **šakkan** «лошадь, мул, осёл») ((бежтинск. **šügö** [39], белорус. **сіўка**, бете **sùkú** [39], блэкфут **sikapsski** [39], ванск. **sogo** [39], гуарани **sakandu** [39], дазага **askε** [39], кашубск. **szkapa** [39], ньяб-ва **sièkù** [39], др.-русс. **скокъ**, теенск. **zagabo** [39] — «лошадь»; грузинск. **sakhedari** «конь, осёл» სახედარი)). Египетск. **sHAt** «стадо ос-

лов» ((барии **sokuā** [40], бете **sùku** [40], иригве **zékí** [40], лазск. **esheghi** ეშეღი [40], марийск. **ишак**, польчи **šaki** [40], сицилийск. **sceccu**, др.-тюркск. **eš(g)āk**, украинск. **ишак**, хмонгск. **zag** [40], японск. **usagiума** 兎馬 — «осёл»)). Египетск. **sxtjw** «крупный рогатый скот» ((вьетнамск. **súc**, др.-фризск. **skett** — «крупный рогатый скот»)). (Шумерск. **zageš** «корова») ((афарск. **sagá** [41], санскр. **śakvari** शक्वरी, хваршинск. **зигъи** [41] — «корова»; итальянск. **scottona** «тёлка»)). Египетск. **zHt** «отара овец» ((баланта **saaga** [42], бамана **sàga** [42], догрибск. **sahz (h)ḡa** [42], куранко **sàga** [42], мохаук **siksik** [42], д.-в.-немецк. **scāf**, ша **sukuf** [42] — «овца»)). (Шумерск. **šahú** «свинья») ((аккадск. **šahû**, алабамск. **sokha** [43], др.-английск. **sugu**, ау **sak** [43], кева **sugi** [43], курсавск. **sika** [43], майсинск. **siko** [43], орокайва **siko** [43], самба **sixe** [43], в.-саамск. **шагкь**, фу-югск. **sika** [43], чероки **siqua**, чокто **shukha** [43], эдоло **sugua** [43], эстонск. **sigā** — «свинья»)). Египетск. **sqni** «откармливать» (шумерск. **šagan** «откармливаемый?» и **šáhniga** «откармливаемая свинья») ((монгольск. **шахмал** «откармливаемый»; латинск. **sagīna**, казахск. **соғым** — «убойный скот»)). ((Бамана **sokònòbagan** [44], венгерск. **jószág**, грузинск. **sak'oneli** საკონელი, дзонгкха **sgonor** སྒོནོར [44], ю.-догонск. **àsègɛ** [44], ст.-славянск. **скоть**, якутск. **сүөһү** — «скот»; украинск. **скотар**, японск. **ushikai** 牛飼い — «скотовод»)).

4 c) (Шумерск. **šug** и **šuku** «паёк, пай») ((аккадск. **šākussu**, албанск. **ushqim**, английск. **sock**, армянск. **seghan** սեղան, гвичинск. **shih** [45], гондау **siike** [45], грузинск. **sakvebi** საკვები, даджу **siake** [45], даргинск. **азихъ**, китайск. **shuīgǔ** 水穀, корейск. **sigeum** 식음 и **sigsa** 식사, коттск. **šig**, латинск. **ēscā** и **sagīna**, лухья **syakhulia** [45], малагасийск. **sakafo**, монгольск. **зоог**, ньешангте **siki3** [45], др.-русс. **сок**, санскр. **sagdhi** सग्धि, сонинке **saga**, сунда **suguh**, тамашек **āšækšō** [45], др.-тюркск. **ašayu** и **azuq**, хья **sukùsumè** [45], цимане **sakse'dye** [45], эстонск. **söögid** и **söök**,

юэск. **sik6zi6** 食, японск. **shoku** 食 — «еда, продовольствие»; болгарск. **закуска**, латышск. **uzkoda**, мэнск. **skon** — «лёгкая еда»; японск. **ishoku** «одежда и пища» 衣食, **shukō** «еда и выпивка» 酒肴; марийск. **азык** «корм»; китайск. **shíhéde** 食和的 «съедобный»; аккадск. **Ziku** «Мардук» (как бог, избавляющий от нужды)). (Шумерск. **zugub** «есть») ((аари **iiska** [46], адыгейск. **шхэн**, амади **súgà** [46], анеме **isakhu** [46], венгерск. **eszik**, др.-греческ. **σκηνάω**, грузинск. **shechma** შეჩმა, гумузск. **sigya** [46], корейск. **sigsehada** 식사하다, мишипск. **šigwe** [46], нгве **zákwé** [46], ненецк. **сякыбтё**, пумпокольск. **sogo** [46], русск. **узгать**, тангале **sak** [46], цимане **sakse'ha** [46], юэск. **siksaa** 食沙 и **sikzi** 食, японск. **shokusu** 食る — «есть»; английск. **scoff**, зырянск. **сакны** — «жадно есть»; русск. **искушивать** «немного поесть»; албанск. **ushqej**, оскапминск. **sahäpät** [47], др.-русс. **закоуцати**, тамашек **šækš** [47] — «кормить»). (Шумерск. **šegunu** «хлеб, ячмень») ((ванджи **iseke** [48], с.-догонск. **sàgí** [48], малесит **skonimin** [48], рутульск. **сук**, хауса **sukumba**, хмонгск. **sauqoob**, юэск. **suk1** 粟 — «зерно»). (Шумерск. **šegud** «полба-однозернянка») ((битск. **skâi**, паэсс. **skuutyh** [49], пермяцк. **шогди** [49], цахурск. **сук** [49] — «пшеница»; аккадск. **šigūšu**, кау **sokjo**, санскр. **sāktuka** साक्तुक, тигринья **sigemi** ሰገሜ [50] — «ячмень»; гаанда **sèketè** [51], казахск. **сөк**, малайск. **sekoí**, хакка **suk7** 黍 [51], юэск. **zik1** 稷 — «просо»; монгольск. **сарадай** «гречиха»; амри **sok** [52], игбо **òsikapa**, икск. **isikh** [52], с.-цянск. **škum** [52], яванск. **sego** — «рис»; санскр. **sukumāraka** सुकुमारक «рис, сахарный тростник»; бунгу **isaka** [53], кашибо **šiki** [53], каюбаба **šiki** [53], кулере **'asukpúu** [53], машко **šixi** [53], сомба **sehong** [53], чакобо **šiki** [53], шипибо **šiki** [53], эсе **ešixe** [53], яминауа **šiki** [53] — «маис»). ((Китайск. **shūguǒ** 蔬果, японск. **seika** 青果 — «овощи и фрукты»; маньчжурск. **соги**, санскр. **sāka** साक и **śāka** शाक — «овощи»; амбуласск. **asakwa** [54], добу **siyakutu**

[54], мбре **səyə** [54], пума **sukwa** [54] — «ямс»; алабама **sokha**, кечуа **saq'ampaya** [55], киче **saqwäch**, клалламск. **sqáwc** [55], макиритари **šaku**, мундуруку **wešik'a** [55], санскр. **sukandaṃ** सुकन्दं, с.-хайда **skáwsiit** [55] — «картофель»; китайск. **xīgǔmǐ** 西穀米, малайск. **sagu** — «саго»). ((Аккадск. **šigūšu**, рохинджа **sakki** [56] — «печёный хлеб»). ((Але **sa(a)kánko** [57], амхарск. **šiga** ሸጋ, аруопск. **səksegi** [57], асароо **wasagəsi** [57], бака **sogo** [57], биленск. **siixa** и **zeyáa** [57], босмунск. **sak** [57], вабода **sikitopi** [57], дираша **soha** [57], камаса **sagaməmo** [57], капск. **sóak** [57], кире **sug/suk/sik** [57], куранко **sògo** [57], мале **aški** [57], з.-миновск. **š'ukki** [57], муламск. **sik8**, ноттовей **skeshunke** [57], нухалк **-šk'al** [57], польчи **sooka**, пума **sakhan** [57], ремпи **suku** [57], тавгийск. **сяхы**, хопи **sikwi** [57], чибча **šihika** [57], др.-эфиопск. **šiga** ሸጋ [57], японск. **shokuniku** 食肉 — «мясо»; др.-тюркск. **isig et** «(парное) мясо»; японск. **sukimi** «мясо или рыба» 剥身; ст.-славянск. **сокачии**, тибетск. **shakhang** ཤཀང [58] — «мясник»)).

* Египетско-шумерский параллелизм 1) **skA** ~ **sug** («пашня»); 2) **sxt** ~ **šagtum** («пастбище»); 3) **skA** ~ **šegazi** («сельскохозяйственная продукция»); 4) **skA** ~ **šagud** («вол»).

* Отметим соответствия 1) албанск. **sqepar** ~ венгерск. **ásókapa** ~ др.-греческ. **σκαπάνη** ~ гхулфанск. **shakaabé** («мотыга»); 2) венгерск. **ásókapa** ~ оболо **àsák** ~ рунди **isuka** ~ тувинск. **озук** («мотыга»); 3) египетск. **sxt** ~ румынск. **suhat** ~ русск. **ускотье** ~ тагальск. **sakatihan** ~ шумерск. **šagtum** («пастбище»); 4) баскск. **segatu** ~ мара-нао **sekit** ~ сэлишск. **sqəčə'** («жать»); 5) грузинск. **sakidari** ~ санскр. **śākaṭa** ~ шумерск. **šagud** («рабочий скот»); 6) блэкфут **sikapsski** ~ кашубск. **szkapa** ~ теенск. **zagabo** («лошадь»); 7) лазск. **esheghi** ~ марийск. **ишак** ~ др.-тюркск. **eš(g)äk** ~ украинск. **ишак** ~ японск. **usagiuma** («осёл»); 8) бамана **sokònbagan** ~ грузинск. **sak'oneli** ~ дзонгкха **sgonor** («скот»); 9) аккадск. **šakussu** ~ болгарск. **закуска** ~ корейск. **sigsa** ~ тамашек **šækšo**

~ хья **sukùsumè** ~ цимане **sakse'dye** ~ юэск. **sikzi** («еда»); 10) албанск. **ushqim** ~ даргинск. **азихъ** ~ латынск. **ēšca** ~ латышск. **uzkoda** ~ тамашек **āšækšo** ~ др.-тюркск. **ašayū** и **azuq** («еда»); 11) латышск. **uzkoda** ~ санскр. **sagdhi** ~ эстонск. **söögid** («еда»); 12) аари **iiska** ~ анеме **isakhu** ~ венгерск. **eszik** ~ русск. **узгать** («есть»); 13) адыгейск. **шхэн** ~ др.-греческ. **σκηνάω** ~ зырянск. **сакны** («есть»); 14) корейск. **sigsehada** ~ русск. **искушивать** ~ цимане **sakse'ha** ~ юэск. **siksaa** ~ японск. **shokusu** («есть»); 15) шумерск. **šegud** ~ паэссск. **skuutyh** ~ пермяцк. **шогди** («пшеница»); 16) бунгу **isaka** ~ кашибо **šiki** ~ каюбаба **šiki** ~ машко **šixi** ~ пакауара **šiki** ~ чакобо **šiki** ~ шипибо **šiki** ~ эсе **ešixe** ~ яминауа **šiki** («маис»); 17) киче **saqwäch** ~ клалламск. **sqáwc** ~ с.-хайда **skáwsiit** («картофель»); 18) аруопск. **səksəgi** ~ асароо **wasagəsi** ~ ноттовей **skeshunke** («мясо»).

* И близость 1) аймарск. **sukachaña** ~ телугу **sāgucēyu** («обрабатывать землю»); 2) египетск. **skAt** ~ телугу **śakaṭam** («поле»); 3) иврит **sukkōt** ~ японск. **shūkakusai** («праздник урожая»); 4) сонинке **soxaana** ~ японск. **sakunin** («земледелец»); 5) санскр. **śikhin** ~ шумерск. **šakkan** («лошадь»); 6) египетск. **sxtjw** ~ др.-фризск. **skett** («крупный рогатый скот»); 7) албанск. **ushqim** ~ корейск. **sigēum** («еда»); 8) шумерск. **šegunu** ~ малесит **skonimin** («зерно»); 9) амбуласск. **asakwa** ~ пума **sukwa** («ямс»); 10) але **sakánko** ~ японск. **shokuniku** («мясо»).

(5a) ((Др.-греческ. **ἀσκέω** и **σκευάζω** «обрабатывать, изготавливать, украшать»; болгарск. **изоготвям**, ительменск. **скэс**, латышск. **izgatavot**, фарси **сахтән** ساختن — «изготавливать»; нанайск. **сэукэчи-**, хорватск. **iskititi** — «украшать»; венгерск. **eszköz**, др.-греческ. **σκεῦος**, нухалк **sk'im** [59], сиона **sa'kawi?** [59] — «инструмент»; японск. **sekki** «каменное орудие» 石器; болгарск. **изкуствен** «искусственный» и **изкусник** «мастер»)).

(5b) (Шумерск. **sig** «изготавливать литьём») ((немецк. **ausgießen**, японск. **seikei** — «изго-

товлять литьём» 成型; итальянск. **squagliare**, латышск. **izkausēt**, юэск. **soek3** 鑠 — «плавить»; наскапи **isaakw** «металл» [60]; бит **skuo**, бурятск. **caraan** туулган, корейск. **seog** 석, суйск. **šek7**, с.-тайск. **sik7**, чжуанск. **sig/sik**, юэск. **sek3** 錫 — «олово»; блэкфут **siksi'ksskim** [61], кекчи **saqich'iich'** [61], киче **saqpuaq**, ньянгбо **sikāfufú** [61] — «серебро»; акха **shuuhf** [62], армянск. **(v)oski** нулх, бакве **-sika** [62], иврит **zhh** צהי, иракку **zahabu** [62], масайск. **esahabu** [62], ньямвези **zahaabu** [62], осетинск. **сыгъзæрин**, руанда **zahabu** [62], сиона **s'oakut'i** [62], с.-цянск. **šəqu** [62] — «золото»; эламск. **sahii** и **sihikak** «медь, бронза»; ненецк. **есякоця** «что-либо железное»; баскск. **sugin**, ингушск. **аьшкапхьар**, манья **siaki** [63], польчи **shugop** [63] — «кузнец»)).

* Терминология подборок этой работы, касающаяся металлургии, может вести своё начало от слов, обозначающих олово и происходящих с территории Юго-Восточной Азии. В пользу чего говорят 1) фонетическая форма и количество соответствующих слов в подборках, 2) связь большей их части с территорией Юго-Восточной Азии, 3) то, что именно там находятся крупнейшие месторождения олова в мире, и 4) что температура его плавления в 4–5 раз ниже температуры плавления серебра, золота, бронзы или меди.

* Отметим соответствия: иврит **zhh** ~ иракку **zahabu** ~ масайск. **esahabu** ~ ньямвези **zahaabu** ~ руанда **zahabu** («золото»).

* И близость 1) др.-греческ. **σκευάζω** ~ ительменск. **скэс** («изготавливать»); 2) нанайск. **сэукэчи-** ~ хорватск. **iskititi** («украшать»); 3) венгерск. **eszköz** ~ др.-греческ. **σκεῦος** («инструмент»); 4) ингушск. **аьшкапхьар** ~ польчи **shugop** («кузнец»).

(7) Египетск. **sxA** «изображение бога-сокола» ((албанск. **skifter**, сербск. **соко** — «сокол»; венгерск. **északi sólyom** «кречет»; армянск. **iskakan baze** «сапсан» իսկական բազե; турецк. **şahin** «сапсан, сарыч, ястреб»; фарси **шахин** «сапсан, ястреб» شاهین; йоруба **àṣágidi**

[66], цоцильск. **shik** — «сокол, ястреб» [66]; мэнск. **shawk**, суахили **shakivale** — «сокол, ястреб, сарыч»; хауса **sháahòò** «сокол, ястреб, лунь»; русск. **шугай** «ястреб»; зуни **šok'apiso** [87], лози **sikakuwa**, турецк. **üşküflü doğan**, финск. **suohaukka** — «лунь»; катоба **shii'ka** [67], коасати **saiki** [67], курдск. **šahîn**, салиба **síhîniâ** [67], хорватск. **škánjac**, чоктавск. **shiki** [67] — «сарыч»; дзонгкха **shogbya** ཤོག་བྱ [68], кокота **sikogia** — «коршун»; таджикск. **заған** «коршун, ворон»; белорус. **скаба**, грузинск. **shaki** შაკი, марийск. **сака**, мэнск. **shawk** eeastee, к.-шотландск. **iolair uisge**, японск. **shokyū** 雌鳩 — «скопа»; маньчжурск. **исука** «белоплечий орлан»; маттоле **sakichow** «белоголовый орлан» [69]; румынск. **scaba** «орлан-белохвост»; др.-греческ. **σκῶψ**, дуала **esukúdu** [70], коса **isikhova**, эфате **sokfal** [70] — «сова»; чеченск. **соька** «филин»; санскр. **śākuneya** «небольшая сова» शाकुनेय; башкирск. **сук**, словенск. **skovik** — «сыч»; индонезийск. **sikap**, русск. **скопчик** — «перепелятник»; билуа **zakaparau** [71], дзунго **šīegwāi** [71], койтабу **souka** [71], лазск. **zaghanosi** ზაღანოსი [71], пуэльче **sikcal** [71], ямана **šakanini** [71] — «орёл»; ками **sughula** «орёл, хищная птица» [71]; албанск. **shkaba** «орёл, сип»; юэск. **zukb** «орёл, беркут, гриф» 鷲; бенгальск. **śakuni** «гриф» শকুনি, карекаре **sakəti** [72], ньоле **esega** [72], санскр. **saghan** सघन, хвана **síkídirá** [72] — «гриф»; шведск. **asgam** «стервятник, коршун»; английск. **seahawk** «поморник, скопа» и **skua**, валлийск. **sgiwen**, с.-саамск. **skáiti** [74] — «поморник»; финск. **isokihu** «большой поморник»; с.-саамск. **skávli**, др.-скандинавск. **skuftr**, суахили **shakwe**, хайда **sk'in** [75] — «чайка»; бамана **sègè** [76], себуанск. **sikup** [76] — «хищная птица»)).

* Отметим соответствия: курдск. **šahîn** ~ салиба **síhîniâ** ~ турецк. **šahin** ~ хорватск. **škánjac** («сарыч»).

* И близость 1) лози **sikakuwa** ~ финск. **suohaukka** («лунь»); 2) индонезийск. **sikap** ~ русск. **скопчик** («перепелятник»).

(8) ((Баскск. **Sugoi** «Сугар» (божество в обители живущего в пещерах дракона или змея); китайск. **shéguài** «змей, василиск» 蛇怪)).

(9) Египетск. **sgA** «холм» и **sqA** «возвышенность» ((др.-венгерск. **ség**, випи **sukaak** [77], годовала **saka** [77], з.-догонск. **sogo** [77], догрибск. **s(h)ih** [77], ительменск. **эскп**, казахск. **шоқы**, катоба **sak** [77], кимарагангск. **sokid** [77], корейск. **sogu**, малила **ishigamba** [77], мангск. **sege**, мумуйе **sakakopo** [77], русск. **шихан**, сванск. **zugw**, синсауру **sahoteim** [77], финск. **sokka**, фракийск. **skumbris**, цимшианск. **sga'niis** [77], эдоло **segebi** [77], юкагирск. **сахадьэга**, японск. **sakyū** 沙丘 — «возвышенность, холм»)).

* Отметим соответствия 1) випи **sukaak** ~ мумуйе **sakakopo** ~ финск. **sokka** («холм»); 2) кимарагангск. **sokid** ~ синсауру **sahoteim** ~ юкагирск. **сахадьэга** («холм»).

* И близость 1) ительменск. **эскп** ~ эдоло **segebi** («холм»); 2) малила **ishigamba** ~ фракийск. **skumbris** («холм»).

(10) Египетск. **skA** «престол» ((а.-нормандск. **siege**, румынск. **scaun de domnie** — «престол»)).

(11) (Шумерск. **zahati** «лук») ((др.-английск. **secglēac**, армянск. **sokh** սոխ, дзонгкха **sgogpa** ཤོག་པ [78], зырянск. **сүгөн**, насапи **sikaakusuw** [78], санскр. **sukanda** सुकन्द, сахаптинск. **sháak** [78], др.-тюркск. **soγun**, эстонск. **söögisibul** — «лук»; латинск. **rogitum sectivum** «лук-порей»; шведск. **skogslök** «дикий лук»; с.-догонск. **awsàgâw** «лук, чеснок» [78]; армянск. **skhtor** սոխոր, тибетск. **sgoglog** ཤོག་ལོག, фарси **эскандрус** اسکندروس, с.-цянск. **skətuə** [79] — «чеснок»; армянск. **skhtoruk** սոխորուկ, казахск. **ұсақ торлы жуа**, осетинск. **скъуда** — «черемша»)).

* Отметим соответствия 1) осетинск. **скъуда** («черемша») ~ с.-цянск. **skətuə** («чеснок») ~ шумерск. **zahati** («лук»); 2) др.-английск. **secglēac** ~ дзонгкха **sgogpa** ~ насапи **sikaakusuw** ~ шведск. **skogslök** («лук»); 3) зырянск. **сүгөн** ~ санскр. **sukanda** ~ др.-тюркск. **soγun** («лук»).

* И близость 1) др.-английск. **secglēac** («лук») ~ тибетск. **sgoglog** («чеснок»); 2) армянск. **skhtoruk** ~ казахск. **ұсақ торлы жуа** («черемша»).

(12a) Египетск. **sktj**, **wsxt**, **zHyt** «ладья» ((аккадск. **šahhūtu**, др.-греческ. **σχεδία**, польск. **szkuta**, др.-русс. **скѣдь**, ю.-сото **seketswana**, фризск. **skūte**, к.-шотландск. **sgoth** — «малое парусное судно»; эвенкийск. **сэктэ** «лодка»; английск. **squadron** «соединение кораблей»)). Египетск. **sqd** «лодочник, моряк».

(12b) Египетск. **sktt** «ладья вечера, перевоз-ящая солнце», **sxn** «божественная ладья, перевоз-ящая умерших; ладья Сокара» ((английск. **schooner** «шхуна»; немецк. **seegehend** «мореходный»; хилигайн. **sakayanon** «моряк»)), **wsxt** «божественная ладья» ((готск. **skip**, др.-греческ. **σκάφος**, лози **sikepe**, др.-русс. **оскоюи**, чаморро **sakman** — «ладья»; индонезийск. **sekoci** «лодка, шляпка»)). Египетск. **sky** «божество, ведущее солнечную ладью» ((английск. **skipper** «скипер»; венгерск. **sajkás**, китайск. **shuikè** 水客, корейск. **sagong** ㅅㅏᄂᆞᆫ, сербск. **шайкаш** — «лодочник»)).

* Если, отчасти полагаясь на древнеегипетские верования, считать, что ладья заката (**sktt**) направлялась на восход (**sHDtA**, по-египетски — «восход, рассвет»), а ладья восхода (**wsxt**) — на закат (**skt**), то получится замкнутое фонетико-семантическое построение, неожиданно, но непротиворечиво включающее в себя и русские слова.

(13) Египетск. **sxA** «швартов?, шкот?» ((аккадск. **šahhū**, кечуа **sukuta** [80], микмакс. **segi'gn** [80], юрок **skego'oh** [80] — «парус»; нидерланд. **schoot** «шкот»; английск. **scud** «идти по ветру (под парусом)»; нутка **sika** [80], нухалк **suk'tim** [80], фиджийск. **sokota** — «идти под парусом»)).

* Отметим соответствия: английск. **scud** ~ нухалк **suk'tim** ~ фиджийск. **sokota** («идти под парусом») ~ кечуа **sukuta** («парус»).

(14) Египетск. **sk** «закат» ((в.-догонск. **ùsù'yàgii** [81], загхава **osko** [81], иврит **šqiy'áh** שְׂקִי'אֵחַ, като **shaa k'eenyai** [81], китайск. **xīguāng** 夕光, маранао **sakep**, ст.-славянск. **заходъ**, юэск. **zikb**

夕, японск. **sekiyō** 夕陽 — «закат»)) и **skt** «вечер, запад» ((готск. **sagqs**, русск. **закат** — «вечерняя заря, запад»; геджи **sukti** [82], грузинск. **saghamo** საგამო, даба **skusku** [82], кечуа **sukhapacha** [82], кокота **saigona**, корейск. **seoggan** 석간, нанайск. **сиксэ**, татск. **шэхьонгум** [82] — «вечер»; эвенкийск. **шиикшэ** «вечером»; бариай **sagogogo** [83], манобо **'sakyop** [83], фризск. **skimer** [83] — «сумерки»; суахили **usiku** «после захода солнца»; с.-догонск. **ùsù'yégínò** [84], паэсс. **sekkhēēni** [84] — «запад»; китайск. **xīguó** «Запад» 西國; др.-греческ. **σκαίος** «западный»)). Египетск. **ski** «заходить, садиться» ((тавгийск. **сохуа** ʔəsa «падать; идти (об осадках)»; французск. **se coucher** — «заходить, садиться»)).

* Отметим соответствия 1) като **shaa k'eenyai** ~ кокота **saigona** ~ татск. **шэхьонгум** («закат, вечер»); 2) геджи **sukti** ~ египетск. **skt** ~ русск. **закат** ~ ст.-славянск. **заходъ** («вечер»); 3) даба **skusku** ~ нанайск. **сиксэ** ~ эвенкийск. **шиикшэ** («вечер»).

* И близость: египетск. **skt** ~ русск. **закат** («запад»).

(15) Египетск. **SAq** «кольцо» ((йоруба **sákù** [85], кечуа **s(h)ihui** [86], киргизск. **шакек**, монгольск. **шигшрэг**, руанда **ziga** [86] — «кольцо»; рохинджа **sakka** «круг» [85]; английск. **circuit**, японск. **shūki** 周期 — «цикл»; др.-греческ. **σάχηνεύω** «брать в кольцо»; нанайск. **исиго** «наставать (снова)»)). Египетск. **Sq** «кольцо (украшение)» ((гунзибск. **зэкбай** [86], турецк. **üzük** — «кольцо (украшение)»)). Египетск. **sXp** «кружиться» (шумерск. **šuhub** «кружиться») ((вьетнамск. **sự quay**, литовск. **sukimas**, словенск. **sukanje** — «вращение»; др.-греческ. **σκηπτός**, кгалагади **sheheho** [87], кечуа **shukukii** [87], эвенкийск. **сугии** — «вихрь»)).

* Египетско-шумерский параллелизм: **sXp** ~ **šuhub** («кружиться»).

* Отметим близость 1) киргизск. **шакек** ~ рохинджа **sakka** («кольцо»); 2) кгалагади **sheheho** ~ кечуа **shukukii** («вихрь»).

§ 3 Трёхконсонантные соответствия

(1a) ((Литовск. *išgarėti*, нормандск. *secer*, русск. **закрывать** глазки, сванск. *Sgr* [1], фолопа *suk(ulapo)* [1], эвенкийск. **сокорми** — «умирать»; вайлаки *segulgiiN* [2], ирландск. *scrios*, испанск. *segar*, кире *asogialimiki* [2], литовск. *skersti*, русск. **сокрощать**, др.-скандинавск. *skera*, ст.-славянск. **исклати**, тувинск. **согар**, др.-тюркск. *üsiklä-* — «убивать»; русск. **загрызть** «растерзать»; латинск. *sacro* «обрекать на гибель» и *sicārius* «убийца»)). Египетск. *sxrt* «избиение, бойня» (шумерск. *šuhulu* «истреблять, уничтожать») ((аккадск. *šagaltu*, литовск *skerdynės* — «избиение, бойня»; турецк. *soykırım* «геноцид»; английск. *squelch*, др.-русс. **съкроупити**, ст.-славянск. **искоренити** и **съкроушити** — «истреблять, уничтожать»)). (Шумерск. *uzahal* «исчезновение») ((английск. *scour away*, кечуа *siqalpuy* [3], литовск. *išgursti*, мэнск. *skellal*, окситанск. *esclipsar*, русск. **скрыться**, с.-сиавари *sökal* [3], французск. *s'égarer*, эвенкийск. **сокорми**, яо *-soceelega* [3] — «исчезать»)).

(1b) (Шумерск. *Iškur* «Ишкур» (бог войны)) ((английск. *Isokalakal* «Исокалакал» (бог войны; Каролинские о-ва); санскр. *Sugrīva* सुग्रीव и *Śakra* शक्र «Индра» (бог войны и защиты); сэлишск. *sḡeyləḡ* «война» [5]; шорск. **шағлаш** «воевать»; английск. *skirmish* «сражаться»; грузинск. *sagroba* «нести военную службу» ზაგრობა; лезгинск. **эскервал** [6], др.-в.-немецк. *scara*, др.-скандинавск. *skari*, сомалийск. *askar* [6], с.-чатино *skaltatnū* [6] — «войска»; аварск. **аскария**, арабск. *eskry* عسكري, болгарск. **аскер(ин)**, ингушск. **эскархо**, индонезийск. *askar*, ираку *askaari* [7], канури *áskər* [7], лубукусу *sikaali/sikaari* [7], маранао *askar*, ногайск. **аьскерши**, суахили *asikari*, тарифит *a'askari* [7], фарси *äskär* عسكر, японск. *ashigaru* 足軽 — «ратник»; курдск. *šehlewend*, санскр. *sugrīva* सुग्रीव, др.-скандинавск. *seggr* — «витязь»). Египетск. *sHr* «божество, охранявшее Осириса» ((аккадск. *Suhrim* «Мардук» (как

бог-защитник); хорватск. *skrbnik* «защитник»; др.-греческ. *σκιρῖται* «род спартанской гвардии»; латинск. *scurrae* «императорская гвардия»; динка *asikari* [7], маранао *askar* — «ратник, стражник»; немецк. *Schugger* «жандарм»; индонезийск. *sekilwak*, монгольск. **сахуул** — «стражник»; албанск. *shoqërues*, итальянск. *scorta* — «прикрытие, эскорт»; руанда *shagara* «эскортировать» [8]; английск. *secure*, готск. *skairmjan*, испанск. *asegurar*, марийск. **саклаш**, немецк. *sichern*, русск. **сохранять**, татарск. **саклау**, французск. *se garder* — «защищать»)).

* Имя одного из героев свода «Шахнамэ» Сухраба (таджикск. **Сухроб**), возможно, имеет значение, связанное с одним из приведённых выше.

(1c) (Шумерск. *šukur* копьё») ((аккадск. *šukurru*, джита *sakura* [9], испанск. *sacaliña*, эламск. *šukurruum* — «копьё»; амхарск. *zeger* «копьё (царя)» ዘገር; др.-греческ. *σκόλοψ*, русск. **сукол** — «кол»; белорус. **сахор** «вилы»; эвенкийск. **оскор** «острога; стрела»; с.-догонск. *èšèkèré* [11], мундари *s(h)ahar* [11], фасу *sakare* [11], чамикуро *ashkololi* [11], яо *sàgàlà* [11] — «стрела»; салт *sugul* «лук» [12]; др.-греческ. *σκόρπιος*, латинск. *scorpio* — «каменьёт, стреломёт»; албанск. *shkrepe*, др.-корнийск. *skylla*, нгейнгск. *sagare* [13], эйзи *segwar-* [13] — «стрелять»; русск. **загарпунить** «поражать гарпуном»; ангорамск. *sakharema* [16], арамейск. *šlḳḳūrā*, армянск. *sakr* ւսկըր, баскск. *aizkora*, венгерск. *szekerce*, вогамусинск. *sokol* [16], др.-греческ. *σάγαρις*, дима *sawagara* [16], с.-догонск. *sòogùrà* [16], ц.-догонск. *sèùgùló* [16], др.-еврейск. *šegôr*, като *seekalh* [16], латинск. *secūris*, литовск. *skliutas*, мансийск. **саагпан**, румынск. *secure*, др.-русс. **оскърдъ**, ст.-славянск. **сеқыра**, тамазигхт *acaqur* [16], эмбера *zaga'ra* [16], эстонск. *sõjakirves* — «топор»; готск. *skrama*, др.-греческ. *σκάλη*, др.-скандинавск. *skálm* — «небольшой меч»; латинск. *scramasax* «боевой нож», *sicula* «малый кинжал» и *scalprum*, мика-

суки **eskalafke** [15], уримск. **sakal** [15], ямбесск. **sakal/sikal** [15] — «нож»; английск. **scorpion** «боевой цеп»; др.-английск. **sāgol**, зулу **isiquili** — «палица»; баскск. **iskilu**, марийск. **сӱй курал** — «оружие»)).

(1d) Египетск. **sqr(wdnt)** «приносить в жертву» ((албанск. **sakrifikoј**, ст.-славянск. **заклати** — «приносить в жертву»; аккадск. **šagirurû** и **šakāribi**, латинск. **sacr(ifici)um** — «жертвоприношение»; др.-греческ. **ἑσάρρα**, др.-русс. **скрада**, санскр. **śakraśālā शक्रशाला** — «жертвенник»)). (Шумерск. **siskur** «приносить в жертву») ((французск. **se sacrifier** «жертвовать собой»; японск. **sasageru** «приносить в жертву» 捧げる)).

* Египетско-шумерский параллелизм: **sxrt** («истребление») ~ **šuhulu** («истреблять»).

* Отметим соответствия 1) кире **asogialimiki** ~ ст.-славянск. **исклати** ~ др.-тюркск. **üsiklä-** («убивать»); 2) аккадск. **šagaltu** ~ египетск. **sxrt** ~ литовск. **skerdynės** («истребление»); 3) кечуа **siqalpuy** ~ окситанск. **esclipsar** ~ фолопа **sukulapo** («исчезать»); 4) баскск. **aizkora** ~ др.-русс. **оскърдъ** ~ тамазигхт **acaqur** («топор»); 5) французск. **se sacrifier** ~ шумерск. **siskur** ~ японск. **sasageru** («приносить в жертву»).

* И близость: мэнск. **skellal** ~ яо **-soceelela** («исчезать»).

(2a) ((Др.-греческ. **σκάλλω**, испанск. **escarbar** и **sacar**, литовск. **skardyti**, немецк. **ausgraben**, осетинск. **æзгелун**, японск. **shakuru** 決る — «копать»; казахск. **шұқыр**, латинск. **scrobis**, литовск. **skylė**, марийск. **секрытма**, словенск. **škulj** — «яма»; маракао **sakrad** «заступ»; ст.-славянск. **оскърдъ**, тамазигхт **acaqur** [16] — «кирка»)).

(2b) ((Русск. **заглублять** «помещать на глубине»; итальянск. **esequiare**, сербск. **сахранити** — «хоронить»; украинск. **загрибати** «засыпать»; ирландск. **sochraid** «похороны» [25]; марийск. **шӱгар** «могила»; белорус. **склеп**, др.-скандинавск. **skrín** — «гробница»; др.-греческ. **σκελετόν** «мумия»; амхарск. **askeren** አስከረ?, др.-греческ. **σκελετός**, испанск. **esqueleto**, кечуа

saqru, кумыкск. **сюеклер**, др.-в.-немецк. **scalmo**, др.-скандинавск. **skrokk** — «останки»)).

Самый высокий и протяжённый из холмов, на которых сложился город Рим, называется Эсквилинским (латинск. **Esquilinus**). В настоящее время это XV район Рима (итальянск. **Esquilino**). Во второй половине I тыс. до н. э. его территория была известна как место захоронений и казней — «мрачные Эсквилии» (atrae Esquiliae; Гораций) — с рощей богини смерти, похорон и мёртвых Либитины. * Откуда следует, что значение этого оронима, скорее всего, было «погребальный холм» (итальянск. **collina**, латинск. **collis** — «холм»).

(2c) Места **захоронений** Инбу-хеджа известны ныне как Саккара (арабск. **Saqqāra** سقارة). (Шумерск. **zaggarra** «гробница, святое место») ((аккадск. **ziqquratu** «вершина горы, зиккурат» (при **zuqqurtu** «возвышенность»); марийск. **шӱгарла**, нидерланд. **godsakker**, чига **eiziikiro** [30] — «кладбище»)).

* Это, на мой взгляд, подтверждает обоснованность высказывавшегося Ф. Хоммелем взгляда на зиккураты как на места погребений, что, в сущности, уравнивает эти рукотворные террасированные холмы с египетскими пирамидами и иными подобного рода постройками древности.

(3a) Египетск. **sgr** «безмолвие» ((латинск. **Sigaliōn** «Сигалион» (бог молчания; Египет)); дзонгкха **sgramed** «безмолвный» སྐལམེད [31])) и **sgr(Н)** «успокаивать, умирать» ((белорус. **скроміць**, курдск. **seqirandin** — «успокаивать, умирать»; латинск. **sēcūrus** «спокойный, равнодушный»; монгольск. **усгал**, к.-шотландск. **socair** — «спокойный, тихий»; ср.-французск. **esgal** «безразличный, равнодушный»)). ((Киче **sikirik**, литовск. **sugrubti**, др.-русс. **искрѣпѣти** — «цепенеть, коченеть»; японск. **shikoru** «оцепенение, окоченение» 痙る; киче **sikirinaq** «быть неподвижным, быть парализованным»; др.-тюркск. **üsiklä-** «обездвижить»; латышск. **skurbt** «терять сознание»)).

(3b) (Шумерск. **ešgal** «подземье») ((арабск. **saqar** سقر, санскр. **sūkará** सूकर, фарси **cārāp** سقر — «преисподняя»; чешск. **záhrobí**, юкагирск. **искэ́льэ** чайлэ (чайлэ «свет») — «потусторонье»; латинск. **sacer** «обречённый подземным богам»; др.-греческ. **Ζαγρεύς** «Загрей» (божество подземья); шведск. **skärselden** «чистилище»)).

* Отметим близость: шумерск. **ešgal** ~ юкагирск. **искэ́льэ** чайлэ («потусторонье»).

(4a) ((Др.-греческ. **ζευγηλατέω**, игнасиано-**sukureka** [33], латинск. **scalpo**, марийск. **шогалаш** — «обрабатывать землю»; французск. **scarifier** «рыхлить»; др.-греческ. **σκαλίζ**, зигула **segelima** [34], маранао **sakal**, ц.-меланау **sakul** [34], мэнск. **screebane**, прусск. **skurdis**, цезск. **эшкIел** [34] — «мотыга»; финск. **sahra** «соха»; вайвай **woskara** [35], тамашек **ašákraš/išákraš** [35] — «поле»; гуде **áskirr** [35], ю.-догонск. **isigèwárú** [35], сонинке **soxora**, чипайя **škala** [35] — «обрабатываемая земля»; литовск. **sklypas** «надел»; кечуа **shoglla/suqlla** [36], хантыйск. **сяхар** — «пастбище»; испанск. **esquilmar** «убирать урожай, получать приплод»; йоруба **šekore**, русск. **скрытатъ**, др.-скандинавск. **skera** — «убирать урожай, жать»; румынск. **seceriş**, чешск. **sklizeň**, чичева **zokolola**, шведск. **skörd** — «урожай»; аккадск. **šaeqli** «земледелец?»; китайск. **shòukürén** 受苦人, корейск. **sigolsalam** 시골사람 — «земледелец»)).

(4b) ((Корнийск. **yscrybel** «рабочий скот»; грузинск. **saklavi** საკლავი «убойный скот»; др.-тюркск. **sīyir**, фарси **cəhp** سهر — «крупный рогатый скот»; тамазигхт **azger** «вол» [38]; кумамск. **asigira** [39], мизо **sakawr** [39], русск. **колик**, сенуфо **sòglò** [39], чероки **soquili** [39] — «лошадь»; лубукусу **esikilya/esikiryá** «лошадь, осёл» [40]; японск. **sakura** «конина» 桜; джита **isikili** [40], масайск. **osikiria** [40] — «осёл»; французск. **chagrin** «шагрень»; марийск. **уш-кал**, санскр. **śakraja** शक्रज — «корова»; аккадск. **sāhirtu** «тёлка»; бога **šòxrètə** [42],

мегрельск. **shkhuri** შხური [42], русск. **шке-па** — «овца»; бирхор **sūkūri** [43], вайвай **šikri** [43], зазаки **séxur** [43], латинск. **scrōfa**, румынск. **scroafă**, санскр. **sūkará** सूकर, тайск. **šukr** สุก, тамильск. **sūkaram** சூகரம், телугу **sūkaramu** సూకరము, ятвяжск. **sk'aure** — «свинья»; бенгальск. **śūkara** শূকর, маньчжурск. **сикари** — «дикая свинья»)).

(4c) (Шумерск. **šàg(g)al** «пища» и **šukur** «паёк») ((аккадск. **šākultu/šūkultu**, английск. **scraw**, грузинск. **sagari** საგარი, корейск. **siglyang** 식량 и **siglyopum** 식료품, латинск. **ēsculenta**, сидамо **sagale** [45], др.-тюркск. **azuqluq**, японск. **shokuryō** 食料 — «еда, продовольствие»; латинск. **ēscālis/ēscārius** «относящийся к еде»; литовск. **skalsa** «обеспеченность, сытность»; монгольск. **зооглох**, румынск. **a se hrăni**, хауса **zakalkale** — «есть»; мэнск. **scoltey**, др.-русс. **съкърмити** — «кормить»)). (Шумерск. **sigal** «(печёный) хлеб») ((в.-догонск. **sàgàrà-kām** [56], марийск. **сукыр**, чувашск. **čăkăp** — «(печёный) хлеб»)). ((Французск. **escourgeon** и **sucrion** «ячмень»; баскск. **zekalea**, др.-корнийск. **sugal**, латинск. **secāle**, румынск. **secară**, рутульск. **сыкIыл** — «рожь»; санскр. **sūkará** सूकर, яванск. **sekul** — «рис»; тайск. **škulklxy** «ямс» สุกถกถอย [54]; акавайо **sakura** «картофель, маниок» [55]; санскр. **śigru** «овощи, зелень» शिग्रु)). ((Литовск. **skerdenà**, хинди **shikaar** शिकार — «убоина»; готск. **skilja** «мясник» [58])).

* Отметим соответствия: вайвай **woskara** ~ гуде **áskirr** ~ ю.-догонск. **isigèwárú** ~ тамашек **išákraš** («сельскохозяйственные уголья»).

(5a) Египетск. **skr/zkr** «украшать» ((арабск. **zukhruf** زخرف, казахск. **эшекейлеу**, латышск. **izgreznot**, литовск. **išgražinti**, др.-скандинавск. **skreyta** — «украшать»; фарси **зохроф** «убранство, украшение; золото» (زخرف)) и **Skry** «мастер, изготавливающий украшения» ((др.-армянск. **oskerič** ոսկերիչ, ятвяжск. **auskalis** — «золотых дел мастер»)). (Шумерск. **šukara** «инструмент») ((марийск. **ўзгар**, румынск.

sculā — «инструмент»; англ. **skill**, венгерск. **szakértő**, санскр. **sukarman** सुकर्मन् и **sukrt** सुकृत् — «специалист»)).

(5b) (Шумерск. **šagaru** «ч.-л. из металла») ((осетинск. **згъæр**, фарерск. **skervur** [60] — «металл»; прусск. **skārstis** «олово»; санскр. **śuklā** «серебро» शुक्ला и **śukrá** «золото» शुक्र; уичита **askwaaranc/askwaarinc** «золото» [62]; зулу **usoklele** «медь»; ц.-догонск. **ságálá** «железо»; аккадск. **šiqḷu** «сикль (денежно-весовая единица)»; албанск. **shkrihet**, ст.-славянск. **изгорѣти** — «плавиться»; аккадск. **šikkūri** «кузнец?»; санскр. **ayaskāra** «кузнец» अयस्कार; японск. **Ishikoridome/Ishikoritobe** «Исикоридомэ»/«Исикоритобэ» (божество, связанное с обработкой камня и бронзовым литьём) イシコリドメ/イシコリトベ)).

* Отметим близость: др.-армянск. **oskerič'** ոսկերիչ ~ ятвяжск. **auskalis** («золотых дел мастер»).

(6) «Инбу-хедж» (тж.: «Инбу» и «Инб-хедж», египетск. **jnbw** и **jnb-HD**) было исходным названием этого города, известного и под другими именами. Помимо Сокара, он был также центром почитания Птаха и Сахмет. * Обращает на себя внимание фонетическая близость ойконима «Инбу» и теонима «Инпу» — имени бога Анубиса (египетск. **jnpw**, др.-греческ. **Ἄνουβις**), которого, как и Сокара, связывали с потусторонним миром. Это божество изображалось в облике дикой собаки или шакала, либо с головой последнего. Прорисовка этого зверя входила и в иероглифическое написание его имени. Ср. ((Армянск. **shakal** շակալ, загхава **sagur** [64], малагасийск. **sagaly**, мизо **sihal** [64], осетинск. **шакал**, румынск. **șacal**, сербск. **шакал**, таджикск. **шагол**, туркменск. **şagal** — «шакал»; ангаатиха **suhiri** [65], баскск. **zakur**, вайлаки **skoole** [65], др.-греческ. **σκύλαξ**, лонволвол **sakirkir** [65], она **šählki** [64], читак **zugur** [65] — «собака»; литовск. **skalikas**, русск. **сколуха** — «гончая (собака)»)).

* Отметим соответствия: др.-греческ. **σκύλαξ** ~ литовск. **skalikas** ~ лонволвол **sakirkir** ~ она **šählki** ~ русск. **сколуха** («собака»).

(7) ((Албанск. **sokol**, литовск. **sakalas**, чешск. **sokol** — «сокол»; итальянск. **sagro**, немецк. **Saker** — «балобан»; арабск. **saqr** «сокол, сарыч» صقر; кгалагади **shegori** [66], чипайя **škara** [66] — «сокол, ястреб»; ламбади **sakrā** ṣṣṣ «сокол, ястреб, орёл» [71]; натчезск. **soko'l** «орёл» [87]; монгольск. **заралай** «орёл, орлан, стервятник»; англ. **sea eagle** «орлан»; ахтена **sgulak** [69], исландск. **skallaörn** [69] — «белоголовый орлан»; чешск. **orel skalní** «беркут»; бретонск. **skoul** «лунь»; корнийск. **scoul**, словенск. **škarjek** — «коршун»; венгерск. **szakállas saskeselyű**, казахск. **сақаалта** — «ягнятник»; аймарск. **siwiq'ara**, кечуа **suwaq'ara** [73] — «урубубу»; кечуа **wiskul** «гриф» [72]; курдск. **siqalok** «белоголовый сип»; нидерланд. **aasgier** «стервятник»; арабск. **saqr aljidyan** صقر الجديان, французск. **secrétaire** — «секретарь»; банги **esukulunkatu** [70], др.-греческ. **ἄσκάλαφος**, календжинск. **sugurut** [70], с.-саамск. **skuolfi** [70], санскр. **śakrākhyā** शक्राख्य, юкагирск. **сахлэ(н)** — «сова»; ирландск. **scréachóg** reilige «сипуха»; англ. **screech owl** «совка»; н.-лужицк. **skalna** «домовый сыч»; непальск. **śikrā** «тювик» शिक्रा; албанск. **sklop**, англ. **seagull**, бенгальск. **sigāla** জীগান, казахск. **шағала** — «чайка»; русск. **шкучать** «бросаться (о хищной птице)»; хинди **shikaar** «хищная (о птице)» शिकार)).

* Отметим близость: др.-греческ. **ἄσκάλαφος** ~ с.-саамск. **skuolfi** («сова»).

* Общее значение, которое стоит за фонетической формой слов из подборки блока 7 обоих разделов, скорее всего, «охотник». (Ср.: англ. **seeker** «охотник» и **seagull** «чайка».)

(8) Египетск. **sgr** «священный змей» (шумерск. **ušugal** «великий дракон, змей») ((баскск. **Suga(a)r** «Сугар» (божество в облике живущего в пещерах дракона или змея); др.-греческ.

Ἀσκληπίος «Асклепий» (бог медицины, олицетворением которого была змея) и **Σκύλλα** «Скилла» (шестиглавое морское чудовище, обитавшее в пещере, вход которой был обращён на запад); русск. **закликуха** и **скарапея** — «волшебная змея»; японск. **Shugoryū** «Сюгорю» (дракон, стерегущий святое место и живущий в пещере) 守護龍)).

* Египетско-шумерский параллелизм: **sgr** ~ **ušugal** («змея»).

(9) ((Аккадск. **zuqurtu**, бога **šoxlātā** [77], з.-догонск. **sogoro** [77], казахск. **шағыл**, каянск. **sakur** [77], латышск. **uzkalns**, литовск. **iškiluma**, олулуйя **esikulu** [77], русск. **сугор**, украинск. **узгір'я** — «возвышенность, холм»; марийск. **шӱгар** «курган»)).

* Отметим соответствия: латышск. **uzkalns** ~ литовск. **iškiluma** ~ олулуйя **esikulu** ~ украинск. **узгір'я** («холм»).

(10) ((Итальянск. **soglio** «престол»)).

(11) ((Афарск. **səkərtii** [78], датск. **skalotteløg**, испанск. **escalma**, итальянск. **scalogna**, д.-в.-немецк. **asclouch**, русск. **скорода**, тигринья **shiguritii** ሽጎርተ [78], удинск. **шикллам** [78], хамтанга **šegurt** [78] — «лук»; др.-греческ. **σκόρ(ο)δον**, маранао **sakorab** [79] — «чеснок»; сербск. **скрембош**, шведск. **segerlök** — «черемша»)).

На празднике скирофории, связанном с богиней Афиной, называемой также Скирадой (др.-греческ. **Σκίρας**), и Посейдоном (богом моря), афинянки, следуя традиции, ели чеснок. В местечке Скиры, куда в этот день приходила процессия из Афин, находились святилища Афины (богини войны и ремесла, отчасти — сельского хозяйства и навигации), Деметры (богини земледелия) и Персефоны (богини подземья).

* Отметим соответствия 1) афарск. **səkərtii** ~ датск. **skalotteløg** ~ русск. **скорода** ~ тигринья **shiguritii** ~ хамтанга **šegurt** («лук») ~ др.-греческ. **σκόροδον** («чеснок»); 2) испанск. **escalma** ~ удинск. **шикллам** («лук») ~ сербск. **скрембош** («черемша»).

(12) Египетск. **shrt** «корабль» ((английск. **seacraft** «судно»; др.-скандинавск. **askr** «небольшое судно»; португальск. **escaler** «баркас»; др.-русс. **оушкоуль** «ушкуй»; белорус. **шугалея**, индонезийск. **sagur** — «чёлн»)).

(13) Египетск. **sgr/skl/skr** «идти под парусом» ((др.-скандинавск. **sigla** «идти под парусом»)).

Под именем «Скилак» (др.-греческ. **Σκύλαξ** ὁ Καρυανδεύς) известен эллинский мореплаватель, с которым связываются переход по реке Инд, Аравийскому и Красному морям начала VI в. до н. э. и соответствующие записки, впоследствии утраченные. С ним связывалось и описание плаваний по Средиземному морю и вне его, составленное на греческом языке около середины IV в. до н. э.* Всё это даёт основания полагать, что значением слова **σκύλαξ**, возможно, было «навигатор».

(14) ((Сицилианск. **scurata**, эвенкийск. **сеакалан** — «закат»; бенгальск. **asakāla** অসকাল, хинди **shukar** शुकर — «вечер»; аккадск. **saḫār ūmi** «вечером»; японск. **usugure** «сумерки, вечер» 薄暮れ и **usukuragari** «сумерки, полумрак» 薄暗がり; испанск. **oscurecer** «смеркаться»; моно **æseæliolo** [84], юкагирск. **саагарэ** — «запад»; селькупск. **sæḱḱily** «западный» [84])).

* Отметим близость 1) бенгальск. **asakāla** ~ японск. **usugure** «вечер»; 2) испанск. **oscurecer** («смеркаться») ~ японск. **usukuragari** («сумерки»).

(15) (Шумерск. **ešgur/šugur** «кольцо») ((казахск. **шығыр**, фракийск. **skreta** — «кольцо»; амхарск. **šəkərkərit** «обруч» ሽከርከሪት; английск. **circle** и **cycle**, тонганск. **siakale** [84] — «кольцо, цикл»; литовск. **skraja** и **skritulys**, тибетск. **sgorsgor** སྐོར་སྐོར་ [85] — «окружность, круг»; баскск. **zikloa**, фарси **сикл** سیکل — «цикл»; русск. **закольцованность** «цикличность»; иврит **siḥērwr** «вращение» סִיחֶרְוֹר; авестийск. **skarəna-**, айнск. **shikari** — «кольцевой»; аккадск. **saḫāru** «возвращаться, кружить»; ан-

грийск. **escribe** «описывать (окружность)»; литовск. **sūkuriuoti** «кружиться»; аккадск. **ašqulālu**, албанск. **shakullinë**, литовск. **sūkurys**, якама **sk'ulūlupt** [87] — «вихрь»; малайск. **zikir**, турецк. **zikir**, чеченск. **зуькар** — «ритуальный круговой танец (сопровождающий, например, похороны), зикр»; санскр. **Śukra** «Шукра» (полубог, который мог воскрешать мёртвых) शुक्र; японск. **sakura** «сакура» (как символ жизни и смерти) 桜)).

* Отметим соответствия: аккадск. **ašqulālu** ~ албанск. **shakullinë** ~ якама **sk'ulūlupt** («вихрь»).

* И близость: литовск. **skritulys** ~ фракийск. **skreta** («окружность»).

В некоторых языках произношению имени Сокара близка фонетическая форма имени Христа. ((Абхазск. **Иесуа Къырста**, бамана **Yesu Krista**, волоф **Yéesukristaa**, грузинск. **Ieso K'riste** იესო ქრისტე, ирландск. **Íosa Críost**, каннада **Yēsu Krista** ಯೇಸು ಕ್ರಿಸ್ತ, кхмерск. **Yesaou Kris** យ៉េស៊ូគ្រីស្ទ, лаосск. **Yesu Khris** ເຢຊູ ກິຣິດ, маратхи **Yēśū Khrisṭa** येशू ख्रिस्त, др.-окситанск. **Yeshu Xrist**, осетинск. **Йесо Киристе**, самоанск. **Iesu Keriso**, сефардск. **Yesukristo**, суахили **Yesu Kristo**, телугу **Yēsu Kristugā** యేసు క్రీస్తుగా, хауса **Yesu Kristi**, эве **Yesu Kristo**, японск. **Iesu Kirisuto** イエスキリスト — «Иисус Христос»; грузинск. **sak'ristiano** საკრისტიანო,

ю.-сото **Sekriste** — «христианство»; литовск. **sukrikščionėti** «христианизироваться»). Ср. ((Испанск. **ascua**, итальянск. **sacristi** и **sacripante**, немецк. **sackerlot** и **sackerment**, русск. **закрут** тебя возьми, чешск. **k sakru**, французск. **sacrebleu** и **sacré nom** — «чёрт возьми».)

* Как следует из представленных материалов, исходным значением имени бога Сокара с наибольшей вероятностью было «тот, кто убивает».

* Атрибуции, связанные с ним в древнеегипетской культуре, выглядят вызванными близостью фонетических форм соответствующих слов произношению его имени, что может объясняться магическим законом подобия, суть которого в том, что всё подобное как-то связано и может влиять друг на друга. * В неегипетских традициях наиболее близкими к Сокару божествами — теми или иными сторонами того, что с ними связывалось, и их именами — были Загрей, Иисус Христос, Ишкур, Скирада (Афина), Сухрим (Мардук) и Шакра (Индра).

* В пределах, ограниченных темой, было выявлено 12 пар египетских и шумерских слов со сходными фонетико-семантическими характеристиками и 82 по меньшей мере цепочки таких слов, принадлежащих к различным и нецензурированным языковым семьям, которые могут быть использованы в работах по заимствованиям и очень дальним этимологиям.

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Section 4. Pedagogy

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MONITORING AND ASSESSMENT OF EVIDENCE OF STATEMENTS IN DISTANCE LEARNING COURSE OF CALCULUS

Abstract: Evidences of statements is one of the key elements in the study of mathematical disciplines. It is quite difficult to form competencies and skills in the process of all forms of studying, especially if it is distance learning. The objective of the article is to provide methodological recommendations on how to develop a distance course of calculus with the emphasis on the tasks of statements proof.

Keywords: information and communications technologies, MOODLE, distance learning, evidence of statements, calculus, theory of limits, test, testing.

Individual work of students is one of the major activities in the educational process. Due to modern educational technologies the individual work can be of different types, it is implemented differently and holds the main place in the process of distance learning. This type of work can not be underestimated because it fosters the awareness of the topic, systematization and synthesis of the learning material and develops the ability to learn. The role of the teacher is not only to provide the directions and consistency for studying the material, but to supervise the process of forming the knowledge. Distance learning saves students' time and money enabling all inter-

ested people who can not study full time because of some circumstances or health problems to receive quality education. Recently, more and more educational institutions offer a variety of distance courses erasing regional and international borders. Taking into account that this type of training is carried out primarily via the Internet, distance learning requires certain material base but it is extremely important for a student to have patience, perseverance, ability to organize the learning process [1].

The demand, convenience and benefits of distance learning force us to keep up with the times and require developing or revising an increasing

number of courses. In this case modern information and communications technologies (ICT) prove to be useful. One of the ICT that is gaining popularity among the Ukrainian teachers and students is the Modular Object-Oriented Dynamic Learning Environment (MOODLE). The learning platform designed to unite teachers, administrators and pupils (students) into a reliable, safe and integrated system.

As it is known, the quality of education greatly depends on the quality of control. Testing as a type of control has become very popular in Ukraine for the last ten years. Testing of the achievements in education as a method to diagnose knowledge is increasingly being implemented in most countries [2] and has not lost its relevance in the founder countries [3]. And it is not surprising because testing as a method established itself as an objective, impartial, reliable, easy to use tool for diagnosis and monitoring educational process. Scientific, practical and methodological issues about the development and implementation of testing technologies were highlighted by both foreign and Ukrainian scientists including Avanesov V. S., Avramenko O. V., Alhiny J., Bulakh I. E., Zahariychenko Yu. O., Zvonnikova V. I., Kanivets T. M., Crocker L., Kukhar L. O., Mayorov O. M., Mruha M. R., Sergienko V. P., Chelyshkova M. B., Shkolnyi O. V. and others. The textbook by D. Thissen & H. Wainer [4] describes classical testing theory and modern testing theory and specifies the ways of integrating these two approaches. Testing methods for standardized tests in education and psychology to ensure their interchangeability in practical use are in the book by M. J. Kolen & R. L. Brennan [5]. Every five years, the updated work on *Measurement and Evaluation in Teaching* is published. Let us refer to one of the recent publications [6]. In the context of practical implementation of testing technologies MOODLE is very interesting and promising. Opportunities for tests are very wide: from the variations of testing tasks to the creation of tests based on database tests of different tests depending on the goal and objectives [7].

A distance course must traditionally include elements such as objective, tasks, basic organizational forms, course programme, control forms and assessment criteria, etc., and be divided into semesters and modules by the curriculum. This fully applies to the distance course on calculus. Each module can be conventionally divided into three parts:

1. Introduction (organizational part) which indicates the topics of lectures, practical classes and reference literature. The introduction may also contain entrance test, questionnaire, work schedule and so on.
2. The main part (educational):
 - training material (glossary, lectures, e-books, examples and other informational resources);
 - consultations (chat, forum, network consultation);
 - self-control (educational tests);
 - progress control (calendar, grades register, review of electronic answers).
3. The summarizing part (modular control). Summarizing the results of the student's work and determining the level of mastering the subject.

The ability to evidence mathematical statements is an integral part of professional skills of a specialist. Without formation of the skills the knowledge will not be complete which does not meet modern requirements for specialists. To teach evidence of statements of calculus in the process of distance learning is a difficult task. It is well known that the formation and development of skills to proof statements is carried out through a comprehensive study of theoretical material and solving problems. Therefore, distance course should fully contain educational material of both theoretical and practical content.

The problems on evidence of statements can be divided into algorithmic, semi-algorithmic and heuristic [8]. According to this division it is important to follow the sequence of introduction of tasks on evidence of the statements while compiling the course: 1) study the example of evidence of the statements; 2) practice the assertion; 3) solve similar problems (algorithms); 4) problems with a

combination of methods of evidence of statements (semi-algorithms); 5) creative tasks.

Some problems of calculus on evidence of statements could become algorithms. This group usually includes proof by definition, proof by contradiction, by the method of mathematical induction and others.

The algorithmic approach to the evidence of statements has the following advantages:

- facilitates the perception of the material by students;
- contributes to a better understanding of the statements that are proofing;
- allows you to train evidences a certain group of statements;
- creates a better understanding of the method of evidence which is helpful in solving creative problems;
- facilitates teachers' control of the formation of logical evidences by students;
- enables monitoring through testing technologies including MOODLE;
- forms abstract and logical thinking of the students etc.

The MOODLE environment allows implementing algorithmic tasks on evidence through various types of tests that are realized in the MOODLE system. Tests with one correct answer are easily implemented by the integrated answers, multiple choices and the tasks "right/wrong"; tests with multiple choice answers are implemented by the integrated answers and the tasks with multiple choice; tests to establish the sequence of stages are implemented by the tasks on compliance.

It is clear that the correct solution of the semi-algorithmic and heuristic problems on evidence that can be presented as an additional problem and with complete answer is not possible to assess automatically and requires teacher's assessment. MOODLE

allows implementing this type of problem only with the type of testing as an essay.

The distance learning course of the first chapter of the calculus "Theory of limits" was created at Central Ukrainian Volodymyr Vynnychenko State Pedagogical University. The course is used by students of the specialties "Secondary school (Mathematics)", "Statistics", "Computer Sciences". Particular attention is paid to the monitoring and assessment of the process of evidence and implementing tests of all forms presented above [9; 10]. A course user solving educational tests can independently control the learning process, view the statistical analysis of the results and analyze errors. A student does not receive ready solution but has plenty of time to think over the problem or the task. Moreover, he/she can use forum, chat to discuss controversial or unclear issues and the network to be advised by the teacher. Issues arising in the solution of problems on heuristic evidence stimulate the development of creative and critical thinking, encourage search activities. The experience of distance learning course confirms that students acquire the skills to learn independently and to find answers to questions. The knowledge becomes more conscious, structured, profound and it contributes the formation of a highly qualified specialists.

It is also important that a teacher has a possibility to analyze the effectiveness and appropriateness of the specific test that offers MOODLE. It is possible to correlate and improve the test to make it more appropriate for a specific group of users.

One of the advantages of distance learning is the opportunity to study independently, so it is clear that distance courses full of tests to check the evidence are useful for the full-time students as well as for all who study calculus.

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STATISTICAL AND TECHNICAL ANALYSIS OF A COMPETITION IN ALBANIAN WRESTLING

Abstract: Wrestling is a sport, which is supplied mainly by anaerobic energy sources and by repeatedly performing the explosive movements to counter the strength of adversary. In this study we present specific data wrestlers who participated in the expanse of the Republic held in Tirana on 25–26.11.2016, attended by 7 teams who were represented by 42 wrestlers. The data were subjected to statistical analysis and were analyzed using SPSS. The results showed that 16.60% of games are won 5–0, 4–0 42.80%, 26.10% are winning 3–1 and 14:20% are winning 3–0. The study concludes with a written conclusions where it was found that the dominance of simple catches, which increases the need for a serious preparation throughout the year for teaching and practice of high quality catches.

Keywords: sportsman, wrestling, catches, results.

Introduction

Sport in general, especially wrestling require affliction and sacrifice. Wrestling is a sport, which is supplied mainly by anaerobic energy sources and by repeatedly performing the explosive movements to counter the adversary forces. Depending on the level of the race, the strengthening of wrestlers lasts 6–9 min. The objective the training is to develop the anaerobic and lactic anaerobic system, particularly increased tolerance to afford high rates of lactate [1, 197–199].

The main physical skills, related to the supply anaerobic of the performance sports wrestlers, are: speed-strength; strength-endurance, flexibility, overall strength, balance, kinesthetic skills and sport tech-

niques [2, 46–53]. The effectiveness of the training program, is periodicity basic exercises with weights, influential in many joints, which in itself constitute a closed kinetic chain [3, 12–16]. With a well-planned program is given priority to increasing the maximum force and improving the speed of its development with aim to create explosive power, which will be shown repeatedly during the match [4, 74–79]. In the process of preparing the force, attention should be devoted to perfecting the technique work and gradual progress of the training program of strength. To conservation the motivation of wrestlers and load efficiency, it is important that every week, changed the exercises strength [5; 11, 158].

Method of study

Republic of Cup for adults was developed on 25–26/11/2016 in the sports hall “Aslan Russi” Tirana. It was attended by 42 wrestlers from 7 sports teams are the best in the country. Accumulation of entire and accurate data which are calculation of various

parameters and coefficients technical-tactical underwent statistical analysis. Data were analyzed using SPSS. Matches were held under international technical Regulation two periods, three minutes long each [6, 133]. Delivering wrestlers participating at the races by teams in the table given below:

Table 1. – Number of participating sportsmen and order by weight

| Nr. | Weight Team | Tir. | Olim. | Bes. | Teuta | Tom. | Flam. | Vlla. |
|----------------------|-------------|------|-------|------|-------|------|-------|-------|
| 1 | 55kg | 1 | | | 1 | 1 | 1 | |
| 2 | 60kg | 1 | 1 | | 2 | | 1 | |
| 3 | 66kg | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | | 1 | 1 |
| 4 | 74kg | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| 5 | 84kg | 1 | 1 | 2 | | | | 2 |
| 6 | 96kg | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | | 1 | |
| 7 | 120kg | 1 | 1 | | | 2 | | |
| NR. WRESTLERS | | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 4 | 5 | 5 |
| Amount: 42 Sportsmen | | | | | | | | |

This event were conducted 42 matches with the circle system, this is due to low number of sportsmen. This rule Albanian Wrestling Federation has approved under Regulation her and always applies when the number of participants is small in competitions. If applied according to the Regulation international lottery system matches the number would be lower [7, 65]. The matches showed high spirit and fight strong sporting competition between wrestlers:

- In I weight, 55kg, were conducted 4 meetings and 4 sportsmen clashed;
- At II weight, 60kg, were conducted 5 meetings and clashed 5 sportsmen;
- The weight of III, 66kg, were conducted 7 meetings and clashed 7 sportsmen;

- The weight IV, 74kg, were conducted 9 meetings and clashed 9 sportsmen;
- The weight V, 84 kg, were conducted 6 meetings and 6 sportsmen clashed;
- In VI weight, 96kg, they were conducted 7 meetings and clashed 7 sportsmen;
- In VII weight, 120kg, were conducted 4 meetings and 4 sportsmen clashed.

Scoring according to their ranking was made in this way: place I of evaluated 6 points, II place with 5 points, country III 4 points, place IV 3 points, place V 2 points and 1 point place of VI. Table 2 have reflected only the first three places and points. At the conclusion of this activity ranking of teams and sportsmen by weight is as follows: (see table 2).

Table 2. – Number of sportsmen and winning scores received by weights

| Nr. | Teams | Place I | Place II | Place III | Points |
|-----|------------|---------|----------|-----------|--------|
| 1 | Tirana | 4 | 2 | 1 | 38 |
| 2 | Olimpik | 2 | | 1 | 23 |
| 3 | Beslidhja | | 3 | | 21 |
| 4 | Teuta | | 1 | 3 | 19 |
| 5 | Tomorri | 1 | | 2 | 17 |
| 6 | Flamurtari | | 1 | | 14 |
| 7 | Vllaznia | | | | 6 |

On this activity was applied technical rules of wrestling, which consists of the final classification:

- 5 points for the winner and 0 for the loser, falling victory (touch, pin) with or without technical point for the loser, injury, withdrawal, his absence, disqualification and three error warnings against regulation;
- 4 points for the winner and 0 for the loser: technical superiority victory (6 points difference during two periods) with loser that does not indicate any technical points;
- 4 points for the winner and one loser: the victory with technical superiority (6 points difference during two periods) with loser that gets points technical;

• 3 points for the winner and 0 for the loser: when during 2 periods, wrestler winner gets 1 to 5 points, the loser does not score any points;

• 3 points for the winner and one the loser, during two periods when the match ended with a victory by points during regular time and losers one or several technical points.

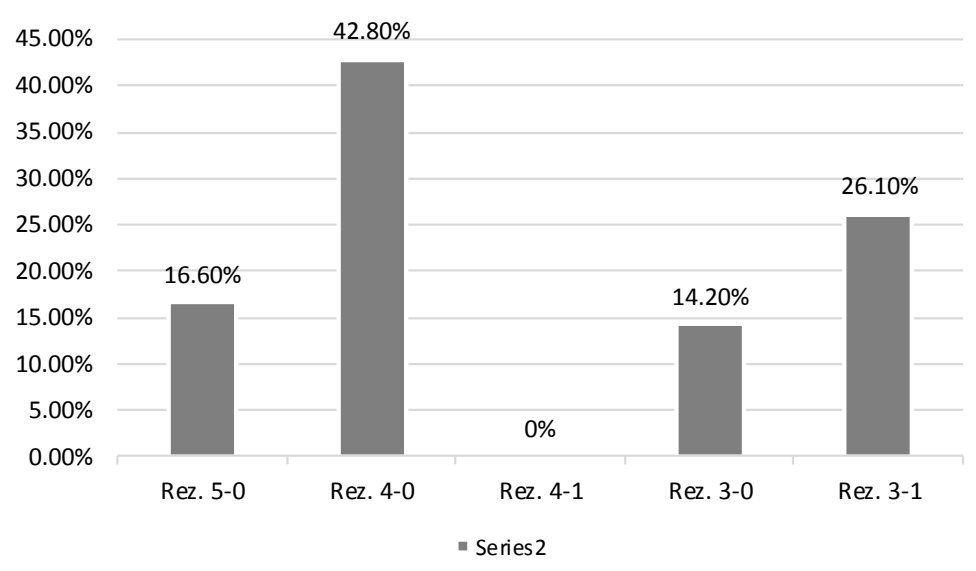
Results

Contents of the results explained in full all the activity experimental activity of wrestlers, giving the following results. In Table 3, we present the results to the wrestlers of studied.

Table 3. – Points classification data for each match in the respective weights

| Nr. | Weight | Res. 5-0 | Res. 4-0 | Res. 4-1 | Res. 3-0 | Res. 3-1 |
|-----|------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| 1 | 55.kg | 1 | 2 | – | – | 1 |
| 2 | 60.kg | 1 | 2 | – | – | 2 |
| 3 | 66.kg | 1 | 4 | – | – | 2 |
| 4 | 74.kg | 1 | 6 | – | 1 | 1 |
| 5 | 84.kg | 1 | 2 | – | – | 3 |
| 6 | 96.kg | – | 1 | – | 5 | 1 |
| 7 | 120.kg | 2 | 1 | – | – | 1 |
| | Mean | 7 | 18 | – | 6 | 11 |
| | Account. % | 16.60% | 42.80% | 0% | 14.20% | 26.10% |
| | P | 0.05 | 0.03 | – | 0.02 | 0.001 |

The table above (3) expressing graphically as follows:



Graph 1. Shows the percentage results

Games were characterized by war sports, but in the greater participation passive war remains trainers and wrestlers element of achieving tactical advantage. This element often led in the loss of match, with the active war can be victory was secure. Level catches high quality was applied in a massive way, where it was observed that in general be realized clasps simple. That which would lead in enhancing the quality of sport is to prepare well with more physical and tactical plan, which played a key role in the loss of match. The observation that we do Table 2, the final classification, we note that the team Tirana, Albania dominates wrestling, after having composed wrestler with good at the national level, who have the youngest average age of the other teams. In this annual preparation team systematic scientific level, it does the dominance of others. Observing Table 3, we note that dominate the results 5–0 and 3–1, which constitute 68.90% of the overall results, namely 29 matches. Results 5–0 and 3–0 are almost at the same level and constitute 30.80%, namely 13 matches. To score 5–0 we saw high technical level in the light weights, 55–66 kg. It was also noted on the score 4–0 in the middle weight 74 kg, with 6 matches from 9 all that weight are 4–0. This result is to look at the 18 matches that make up 42.80% total, 10 matches in 66–74 kg weights, comprise 23.80%, namely half. To results 3–0 and 3–1 we look high physical preparation on legs and the little war in the land, where every moment of one or the other winning wrestler match.

Dominates 3–0 in the heavy weight 96 kg, which closed 5 matches, from 6 total. Rivalry was high at 3–1 after the winner and loser wrestler were shared with technical points. The desire to contribute a little bit to improve quality in the sport of wrestling sports, naturally led us to the general conclusions.

Conclusions

Level wrestlers, who participated in this activity was higher in some categories of weights of all the teams. It was concluded predominance of catches simple thing which increases the need for a serious preparation for learning in chain teams and exercising high quality catches. It is necessary to focus the attention and the practical realization of the level of scientific training for the integration of wrestling at levels in the range of international quality.

We think it is necessary restructuring of the wrestling sport, where state structures should be more aware of the financing and infrastructure and materials, and reward quality wrestlers. Creating spaces for this sport, extending it across the country and set up teams to rank schools or associations. In conclusion note that this activity with achievements and vulnerabilities testified to the good work done (whatever the conditions) to enter the sport of wrestling in elite sports. With this writing we think give a modest contribution, which hopefully be followed by others in the future, helping somehow to progress sport wrestling that is tradition sport in our country.

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ON THE FUNDAMENTALS OF TEACHING ELECTRONICS AND MECHATRONICS IN EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

Today the country faces changes in all areas of activity. We are aware of fundamental changes in the teaching process in general education schools. The President of Kazakhstan set a goal to join the list of 30 most developed countries. The important thing is not what a person knows, but what he can do and how he can apply knowledge.

In the Address of the President of Kazakhstan N. Nazarbayev to the nation of Kazakhstan as of January 31, 2017 “The 3rd modernization of Kazakhstan: global competitiveness” it was stated that the first priority is an accelerated technological modernization of the economy.

The head of the state noted that we must cultivate new industries that are created with the use of digital technologies. This is an important complex task.

It is necessary to develop in the country such promising industries as 3D-printing, online trade, mobile banking, digital services, including in the sphere of healthcare, education, and other spheres of economy. These industries have already changed the economic structure of developed countries and have given a new quality to traditional industries.

It is also important to ensure the development of communications, a universal access to fiber-optic infrastructure. The development of digital industry will provide an impulse to all other sectors. Therefore, as N. A. Nazarbayev stated, the government should keep the issue of the IT-sector development under special control.

The important condition for formation of new industries is a support of innovations and their rapid introduction into production (the Address of the President of Kazakhstan N. Nazarbayev to the nation of Kazakhstan as of January 31, 2017 “The 3rd modernization of Kazakhstan: global competitiveness”).

In Nazarbayev Intellectual School of Chemistry and Biology in Ust-Kamenogorsk “robotics” is lectured as an elective discipline, robot programming “LegoMindsorms EV3”. Since 2016 the school has been conducting training courses for regional schools teachers with the goal of introducing “elective robotics courses” in rural schools.

In recent years higher education institutions and secondary specialized professional technical institutions have begun training specialists in mechatronics and robotics. Mechatronics and robotics is a new and modern profession introduced in the country. In Nazarbayev University there is a department for training specialists in mechatronics and robotics.

Mechatronics is a synergistic (interdisciplinary) combination of machine building, electronic engineering, computer developments, automatic control theory (engineering cybernetics) and detailed engineering of systems, which aims to create, design and produce useful products. Owing to the development of fiber optics and other optical technologies, the designing of optoelectronic systems and fibrous optics is combined into one course and replaces some electronics courses.

The word **mechatronics** is defined as a multi-discipline in the technical system development, i. e. it abandons the division of designing into separate disciplines.

The mechatronics-engineer combines the rules of mechanics, electronics and computations in order to generate a simpler, more economical and reliable system.

As these tendencies were most developed in Japan, and “electric drive” was not a familiar term there, the term “mechatronics” was introduced to describe these systems in Japan. The direct author is a Japanese Tetsuro Moria, senior engineer of the company Yaskawa Electric, and the term itself appeared in 1969.

The term consists of 2 parts, i. e. “mecha” from the word “mechanics” and “tronica” from the word “electronics”. Originally, this term was a trademark (registered in 1972), but after its widespread distribution the company refused to use it as a registered trademark.

Mechatronics spread from Japan throughout the world.

Mechatronics is focused on mechanics, electronics, computation, automatic control technology, molecular engineering (from nanochemistry and biology), optical engineering, which in combination make it possible to generate simpler, more economical, reliable and universal systems.

What is the subject of mechatronics and robotics?

How are mechatronic and robotic systems created?

We will formulate answers to these questions based on the extended physical interpretation of mechatronic systems.

The purpose of mechatronics is to create intelligent machines and physico-technical systems and processes for various purposes that have qualitatively new functions and properties.

The method of mechatronics is based on a systemic combination of synergetic integration of structural elements of energy and information flow technologies for goal achievement.

Mechatronics is a field of science and technology based on synergetic combination of fine mechanics

parts with electronic, electro-technical and computer components that ensure designing and production of qualitatively new modules, systems, machines and systems with intellectual control of their functional movements.

Mechatronics is characterized by pursuance of complete integration of:

- mechanics;
- electric machines;
- power electronics;
- programmable controllers;
- microprocessor technology and;
- software.

Now mechatronics is understood as an electric drive system with executing mechanisms of relatively small power, which guarantee fine movements and have an advanced control system. First of all, the term “mechatronics” is used for separation from general industrial systems of an electric drive and for emphasizing the special requirements to mechatronic systems. Exactly in this sense mechatronics as a field of technology is known throughout the world.

The mechatronic system is a set of several mechatronic modules and nodes, which are synergistically interconnected, for the performance of a specific functional task.

Generally, the mechatronic system is an integration of electromechanical components with power electronics, which are controlled by various microcontrollers, PCs or other computing devices.

Traditionally, mechatronics is represented as a unity of three parts – drive (1), executive and transmission mechanisms (2) and control (3).

- 4 – electromechanics;
- 5 – automatics;
- 6 – area of the adjustable drive;
- 7 – mechatronics itself.

Synergy (Greek συνεργία – cooperation, assistance, help, co-participation, cooperation, Greek σύν – together, Greek έργον – business, labor, work, re (action)) – the summing result of interaction of two or more factors, characterized by the fact that

their action significantly exceeds the effect of each component taken separately.

For example:

- Combination (synergism) of two or more pieces of radioactive material, when the critical mass is exceeded, results in the energy release that exceeds the emission of energy of simple summation of individual pieces;

- Knowledge and efforts of several people can be organized in such a way that they are reciprocally reinforced;

- Profit after the merger of two companies may exceed the amount of profits of these companies before the merger.

The word “robot”, invented in 1920, provided the basis for the word “robotics”. “Robot” was invented by the Czech writer Karel Čapek for his science fiction play “R. U.R.” (“Rossum’s Universal Robots”), which was first set in 1921 and was popular among the audience. There the factory owner arranges the output of many androids, which first work without rest, but then rebel and destroy their creators.

The word “robotics” was first used in print media by Isaac Asimov in the science fiction short story “Liar”, published in 1941.

Robotics is based on the following disciplines:

- electronics;
- mechanics;
- informatics;
- radiotechnics and;
- electrical engineering.

Kazakhstan will produce its robot when we train a well-educated hardworking specialist. And we will achieve this goal if it is set correctly. Therefore, the head of the state draws our attention to improvement of the quality of human capital assets. This is the fourth priority in the Address to the people of Kazakhstan, where the change in the role of education system is put in the first place.

He noted that our task is to make our education the central link of a new model of economic growth. Curricula should be aimed at development of skills for critical thinking and independent search of information.

At the same time a great attention should be paid to the formation of IT knowledge, financial literacy and patriotic education of young people. It is necessary to reduce the gap in the quality of education between urban and rural schools (the Address of the President of Kazakhstan N. Nazarbayev to the nation of Kazakhstan as of January 31, 2017 “The 3rd modernization of Kazakhstan: global competitiveness”).

In our school the training of students is aimed not only at knowledge and understanding, but also at application of the acquired knowledge in everyday life. But how can we achieve this? — Of course, through critical thinking.

During physics lessons questions are examined through logical elements and their connection with analytic systems. Introduction of logical elements and management of analytic system will be considered in practical part.

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MONITORING CHILDREN'S GROSS MOTOR COORDINATION DURING ONE YEAR; EVIDENCE BASED ON GENDER DIFFERENCES

Abstract

Introduction

The best motor learning age to learn motor abilities is the phase before puberty, [1]. Several studies are focused on obesity, physical activity promotion in children and on sport participations in Albania [2], but only few of them have the main focus on motor abilities [3]. The purpose of this study is to monitor and identify differences on the performance of gross motor coordination in one year for boys and girls.

Methods

A total of 577 children, 7 and 8 years old, (281 girls and 296 boys) respectively in four elementary schools in Tirana City wererandomly selected. To monitor and compare gross motor coordination level by gender from Time 1 (2014) to Time 2 (2015) were used four tests from the KTK- Body Coordination Test for Children [4], the balance beam test aiming to assess active balance, while walking along on a gymnastics balance beam, plate movement test to measure upper body movement speed and coordination, jumping one leg where children were asked to jump over the mats from the lower level up to their maximum level and lateral jumping test jumping laterally as many times as possible over a wooden slat in 15 seconds.

Results

The results from balance bean test show the following; boys (T1–47.3 steps and T2–47.5 steps; $p = 0.938$) while girls (T1–53.4 steps and T2–50.1 steps; $p = 0.257$); while the results of the testing on plate movement resulted as follows; boys (T1–22.6 counts and T2–21.1; $p = 0.175$) while girls (T1–21.3 counts and T2–21.4 steps; $p = 0.856$). The data for the two other tests show; jumping one leg for boys (T1–51.7 points and T2–40.8 points; $p = 0.000$), while for girls (T1–57.3 points and T2–52.0 points; $p = 0.153$); the results of the testing on lateral jumping were; boys (T1–65.3 jumps and T2–65.3 jumps; $p = 0.996$), and girls (T1–62.3 jumps and T2–65.5 jumps; $p = 0.278$)

Conclusion

Based on this study we found out that there was a stagnation on the performance of gross motor coordination from year 2014 to year 2015 in boys and girls. There was a (significant) decrease in the values on boys performing one leg jumping test.

Keywords: gender differences; children's gross motor coordination; stagnation on the performance of gross motor coordination.

Introduction

In some developed countries was noticed that the number of children who are overweight has increased in this last 2 decades [5]. In another study [6] it is shown that overweight is spread more and more among children and teenagers. While given that physical activity and Fitness are closely related with BMI: this complex factors (low level of physical activity and fitness) may affect in increasing and spreading of overweight among children.

A research in sport and physical activity has showed that children who demonstrate athletic competence tend to be more popular with their peers than less skilled children [7]. Also to the other side children who are poorly skilled often become the target of criticism, ridicule and bullying [8], and exclusion [9].

In 2008, prevention of obesity among children of aged 6–11 was 20%, three times that had spread more than in 1980 (7%) (6, 39–41) [10]. Interventions in school can help neutralize this development [11].

Lack of physical activity and the increased sedentary behavior are not related with the misbalance of energy but also with the decreased ability of physical and motor performance, this is what is said in recommendations for the promotion of physical activity among children and teenagers.

Without any doubt, physical activity and exercise in free time during the day are important for people of all ages [12]. Specifically, data given from direct observations are related with their activity [13]. Existing data are based on modest and relative examples from pre-school [14] and have provided a global information regarding the social circumstances (e.g adults) environmental (e.g indoor and outdoor) and physical activity in children [15].

Based on or knowledge there is no study addressed to the changing problems of BMI in children aged 6–10, who practice physical activity, motor and coordinating skills, but also aerobic fitness as a predictor of time changes. But also from a study was showed that there is lack of information concerning physical activity in primary school [16].

More thoroughly, boys and girls who are obese and overweight have a poor physical and motor skill performance unlike their peers [17]. Preliminary research related to obese children and their motor skills have produced mixed results. Two studies indicate limited motor skills in obese children and also to their peers with normal weight, but this results do not indicate obesity in woman. [18]. While, several studies on the motor skill indicate disability in obese children regardless of gender [19] or only in boys [20] also it is tested the ability of controlled target in both genders.

For the general motor skills, the results are mixed due to the small number of studies, which do not suggest any association of obesity until the age of 9 years [21].

There is a lack of published research studies on coordination abilities especially in Albania thus we carried out this study which primary purpose is to monitor children's gross motor coordination during one year period and to find out evidences based on gender differences in Albanian children.

Methods

In order to achieve this objective it was measured a total of 577 children, respectively 281 boys and 296 girls. A total of 140 boys aged 7 years old and 141 boys aged 8 years were part of this study. Moreover, the study included 130 seven-year old girls and 166 eight-year old girls.

The children who participated in this study were 7–8 years old. The tests performed included children at two elementary schools randomly selected in Tirana city. Children were measured in the first year (T1) in 2014 and in second year (T2) in 2015 on each tests.

Test performed

Children were all tested with the test battery **KTK-Body Coordination Test for Children.**

1. Balance Beam test;
2. Moving with plates test;
3. Jumping one leg test;
4. Lateral Jumping test.

Measurements and motor performance assessment

Balance Beam

To assess active balance we have used 'the Balance Beam Test', where the children should show the ability to maintain balance while walking along the balance beam. The children are asked to walk along the entire length of a gymnastics balance beam without falling off. They are asked to start at one end of the gymnastic beam, walk along the length of it and then finish it to the other side of the balance beam. This test is repeated three times and the beams have different width 6.0 cm, 4.5 cm, and 3.0 cm. The children are asked to repeat the walking on the balance beam three times, where the score for each trial is the average of test overall score. To assess this sets we needed only one gymnastic balance beam and a stopwatch.

Moving with plates

To assess coordination of lower limbs we have used 'Moving with plates Test' which is part of **KTK-Body Coordination Test for Children**.

To assess this test children are asked to move/shift while walking over the two plates laterally as many times as possible. The overall test should be scored over a period of 20 seconds. The children are encouraged to move as much as possible over this period of time, without touching the feet on the floor. To assess this test the number of the moves children do on the plate in 20 seconds are recorded. To assess this test we have used only two plates and a stopwatch.

Jumping one leg:

To assess power of the lower limbs we have used jumping one leg test, which is also part of the **KTK-Body Coordination Test for Children**. To perform this test children are asked to jump with one leg over an increasing pile of pillows. The surface of each pillow is 60 cm × 20 cm, and 5 cm high. The children are asked to jump over the mats from the lower level, 5 cm up to their maximum level which goes up to 12 level (5 cm × 12). The maximum jump performed by each child with both right and left leg is recorded. The children are encouraged to jump as high as pos-

sible to show higher results. Assessing this test we have used only 12 mats 5 cm each.

Lateral Jumping:

To assess gross motor coordination we have used Lateral Jumping test also part of the KTK battery, **KTK-Body Coordination Test for Children**. Children are asked to jump laterally as many times as possible over a wooden slat. The perimeter of the wooden slat should be (60 cm × 4 cm × 2 cm). The children should perform the jump within 15 seconds. They are motivated to jump as fast as they can without stepping out of the border line of the surface of the test surface. The number of jumps over two trials of 15 seconds is summed. To assess this test we have used a chronometer and a wooden slat.

Statistical analysis

SPSS 16.0 program was used to process the data gathered from the tests. The descriptive statistics was used to calculate the mean arithmetic values, standard deviations (SD), and maximum (max) and minimum (min) values. The differences between the children data in first year (T1) and year 2 (T2) for boys and girls were calculated with the unpaired t-test.

Results

The results from the balance beam test showed that boys performed 47.3 steps (T1) and 47.5 steps (T2), where the p value was $p = 0.938$, while girls performed 53.4 steps (T1) and 50.1 steps in (T2) with a p value 0.257.

On the coordination of lower limbs test measured with the plate movement test the boys had a score in (T1) – 22.6 values and in (T2) – 21.1 values, with a p – value $p = 0.175$. The girls performing the same test in (T1) showed 21.3 counts and in (T2) – 21.4 steps, with a p – value $p = 0.856$.

The data for the jumping one leg test showed that boys had performed the explosive power test with 51.7 points in (T1) and 40.8 points (T2), with a value of $p = 0.000$. While the girls had performed (T1) – 57.3 points and (T2) – 52.0 points; $p = 0.153$

While the results on performing lateral jumping test for boys showed values as 65.3 jumps in (T1) and

65.3 jumps in (T2). With a value of $P = 0.996$. Girls (T1) and 65.5 jumps in (T2), with $p = 0.278$ results show that they have performed 62.3 jumps in

Tabele 1. – Data's from first year Test performed

| Time 1 | Balance Beam | Plate Movement | Jumping One leg | Lateral Jumping |
|--------|--------------|----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Boys | 47.3 | 22.6 | 51.7 | 65.7 |
| Girls | 53.4 | 21.1 | 57.3 | 62.3 |

Tabele2. – Data's from second year Test performed

| Time 2 | Balance Beam | Plate Move | Jumping One leg | Lateral Jumping |
|--------|--------------|------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Boys | 47.5 | 21.1 | 40.8 | 65.3 |
| Girls | 50.1 | 21.4 | 52 | 65.5 |

Discussion

Situation in Albania

In Albania there are several studies focusing on sport participation, obesity and physical activity promotion of children, but only a few of them have focused mainly on motor abilities. In 1996 in it was published a cross sectional study on Albanian children co-ordination abilities [22]. "Basics of exercise on children aged 11–14 years" where the motor abilities (co-ordination abilities) were determined by six tests. The results of this study showed that both boys and girls had lower values in all co-ordination abilities compared with children of the same age in Europe. Girls showed lower values compared with boys, especially in kinesthetic differentiation ability.

A study carried out by Balkan Sport and Health Research Center (<http://www.balkan-shrc.org>) titled "The Current level of health and skills related fitness indicators in Albania children, references from a

country in transition", by the authors Juel Jarani [1], Keida Ushtelenca [2] and Andi Spahi [3], which was a cross-sectional study that included 1176 children, 618 boys and 558 girls aged 7–10 years, showed that children in Albania had motor difficulties in everyday skills, specially moderate motor disorder-31.2% and severe motor disorder-8%.

Conclusion

– Based on this study we found out that there was stagnation on the performance of gross motor coordination from year 2014 to year 2015 in boys and girls;

– There was a (significant) decrease in the values on boys performing jumping with one leg test;

– While as according to the lateral jump test resulted to be identically the same (65.3 jumps);

– Based on these findings we recommend the PE teachers should work more on Coordination during this age of children's development.

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ZUR ROLLE DES LEHRERS IM FREMDSPRACHENUNTERRICHT MIT DER NEUEN MEDIEN

Abstrakt: Die neuen Medien prägen den Bildungsbereich in hohem Maße. Sie beeinflussen den Lernprozess im Fremdsprachenunterricht. Es verändert sich auch die Rolle des Lehrers.

Schlüsselwörter: neue Medien, Fremdsprachenunterricht, die Rolle des Lehrers.

Die neuen Medien verändern das Lernen wie kaum eine gesellschaftliche Entwicklung zuvor. Digitale Bildung beschreibt, wie sich der Bildungsprozess mit dem Einsatz digitaler Medien verändert: Lernen findet zunehmend virtuell statt, ob als E-Lektüre, Webinar, Massive Open Online Course (MOOC), im „Flippend Classroom“ oder durch spezielle Learning Apps. Neue Medien beinhalten aber auch, wie sich die Rolle des Lehrers verändert. Dabei geht es um mehr als den Erwerb von Faktenwissen. Viel bedeutender wird die Kompetenz, didaktische Möglichkeiten der neuen Medien zu benutzen, sie anzuwenden und kreative Lösungen für Problemstellungen entwickeln zu können.

In der Öffentlichkeit, vor allem im Umfeld von Schule, wird oft der Begriff der „Neuen Medien“ verwendet — meist allerdings ohne eine Erklärung für diesen und ohne konkrete Vorstellungen darüber, was sich diesem Begriff verbirgt. Daher erachten wir es als notwendig, eine Begriffsdefinition zu erarbeiten. Zunächst muss festgestellt werden, dass jedes Medium zu Beginn seines Erscheinens „neu“ war. Doch würde heute in unserem Kulturkreis niemand mehr das Fernsehen, das Radio oder ein gedrucktes Buch als „neues Medium“ bezeichnen.

In unserer Zeit versteht man unter dem Begriff meist etwas, das mit Computern und Netzwerktechnologie (z. B. Internet) zu tun hat [1], obwohl diese Technik schon seit vielen Jahren im Einsatz ist. Es ist

davon auszugehen, dass sich das, was man unter „neuen“ Medien versteht, auf Grund fortschreitender technischer Entwicklungen ändern wird. Eine Möglichkeit der allgemeineren, vom Technikstand unabhängigen Definition liefert Bollmann [2, 12]. Er fasst unter dem Begriff „Neue Medien“ „alle Verfahren und Mittel, die mit Hilfe digitaler Technologie, also computerunterstützt, bislang nicht gebräuchliche Formen von Informationsübertragung, Informationsspeicherung und Informationsübertragung, aber auch neuartige Formen von Kommunikation ermöglichen“ zusammen.

Im schulischen Kontext werden damit computerbasierte Angebote für das Lehren und Lernen verstanden. Dabei macht es keinen Unterschied, ob diese Angebote lokal auf den schulischen Rechnern auf CD, DVD oder Festplatte genutzt werden oder ob Netzwerke wie das Internet – mittels World Wide Web – verwendet werden [3, 17].

Für Weidenmann [4, 46] zeichnen sich Neue Medien dadurch aus, dass die darüber vermittelten Anwendungen und Angebote multimodal und multicodal (s. u.) sind und der Nutzer und das mediale Angebot über neue Formen der Interaktivität (z. B. Volltextsuche, Erstellen von Verknüpfungen (Links)) verbunden sind.

Reinmann [5, 74] bezeichnet sie nicht als „Neue“, sondern als „Digitale Medien“. Dabei verwendet sie eine ähnliche Beschreibung wie Bollmann (s. o.): die

neuen Informations- und Kommunikationstechnologien (IuK-Technologien) „eröffnen neue Möglichkeiten der Information, der Informationsdarstellung und des Informationszugangs einerseits und neue Wege der Kommunikation und Kooperation andererseits“ (ebd.). Als weitere Merkmale macht sie „Multi-medialität, Interaktivität, Simulation, Kommunikation und Kooperation über die Distanz hinweg“ aus [5, 76]

Ein ähnliches Verständnis von neuen Medien zeigt Hess, für den der Begriff – auf Bildung bezogen – „alle Formen digitalisierter Lehr- und Lernmaterialien bezeichnet“ [6, 306]. Sieht man von der pädagogischen Ausrichtung seiner Definition ab, kennzeichnen auch für ihn Interaktivität, Multimedia und Kommunikationswerkzeuge wie E-Mail, Foren und Chat die Neuen Medien.

In diesen Beschreibungen werden als Kennzeichen der Neuen Medien Multimedia und Interaktivität getrennt betrachtet. Es verhält ist jedoch so, dass sich Multimedia erst durch Interaktivität auszeichnen.

Als „neu“ bezeichnen wir im Folgenden computergestützte Medien, die dem Nutzer Informationen mit mehr als zwei Codierungen anbieten können und mit denen dieser die Darstellung der Medien steuern kann.

Die neuen Medien verändern den Lernprozess im Fremdsprachenunterricht. Wie sich an der entsprechenden Didaktik erkennen lässt, ist ein völlig verändertes Verständnis der Rolle des Lehrers erforderlich. Es sollte klar geworden sein, dass die Lehrenden den Wissenserwerb nicht bestimmen, sondern höchstens steuern und beeinflussen können [7, 81]. Der Lehrende muss also sein Rolle als Vermittler der Fremdsprache aufgeben und die Schülerinnen und Schüler bei ihren Konstruktionsprozessen unterstützen [8, 345]. Bimmel und Rampillon [9, 55] vergleichen diese Tätigkeit mit der eines „Managers“.

Dabei soll der Manager die Aufgaben und Ziele analysieren, die — zum Erreichen dieser — die notwendigen Strategien aktivieren oder erarbeiten, die

Ausführung der Strategien überwachen und schließlich prüfen, ob das Ziel erreicht wurde.

Also findet der Unterricht nicht mehr „nur“ im Rezipiermodus statt, bei dem sich der Lehrer primär als „Instruktor“ versteht. Vor allem im sogenannten Gruppenunterricht werden didaktische Ansätze genutzt, die darauf abzielen, Themen interaktiv mit den Schülern und Schülerinnen zu erarbeiten. Das gilt auch, und vielleicht sogar besonders, für die Primarstufe. Die Rolle des Lehrers hat sich zunehmend in Richtung „Activator“ und „Facilitator“ entwickelt [6].

Moderne Lehrer benutzen heute ein ganzes Instrumentarium an Methoden: Selbstbestimmtes Lernen in Gruppen mit oder ohne Moderation, individuelles Coaching, Lernen durch Beobachtung und Nachahmung (Learning by Apprenticeship), fachübergreifendes und projektorientiertes Experimentieren und Referieren (Inquiry-based Learning), Simulation und Spiele werden passend zum Thema und dem zu vermittelnden Inhalt miteinander kombiniert. Vielfach werden auch die Methoden so gewählt, dass sie zu einem einzelnen Schüler passen und somit unterschiedliche Konzepte in einer Klasse schülerspezifisch eingesetzt. Direkte Instruktion und rezipierendes Lernen werden vorwiegend zur Aktivierung der Schüler in Lernprozessen eingesetzt. Darüber hinaus geht es um das Feedback des Lehrers für die Schüler und über ihr eigenes Lernergebnis. Gleichzeitig wird Lernen als ein hochgradig sozialer Vorgang verstanden: Zusammenarbeit, Hilfestellung und Feedback zwischen Lehrern und Schülern untereinander sind Grundlage dafür, Lernen effektiv und effizient zu gestalten.

Mit digitalen, multimedialen Technologien lässt sich Unterricht sehr gut unterstützen und Gruppenarbeit, Üben und individuelles Lernen miteinander kombinieren. Wie inzwischen aus zahlreichen Studien bekannt ist, reagiert das Gedächtnis sehr gut auf multimodalen Input. Unterstützend wirkt, dass die „Digital Natives“ computergestützte Informationen anders verarbeiten als Menschen, die mit diesen Technologien nicht aufgewachsen sind. Es

fällt Ihnen leichter, mit entsprechenden Technologien umzugehen. Für sie ist es selbstverständlich, dass Medien im Alltag eingesetzt werden. Dies bedeutet zwar nicht, dass sie leichter oder schneller lernen — wie in letzter Zeit zwar auch behauptet wurde, letztendlich aber nicht nachgewiesen werden konnte. Es bedeutet vielmehr, dass Akzeptanzbarrieren zur Nutzung von Technologie im Unterricht stark sinken. Begünstigend scheint die „Computer Literacy“ der Dozenten stark gestiegen zu sein, d. h. ihre Fähigkeiten im Umgang mit Computertechnologie sind deutlich besser geworden. Zeiten, in denen die Lehrer einen Teil ihrer Unterrichtsstunde damit verbracht haben, Technik überhaupt in Gang zu setzen, sollten weitestgehend passé sein.

Die hier genannten Möglichkeiten Bildung bereits in der Schule zu digitalisieren und somit modernen Gesellschaftsstandards anzupassen, stellen einen Auszug der Technologien, Methoden und didaktischen Konzepte dar, die in diesem Zusammenhang denkbar sind. Aufgrund des schnelllebigen digitalen Wandels, in dem wir uns zurzeit befinden, kommen jedoch ständig neue Technologien auf, aus denen sich neue Möglichkeiten und Chancen für erfolgreiches Fremdsprachenunterrichten ergeben. Um Unterricht zeitgemäß und stets interessant zu gestalten, ist es für Lehrpersonen unerlässlich sich über diese neuen Entwicklungen und deren mögliche Nutzung im Klassenzimmer zu informieren und stets up to date zu bleiben. Es sei an dieser Stelle auf Technologien verwiesen, die sich entweder noch in der wissenschaftlichen Erprobungsphase be-

finden oder aber noch nicht einem breiten Publikum zur Verfügung stehen, deren Potential für zukünftigen Unterrichtskonzepte jedoch außer Frage steht. Gleichwohl geben wir bereits heute einen Ausblick darauf, wie sich die Einsatzmöglichkeiten von Technologie in der Bildung immer mehr verbreiten werden.

Abschließend sollen die Vorteile kurz zusammengefasst werden: Aufgrund ihrer multicodalen, multimodalen und hypertextuellen Eigenschaften können Neue Medien die Konstruktionsprozesse der Schülerinnen und Schüler unterstützen. Durch die vielseitigen Wege zur Kommunikation und Kooperation entwickeln die Lernenden ihre Sozialkompetenzen weiter, im Fremdsprachenunterricht auch ihre Sprach- und interkulturelle Kompetenz. Die Motivation kann durch den Einsatz von Computer und Internet gesteigert werden. Zuletzt ist festzuhalten, dass die geforderte Medienkompetenz nicht ohne den Einsatz der entsprechenden Technik erworben werden kann.

Neue Technologien ergeben neue Möglichkeiten und Chancen für erfolgreiches Fremdsprachenunterrichten. Neue Medien beinhalten aber auch, wie sich die Rolle des Lehrers verändert. Die Lehrer müssen also seine Rolle als Vermittler der Fremdsprache aufgeben und die Schülerinnen und Schüler bei ihren Konstruktionsprozessen unterstützen. Die Rolle des Lehrers hat sich zunehmend in Richtung „Activator“, „Facilitator“ und „Manager“ entwickelt. Die Lehrenden den Wissenserwerb nicht bestimmen, sondern höchstens steuern und beeinflussen.

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I. P. LVOV — HISTORICAL ACADEMIC FIGURE OF CHERNIHIV PEDAGOGICAL INSTITUTE

Abstract: This article analyzes biographical data on the scientific-educational worker I. P. Lvov on the basis of archive materials. It describes the periods of childhood, elementary and high school attendance, pedagogical and methodological activities in Chernihiv Teachers' Institute, public activity as inspector for educational institutions in the city of Chernihiv. The article analyzes the periods of evacuation to Altai Krai during the Great Patriotic War, emigration to the Republic of Tajikistan, residence in the city of Dushanbe, continuation of the previous teaching-methodical work in the Tajik State Pedagogical University named after Sadriddin Aini as a lecturer of logic, psychology and head of the pedagogy laboratory. It also gives description of the scientist's activity after his return from Tajikistan to Chernihiv, reinstatement in the office in Chernihiv Teachers' Institute, further training in pedagogical courses in Kharkov and Saint-Petersburg and completion of research-teaching activity for health reasons.

Keywords: lecturer, educator, Kazan Theological Academy, Chernihiv Theological Seminary, Chernihiv Pedagogical Institute, pedagogy, research-teaching activity.

Problem statement. Nowadays there is an increasing number of scientists, educators and researchers, who are interested in pedagogical personalia not only in historical-cultural sphere, but also in pedagogy. Thoughts and ideas of domestic educators are thoroughly scrutinized in historical aspect, which is an inexhaustible source of scientific researches for a modern scientist. In the era of information and technological progress, when computers took a worthy place not only in economic-industrial and socio-technological industries, but also in all government bodies and educational-scientific field, information technologies took a rightful place. Ukraine is an industrially developed country that is reforming all areas of activity in broad-scale steps, introducing new world technologies for development of our society. Education in Ukraine is being transformed to international standards, so there is a need to transform traditional pedagogical knowledge. Today scientists

are progressively studying pedagogical personalia in the historical-educational space in reverse, because there is a need to analyze the pedagogical experience with the aim of training the qualified personnel that will be competitive in the world labour market. Today's researchers characterize previous educators from a modern point of view, present systematic details of their life-scientific activities on certain stages, simultaneously forming new pedagogical concepts based on author's ideas.

Purpose and objectives of the study. To carry out a detailed analysis of formation of the personality I. P. Lvov as a lecturer during training in educational institutions, to characterize his further scientific-pedagogical path.

Analysis of recent researches and publications. I. P. Lvov is little known in pedagogical activity. Only some scientists, such as N. Kuzmenko, A. Borovik, N. Teselska, M. Romanika [1, P. 180],

[3, P. 36–37; 4, P. 27–28] outlined the life journey of the educator-scientist in their articles, dissertations and monographs.

Education is the guarantee of happy future and well-being of the nation; there are no doubts, that this is the most important direction of our state's activity. Development of science and education is impossible without development of intellectual potential of pedagogical, scientific-methodical workers. Students are trained by creative, highly qualified representatives of scientific elite. I. P. Lvov, who is a lecturer with a humane attitude and competent approach to his pupils, belonged to these figures.

Ivan Petrovich Lvov was born on August 16, 1879 in a small town of Yuryevka, Kostroma Governorate (now Ivanovo Oblast, Russian Federation). His parents — Peter Ivanovich and Maria Platonovna — followed the Christian faith. The father of the future lecturer was a clergyman in a local church and simultaneously worked as a singing teacher in a local three-class school. The family was not rich. Ignorant or incompetent children could not be raised in the family, where the Word of God was regarded as law. The family consisted of six children: two girls and four boys. Children gained primary education in a specialized school, it turned out historically that for some family reasons they studied only a year and a half. Some time later I. P. Lvov was sent to a theological school in the provincial town of Makarov of Kostroma Governorate, where he completed a five-year training course with honours.

In 1978 after completion of the course in the theological school the young man entered the Kostroma Theological Seminary for the first academic year, and in 1990 he completed a full course of the above-mentioned seminary with excellent marks in the rank of student [5, arc. 50].

It so happened that during the study at Kostroma Theological Seminary the father of I. P. Lvov lost his voice and was dismissed from his job. The family lived on the financial assistance of their son-in-law and received pension in the amount of 12 rubbles a year.

Students, both of theological academy and of ordinary higher education institution, usually learn and help those who are behind in their studies, or pretend to study. Student I. P. Lvov got good grades and helped other students, who had problems with academic performance. Seminarist Lvov studied hard and received excellent grades from the first year in the seminary, together with his classmates he studied additional literature on the problems of linguistics, zoology, botany, astronomy, human physiology, Charles Darwin's doctrine translated by Popova.

During the first academic year students expanded their capabilities, deepening their knowledge in many specialties. In the second year they were engrossed in reading works of such writers as V. G. Belinsky, N. A. Dobrolyubov ("Dark Kingdom", "Ray of Light in the Dark Realm"). In the third year I. P. Lvov and his comrades were called "Tolstovtsy" (followers of Tolstoy), because they intensively studied art literary creations of L. Tolstoy and also rewrote by hand his religious-philosophical works.

During the fourth year of studying at the Kostroma Theological Seminary the future educator read political economy and for the first time he got himself familiar with K. Marx's teaching, read the book "To monist view of history" by V. Beltov. Exactly on this subject I. P. Lvov noted in his autobiographical memoirs: "All this was the second discovery for us. We then realized that apart from philosophical materialism there is also historical one".

During the fifth and sixth academic year young people read not only scientific literature, but also periodical publications and continued to deepen their knowledge of theoretical views of German thinkers Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels on history, politics and society, however, seminarists did not read K. Marx's "Capital", but only heard about it.

I. P. Lvov began his pedagogical activity during his studies at the Seminary, helping his classmates who were behind in their studies. He acted as a tutor of mathematics and linguistics, explaining translations and grammatical analysis of texts. Due to such

friendly support many of his comrades improved their academic performance. I. P. Lvov became friends with a peasant boy Vasily at the Seminary, who worked as a guard there, having the secondary school education under his belt, but dreaming of entering the Seminary with a further prospect of obtaining the position of a rural teacher. I. P. Lvov was preparing him for exams in evenings during two years free of charge, and as a result, Vasily received a qualification of a rural teacher.

During his studies at the Seminary I. P. Lvov paid the greatest attention to psychology, logic, mathematics and philosophy. By the way, Lvov got interested in mathematics most of all, unlike his classmates. So, after graduation from the Seminary, he prepared for entering the physico-mathematical faculty in a higher educational institution. Unfortunately, the family was poverty-stricken and could not afford the training of the son in a higher educational institution. After graduation from the Seminary, I. P. Lvov, like other school-leavers of theological schools and seminaries, applied for further training in the giants of higher theological educational institutions, namely Kazan, Kiev, St. Petersburg and Moscow academies. As a result, Lvov entered Kazan Theological Academy [5, arc. 51].

In the academy I. P. Lvov studied at the Department of Philology and Literature, where apart from philological disciplines he studied logic, psychology, history of philosophy and pedagogy in depth.

In 1902 I. P. Lvov represented his course in the Commission for amending curricula of the Academy. From each course a candidate was elected who had suggestions concerning the curriculum.

In 1904 in the last year of his studies at the Kazan Theological Academy, I. P. Lvov wrote a thesis on pedagogy: "The science and art of upbringing according to Professor Josef Payne".

By the Commission of the Kazan Theological Academy, acting on the basis of § 137–140, section 10 of the Charter of Orthodox Theological Academies, I. P. Lvov was awarded the degree of Candi-

date of theological studies and conferred the right to teach in theological seminaries [2, arc. 1].

Candidate for a master's degree I. P. Lvov was appointed to work in Chernihiv Theological Seminary as a lecturer of logic, psychology, philosophy and didactics. Since then only graduates of theological seminaries had the right to teach logic and philosophy.

In 1919–20 I. P. Lvov was appointed as a lecturer of psychology and didactics by the Teachers' Council of Chernigov Teachers' Seminary. In 1921–22 the seminary was transformed into three-year pedagogical courses, where I. P. Lvov worked until they were liquidated in December 1922.

In 1920 the educator together with lecturers of the Chernigov Teachers' Seminary and Nizhyn Institute joined the creation of a draft curriculum for the future pedagogical institute. At the beginning of 1922–23 academic year, by the newly-created Teachers' Council of the Chernihiv Institute of popular education I. P. Lvov was appointed as a lecturer of psychology and a curator of the first class. During several years the structure of Chernihiv Institute of popular education and its curricula were reorganized, the Institute was renamed several times: "Institute of Social Education", "Pedagogical Institute", "Teachers' Institute", once again "Pedagogical Institute", again "Teachers' Institute". From the very foundation of the Teacher's Institute and up to retirement for health reasons, I. P. Lvov worked carefully and diligently at the Chernihiv Teacher's Institution [5, arc. 52].

In the spring of 1923 I. P. Lvov delivered lectures on pedagogical psychology in short-term courses in the building of the Chernihiv Teacher's Institute.

In 1925 I. P. Lvov was sent to Kharkov for a pedagogical seminar, and in 1929 he was sent for the advanced training courses in Leningrad Pedagogical Institute named after A. I. Herzen. In Leningrad Pedagogical Institute named after A. I. Herzen I. P. Lvov worked under professor A. P. Boltunov and professor N.Ya. Basov on the issues of experimental psychology. Upon completion of the practical training at the Chernihiv Teachers' Institute, he

formed and equipped the cabinet of experimental psychology with the necessary facilities on professional level.

The lecturer I. P. Lvov successfully performed scientific-methodical activity. The article “Individual and collective group work of students” was published in the collection of the Chernihiv Teachers’ Institute. Unfortunately, the collection was not preserved, other articles of the teacher were prepared for publication, but in connection with the Second World War they were not published.

Apart from teaching work, I. P. Lvov also performed public activities on errands of the Institute’s administration. For several years he was the head of the Cyclical Pedagogical Commission, a member of the Faculty Methodical Commission, acted as director of the Chernihiv Teachers’ Institute. I. P. Lvov elaborated projects for organization and rationalization of accounting work in the Institute; inspected the work of all Cyclical-subject and Faculty Commissions, as well as student circles.

I. P. Lvov performed public activity outside the Institute: he headed the brigade that controlled Chernihiv kindergartens, the school named after V. I. Lenin, pedagogical technical school; headed the Methodical Section at the Local education department on the issues of pedagogical work in childcare institutions of boarding school type; conducted the seminar at this Section, where he lectured and controlled the work of methodological-pedagogical foundations in Dobryansky and Repkinsky Districts of Chernihiv Oblast. The scientist was also a member of the Commission for inspection and removal of children with intellectual handicaps from general education schools that did not have conditions for training this category of children. I. P. Lvov was a member of the Section of scientific workers and Qualification Commission that functioned under it; participated in the spring sowing campaign in khutor Borki and in village Maleyki of Kotsyubinsky District; at that time not only farmers, but even scientific elite took part in a sowing campaign.

Unfortunately, such a quiet period did not last long. Students dreamed of graduation, teachers continued to give lectures on their subjects, doctors cured, someone worked on projects — all did their own things. The Second World War began in 1941, which destroyed dreams, plans, life. With a heavy sigh of death it breathed into Ukraine, no one could hide from it [5, arc. 52].

During the Second World War I. P. Lvov was evacuated to Altai for several months, after some time he moved to the Tajik SSR, city of Stalinabad (capital Dushanbe). In Altai Krai in Gorno-Altaysky milk-butter sovkhoz of Soloneshensky District, I. P. Lvov did not find a job in his specialty and therefore had temporary jobs, sometimes gave lectures for teachers. On errands of sovkhoz workers he wrote letters for their relatives to the front. He held discussions about the Great Patriotic War with warriors’ wives and mothers. Not avoiding any work, he took part in the haymaking and refused from putting his workdays on the list.

After moving to the Tajik SSR, Stalinabad (city of Dushanbe), I. P. Lvov continued his pedagogical activity: worked as a full-time psychology teacher at the Stalinabad Pedagogical Institute named after Taras Shevchenko (now Tajik State Pedagogical University named after Sadriddin Aini), simultaneously worked as the head of the cabinet of pedagogy at the Scientific Research Institute of Schools under the People’s Committee for Education of the Tajik SSR. Professional-pedagogical competence and strong organizational-administrative qualities helped him to regulate the cabinet of pedagogy and psychology. Thanks to I. P. Lvov psychological equipment (chronoscope, mnemometer (memory apparatus) and others) was repaired. On his initiative, table-schemes were additionally made, for example: a table-scheme for studying conditioned reflexes by Pavlov.

I. P. Lvov continued the public work even in Tajikistan, conducted an inspection of two schools in Stalinabad, gave lectures on pedagogy for military leaders and military training lecturers of the Ashgabat railway [5, arc. 52].

On September 8, 1944 I. P. Lvov returned from the evacuation to his native city of Chernihiv and immediately proceeded to his teaching duties at the Chernihiv Teachers' Institute. He actively performed lecturing work outside the Chernihiv Teachers' Institute. From 1944 till 1946 he gave lectures on psychological topics in military hospitals; lectures on psychology and pedagogy in the Aviation Corps for officer personnel and military cadets; gave some lectures on logic and psychology in regional courses for educators of children's houses; he read many lectures on logic for the regional prosecutor's office and the Bar, as well as in the seminar of school directors in Chernihiv Oblast and in the Kiev regional teacher's courses. He delivered lectures on psychology and logic for officer personnel of the Ministry of Internal Affairs. He was a substitute teacher and logic consultant at the Chernigov CP (b) of the USSR (Communist Party of Bolsheviks).

In 1948 on the errand of the Chernihiv Teachers' Institution, he worked on materials in the Chernihiv Regional History Archive on the subject: Chernihiv Teachers' Institute: brief historical notes.

On the errand of the Research Institute of Psychology under the Ministry of Education of the USSR, I. P. Lvov twice inspected the teaching of psychology in secondary schools of Chernihiv.

On October 18, 1947 by the Higher Attestation Commission of the Ministry of Higher Education of the RSSR, I. P. Lvov was rewarded the title of Associate Professor of the Department of Psychology.

In December 1948, I. P. Lvov was awarded the medal "For courageous work during the Great Patriotic War 1941–1946".

Among I. P. Lvov's students there were a lot of well-known graduates (P. Tychyna, G. Verevka, D. F. Kostyuchenko, A. F. Fedorov, etc.), teachers, educators, scientists, historians, military men, who made Ukraine famous in the entire world [5, arc. 53].

During teaching at the Chernihiv Pedagogical Institute, I. P. Lvov passed on his knowledge to students, prepared the best scientific personnel and valuable workers of the scientific research institutes, within the walls of the Chernihiv Pedagogical University, nowadays Chernihiv National Pedagogical University named after Taras Shevchenko. University graduates hold high positions not only in their native Alma Mater, but also outside it. The best student is a student who not only achieves academic success, but also remembers wisdom and instructions of a teacher who taught him.

Conclusions. Ivan Petrovich Lvov, lecturer with 53 years of teaching experience. He was born and raised on the territory of the Russian Empire in Yuryevka. I. P. Lvov originated from a family of spirit ministers, his father worked as a priest, but for some health reasons could not continue his activity. The training was held first in his native city, then in theological schools and seminaries. He received his higher education at the Kazan Theological Academy and by appointment came to work in Chernihiv, where he lived during his whole life. During the Great Patriotic War he was evacuated to Altai Krai and then in Tajik SSR. After returning to Chernigov, he continued to work as a lecturer within the Institute's native walls and gave lectures in Communist Party schools. He inspected schools of Chernihiv. He received the Associate Professor Certificate, was an A-level student and had a medal for courage and bravery in the Second World War. He was a teacher, who had considerable life-science wisdom upon his belt, which is necessary for our Ukrainian generation. Without the past there is no future, and the future is represented by highly skilled professionals who are on the verge of a successful country.

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IMPLEMENTATION OF THE EUROPEAN EXPERIENCE OF SOCIAL AND EDUCATIONAL WORK WITH CLIENTS OF THE PROBATION SERVICE IN UKRAINE

Abstract: the article highlights the state of social and educational work with offenders who are serving sentences without imprisonment in the countries of Europe and Ukraine; it outlines the most current ways of improving such work on the basis of further implementation of the European experience.

Keywords: social and educational work, clients of the probation service, European experience.

The theme of probation service during the last ten years is one of the most relevant issues, both in European and Ukrainian science and practice. In this case, the interest in it is not limited only to the context of criminal executive law. The impetus for such a broad discussion was, on the one hand, the implementation in the Criminal Code of Ukraine of punishments, alternative to deprivation and restriction of liberty and the norm of release of convicts from serving a probationary term. On the other hand, this was the approval of the long-awaited law, which paves the way for the creation of a broad legal framework for the functioning of the probation institution in Ukraine [5].

The Ukrainian model of probation service, which has got its legal consolidation in the above-mentioned law, was based on the generalized experience of European countries that have a long history of applying to offenders not only supervisory and control measures, but also the technologies of the social and pedagogical rehabilitation, resocialization, reintegration, etc. Such circumstances actualize attraction of attention to the issues of the probation tasks of a wide range of theorists and practitioners of criminal law related branches of science, such as psychology, pedagogy, social work, etc.

At the same time, in the process of formation and development of the national system of probation ser-

vice in general and the search for ways to increase the effectiveness of social and educational influence on probationers (probation clients), in particular, it is productive to further appeal to the experience gained by the countries of Europe and to determine the directions, possibilities and prerequisites for its implementation in Ukraine.

The purpose of the article: to highlight the state of implementation of social and educational work in Ukraine with the convicts — subjects of probation and to outline further ways of improving this work taking into account the European experience of working with clients of probation service.

Presentation of the main material. The Law of Ukraine “On Probation”, which was developed taking into account the European standards of probation, defines the probation as the system of supervisory and social and educational measures applicable to convicts, who serve a sentence without imprisonment by decision of the court [5]. At the same time, supervision, what we mean, is significantly different from the police surveillance that used previously. The main difference is the combination of it with the specific social assistance to the offender, providing him with the variety of social services, active inclusion of it in the public life. The main purpose of such an approach to solving the problem of re-education

of a convict is to ensure the necessary level of his re-socialization, since it is well known that prisons are almost not able to return in society its full members. In this regard, the statistical calculations of English probation researchers are interested, who point out that by reducing recidivism among probationers, it is possible to provide public safety only by 5% for 1 million British [2].

In Ukrainian law, the public safety is also seen as one of the ultimate goals of probation service.

In accordance with norms of the law of Ukraine, three types of probation service were implemented:

- pre-trial norm (presentation to the court information that fully and objectively characterizes the accused and can ensure the justice of punishment);
- supervisory norm, within of which the social and educational work with convicts is implemented;
- penitentiary norm, which ensures the preparation for the release of a person from the institution of serving a sentence in order to further high-quality social and psychological adaptation at his place of residence [5].

Taking into account of the social and psychological characteristics of the convicted person, his life history in society, the assessment of the risk regarding the probability of committing a repeated crime are basic for each of these types of probation.

The isolation of the specified types of probation service and filling them with the specific content took place on the basis of a thorough analysis of a number of UNO and the Council of Europe documents, in particular the Recommendation No. CM/(2010) 1 of the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe on the Council of Europe Probation Rules and the study of the experience of their practical implementation by the countries of Europe, those who are close to Ukraine according to their economic and social and political conditions [6].

Thus, according to European rules, the probation body in Ukraine is entrusted with the functions of conducting a social investigation of the accused and preparing a pre-trial report on its basis, assessing the

risk of committing by him a repeated crime, individual planning of work with a broad inclusion of educational measures, assistance in social adaptation, assessment of the results of realization of the planned measures, as well as crime prevention in cooperation with the interested organizations, etc. At the same time, the implementation of the indicated functions takes place on the basis of the guiding principles defined by the rules: respect for human rights, non-discrimination, presumption of innocence, priority of establishing positive relations with the client of probation, consent to probation intervention (for example, in terms of providing social assistance), etc. [6].

This actually proves that the main component of the system of execution of criminal punishments alternative to deprivation of liberty introduced in Ukraine is its social component, which is based on the social rehabilitation measures, social support and assistance, re-socialization and reintegration of convicts, whose tasks are to correct offenders and prevent repeated offence.

The significant steps have already been taken in Ukraine towards the implementation of this approach. First of all, thanks to the project support for the development of probation service in Ukraine by the European Commission and the Council of Europe, new tools for working with convicts appeared, such as “pre-trial report”, “assessment of risks and needs for committing a repeated crime”, “probation program”, “volunteering” etc. These tools are tested in a large number of projects and they are constantly being refined. Thus, within the framework of the Ukrainian-Canadian project “Reforming the criminal justice system for juveniles in Ukraine”, the methodology for assessing the risks and needs of minors in conflict with the law has been developed and worked out, the programs for the correction of aggressive behaviour for boys and girls — juvenile offenders. They are successfully used in the work of the seven Juvenile Probation Centres, which recently worked in Ukraine [7].

The significant theoretical and practical developments are noteworthy regarding the use of the case

management techniques in work with convicts (case management) that are implemented by the Light of Hope Foundation in partnership with ICF “International HIV/AIDS Alliance in Ukraine” and supported by the DVV International (Germany) in Ukraine [4].

The above said organization in partnership with the International Charitable Foundation “International HIV/AIDS Alliance in Ukraine” based on the Criminal Execution Inspection (CEI) in Poltava city and the network of rehabilitation centres of the Light of Hope Foundation implements the pilot model of the centre of social and preventive work with persons convicted to punishments not related to imprisonment (“Probation Centre”), the activity of which is based on the Swedish program for the re-socialization of offenders adapted to the conditions of Ukrainian society [4]. On the basis of the centre, the models of methods for assessing the risks/needs of convicts, the procedure for drawing up an individual plan for social and educational work with convicts, and the procedure and assessment of its implementation are also being worked out, the practical implementation of the involvement in work at the centre of the social work specialists, psychologists, educators etc. is being developed, and the procedure for volunteering in the framework of probation is being worked out, etc.

Another model of the centre for social adaptation for women released from places of deprivation of liberty is tested within the framework of the Ukrainian-Swedish project jointly with the non-governmental organization “Convicts Ukraine” [3].

Ukraine also successfully implements the European Union and Council of Europe Framework Cooperation Program in the Eastern Partnership format within the framework of the project “Support to Penitentiary Reform in Ukraine” (2015–2017). Among the expected results is the development of several programs: the program to prepare for the release of persons serving sentences in places of deprivation of liberty; development of the model of the participation of the probation service in solving the social and domestic issues of the convicted person at the place

of residence chosen by him after leaving the institution of serving a sentence.

The development of the probation service system in Ukraine is carried out, including with the support of twinning projects, such as: “Support for the development of the probation body in Ukraine to improve the effectiveness of criminal penalties alternative to deprivation of liberty” [9].

In July 2016, another NORLAU project (The Norwegian Mission of Rule of Law Advisers to Ukraine) was launched to support by Norway the supremacy of the law in Ukraine, which will implement the experience of re-socializing prisoners by establishing a regulated relationship between the probationer and the probation officer [8].

The question of training and retraining of probation personnel is not overlooked, because in the absence of their lack, professional inconsistency and low qualification, the development of a probation service system in Ukraine is impossible.

Proceeding from the fact that the projected number of probation subjects in 2016–2017 can exceed 200 thousand people, and taking into account the structural changes that have begun, in the near future, there will be a need for more than 400 staffing positions of the heads of probation bodies as structural subdivisions of the Criminal Execution Inspection. The implementation them of a significant amount of additional functions (conducting social research and preparing a pre-trial report, preparing for the release of persons serving sentences in places of deprivation of liberty, the substantial social and educational work, etc.) will increase the number of staff size and expand the professional composition of territorial probation services.

It is assumed that each of the 697 subdivisions of the CEI must be staffed with a social worker (697 positions), a psychologist (731 positions) and a teacher (697), with the exception of the probation officer [10]. In addition, the central office of the authorized probation body, the Ministry of Justice of Ukraine, has already established the new probation

department, which will now include the separate department for social and educational work with clients and penitentiary probation.

The process of training (retraining) of personnel for work in the probation service has been actively started. Such work is carried out by the Bila Tserkva, Dniprovsky and Khmelnytsky centres for the improvement of the qualification of the personnel of the State Criminal Enforcement Service of Ukraine, which provide training and retraining of the personnel of the CEI in the part of probation activities.

In this difficult and responsible area, Ukraine is also provided with the support of partners from many European countries, both at the methodological and organizational levels.

Conclusions. Summarizing the analysis results of the implementation state in Ukraine of the European countries experience in social and educational work with convicts — the probation clients shows that such work is the leading component of the system of execution of sentences not related to deprivation of liberty. The social and educational work with offenders in the Ukrainian model of probation is basic for all its types: pre-trial, supervisory and penitentiary.

The noted approach to the creation of such a model was formed as the result of long-term careful study by Ukrainian specialists of the experience gained by the countries of Europe and its adaptation to Ukrainian realities.

At the same time, it should be noted that by improving its own concept of the system of probation, Ukrainian specialists have initiated and legislated certain provisions and norms that they can be considered more progressive in comparison with European. According to the director of the probation department of the Ministry of Justice of Ukraine O.B. Yanchuk, in the course of two years since the entry into force of the Law of Ukraine “On Probation”, the probation structure in Ukraine was almost the largest in Europe.

At the same time, the Ukrainian probation system faces many challenges, the solution of which will

enable it to occupy a prominent place among the European countries, not only in terms of quantitative but also qualitative indicators. First and foremost, it is considered high-priority and essential to introduce into the probationary activities the restorative justice programs that have a powerful re-socialization potential. Such work is being conducted in Ukraine, but so far only in a pilot format.

The issue of development of other innovative technologies of social and educational work with offenders, in particular, based on the ideas of mentoring, is claimed the attention of the specialists — scientists and practitioners.

The issue of providing social services to the probation subjects in accordance with the Law of Ukraine “On Social Services” awaits a serious scientific substantiation. The work in this direction will provide the basis for further humanization of the punishment execution system; will increase its educational potential and the possible replacement of the status of probation service for a specialized social service.

The significant efforts should be made to allow probation to be widely perceived by Ukrainians as a method of re-educating offenders and a way of improving public safety, in addition to being aware of the need and usefulness of their own involvement in this activity. The information component of the implementation process by the probation service of its functions is as important and inalienable as the work itself on the rehabilitation and re-socialization of offenders.

The issue of training and retraining of probation services personal also remains among the priorities, despite the significant achievements in this direction. The introduction of positions of a social worker, a teacher and a psychologist necessitates the development of a model of the activity of such specialists and raises the question of expanding the base of their professional training.

Summarizing the foregoing, it can be noted that Ukraine has made significant positive changes on the way of implementation of the European experience

of social and educational work with convicts, who will inure to the benefit of Ukrainian society and bring it closer to the European level of public safety. However, only the further development of the so-

cial component in working with probation clients, including with the assistance of European partners, will ensure the implementation by the Ukrainian probation service system of its mission.

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Section 5. Political science

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NEW POSSIBILITIES OF SATISFACTION OF AMBITIONS

Abstract: The problem of stability, elimination of threats of foreign political expansion, not only is actual, but painful, theme. In the global world, there are many other threats – climate change, demography, raw materials, energy crisis, food, use of the resources of World Ocean, peaceful exploration of outer space, overcoming the backwardness of developing countries. XXI century – the century of the greatest opportunities. Uncivilized methods, such as capturing prey, must remain in the past. New generation faces new problems, the solution of which can contribute even to the implementation of ambitious plans, and in a civilized, peaceful manner.

Keywords: political stability, political ambitions, expansion policy, economic isolation, logical revelations.

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НОВЫЕ ВОЗМОЖНОСТИ УДОВЛЕТВОРЕНИЯ ЭКСПАНСИВНЫХ АМБИЦИЙ

Аннотация: Проблема стабильности, устранения угроз внешней политической экспансии, не только является актуальной, но и наиболее болезненной темой. В глобальном мире немало угроз иного характера — изменение климата, демография, проблемы сырья, энергетического кризиса, продовольствия, использования ресурсов Мирового океана, мирного освоения космоса, преодоления отсталости развивающихся стран. XXI век – век широчайших возможностей. Нецивилизованные методы, такие как захват добычи, должны остаться в прошлом. Перед новым поколением стоят новые проблемы, решение которых может способствовать даже претворению амбициозных замыслов, причем в цивилизованном, мирном порядке.

Ключевые слова: политическая стабильность, политические амбиции, политика экспансии, экономическая изоляция, логические откровения.

Современные реалии таковы, что региональная политическая стабильность для многих стран превратилась в перспективу. Национальный интерес каждой страны, прежде всего, включает заботу о будущих поколениях, но современники проживают там, где проживают, и в настоящем и, тоже нуждаются в политической стабильности. Регион Южного Кавказа считается конфликтогенным, три Закавказских республики – Азербайджан, Грузия, Армения, имеют общую географическую близость, общее историческое прошлое, но отличаются этносом, культурой, идеологией, ресурсо-обеспеченностью, стратегическим курсом, амбициями — одни имеют цель реализовывать на мировой арене нравственные принципы и высокие идеалы гуманизма, другие проявляют агрессию, человеконенавистничество, прибегают к анти-цивилизованным приемам, то есть, – расходятся в вопросе отношения к гуманистической основе, являющейся важным условием демократии.

По индексу развития демократии Армения со своим гибридным режимом, являясь страной – оккупантом, периодически, проводящая этнические чистки и геноциды, на 25 позиций опережает Азербайджан [6].

Планы создания «Великой Армении от моря и до моря» идентифицируются с экспансивной нацистской политикой Гитлера, идеологией фашизма с открытой диктатурой расизма и шовинизма, направленной на искоренение демократии, установление режима жестокой реакции и на подготовку агрессивных войн. Армения имеет территориальные притязания ко всем своим соседям.

XX-й век и два десятка лет XXI-го века Армения провела под эгидой ненависти к Азербайджану, с развертыванием крупномасштабной агрессией и оккупацией 20-ти процентов азербайджанских земель. Причины конфликта были заложены в начале XIX-го века, с процесса переселения армян на оккупированные территории Азербайджана Русской империей. В 1905–1906 гг. и 1918–1920 гг. Армения прославилась как устроитель-

ница массового террора против азербайджанцев и кровавого геноцида. В советский период через этническую чистку коренного азербайджанского населения, была создана Армянская ССР – предшественница современной Армении, и решением ЦИК Азербайджанской ССР от 7 июля 1923 года в ее составе была образована Нагорно-Карабахская Автономная Область, которую впоследствии Армения использовала как причину проведения агрессивной экспансивной политики, направленной на захват азербайджанских территорий.

2 апреля 2015 года в ходе обсуждения на тему «Оккупация территорий Армении со стороны Турецкой Республики и осуждение лишения армянского народа родины» депутат Национального Собрания от партии «Наследие» З. Постанджян заявила: «Фактически, существующая в настоящее время граница между Арменией и Турцией незаконная: она нуждается в пересмотре, и мы будем оспаривать ее. Для нас является приоритетным принятие закона, осуждающего оккупацию территорий Армении со стороны Турции. Да, мы требуем и последовательны. Мы должны быть готовы также к переформатированию существующей в настоящее время карты. Мы не только должны ставить задачу признания геноцида армян, но и вопрос возвращения наших территорий» [2].

Если где-нибудь армянские националисты начинают вести разговор о «границах», то это означает одно — они требуют себе чужие территории и намерены «отодвинуть» эту самую границу вглубь соседнего государства, причем, как можно дальше. Так, в издании «Спутник Армения» было опубликовано интервью Л. Саркисян с директором Национального архива Армении А. Вирабян («Первые Республики Армении и Грузии: раздел границ и общая валюта»). В отношении общей валюты А. Вирабян рассказал, что «изначально три республики с 1918 по 1919 гг. имели единую валюту на четырех языках, которые назывались бонами. Однако с середины 1919 года страны начали выпускать собственные деньги.

Когда в Армении захотели напечатать деньги, оказалось, что у них нет ни печатного станка, ни бумаги. Первые армянские бумажные драмы были напечатаны в Тбилиси, однако из-за низкого качества бумаги они быстро изнашивались. «Новые более качественные драмы были заказаны в Лондоне. Однако пока их привезли в Армению, Первой Республики уже не было, а мы были в составе Советского союза. Мы так и не использовали эти деньги». В своем интервью А. Вирабян также рассказал, что исторические земли Грузии, расположенные в Лорийской области, якобы, на самом деле, всегда были армянскими [9].

А. Вирабян не смущает факт того, что на данной территории находятся десятки грузинских святынь — церквей и монастырей, в том числе, всемирно известные — Ахтала, Кобаири, Худжаби с уникальными грузинскими фресками. Грузины здесь жили, молились и охотились, а теперь «выясняется», что это земля принадлежит Армении.

Не «обделила» своим вниманием Армения и Иран, который всегда старался поддерживать отношения с Ереваном на высоком уровне и часто способствовал выходу Армении из экономической изоляции, после того, как он заключил соглашение об экспорте газа в Грузию через территорию этой страны, в знак «благодарности» у Армении появились территориальные претензии и к Ирану. Армянские СМИ широко прокомментировали снимки Иранского озера Урмия, сделанные НАСА. На апрельских фотографиях 2016 года, озеро было зеленого цвета. Однако несколько месяцев спустя на новых снимках НАСА оно окрасилось в красный цвет. Причиной изменения цвета воды стало размножение особых микроорганизмов в озере. Об этом сообщил официальный сайт НАСА. Летом количество воды в озере уменьшается и это увеличивает концентрацию соли. В результате, создаются специфические условия, в которых начинают размножаться особые виды бактерий и водорослей, которые окрашивают воду в красный цвет. «В условиях вы-

сокого содержания соли и большого количества света микроводоросли становятся красными в результате производства защитных каротиноидов в клетках. Случаи, когда микроводоросли окрашивают воду в красный цвет, уже наблюдались во многих точках планеты. Так, в 2011 году после продолжительной засухи озеро Сан-Андреас в штате Техас в США стало темно-красным после того, как количество кислорода в воде резко упало», — объяснил ученый из Штутгартского университета Мохаммад Тоуриан [3].

Тем не менее, передовица была озаглавлена: «Озеро Урмия: жемчужина Западной Армении окрасилась в цвет крови» [8]. В статье подчеркивалось, что «озеро Урмия – крупнейшее соляное озеро на Ближнем и Среднем Востоке. Оно расположено на Армянском нагорье в иранских провинциях, которые входили в состав Великой Армении времен Тиграна Великого». Ни больше, ни меньше!

Таким образом, после Турции, Азербайджана и Грузии, армяне впервые предъявили свои территориальные претензии Ирану, причем сразу же после газовой сделки с Тегераном... [1].

Среди соседних государств у Армении не осталось союзников. «Это «превращает представляемые программы на развитие Армении в пустословие. Она должна отказаться от территориальных претензий к Азербайджану», — такого мнения придерживается Ашот Егизян от партии «Свободные демократы». С таким же заявлением выступал и первый президент Армении Левон Тер-Петросян. Следует дополнить, что Армении необходимо не только освободить оккупированные азербайджанские территории, но и отказаться от всех своих претензий — территориальных ли, культурных ли, к которым мы относим религию (имеем в виду грузинские церкви) ко всем своим соседям и дать своему народу возможность жить в соответствии с новыми стандартами на качество жизни.

По сути, железная дорога Баку-Карс могла пройти не через Грузию, а через Армению. Трубопровод Баку-Джейхан также обошел Армению.

«Грузия за последние два десятилетия успешно сотрудничает с дуэтом Турция – Азербайджан, в котором Турция выступает как «старший партнер» и одновременно является страной – членом НАТО, а Грузия, как известно, официально провозгласила курс на присоединение к евроатлантическим структурам, включая НАТО. Практически, все крупные энергетические и транспортные проекты (нефтепроводы, газопровод, железная дорога), осуществленные на территории Грузии после середины 90-х годов, носят «широтный» характер, то есть, направлены с востока на запад» [4] Закрытая армяно-турецкая граница мешает экономическому развитию Армении, лишает ее доступа к средиземноморским портам Турции и т. д.» [5] Во всяком случае, такое мнение исходит уже из самой Армении. Однако силы, противостоящие голосу разума еще очень активны, они устраивают провокационные дей-

ствия, направленные на срыв дальнейших переговоров по мирному урегулированию армяно-азербайджанского конфликта. Факт оккупации 20% азербайджанских территорий Арменией неоднократно был признан в резолюциях ООН, ПАСЕ и прочих международных организаций. Эти документы предписывают безоговорочный вывод армянских войск с оккупированных территорий Азербайджана. Остается лишь потребовать от Еревана выполнения международных решений равно так, как это делается в отношении сирийского и украинского кризисов. Между тем, при наличии конструктивного настроя с армянской стороны давно можно было приступить к обсуждению предложенного сопредседателями МГ ОБСЕ плана по выводу армянских войск с оккупированных азербайджанских территорий [7, 4–9] Это будет способствовать снижению напряженности в регионе Южного Кавказа.

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THE MAIN PHASES OF GEOPOLITICAL CHANGES IN ARAB-ISRAELI CONFRONTATION. (COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS WITH CONFLICTS IN GEORGIA AND KOSOVO)

Abstract: in the World are several region and countries, where political processes have global influence on another regions and countries. Such regions are: the Middle East, the Caucasus and the Balkans.

Keywords: Arab-Israeli confrontation, Kosovo, civilizations, nations formatting.

In the World one of the most political active region was and still remains Middle East. In this region clearly fix two main aspects — geopolitical and economical interests. In the Cold War period Arab-Israeli confrontation we can fix three main phases, which are connected with three main conflicts. Energy resources by which is rich the Middle East (oil and natural gas) is main factor of importance of this region. But in the Arab-Israeli conflict except the major ethnic factor, not less important factor is water resource.

First phase of geopolitical changes was the 1948 Arab-Israeli War. Resistance of League of Arab States to the decision of the UN on division of the territory of Palestine and creation of the Israeli state became one of the main causes of conflict. Because of war more than 800 000 thousand Jews living in the Arab countries became refugees and about 600 000 thousand Arabs have left the Arab territories occupied by Israel. As a result of war Israel has occupied the western Jerusalem and the most part of the Arab territories, except the Gaza Strip, the west bank of the Jordan River. Map #1 shows propose separation of Palestine.

Henry Kissinger mentions, that Nikita Khrushov's position destroyed situation in the region of Middle East. In 1955 Soviet Union made mercantile barter with Egypt. Instead of cotton Soviet Union

delivered arm weapon to Egypt. A year after this became a reason of Suez Crisis. Also Soviet support and contribution Arabian countries by arm weapon mainly destabilized situation toward Israel-Arab confrontation and Iraq-Iran War.

"The Soviet leaders could not have failed to understand that their first sale of arms to a developing country would inflame Arab nationalism, make the Arab-Israeli conflict more intractable, and be perceived as a major challenge to Western dominance in the Middle East. By the time the smoke cleared, the Suez crisis had destroyed Great Power Status of both Great Britain and France. Outside of Europe, America would henceforth be obliged to man the ramparts of the Cold War essentially alone" [1, 523].

Second phase of geopolitical changes (6 Day War (1967) was very important for Israeli from the strategy point. Arab coalition lost: Sinai Peninsula, Gaza Strip (Egypt), Golan Heights (Syria), West Bank and Jerusalem (Jordan). Map #2 shows geopolitical transformation in the region after 6 Day war.

It's really true fact that 1973 was one of the most complicated years during all Cold War. Three main geopolitical changes was happened in this year: Vietnam war resolution, Chilean coup d'état and Yom Kippur war.

The third phase of geopolitical changes was Yom Kippur war. In 1973 Israel lost control over Sinai Peninsula, but saved control over not less important Golan Heights. After this were several conflicts without important geopolitical changes. In the same period (October 1973) Arab countries announced an oil embargo against Canada, Japan, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and the United States. This decision became the main factor of rising oil prices and starting of economical crisis.

In permission of the Arab-Israeli conflict a significant role has played 242 and 338 resolutions of the UN Security Council. The main paragraph of both resolutions is the appeal to warring parties to resolve issues by negotiations.

“Late that year, on 22 November, the Security Council unanimously adopted, after much negotiation, resolution 242 (1967), laying down principles for a peaceful settlement in the Middle East. The resolution stipulated that the establishment of a just and lasting peace should include the application of two principles:

- Withdrawal of Israel armed forces from territories occupied in the recent conflict; and
- Termination of all claims or states of belligerency and respect for and acknowledgement of the sovereignty, territorial integrity and political independence of every State in the area and their right to live in peace within secure and recognize boundaries free from threats or acts of force.

The resolution also affirmed the territorial inviolability of every State in the region and called for “achieving a just settlement of the refugee problem” [2, 2].

After Camp David Accords (1977) Egypt still stay alone outstanding country in the list of Arabian countries which has diplomatic affairs with Israel. Egypt and Israel signed agreements. They agreed to resolve conflict and confrontation only by the way of negotiation. From this period This case became one of the main reason Egypt president assassinated. Anwar Sadat was killed in 1981.

Also important stage was Oslo Accords (1993). According Oslo Accords Israel and Palestinian National Authority signed agreements. Twelve years after Israel left Gaza Strip. The USA was chief intermediary of both accords. In 2012 Palestinian National Authority became nonvoter member of the UN.

Clash of Civilizations

Samuel Huntington mentioned, that world politics was entering a new phase. Huntington thoughts, that ideological confrontation was no more actual and instead of it would be actual civilization factors. Nation states would be remain the most powerful actors in world affairs, but the principal conflicts of global politics occur between nations and groups of different civilizations. The clash of civilizations would dominate in global politics.

“It is my hypothesis that the fundamental source of conflict in this new world will be primarily ideological or primarily economic. The great divisions among humankind and the dominating source of conflict will be cultural. Nation states will remain the most powerful actors in world affairs, but the principal conflicts of global politics will occur between nations and groups of different civilizations. The clash of civilizations will dominate global politics. The fault lines between civilizations will be battle lines of the future” [3, 22].

We agree with this opinion statement, but must mention that during cold war the conflict between USSR (Russian Empire) and USA (West) was not only ideological but civilization. For the countries entering the Soviet Bloc (Poland, Latvia, Lithuania, Georgia, Ukraine, etc.) the board of Moscow was unacceptable not only because of ideology, but also civilization factors. Civilization identity is defined not only by religious factor. The clash of civilizations is clearly obvious in confrontation of: Greece and Troy, Rome and Carthage, etc. Arnold Toynbee (1889–1975) fixed his attention on the clash of civilization, but he fixed that this is permanent process which takes place from antic period. The clash of civilizations was and is the main part of the process of related to humankind

history. The civilization factor is one of key factor in Arab-Israeli confrontation. It's very important that the conflict was solved via negotiation.

From Kosovo precedence to Kosovo Syndrome

One of the most deliver prejudice vision is such position: "this is our land and foreigners mustn't live here. We (our nation) live here from antion period". Israel-Arab confrontation includes elements of such prejudice vision.

Kosovo conflict recognition way didn't become a unique precedence. Bad example is said to become a tendency. Such tendency destroys political relation. Kosovo precedence became syndrome, which influenced various frozen or actual conflicts in different regions of the World.

"Diplomacy has its version of the Hippocratic oath—do no harm. Leaders and diplomats, like physicians, need to be aware of the consequences, intended or unintended, of their actions and of the potential collateral damage of their decisions [...].

In the spring of 2008, Western diplomacy in recognizing Kosovo did not heed that principle and inadvertently contributed to the summer's slide to war in Georgia. It supported Kosovo's independence without any coordinated effort to contain any spillover from that step into the frozen conflicts in Georgia. It also contributed to the war in the way it handled the issues involving Georgia and Ukraine and their desire for Membership Action Plan (MAP) at the NATO Bucharest summit. In neither case did the United States or Europe intend to undercut Georgia. Their mistake was underestimating and being unprepared for how Moscow would use these crises as pretext to move against Tbilisi" [4, 87].

Actually all conflicts in important geopolitical areas are closely connected because of crossing there interests of various superpowers.

"In their handling of Kosovo, the United States and the European Union rarely connected the dots between eat was happening in the Balkan and what might happen in the Southern Caucasus. We were too

optimistic in our belief that we could compartmentalize the conflicts and handle each one separately and differently. The Balkans were obviously a priority for the West, which meant that the need to resolve Kosovo was the top concern driving Western policy. Georgia would have to live with the fallout of Western policy decisions there. Apart from simply reassuring Georgia that Kosovo would not set a precedent for frozen conflicts elsewhere, there was no attempt to handle these two sets of issues as an integrated whole. The West simply underestimated Moscow's deep-seated and long standing anger on Kosovo and its willingness to retaliate against Western policy moves" [4, 88].

Same we can say about situation around Israel-Palestinian confrontation. We think that Kosovo recognition influenced and supported process of becoming Palestinian Authority nonvoter member of United Nations.

In history we have several facts when geographical name became the name of people living there. The same fact we have: in Kosovo, Abkhazia and Palestine. Migration processes strongly influenced on demographic situation around this three region. Kosovars real roots are in Albania. In case of Palestinians we have ethnic group of Arabians who couldn't identify themselves neither Jordanians, nor Syrians. Also this situation is similar with case of Bosnia's, which real roots are Serbian but religion became the most significant element of identification themselves as separate nation. If we look to the problem from historical past, we can see that Jewish people and Arabians have general roots. In case of Jewish and Arabians religious factor similar above mentioned Serbians and Bosnians, became an important element of identification as separate nation. With support of Russia Empire ethnic groups of migrants mostly from North Caucasus named themselves Abkhazians. In fact they are Georgians as other representatives of Georgia's state regions, like: Samegrelo, Adjara, Kakheti and etc.

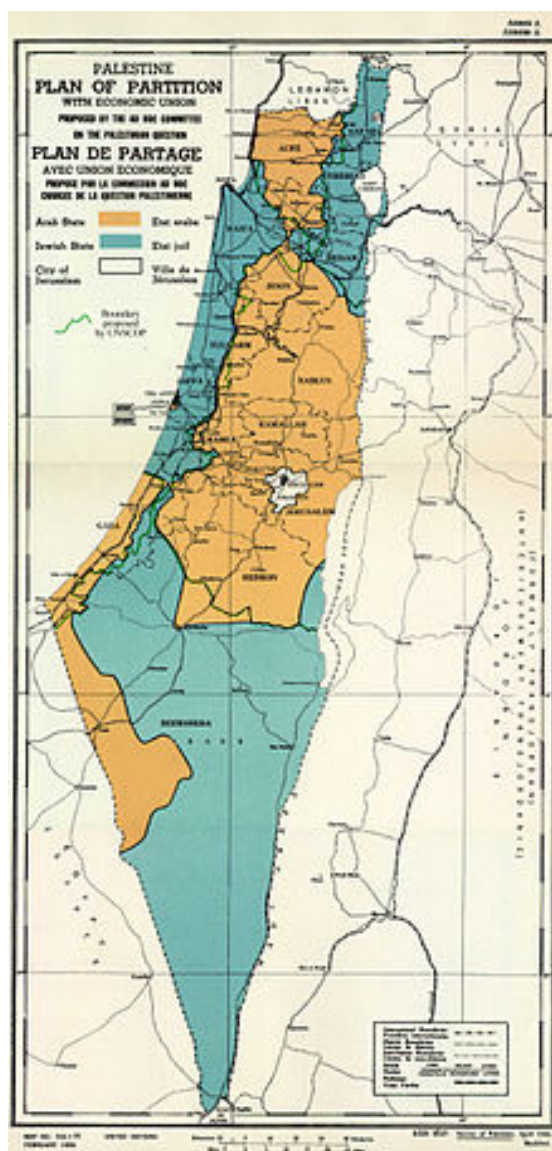
Process of recognition of independence of Kosovo has affected the countries of the European

Union. In 2014 the referendum of independence has taken place in Scotland (Great Britain) and Catalonia (Spain). Perhaps the referendum in Scotland became one of the reasons of Brexit. The Middle East still remains the important region for the European Union. Cyprus became the member of the European Union in 2004. The huge attention is given by the European Union to Turkey and Cyprus as they are neighbors of Syria, Libya and Israel.

According to present statistic 15% (550 million) of EU population will be presented by emigrant, which by 2020 will increase by 20%. Clear example of such situation is Germany.

“While the surge of more than 1 million migrants and asylum seekers who arrived in Germany in 2015 drew significant attention, the country has long been a major immigrant destination. More than 15 percent of the 80 million people living in Germany are foreign born, a number that rises to 20 percent when the German-born children of immigrants are included” [5].

Will not be surprising if near future the emigrants from: Algeria, Syria and India and so on will establish autonomies of Toulon in Italy and Wiesbaden in Germany. From the other hand these autonomies will be the beginning of creation of new statehood of modern emigrants.



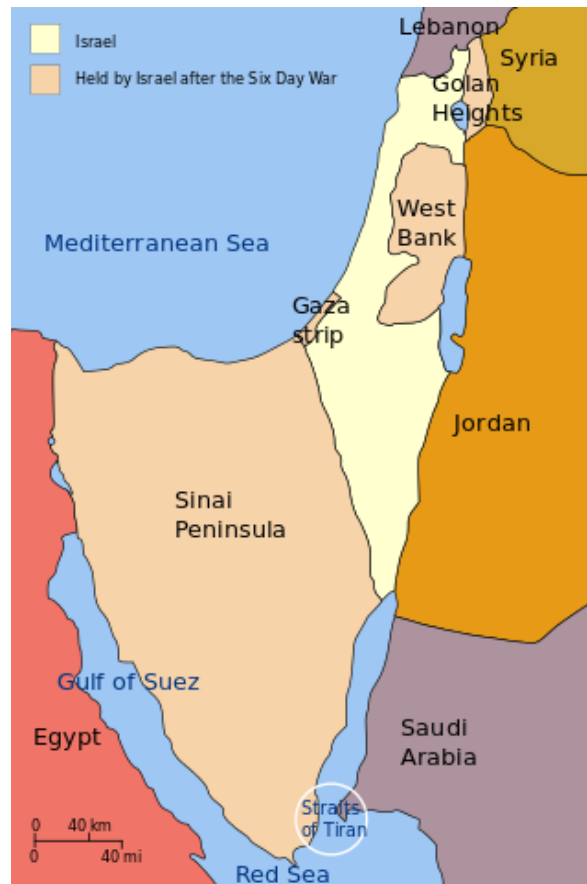
Map 1. Proposed separation of Palestine

Conclusion

International Relationship System undergoes the significant changes. The Geographical Factors is still kept as the definition rate of political activity. At the same time the interests towards any regions might be caused by the economic factors. For today the two-third of known world oil stock is located in the Middle East. This fact increase the importance of the region.

Background of conflict around Golan Heights beside strategic factor also is economical. In this region are located lakes and rivers which are important sources.

In 2011 Arab spring involve one more Arabic country Syria. Internal tension and civil war does not take Syria to control Golan Heights. Perhaps, after a while the question of accessory of above-mentioned space can become urgent again.



Map 2. Israel and the territories Israel occupied in the Six Day war

The current process in Middle East will have huge impact on political stability in whole world. To regulate the contradiction requires huge concentration. Perhaps sounds banal, but it is truth that dialogue and negotiations have no alternatives in the region and in the establishment of the peace in the world. From the historical point of view no part must feel itself violated and justice must be protected.

Arab-Israeli conflict presents local conflict which involves on global processes and vice-versa International players express political interest upon the

conflict. Arab-Israeli conflict is the proof of circumstances where in modern politics present allies in the future can become enemies. This is what happened after WW II, when USSR was the main supporter of the establishment of Israeli statehood. Political situation In the Middle East till our days stays critical. In this region we have interests of several super powers: the USA, Russia and EU. Historical justice is the main element in regulation of political tension. Not taking these facts into consideration there are many facts when the political populists achieved their own goal.

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Section 6. Psychology

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THE EXPERIENCE OF OVERCOMING EDUCATIONAL STEREOTYPES BY TEACHERS AND THEIR TYPICAL PSYCHOLOGICAL CHALLENGES

Abstract: The article describes the mechanism of pedagogical change/transformation of educational stereotypes while undergoing “Eco facilitative programme ‘The Spring’ through the idea of introspective reflexivity of their own experience of facing typical psychological challenges.

Keywords: psychological challenges, educational stereotypes, transitional forms, pedagogical change, group process, collective entity, ecofacilitation, ecofacilitator.

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ДОСВІД ПОДОЛАННЯ ПЕДАГОГІЧНИХ СТЕРЕОТИПІВ УЧИТЕЛЯМИ ТА ЇХ ТИПОВІ ПСИХОЛОГІЧНІ ТРУДНОЩІ

Анотація: У статті описано механізм педагогічного змінювання/трансформації педагогічних стереотипів під час проходження учителями «Екофасилітативної програми «Паросток» через ідею інтроспективно-рефлексивного аналізу власного досвіду розгляду типових їх психологічних труднощів.

Ключові слова: психологічні труднощі, педагогічні стереотипи, перехідні форми, педагогічне змінювання, груповий процес, колективний суб'єкт, екофасилітація, екофасилітатор.

Актуальними в умовах сьогодення є питання розробки ефективних моделей, алгоритмів та стратегій подолання психологічних труднощів у професійній педагогічній діяльності.

В розрізі нашого дослідження [1], варто підходити до розуміння психологічних труднощів педагогів у їх професійному чи особистісному сенсі з точки зору профіциту [7], сприймання їх у цьому складному процесі, як можливості мимовільних спроб рухатись уперед в напрямку формування більш нових перспективних стереотипів, сенсів, принципів.

Пошук ефективних форм і методів роботи з педагогами в аспекті роботи з педагогічними стереотипами призвів нас до ідеї інтроспективно-рефлексивного аналізу типових психологічних труднощів учителів, які виникли під час проходження ними «Екофасилітативної програми «Паросток» [2].

Ця програма полягала в розвитку особистості педагога зі стереотипною ідеологією як «перехідною формою» [4] і проживання/позбуття стереотипів, оскільки старі норми/стереотипи можуть неочікуванно, спонтанно відживати себе та формувати нові стандарти, норми на шляху до педагогічного змінювання.

У даному зв'язку, важливо забезпечити доступ до отримання вчителями нової моделі психічного здоров'я, як соціально обумовленої форми педагогічного змінювання, її нових можливостей, підтримку при усвідомленні ними «сингулярних точок» індивідуальних переживань (форма кризових явищ в суспільному житті) [3], розімкненні вчителем власного «інфернального циклу» [9, 48].

Зазначимо, що екологічна репрезентація групового процесу являє собою соціально-обумовлену форму особистого змінювання, зміст якого полягає в спільно-розподіленій формі конструювання нової ідентичності особистості педагога, спираючись на педагогічну спонтанність, нелінійність та невизначеність [6].

Екофасилітатор у такій системі «витончено веде», або управляє складною нелінійною логі-

кою розвитку відкритої системи [3] за принципом колективного суб'єкта [4], як психосоціального механізму розвитку.

Важливою психотехнікою є робота з «психологічними голограмами», розробленими П. Лушиним [5].

Виходячи з ретроспективного аналізу отриманого нами досвіду, нижче дається відслідкований механізм педагогічного змінювання/трансформації педагогічних стереотипів через проходження типових психологічних труднощів учителів.

Початковий етап заняття розпочинався з об'єднання учасників в єдиний смисловий простір на основах добровільної мотивації співпраці, встановлення атмосфери прийняття та психологічного комфорту. Під час колективного планування роботи на день шляхом з'ясування спектру очікувань та запитів учасників, відображення ними значущих подій останнього періоду, стало неозброєним оком помітно неоднозначність реакцій аудиторії, в логіці оцінки положення професійних педагогічних проблем. Це виявилось в переживаннях емоційного діапазону — розгубленість, тривожність і т.д. В комплексі емоційні та поведінкові ознаки учасників групи означали фіксацію їх індивідуальних проблемних сфер, були свідченням утримання учасниками важливих зон при собі, залучення регуляторних процесів індивідуального рівня у важливість невідомих передчуттів.

На першій стадії управління груповим процесом екофасилітатор ознайомив учасників з психологічними голограмами [5]. На цій стадії були очевидними прояви інтелектуальної неготовності до інновацій. У деяких учасників це мало вияв через протиріччя, що супроводжувалось репліками: «А можна щось простіше, за інструкцією... Нас не вчили аналізувати такі тексти». Така педагогічна позиція пояснюється як теоретична безвихідь, спотикання через звичні методичні настанови, регламентації та вузлові положення, в яких щодня перебуває вчитель. Така перебудова не відбувалась болісно й не викликала внутрішнього

опору, оскільки, в цей період комунікації, не була задіяна область змін, яка б стосувалась предметно-практичного поля професійної діяльності учасників тренінгу. У даному періоді екофасилітатор виступив «провокатором» для вчителів на більш активну участь, при цьому, підтримуючи «паростки» абсолютного позитивного прийняття в групі за рахунок толерантного відношення до позицій учасників. У результаті зароджується між фасилітатором та учасниками «робочий рапорт» на вербальному/невербальному рівнях.

Група динамічно рухалась на стадію конфронтації/антагонізму, при цьому, позиція екфасилітатора сприяла виникненню конфронтації на власну адресу. Стадія конфронтації спрямовувала груповий процес у площину самоактуалізації деяких учителів, з'явилися групові емоційні лідери з висловлюваннями: «Роль вчителя залишається складною», «Учитель-практик стоїть осторонь процесу і т.д.». Разом з тим, до них приєдналися інтелектуальні лідери з промовами в категоріях моральності, підтримки свого соціального статусу, любові до дітей та в цілому до праці: «Нові правила освіти не повинні декларуватись, а конструюватись»; «Український учитель нічим не гірший за європейського та спроможний працювати і конкурувати з випускниками європейських шкіл і в наших умовах»; «Головна якість вчителя — це любов до дітей, так як діти потребують підтримки»; «Вчитель в школі творить майбутнє та є авторитетом для дітей». На цій стадії простежився конфлікт мотиваційної й смислової сфери, що характеризувався стандартними репліками за типом: «Я повинен навчити», «Нема єдності між батьками та школою» і т.д. Також, можемо охарактеризувати такі педагогічні позиції, як необхідність педагогічних дій та рішень діяти «за зразком», гіперсоціалізованість, зовнішній локус контролю, проблеми виключно індивідуальної відповідальності за навчання учнів а іноді й за їх батьків: «Як мені батькам розповідати про нові вимоги до навчання, якщо вони через одного їх чують та розуміють?»

За рахунок «розхитування» бездоганного авторитету фасилітатора утворилися підгрупи, члени яких брали на себе відповідальність за груповий процес. Для цього етапу характерною для деяких рішень учасників стала міра невизначеності протиріч та їх розв'язок за рахунок агресивних тенденцій або з позицій уникнення, пошук автентичності й відвертості у взаєминах: «Необхідно дітям ставити оцінки, а не вилучати з програм той матеріал, за рахунок якого працюють процеси пам'яті»; «Як ми можемо навчити учнів без техніки читання, каліграфії, коли відмінена оцінка за ці види діяльності, а від нас вимагають, хоч ці самі критерії підмінили іншими, наприклад, свідомість, виразність, швидкість»? За рахунок таких конфронтацій розгорнувся конфлікт смислової та емоційної сфери, відзначалась наявність феноменів супротиву, як частини «перехідної системи» [6], встановлювалась проблемність з точки зору цілей і цінностей. Цей процес набував болісного характеру, нагадував переживання учасниками інтелектуального та емоційного хаосу, творчий безлад та, за рахунок рефлексивної активності його учасників, знаменував перехід на соціальний рівень регуляції, уключав звернення за зовнішньою допомогою групи. Відчувалося, що порушуються сенси професійної діяльності учасників, а, за рахунок континууму емоційних реакцій та напруги, виникла неконгруентність між існуючим досвідом і системою—Я фахівця. В логіці екофасилітації, переживання та наростання ступеня виразності таких травматичних переживань означає конструювання нової ідентичності в формі «Я—образу» [8, 217].

Через посередництво технік емпатійного/активного слухання, транслювання висловлювань, віддзеркалення прихованих сенсів та їх фокусування в напрямку інтеграції (третя стадія) при здійсненні фасилітатором групового процесу за рахунок ресурсу групи (складу), з'явилися ознаки виявлення власних неадитивних установок: «Вчитель не завжди винний, в тому, що не навчив, не зміг». На цьому етапі відзначено формування

нового колективного суб'єкта [4], що проявилось через встановлення принципів постконфліктної взаємодії та більш глибокого прийняття. Груповий процес гармонізувався, а в фасилітатора з'явилося відчуття свободи від зняття відповідальності за груповий процес.

Подальша динаміка розгорнулась на стадії кооперації/співпраці, коли позиція фасилітатора стала рівною членам групи. На цій стадії спрацювали групові катарсичні явища, раптові осяяння. Наведемо кілька прикладів висловлювань вчителів: «Значить не тільки від нас залежить рівень успішності учнів!?!», «У нас є тепер можливість простіше і спокійніше реагувати на поведінку учнів». Такі позиції учасників знаменують перехід від визначення вчинків до оцінки їх характеру.

Подальшою реальною позицією фасилітатора, на фоні групової панівної ідентичності (стадія «розширення можливостей/підпорядкування»), було слідування логіці завершеності групових процесів, оскільки учасники почали експериментувати з розширенням кордонів групи. У новому контексті почали з'являтися нові парадоксальні програми, які виникли під час зіткнення колишніх сенсів із тими, які щойно зароджувались, здійснювався перехід із зовнішнього плану регуляції у внутрішній, коли зовнішній рівень (зовнішні «протестуючі проєкції») учасників не протирічить внутрішньому. Відмітимо, що на перший погляд, спочатку це сприймається як патологія (розрив поступовості, випадковість) [6, 43], потім — як новизна (в термінах можливості) [7], що підтверджує логіку екофасилітації.

На цьому етапі, в контексті актуалізації набутого професійного досвіду та детермінації нових компонентів професійної свідомості, пробуджується нові сенси, принципи, а учасники сприймають їх, як можливість рухатись уперед на особистісному або професійному рівнях, запускається нова мотиваційна лінія, яка вкрапляє мотиви усвідомленого самовдосконалення, самореалізації, професійного самоствердження через усвідом-

лення особистісних і професійних змін: «Тепер я буду тільки орієнтувати дітей, хоч як я тепер без прикладу маю їх орієнтувати»; «Не знаю як, але буду робити, орієнтуючись на сферу освітніх послуг, врахувати індивідуальні особливості учня, якщо в процесі роботи не виникне форс мажор».

Остання стадія — «індиферентності та байдужості», або завершення групового процесу, в логіці екофасилітації, свідчила про можливість нового зростання, наповнилась ознаками нової конфронтації учасників, було відмічено феномени супротиву, як частини «перехідної системи» [3, 292]. Результатом функціонування механізму вирішення типових труднощів педагогів — виступають новоутворення в структурі особистості педагога, що забезпечують якісно новий рівень відношення до дійсності, гнучкість, толерантність до невизначеності.

Отже, вищевикладений приклад фрагменту заняття, є свідченням траєкторії вирішення педагогічних труднощів (проблемних ситуацій) учасників тренінгу, включаючи «перехідні характеристики» [4].

Така форма вирішення проблемних ситуацій у професійній площині обумовила трансформацію педагогічних стереотипів. Викликаний умовами формуючого практикуму дисонанс між груповими й індивідуальними стереотипами зачіпає в умовах невизначеності загальні та індивідуальні міжсистемні зв'язки між їх рівнями, спричиняє виведення із внутрішнього плану в зовнішній неконструктивних елементів, зокрема, визначає їх вихід за межі площин функціонування стереотипів високого або низького рівня, вказує на запуск синкретичного механізму «перетвореної форми» [5] інтеграцію «перехідних характеристик» в трансформаційний механізм педагогічного змінювання [3].

Очевидним було й те, що подібний досвід переживання групою не має певних закономірностей, а стани незнання та безпорадності учителів можуть змінюватись на колективне розуміння закономірностей переходу — від незнання до знання.

Отже, можна констатувати, що відпрацьовані актуальні психологічні труднощі/професійні питання мали не тільки глибинні особистісні сенси але, й здається, психотерапевтичний ефект.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EVALUATION AND SELF-ESTEEM IN PRIMARY SCHOOL AGE

Abstract: The development of ideas about themselves in the younger school age occurs in the process of evaluation activity of the child himself, on the one hand and in the process of his communication with other people, on the other. The article discusses the relationship between academic achievement and self-esteem in junior school age.

Keywords: self-esteem, primary school age, evaluation, academic achievement.

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ВЗАИМОСВЯЗЬ ОЦЕНКИ И САМООЦЕНКИ В МЛАДШЕМ ШКОЛЬНОМ ВОЗРАСТЕ

Аннотация: развитие представлений о себе в младшем школьном возрасте происходит в процессе оценочной деятельности самого ребёнка, с одной стороны и в процессе его общения с другими людьми, с другой. В статье рассматривается вопрос о взаимосвязи успеваемости и самооценки в младшем школьном возрасте.

Ключевые слова: самооценка, младший школьник, оценка, успеваемость.

Введение

Аналитический обзор литературы дает нам многочисленные определения самооценки. Словарь психологии под редакцией Р.Р. Neveanu определяет самооценку как осознание человеком своих сильных и слабых сторон, способностей, навыков и личностных черт, а также состояние и степень их развития. Самооценка развивается путем сравнения себя с другими людьми, предназначена для установления ценности продуктов деятельности, смысла социального поведения и определения индивидуальных особенностей [2].

Исследователь Андра Сербанеску (Andra Șerbănescu) рассматривает понятие самооценки с точки зрения личной идентичности, которая состоит из трех составных частей: представление о себе, самоуважение и самосознание. Личностная идентичность (самоидентификация, engl. self-identity, self — concept, personal identity) является «суммой всех знаний и представлений человека о себе, включая физические, психические, социальные характеристики, сформированные отношениями, привычками, убеждениями, личными идеями человека» [4, С. 162].

Понятие самооценки относится к динамическому процессу развития и структурирования личностных характеристик, начинающийся с самого раннего возраста и продолжающийся на протяжении всей жизни [3].

Таким образом, самооценка предполагает формирование представления о себе (self-concept), включающее в себя все идеи и чувства человека о самом себе.

Само понятие «Я» (self-concept) имеет два аспекта: образ себя и чувство собственного достоинства, самоуважение. Образ Я (self-image) представляет собой совокупность идей о сильных и слабых качествах, которыми обладает человек или думает, что обладает. Образ Я — это сознательное представление человека о том, «кто я, что я и на что я способен». Сам образ Я может быть положительным или отрицательным, реальным или нереальным. Самоуважение (self-esteem), отражает субъективную оценку собственной значимости в зависимости от личных ожиданий и ожиданий окружающих. Самоуважение включает в себя самооценку собственной личности с точки зрения того, насколько хорошим, умным, способным является человек в сравнении с другими. Самооценка является сложным личностным образованием. В ней отражается то, что человек узнает о себе от других, и его собственная активность, направленная на осознание своих действий и личностных качеств [5].

Если говорить о детях младшего школьного возраста, то дети с позитивным отношением к себе чувствуют себя хорошо, уверены в своих силах, способны брать на себя ответственность, чувствуют ценность своих успехов, принимаются другими детьми.

Дети с негативным отношением к себе (низкой самооценкой), напротив, чувствуют себя неудовлетворенными, не в состоянии выполнить то, что хотели бы, легко попадают под влияние других людей и/или игнорируются сверстниками.

В работе «Консультирование по вопросам воспитания» А. Бэбан (A. Băban) приводит примеры высказываний детей с разной самооценкой [1].

Дети с позитивной самооценкой высказываются следующим образом: «Я могу это сделать» (берут на себя ответственность); «Я справлюсь сам» (проявляют независимость); «Я горжусь тем, что...» (понимают и принимают ценность собственных достижений); «Давай я помогу тебе» или «Мне нужна твоя помощь» (способны оказывать и принимать помощь).

Для детей с низкой самооценкой характерны следующие высказывания: «У меня ничего не получается», «У меня нет способностей к...» (не удовлетворены теми чертами и способностями, которыми обладают); «Я не смогу пройти конкурс, победить» (избегают ситуаций соревнования и заданий нового типа); «Я скучный» «Я никому не нравлюсь» (чувствуют себя нелюбимыми и неоцененными); «Опять я хуже всех» (высокая чувствительность к неудачам, низкая толерантность к разочарованию).

Согласно принципам гуманистической психологии, разработанным К. Роджерсом и А. Маслоу, каждый человек ценен сам по себе. Каждый человек волен выбирать и строить свою судьбу, согласуясь со своими качествами и характеристиками, и меняться по мере создания условий для обновления себя. Безусловное принятие (независимо от успехов и реализаций) и позитивное мышление (вера, что у каждого человека есть что-то хорошее) являются условиями, которые способствуют развитию личности.

Современное, личностно-ориентированное образование строится на принципах гуманистической психологии об уникальности каждого человека и включает в себя следующие положения:

- каждый ученик уникален и имеет свою собственную индивидуальность;
- каждый ученик должен чувствовать себя уважаемым;

- соблюдение индивидуальных различий учеников;
- поощрение разнообразия личностных проявлений и поведения;
- оценивание определенного поведения, а не личности в целом;
- открытое выражение уверенности в способности позитивных изменений;
- поощрение учеников;
- признание роли чувства личной ценности для психического и эмоционального здоровья [1].

Постановка проблемы. Формирование осознанного Я (эго) начинается в раннем возрасте, и отражается в индивидуальном проявлении в различных видах деятельности. Эго формируется за счет приобретения знаний. В раннем возрасте, накопление знаний о себе происходит на уровне сенсомоторного мышления. В период дошкольного возраста, ребенок осознает только сам факт, что он существует и на данный период еще практически ничего не знает о себе, о своих качествах. В этот период ребенок просто приписывает себе все положительные, одобряемые взрослыми качества, часто даже не зная, в чем они заключаются. С поступлением ребенка в школу, уровень развития самосознания переходит на другую качественную ступень. Ребенок осознает себя частью системы человеческих отношений, т. е. у него появляется переживание себя как существа социального. Этот уровень развития самосознания непосредственно связан с развитием особого личностного новообразования — внутренней позиции школьника, включающего в себя преобразование социальной ситуации развития, смену положения, статуса ребенка в семье и обществе, изменения режима дня и образа жизни, расширение социальных связей, расширение круга общения. Основным видом деятельности становится обучение — источник новых открытий и удовлетворений.

Помимо приобретения знаний по различным школьным предметам, в процессе обучения и вос-

питания ребенок усваивает нормы и ценности, принятые в обществе и, под влиянием мнения и оценочных суждений окружающих его людей, в первую очередь учителей и сверстников, начинает относиться определенным образом как к результатам своей учебной деятельности, так и к самому себе как личности. В младшем школьном возрасте, именно в учебной деятельности ребенок познает себя как личность, у него складываются представления о себе, формируется самооценка и самоотношение. Таким образом, учебная деятельность и учителя становятся важным условием создания в классе развивающей среды для формирования здоровой самооценки каждого школьника.

Метод. В рамках нашего исследования нами были изучены взаимосвязи между самооценкой и школьными успехами детей младшего школьного возраста. В экспериментальной части нами была использована методика Дембо-Рубинштейн, направленная на изучение самооценки испытуемого, а также проведен анализ школьной успеваемости среди учеников 1–4 классов. Были обследованы 268 учащихся начальной школы, 130 мальчиков и 138 девочек, среди которых 48 учеников 1-х классов, 68–2-х, 80–3-х и 72 ученика 4-х классов.

Результаты исследования. По результатам школьной успеваемости нами были выделены три группы учеников – с высокой, средней и низкой успеваемостью. Результаты гендерного анализа и анализа результатов по классам представлены на рисунке 1.

Таким образом: в первых классах среди девочек 54.5% с высокой успеваемостью; 45.4% со средней; 0% – с низкой. Среди мальчиков результаты распределились следующим образом: на 9 и 10 (высокий уровень) учатся 30.7% мальчиков, на 7–8 (средний уровень) – 61.5%; на 5 и 6 (низкий уровень) учатся 7.6% мальчиков. Во втором классе: 14.2% мальчиков с высокой успеваемостью, 64.2% – со средней и 21.4% – с низкой. 45% девочек имеют высокий уровень

успеваемости и 55% – средний. Среди мальчиков, учеников 3-х классов, 27.7% показали высокие результаты, 44.4% – средний и низкий у 27.7%. Высокие результаты успеваемости у 54.5% девочек-третьеклассниц, у 27.2% – средний и низкий

у 18.1% девочек. В четвертых классах 25% мальчиков учатся на отлично, 58.3% – средние и у 16.6% – низкие оценки. Среди девочек четвероклассниц половина учится на отлично (50%) и вторая половина (50%) на 7–8 (средний уровень).

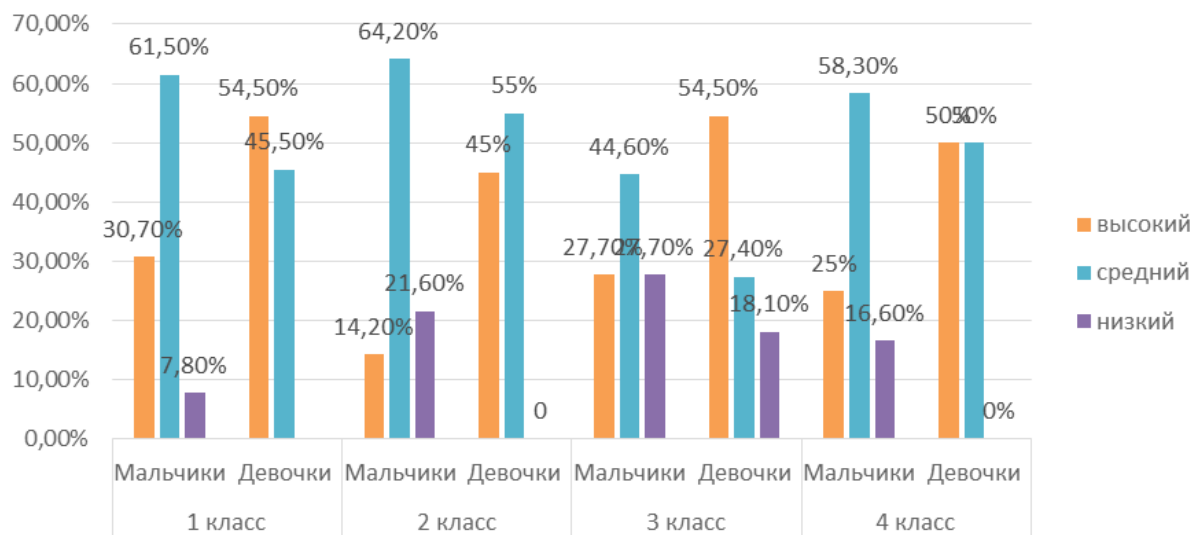


Рисунок 1. Распределение результатов исследования школьной успеваемости по классам

Согласно результатам исследования и статистической обработке данных в начальных классах девочки учатся лучше мальчиков ($t = 2,055$; $p \leq 0,05$). На наш взгляд, более низкая успеваемость мальчиков может быть обусловлена тем фактом, что в биологическом и психологическом развитии мальчики немного отстают и имеют свою специфику развития. В частности, в этом возрасте речь у девочек развита лучше, хотя мальчики мыслят более интересно и нестандартно. Мальчики могут найти оригинальное решение или нестандартным образом решить задачу, но сделают при этом ошибки в вычислениях. Девочки же более аккуратные, скрупулезные и поэтому скорее выполняют задание по шаблону, но без особых ошибок. Другой причиной может быть большая «прилежность» и «усидчивость» девочек — черты, которые очень нравятся учителям, поэтому девочек чаще хвалят, поощряя тем самым стремление к успехам в обучении. Мальчики более активные, «неряшливые», получают много замечаний на уроке из-за своего поведения, а также

из-за помарок в тетрадках, что может подавлять у мальчиков стремление учиться.

В ходе обследования самооценки было выявлено, что очень высокий уровень самооценки имеют 13,5% испытуемых, высокий – 48,5%, средний – 32% и 6% – низкий.

Согласно результатам исследования большинство детей (62%) имеют высокую и очень высокую самооценку. Таким образом, для самооценки младшего школьника характерным является ее высокий уровень. Согласно мнению детских психологов это является нормой для данного периода развития личности. Отметим, что младшие школьники более высоко оценивают себя по нравственным качествам («честность», «добродетель», «попослушность»). На наш взгляд, это связано с тем, что в 6–10 лет ребенок более осознанно начинает познавать сущность нравственных категорий, учиться рефлексии и оцениванию как собственных, так и чужих поступков. Ребенок этого возраста очень хочет быть и чувствовать себя «хорошим человеком», поэтому очень внимательно относится

к любым оценкам со стороны взрослых, которые в свою очередь поощряют ребенка и высказывают много оценочных суждений по различным качествам ребенка и в различных ситуациях.

По мнению Волкова Б. С. наибольшее влияние на развитие самооценки младшего школьника оказывает школьная успеваемость [6, С. 10]. В этом возрасте дети во многом ориентируются на оценку учителя, относят себя и своих одноклассников к категории отличников, двоечников и т. п., выделяя у каждой группы соответствующие качества. В этом возрасте детям еще сложно поразному оценивать людей в их школьной успеваемости и личностных проявлениях, поэтому школьная оценка для младших школьников становится фактором, определяющим социальный статус ребенка в классе. Учителям рекомендуется быть внимательными в своих оценочных высказываниях в адрес учеников, потому что любой негативный отзыв относительно школьных заданий, дети переносят на оценку личности в целом: я/ты — плохой человек.

Рассмотрим далее результаты исследования компонентов самооценки в зависимости от уровня успеваемости. В целом по выборке, нами было обнаружено, что дети с высокой и низкой успеваемостью имеют статистически значимые различия по таким компонентам, как умный/глупый ($t = 2,409$; $p \leq 0,05$); добрый/злой ($t = 1,884$; $p \leq 0,05$); хороший ученик/плохой ученик ($t = 1,891$; $p \leq 0,05$). На наш взгляд, это связано с неспособностью дифференцировать оценивание по школьным заданиям и личностные особенности. Младшие школьники успехи и провалы в учебной деятельности переносят на оценку своих способностей не только в отношении школьной деятельности, но и на личностные характеристики в целом. Особую роль здесь играет сравнение: при оценивании себя, дети вольно или невольно сравнивают себя с другими, учитывая при этом не только свои собственные достижения или неудачи, но и всю социальную ситуацию в целом,

и зачастую связывают и/или переносят результаты в одном виде деятельности на всю личность в целом (хороший ученик = хороший человек).

При статистическом анализе результатов исследования самооценки у детей с высокой и средней успеваемостью, значимые различия были обнаружены по категориям умный/глупый ($t = 1,697$; $p \leq 0,05$); хороший ученик/плохой ученик ($t = 2,055$; $p \leq 0,05$). Как видим в данной группе различия существуют лишь по критериям, относящимся к когнитивным способностям и результатам учебной деятельности. Вероятно, дети со средней успеваемостью испытывают некоторые затруднения в понимании учебного материала (критерий умный/глупый), а также считают себя более ленивыми и недисциплинированными (хороший/плохой ученик). Отметим, что и те и другие дети, в принципе, относятся к группе хорошо успевающих учеников, этим можно объяснить отсутствие значимых различий по самооценке личностных черт (добрый/злой, аккуратный/неаккуратный; веселый/скучный и т. д.).

Рассмотрим далее результаты сравнительного анализа самооценки младших школьников разных классов. Ученики первых классов отличаются от учеников вторых классов по шкале умелый/неумелый ($t = 2,297$ при $p \leq 0,05$), умный/глупый ($t = 2,933$ при $p \leq 0,05$), а так же хороший ученик/плохой ученик ($t = 3,93$ при $p \leq 0,05$). Почти по этим же шкалам выявлены различия среди первоклассников и третьеклассников (по шкале умный/глупый $t = 0,796$ при $p \leq 0,5$), а так же первоклассников и четвероклассников (по шкале умный/глупый – $t = 2,424$ при $p \leq 0,05$; по шкале хороший ученик/плохой ученик – $t = 4,062$; $p \leq 0,01$). Как видим, все различия связаны с основной деятельностью – учебной. Для первоклассников обучение в школе чаще всего процесс интересный и увлекательный (новый коллектив, учитель, знания), несет за собой многие изменения в жизни и статусе ребенка (он теперь ученик, у него есть личные нужные вещи), приобщает его

к миру взрослых (теперь у ребенка есть свои задания, своя «работа»). Именно повышенный интерес к школе и всему, что с ней связано, делает учебную деятельность и фигуру учителя наиболее значимой в формировании самооценки. В процессе учебной деятельности ребенок оценивает себя «каким я был» и «каким я стал». Всякая учебная деятельность включает в себя и момент оценивания, даже если в классе не ставят школьных отметок, а выдают звездочки, флажки или другие знаки отличия, благодаря которым ребенок получает обратную связь (оценивание) на свой труд. Поскольку в процессе обучения большее количество оценок относится к выполненным заданиям и непосредственно связано с учебной деятельностью, то для ребенка, при оценке себя и своих одноклассников, на первый план выходят те качества, которые связаны со школьным обучением (умелый, умный, хороший ученик).

Однако не менее интересные результаты были получены по шкале есть друзья/нет друзей. Оказалось, что от класса к классу данный параметр занимает все большее место в жизни ребенка и становится основанием для более высокого оценивания себя по данному параметру. Статистически значимые различия были получены практически по всем классам: между 1-ми и 3-ми – $t = 1,939$ при $p \leq 0,01$; между первыми и четвертыми классами – $t = 1,785$ при $p \leq 0,01$; 2-ми и 4-ми – $t = 3,771$ при $p \leq 0,05$. После поступления ребенка в школу в жизни ребенка появляются новые объекты общения – учителя, с одной стороны, и одноклассники – с другой, что делает общение ребенка более разнообразным. В первом классе

у детей формируется мнение об одноклассниках на основании отношения к ним взрослых, в первую очередь – учителя. С возрастом дети становятся все более способными адекватно оценивать и осознавать свое положение в группе, качества своих одноклассников, а также возрастает умение выстраивать межличностные отношения со сверстниками. Уже во втором классе снижается значимость учителя, но значительно возрастает роль сверстников, о чем свидетельствует как нетерпимость к замечаниям взрослых в присутствии других детей, так и потребность в установлении дружеских отношений. Однако младшие школьники еще не способны выбирать друзей по каким-либо существенным качествам личности и чаще всего в этом возрасте начинают больше общаться с теми, кто разделяет их интересы (товарищи по секции, кружку), живет по соседству и, конечно, более всего ориентируются на сверстников своего пола. Однако в целом дети старших классов начальной школы глубже осознают те или иные качества личности, характера. И уже к концу третьего года обучения при выборе одноклассников для совместной деятельности дети ориентируются на морально-нравственные качества. К концу 4-го класса у детей формируется желание получить одобрение со стороны сверстников, повышается чувствительность к неодобрению и более значимыми становятся взаимоотношения ребенка со сверстниками.

С целью изучения связи самооценки и самооценки нами был проведен линейный корреляционный анализ. Коэффициенты корреляции представлены в табл. 1.

Таблица 1. – Коэффициенты корреляции самооценки и успеваемости учеников младших классов

| | Высокая успеваемость | Средняя успеваемость | Низкая успеваемость |
|-----------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1-й класс | 0,415* | 0,325 | 0,539 |
| 2-й класс | 0,315 | | 0,314 |
| 3-й класс | | | 0,401 |
| 4-й класс | | 0,415 | 0,387 |

* $p \leq 0,05$

Согласно полученным результатам выявлена прямая зависимость успеваемости и самооценки, в частности успеваемость коррелирует с высокой самооценкой у учеников первого и второго класса, и с низкой самооценкой во всех классах. Это может говорить о том, что если ребенок хорошо учится, то для взрослых, сверстников и самого себя он и добрый, и честный, и послушный. В ответ на сообщение о положительной, высокой оценке учителя за выполненную работу, ребенок часто слышит: «Какой ты хороший!», «Славный ребенок», «Мамина радость» и т. д., то есть успеваемость является основанием для оценки ребенка и по нравственным качествам. Известен тот факт, что среди учителей и родителей очень распространено убеждение о связи хорошей успеваемости ребенка с характеристиками его личности: успешно учится — значит добросовестный, честный, дисциплинированный, любимец семьи; успевает плохо — значит, ленивый, плохой, неаккуратный и т. д. Педагоги и психологи посвятили этой проблеме множество работ. Примечательной в этой связи является работа Б. Г. Ананьева, посвященная стереотипам хорошего и плохого ученика. Подобные результаты получены и в нашем исследовании.

В заключении отметим высокую роль учителя в формировании самооценки ребенка. Особая

миссия возложена на учителей начальной школы: именно им предстоит выявить особенности самооценки детей, помочь им сформировать критическое отношение к себе, научить анализировать и контролировать свое поведение. Важно помнить, что процесс формирования самооценки в младшем школьном возрасте динамичен, но в то же время имеет тенденцию к устойчивости. Пройдя через оценивание со стороны других и свои собственные размышления относительно собственной личности, самооценка становится внутренней позицией личности, является мотивом поведения и влияет на дальнейшее формирование определенных качеств личности. Исходя из этого все взрослые, участвующие в процессе воспитания ребенка, должны стремиться к тому, чтобы формирование самооценки у ребенка складывалась правильно. Этого можно достичь благодаря безусловному положительному отношению к ребенку, благодаря проявлению веры в его возможности, а также оказывая ему всевозможную помощь и поддержку. Критические замечания со стороны учителя должны относиться исключительно к поступкам или результатам определенной деятельности, и ни в коем случае не затрагивать личность в целом. В этом случае даже самая низкая оценка не будет восприниматься ребенком как ущемление его личности, его достоинства.

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Section 7. Sociology

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MAKHALLA AS AN INSTITUTION OF NATIONAL UPBRINGING

Abstract: the specific peculiarities of Makhalla institutions, Uzbek national lifestyle, customs, traditions and the importance of Makhalla are explained in this article. The factors of the development of Makhalla institutions during the independence years of Uzbekistan and its essence in the upbringing of the young generation are analyzed.

Keywords: Makhalla, peculiarities of Makhalla, upbringing of young generation, spiritual threats, the Internet.

Makhalla has been considered as a certain base of social life management in several Eastern countries. It was more convenient to use Makhalla institution in the control of society for the state in much more developed social-economic conditions. The superiority of social tendency in the relations among people and convenient conditions of Makhalla in organizing manufacture in the early Middle Ages made Makhalla role more significant in social life. However, during the regime of former United Soviet Republic this kind of national features were neglected and Makhalla lost its importance.

When Uzbekistan began establishing new society the government based on two tendencies: the achievements gained by current time civilization and our national heritage. The government of Uzbekistan paid great attention to Makhalla institution in organizing and managing of society life and began to promote its reputation. Makhallas were given a constitutional position [1, 58], Law about local municipal organizations was adopted [2] and it was re-edited and its rights are being expanding in accordance with life changes. As a result of this Makhalla institutions took the important role in life of our people.

Makhalla institution has its own role in all spheres of the society but keeping and improving the national-spiritual peculiarities are considered as its essential functions.

With what kind of peculiarities is Makhalla characterized? First of all, it consists of people in a certain place. Secondly, it has regularly direct relations with all the social organizations located in the same area (especially educational establishments under school, schools and others). Thirdly, it is regarded as a main form after family in which a person start social relations and it forms spiritual life of the person (neighbours, quarters consisting of 3 or 4 houses, establishments, courses, ceremonies in Makhalla's special life, weddings, holidays, hashar and other activities). Fourthly, nearly all the people in Makhallas recognize each other well and they are aware of each other's circumstance and they participate in Makhalla affairs together. Fifthly, each person and each family have their own lifestyle, humanity and a certain reputation according to their social peculiarities and they try to keep and improve their kind of authority. Finally, several tasks and duties of people and families such as

getting their sons and daughters married and the easy fulfillment of national affairs in spiritual-social sphere are directly connected with the attitude of Makhallas towards families. For example, when Uzbek people make their sons and daughters married and before beginning wedding they investigate about each other's forefathers and the behaviour of the family members and in this situation they can get necessary information from the people of the Makhalla.

The national lifestyle, traditions and customs of Uzbek people gave the opportunity for Makhallas to get important role in society life in a short time. The globalization process at current time, the development of mass media (the communication techniques, mobile phones, particularly, the Internet), the increase of spiritual impacts on the young generations require to strengthen the role of Makhallas in order to keep high national and spiritual values.

In 2012–2013 academic year we took a questionnaire among students and pupils in Tashkent city in order to research the factors and sources of the spiritual changes of the youth. It was noted that family, Makhalla and educational establishments are considered important factors in the behaviour formation of the youth and their effect has an increasing tendency. However, at that time 30,6 percent of the respondents admitted to greet one another when they met their neighbours, 30,6 percent said that they knew the Makhalla only in order to get any documents, 30,0 percent replied that they took part in Makhalla affairs just “for company” and 10,0 percent of the people answered that they did not participate in such kind of affairs at all. We tried to explain this situation with some reasons such as respondents living in blocks of flats and most of them were young (pupils). The populations living in houses are closely united with Makhallas and we reflected that the influence of such kind of Makhallas on the spirit of the youth could be much higher [3,153–159].

Recent researches have illustrated that consisting of blocks of flats is not the main reason for the low reputation of Makhallas but it also depends on how

to make the population united and attract deserving people for the management of the Makhallas. In well-united and friendly Makhallas the society opinion has high influence and it plays an essential role in preventing divorces and the expansion of harmful habits and activities contrast to national ethics.

However, in spite of this at current time the amount of the impacts of factors which form the spirit of the youth is changing. Mainly, most of the youth having modern mobile phones, the increase of facilities to link the Internet and the rise of spiritual threats from outer countries are causing several problems in the upbringing of the youth.

Addiction to mobile phones, computers and the internet and a variety of games, videos and other information which are contrast to our ethics and national features and leading to destructive ideas and distributed via these techniques are making some young people's determination weaker. As a consequence of this they are becoming selfish individuals in egoistic mood and avoiding from the society and their duties in it. The slowly changing numbers of the amount of the ones who are not using the Internet in order to get knowledge among pupils and students puts a variety of tasks in front of the society and the institutions responsible for the upbringing of the youth. “Here the issue is about our children and, it is necessary to say, about the future of our country” [4, 46].

A person who is going to hold any ceremony asks for advice from Makhalla, firstly. For instance, if the person is in a quarrel or argues with other people reconcile them and they forget all the offences.

It is visible that national ethic principles which have been valued for a long time are in practice in such affairs held in Makhallas and they bring up love and kindness, humanity features and other delicate peculiarities of people. Every person living in Makhallas is required to have humane features, respect the old and be polite to the young. A person without such kind of features loses his or her reputation in the Makhalla and even becomes under criticism.

In this case Makhalla institution makes a special importance. It has a great deal of upbringing and impact means, methods and forms. Makhallas may carry upbringing affairs via leading parents to this, directly working with the youth, communicating with the old people of the Makhalla, attracting responsible organizations, making the youth take part in various customs, ceremonies, celebrations and via different kinds of forms.

Makhalla upbringing is regarded as a national ethic upbringing. The person communicating in the area of the Makhalla, certainly, holds in esteem both the old and the young and expresses a good attitude towards them. On the contrary, they may lose their respect in front of others. The main content of communications also often becomes about the issues on Makhalla life, in this situation national ethic rules and social tendency take the superiority.

Obviously, in such circumstances the youth who lost the right way in life and the ones who do not follow the national morality are revealed immediately. Sensible people begin watching the changes appearing in others and searching for the reasons and they discuss it in social groups (if necessary in order to help and support). The Makhalla has more profitable features to spiritually impact on the youth with

wrong lifestyle than outer labour and other organizations. Makhalla controls the youth via their families, neighbours, relatives, old people and their close friends and the youth can't hide their bad habits such as addicts to drugs, tipsiness and others. Moreover, it is possible to lead the youth to the right way via attracting them to a variety of affairs like ceremonies, holidays and hashar. Makhalla does not leave the person alone who lost in a wrong way and escaping from other people and does not force the person to become a good man but can bring up the person via making him or her actively participate in different affairs and take actions together with the people of the Makhalla. Normal social aspects take the superiority in Makhalla activity, it is not directed to lose the individualism in the person, and on the contrary, national sociality encourages the enterprise and individualism for the society benefits.

In conclusion, the Makhalla approaches comprehensively to the upbringing of the youth and it is considered as an objective condition of following our national traditions. It uses all the means in society for the upbringing the young generation and it is essential to effectively use the upbringing function of the Makhalla in the circumstance of communication and information increase.

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SOCIAL STATE AND SOCIALLY-ORIENTED MARKET ECONOMY

Abstract: The article examines some issues of state policy aimed at addressing the main social problems. It is noted that, despite the fact that all states in their constitutions declare themselves a socially-oriented country, many of them do nothing to achieve this goal. The author in the example to this notes the program steps implemented in Azerbaijan, which is felt daily in the welfare of the population.

Keywords: social state, socially-oriented economy, living standard, welfare, management.

Introduction

Analysis of historical development shows that in all periods the people tried to raise the quality of their life and in this regard to acquire a new, more advanced management system. Ideal state conceptions put forward in different periods were first of all, related with welfare of people and search for the ways of its provision. The social state in post-neocapitalism period, which is characterized as the newest stage of the world history, is related with improvement of life quality of people, provision of social justice, consolidation of social cooperation and mutual social responsibility, elimination of social inequality, provision of all human rights and freedoms and appropriate life conditions and is accepted as a next "ideal management" model. One of the privileges of the social state is related with its being a state structure based on mutual activity, mutual help and support in state-society relations. Preparation of "Strategic road map over national economic perspective of Azerbaijan Republic" is a significant step in direction of creation of personal development model and this strategy involves the world experience, national development and national security prospective [1].

Essence of social-oriented market economy.

Development of social market economy in the modern time comes out as the foundation of social policy of the advanced world states. The concept of "Social market economy" has been put forward by A. Miller-

Armak. He tried "to direct market economy agriculture to social" and to eliminate the distance between individualism and collectivism, as well as between social and state institutions. According to, L. Erchard, social market economy is a special social structure and special thinking form and focuses on provision of "welfare for everybody" [2]. Social market economy has double nature — tough market mechanism on one hand, and social attitude from another hand. Social market economy transforms and forms leading mechanisms of social policy. This time social field does not become only mission of the state, but also comes out as an operator of social services and undertakes the legislative and mediator role [3]. Socially-oriented market economy can be accepted as modernization of contemporary market economy. Essence of this process is related with democratization of the society on the basis of mutual activity of state and business [4].

Social state and socially-oriented market economy in Azerbaijan. Innovative economic processes in modern globalization condition lead to re-formation of local economy in all countries, including Azerbaijan, to management and development of new mechanisms, so involvement of modern countries to global economic relations is an inevitable process. From the first periods when Azerbaijan gained its independence, establishment of market economy was chosen as the main direction and in the latest decade the creation of socially-oriented market

economy was chosen as the main aim of the state and obtained a juridical status in the Constitution of Azerbaijan Republic (Article 15.2) [5].

Azerbaijan Republic which entered to market economy relations after getting independence had to undergo transition stage covering all social institutions of the society of Azerbaijan Republic entering to market economy relations. At the result of the conducted economic reforms and innovative measures, economic transition continuing for 15 years has already come to an end and the process of establishment of socially-oriented economy has begun. President of Azerbaijan Republic Ilham Aliyev said “we have already completed transition period in the economic field” [6]. In Azerbaijan, which stepped into a new economic development stage, the main features characterizing transition period from the point of quality are establishment of appropriate legislative framework, formation of the institute of entrepreneurs, provision of multi-type property, establishment of appropriate legislative basis about privatization, implementation of agrarian reforms, restriction of the role of state in economic activity of enterprises, formation of market economy, liberalization of internal and external economic activity, determination of prices by the market, generally, minimization of state’s intervention to economy, conduction of institutional reforms and other issues of this type [7]. Under social-economic welfare, on one hand it is meant objective assessment of financial condition of individuals, the state of health of population and environment, on another hand, subjective satisfaction, i. e. the person’s attitude to the financial condition he achieved, development of his social mutual relations, his satisfaction with the state of his health and environment [4]. From another point of view, in the structure of social well-being structure the factors as physical welfare, social welfare, emotional welfare, welfare related with profession are distinguished [8]. Provision of social welfare of people, first of all, is related with directing development of economy to social spheres, or with development of social economy. Analyses conducted on existing state of Azerbaijan economy show that in the latest decade as one of the countries

with the rapidest economic increase tempo Azerbaijan economy stepped into a new stage from the point of view of quality. It is not accidental that according to the “Doing Business” report of the World Bank, in 2009 Azerbaijan was assessed as the “Leader reforming state”. Economic policy conducted in the country led to expansion of economy, improvement of people’s social welfare and complete modernization of social-economic infrastructure [1]. The real growth rate of GDP in 2013 was 5,8% [9], in 2014 2,8%, in 2015 1,1%, and in 2016 reduced up to 3,8%. GDP per capita in 2013 was 6207,3 manat (7912,5 USD), in 2014–6264,1 manat (7985,9 USD), in 2015–5703,7 manat (5558,7 USD), in 2016–6223,8 manat (3899,9 USD). During 2004–2015 years averagely 10,6% economic growth rate was observed, nominal volume of GDP increased by 7,6. During the period, the volume of GDP per capita grew up to 6,5% and it raised Azerbaijan from the 134th position to the 79th position among the world countries, social well-being of the population significantly improved. Poverty level decreased from 40,2 percent that was in 2004 to 4,9 percent [1]. According to the “Global competitive report on 2016–2017 years” of the World Economic Forum, Azerbaijan, in comparison with the 2006th year stepped up 27 positions among 138 countries standing on the 37th position. According to this report, Azerbaijan is in the 39th position according to the indicator of quality of macroeconomic environment, in the 26th position according to efficiency of labor market, in the 37th position according to the ratio of national income to GDP, in the 55th position according to the quality of infrastructure [1]. Policy of development of entrepreneurship is particularly significant in constant social-economic development of country. Improvement of business environment, establishment of favorable condition for entrepreneurs and measures for sustainable development of the field of entrepreneurship are of strategic significance from the point of view of economic development of the country. In the condition when free competence, one of the integral attributes of market economy, is established, rapidly developing entrepreneurship plays a particularly important

role in development of not only society, but also in the development of a certain community or an individual [10]. Although modern economic development model of Azerbaijan has been determined as socially-oriented market economy, it should be noted that development model of each country differs from others as it is affected by both general and local peculiarities. From this point of view, the followings can be shown as the main factors influencing on formation of socially-oriented market economy of Azerbaijan model. The followings can be determined as the main factors influencing on use of the above-mentioned indicators: I. Territorial — spatial peculiarities: regional, national, megaregional, international and global. II. Time settings: short, — medium — and long-term impact. III. Impact areas: political, military, moral, cultural, informative, and economic. IV. According to spheres: financial sphere, consumption sphere, service sphere, trade sphere. V. Economic security: energy, ecological, social, demographic, innovative-technological, consumption and finance [11].

Summary

Characteristic features of national economic development model of Azerbaijan are the followings: 1. In Azerbaijan mixed economy is being formed based on different property and economic forms and an environment is being established for favorable activity of state and private property forms; 2. In Azerbaijan, economy is regulated by the state, favorable condition is set for competitiveness of products both for domestic and foreign markets; 3. Regulation is carried out both on macroeconomic, and microeconomic level; 4. Development peculiarities of socially-oriented economy, traditions of solution of social problems by the state are compatible with German model; 5. Environment of free competence is conducted by the state and anti-monopoly measures are implemented; 6. Employment policy and reduction of poverty are integral parts of the social economic policy conducted in Azerbaijan.

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SOCIAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL SECURITY OF AN INDIVIDUAL IN THE MODERN KAZAKH SOCIETY

Abstract: This article considers the complex concepts of social, psychological, security of an individual in the modern and changing society through already studied social feelings. The authors show the relevance of a person's psychological and social security in the society from another side, through the mood edge, which influences a person's feelings and improves his comfortable living in the society. In this article the major factors which determine a person's social feelings and his social security in the society are defined.

Keywords: modern society, social security, psychological security, personality.

The President of the Republic of Kazakhstan N.A. Nazarbayev in his article "The course towards future: modernization of public conscience" in front of the modern society of his country set goals for the next 5 years. This, first of all, competitiveness, pragmatism, preservation of national identity, cult of knowledge, openness of consciousness, evolutionary development of Kazakhstan. "Thus, a serious rethinking of what is happening in the world is the part of a huge attitudinal and ideological work that has to be carried out by society as a whole, and political parties and movements, as well as the educational system in particular" wrote the President of Kazakhstan [1].

Important attention is paid to a person's competitiveness, his patriotic and cultural education.

This is connected with his social and psychological safety and social feelings as a whole. In the modern society international, regional and local conflicts are increasingly occurring. There are more and more hot zones where military clashes take place. This affects our well-being, the sense of security and the sentiments of many people. People lose social and psychological guidelines in their lives, psychological stability is reduced, and the self-identity crisis of the individual comes. Many people lose a sense of optimism and confidence in the future. The concept of family is being blurred, communication between a person and society is disrupted, emigration is growing, which in turn leads to a deterioration in people's

health, aggravation of various diseases and a decrease in life expectancy [2, P. 166].

What do we mean by the concept of social security? Social security is a state of protection the social sphere of society and the government from threats which are capable of destroying it or causing its degradation. Objects of social security are people, their legitimate interests (needs), communities, relationships.

The problem of human social security in the modern society attracts a wide range of specialists, such as: psychologists, social workers, representatives of executive power, deputies, representatives of law enforcement agencies.

In solving the problems on ensuring social security, it is necessary to know how a particular person in Kazakh society perceives and assesses his safety, as well as changes that occur in public life. What is important for him now, how he feels in everyday life, how he assesses his health and confidence in the future.

Let us consider the problem from different angles and from the position of different specialists.

Sociologists while addressing this issue emphasize the analysis of social factors. These factors include socio-economic and political characteristics of individuals' livelihoods.

Psychologists consider the problem of human social security from the standpoint of social well-being, its sensory-emotional and cognitive domain, its social activity.

Economists consider the problem of a person's social security from the position of a possible contribution of an employee to an increase in the production of public goods.

In light of the above, we come to the conclusion that it is necessary to investigate social security comprehensively by taking into account the results of sociological, socio-economic, psychological and individual-personal aspects.

There are various approaches and explanations for the concept of social well-being by the researchers in this field.

Let us consider social well-being at different levels: on the one hand – as a phenomenon of public consciousness and public psychology, and on the other – as an individual-personal state.

As a result of studying the literature, we came to the conclusion that there is a multilevel analysis of and approaches to the phenomenon of social well-being.

Well-being includes not only the subject's relationship with external objects, but also self-esteem, treatment of himself and concern about his self-esteem. In real life, all the indicated emotional manifestations exist together, they are merged in a single experience and combined create a person's well-being [3, P. 43].

The influence of the psychological mood on the personality can be twofold: stimulating (encouraging) and inhibiting (suppressing the creative initiative, activity and energy of the individual, the deployment of its potentials), which allows the individual to feel in relative social security.

It is of interest to consider the social well-being of an individual in relation to the level of her satisfaction with her life, "psychological comfort."

Along with cognitive and emotional components we suggest to distinguish the third component or aspect of studying the social well-being — behavioral, which includes a person's readiness for certain actions aimed at maintaining and changing those socio-psychological conditions and the current situation that ensures optimal social well-being [4, P. 23]. The behavioral component of studying the social well-being allows to investigate the carrier of social well-being as an active subject and to trace the reverse effect of social well-being on socio-psychological processes at different levels. The phenomenon is most fully characterized by the presence of all of these three aspects.

We conclude that the social well-being needs to be investigated as a multifactor externally and internally determined process, which involves considering a complex multi-level system of its determinants.

The second important methodological basis is the principle of determinism, which reflects the peculiarities of the correlation of external and internal conditions in the determination of behavior.

While studying factors that determine social well-being and affect social security (socio-economic, situational), we also consider internal, subjective conditions for its emergence and manifestation. The principle of human character's connection with the outside world is also important in our study. Human actions aimed at transforming the situation and at the same time a person changes himself. A conscious reflection and transformation of reality by a person becomes an important factor in determining the nature of his interaction with the world. Understanding the social well-being solely as an objective or solely as a subjective phenomenon that affects social well-being is hardly legitimate. The factors of objective social, subjective and psychological nature underlie the emergence and manifestation of social well-being as an objective-subjective phenomenon. By describing the circumstances that affect social well-being, it is necessary to distinguish between what determines it at a particular point in time (actual, situational factors), and what is due to structure and functions in general. It is about the nature of social well-being in general [5, P. 35].

Social well-being reflects the whole system of social relations in micro environment. It is conditioned, first of all, by those social processes that occur in the society where a person takes part.

The authors note the connection of social well-being as a subjective-personal phenomenon with global social processes developing in society. However, the influence of social conditions on a person, his social well-being is mediated by the micro-level of his being, that is, his specific living conditions and lifestyle [7, P. 10].

Human development is not influenced by social relations, but by their spectrum, with which an individual, realizing his life goals and programs in society, is involved and directly connected.

Hence it can be assumed that the structure of social influences on people, their state, social well-being is quite complex and includes phenomena of different levels: macro level (the system of social relations in general, features and trends of socio-economic development at a certain historical stage), meso-level (characteristics and development state of those large social groups to which people belong — ethnic, professional, etc.) and micro level (features of the immediate, closest environment of the person and his own status in society) [6, P. 222].

It is also necessary to bear in mind that macro level processes are reflected at the level of the immediate everyday being of a person. They are refracted and transformed through it and accordingly perceived and evaluated from the perspective of the actual life situation.

Various individual and personal characteristics, which are significant in the context of studied phenomenon, can also be distinguished among subjective factors that determine the social well-being of a person.

It seems to us that along with these factors, a number of important psychological mediating conditions for the formation of social well-being can also be identified. A great influence on a person's condition, perception and assessment of his social position, in our opinion, is the presence or absence of a person's prospect. The role of prospect as a factor in the development of man and the collective is comprehensively and fully studied in the works of Makarenko A. S., who viewed the prospect as the most important condition, the source of the progressive movement, the development of any social organism, and compared its absence with death [9, P. 183]. The person's prospect guides him forward, acts as a long-term goal, creates a sense of confidence in the future. The prospect determines the future of man and acts as an ideal model of a person's social position, directions of his development [8, P. 85].

The level of awareness of prospects may be different, but in any case its presence is an important factor in the perception and evaluation of not only

the future (to which the prospect is related), but also the present (visible through the prism of projecting the future at present from the point of relevance of the actual and promising life situation). The absence of prospect has a destabilizing effect on a person, depresses it, deprives developmental incentives.

Thus, in social psychology, the phenomenon of social well-being is considered at different levels: at the macro, meso, and micro levels.

In studying social well-being, along with the cognitive and emotional components, it is necessary to take into account the third component — the behavioral component, which makes it possible to study the carrier of social well-being as an active subject and to track the reverse effect of social well-being on socio-psychological processes at different levels.

In the conditions of increasing social chaos, society seeks to reform certain subsystems in order to ensure stable and productive development. Reform in one subsystem does not radically transform the entire socio-economic system. The latter retains its integral quality. However, if the transformations cover most subsystems, the socio-economic system may lose its mechanisms and patterns. The society risks not to maintain a stable state and, moreover, to provoke problems with reforms [3, P. 310].

The activity of a person as an object and subject

of security is carried out in indissoluble interaction with the environment, forming a complex system of “man – environment”. One of the goals facing it is to ensure human security.

For this, it is necessary to take into account the features of the system, the first element of which is a person who is the object of protection; acts as a means of ensuring security; and can be a source of danger. The second element of the system is society, a social organism that develops according to its specific laws. A huge number of people with different ideas about the world interact in the society. As a result, a special situation is created in certain social groups, which can influence other people not included in them. For example, specialists in various fields are engaged in providing security: politicians, military personnel, rescue personnel, scientists, designers, and others. While providing security, these groups at the same time can create hazards by their possible mistakes made through decision-making. To ensure that the system “person – social environment” functions effectively and does not threaten human security, it is necessary to ensure the compatibility of each of its characteristics: energy, information, social, moral, psychological.

We can conclude, that the social and psychological security of the individual is the most important component of a person's social well-being and prosperity, and the development of the entire Kazakh people.

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PREDICTING RISK OF BEING VICTIMS OF DATING VIOLENCE FOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS USING ARTIFICIAL NEURAL NETWORK

Abstract: This study aims to 1) examine the predictors of the victims of dating violence at high school; 2) build a predictive model for victims of dating violence using artificial neural network and compare its performance to logistic regression model. Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance System (YRBSS) 2015 data were used for this study. Two models were built using training sample: artificial neural network and logistic regression. We used these two models to predict the risk of being victims of dating violence in the testing sample. Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) were calculated and compared for these two models for their discrimination capability. About 16% of 4721 students experienced dating violence, about 22.7% among the female and 8.3% among the male. In this study, we identified several important predictors for being a victim of dating violence at high school e. g., sex orientation, sexual intercourse experience, English fluency. This provided important information for educators as well as parents provide timely intervention. We built a predictive model using artificial neural network as well as logistic regression to provide a tool for early detection. As to performance of these two models, logistic regression had a similar discriminating capability as well as a better calibration between predicted probability and observed probability.

Keywords: (**Font-12 Bold**); Model, Dating violence, Artificial neural network, Logistic regression, Receiver operating characteristics (ROC).

Introduction

Nearly 1.5 million high school students nationwide experience physical abuse from a dating partner in a single year [1]. One in three adolescents in the U.S. is a victim of physical, sexual, emotional or verbal abuse from a dating partner, a figure that far exceeds rates of other types of youth violence [2]. One in 10 high school students has been purposefully hit, slapped or physically hurt by a boyfriend or girlfriend [3]. Girls and young women between the ages of 16 and 24 experience the highest rate of intimate partner violence — almost triple the national average. Violent behavior typically begins between

the ages of 12 and 18. The severity of intimate partner violence is often greater in cases where the pattern of abuse was established in adolescence.

Violent relationships in adolescence can have serious ramifications by putting the victims at higher risk for substance abuse, eating disorders, risky sexual behavior and further domestic violence [4]. Being physically or sexually abused makes teen girls six times more likely to become pregnant and twice as likely to get a STI [5]. Half of youth who have been victims of both dating violence and rape attempt suicide, compared to 12.5% of non-abused girls and 5.4% of non-abused boys.

In this study, we aim to 1) examine the predictors of the victims of dating violence at high school 2) build a predictive model for victims of dating violence using artificial neural network and compare its performance to logistic regression model.

1. Data and Methods

Data

Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance System (YRBSS) 2015 data were used for this study.

The YRBSS was developed in 1990 to monitor priority health risk behaviors that contribute markedly to the leading causes of death, disability, and social problems among youth and adults in the United States. These behaviors, often established during childhood and early adolescence, include:

- 1) Behaviors that contribute to unintentional injuries and violence;
- 2) Sexual behaviors related to unintended pregnancy and sexually transmitted infections, including HIV infection;
- 3) Alcohol and other drug use;
- 4) Tobacco use;
- 5) Unhealthy dietary behaviors;
- 6) Inadequate physical activity.

In addition, the YRBSS monitors the prevalence of obesity and asthma and other priority health-related behaviors plus sexual identity and sex of sexual contacts. From 1991 through 2015, the YRBSS has collected data from more than 3.8 million high school students in more than 1,700 separate surveys.

Models

Artificial neural network consists of an interconnected group of artificial neurons and processes information using a connectionist approach to computation. In most cases an ANN is an adaptive system that changes its structure based on external or internal information that flows through the network during the learning phase. In more practical terms neural networks are non-linear statistical data modeling tools. They can be used to model complex relationships between inputs and outputs or to find patterns in data. Using neural networks as a tool, data

warehousing firms are harvesting information from datasets in the process known as data mining. The difference between these data warehouses and ordinary databases is that there is actual manipulation and cross-fertilization of the data helping users makes more informed decisions.

A package called “neuralnet” in R was used to conduct neural network analysis. The package neuralnet focuses on multi-layer perceptrons (MLP, Bishop, 1995), which are well applicable when modeling functional relationships. The underlying structure of an MLP is a directed graph, i. e. it consists of vertices and directed edges, in this context called neurons and synapses. The neurons are organized in layers, which are usually fully connected by synapses. In neuralnet, a synapse can only connect to subsequent layers. The input layer consists of all covariates in separate neurons and the output layer consists of the response variables. The layers in between are referred to as hidden layers, as they are not directly observable. Input layer and hidden layers include a constant neuron relating to intercept synapses, i. e. synapses that are not directly influenced by any covariate. Neural networks are fitted to the data by learning algorithms during a training process. Neuralnet focuses on supervised learning algorithms.

The backward propagation of errors or backpropagation, is a common method of training artificial neural networks and used in conjunction with an optimization method such as gradient descent. The algorithm repeats a two phase cycle, propagation and weight update. When an input vector is presented to the network, it is propagated forward through the network, layer by layer, until it reaches the output layer. The output of the network is then compared to the desired output, using a loss function, and an error value is calculated for each of the neurons in the output layer. The error values are then propagated backwards, starting from the output, until each neuron has an associated error value which roughly represents its contribution to the original output.

We also used logistic regression models to calculate the predicted risk. Logistic regression is a part of a category of statistical models called generalized linear models, and it allows one to predict a discrete outcome from a set of variables that may be continuous, discrete, dichotomous, or a combination of these. Typically, the dependent variable is dichotomous and the independent variables are either categorical or continuous.

The logistic regression model can be expressed with the formula:

$$\ln(P/P-1) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * X_1 + \beta_2 * X_2 + \dots + \beta_n * X_n$$

Model evaluation

The two criteria to assess the quality of a classification model are discrimination and calibration. Discrimination is a measure of how well the two classes in the data set are separated; calibration determines how accurate the model probability estimated is to the true probability. To provide an unbiased estimate of a model's discrimination and calibration, these values have to be calculated from a data set not used in the model building process. Usually, a portion of the original data set, called the test or validation set, is put aside for this purpose. In small data sets, there may not be enough data items for both training and testing. In this case, the whole data set is divided into n pieces, $n-1$ pieces are used for training, and the last piece is the test set. This process of n -fold cross-validation builds n models; the numbers reported are the averages over all n test sets. An alternative to cross-validation is bootstrapping, a process by which training sets are sampled with replacement from the original data sets.

The discriminatory ability — the capacity of the model to separate cases from non-cases, with 1.0 and 0.5 meaning perfect and random discrimination, respectively — was determined using receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve analysis. ROC curves are commonly used to summarize the diagnostic accuracy of risk models and to assess the improvements made to such models that are gained from adding other risk factors. Sensitivity, specificity, and

accuracy will be also calculated and compared. For all these measures, there exist statistical tests to determine whether one model exceeds another in discrimination ability.

The contingency table can derive several evaluation “metrics” (see infobox). To draw a ROC curve, only the true positive rate (TPR) and false positive rate (FPR) are needed (as functions of some classifier parameter). The TPR defines how many correct positive results occur among all positive samples available during the test. FPR, on the other hand, defines how many incorrect positive results occur among all negative samples available during the test.

A ROC space is defined by FPR and TPR as x and y axes respectively, which depicts relative trade-offs between true positive (benefits) and false positive (costs). Since TPR is equivalent to sensitivity and FPR is equal to $1 - \text{specificity}$, the ROC graph is sometimes called the sensitivity vs $(1 - \text{specificity})$ plot. Each prediction result or instance of a confusion matrix represents one point in the ROC space.

The best possible prediction method would yield a point in the upper left corner or coordinate $(0,1)$ of the ROC space, representing 100% sensitivity (no false negatives) and 100% specificity (no false positives). The $(0,1)$ point is also called a perfect classification. A random guess would give a point along a diagonal line (the so-called line of no-discrimination) from the left bottom to the top right corners (regardless of the positive and negative base rates). An intuitive example of random guessing is a decision by flipping coins. As the size of the sample increases, a random classifier's ROC point migrates towards the diagonal line. In the case of a balanced coin, it will migrate to the point $(0.5, 0.5)$.

The diagonal divides the ROC space. Points above the diagonal represent good classification results (better than random), points below the line represent poor results (worse than random). Note that the output of a consistently poor predictor could simply be inverted to obtain a good predictor.

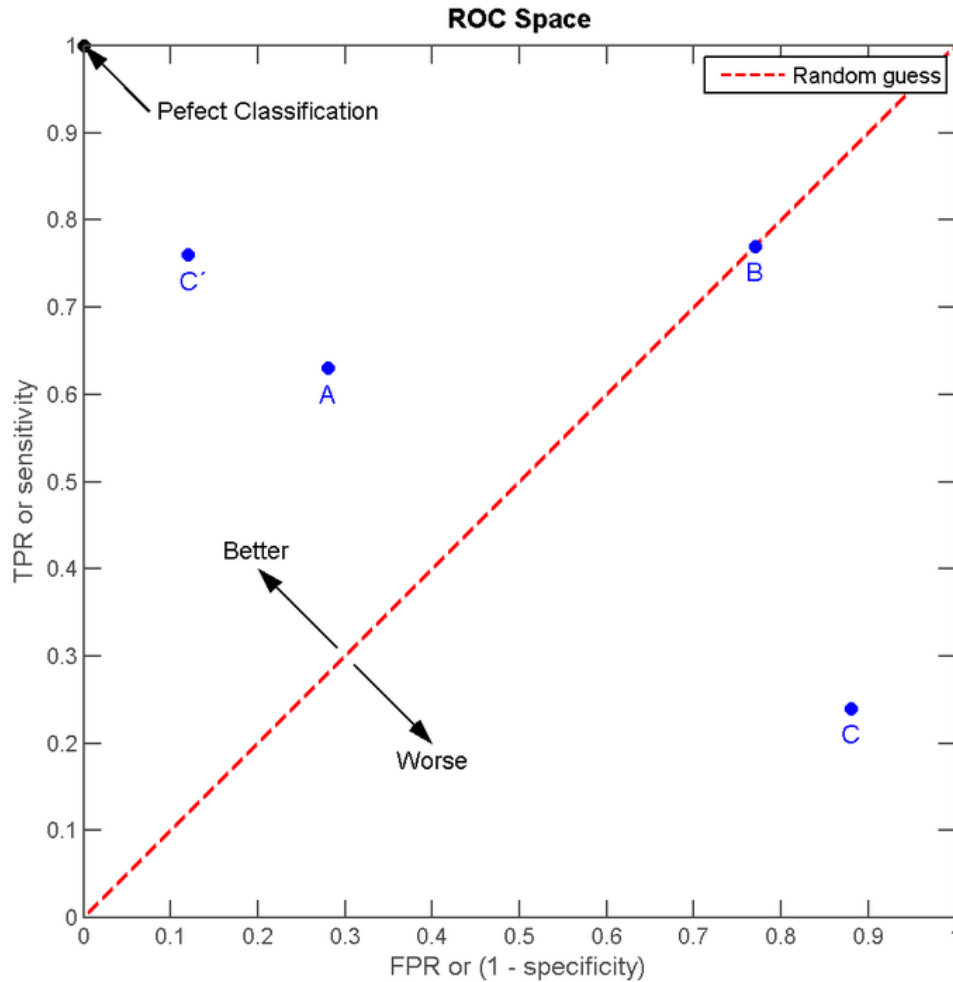


Figure 1.

Calibration is a measure of how close the predictions of a given model are to the real underlying probability. Almost always, the true underlying probability is unknown and can only be estimated retrospectively by verifying the true binary outcome of the data being studied. Calibration thus measures the similarity between two different estimates of a probability. One of the ways to assess calibration is to take the difference between the average observation and the average outcome of a given group as a measure of discalibration. A more refined way to measure calibration requires dividing the sample into smaller groups sorted by predictions, calculating the sum of predictions and sum of outcomes for each group, and determining whether there are any statistically significant differ-

ences between the expected and observed numbers by a simple method.

Variables

The outcome variable is being victims of dating violence based on Q22 (During the past 12 months, how many times did someone you were dating or going out with physically hurt you on purpose?) and Q23 (During the past 12 months, how many times did someone you were dating or going out with force you to do sexual things that you did not want to do?). Students who answered both questions as 'I did not go out with someone' were excluded from this study. Students who answered both questions as '0 times' were identified as non-victims of dating violence, and the remaining were identified as victims of dating violence.

Table 1.

| |
|--|
| <p>Q1. How old are you?</p> <p>A. 12 years old or younger</p> <p>B. 13 years old</p> <p>C. 14 years old</p> <p>D. 15 years old</p> <p>E. 16 years old</p> <p>F. 17 years old</p> <p>G. 18 years old or older</p> |
| <p>Q2. What is your sex?</p> <p>A. Female</p> <p>B. Male</p> |
| <p>Q3. In what grade are you?</p> <p>A. 9th grade</p> <p>B. 10th grade</p> <p>C. 11th grade</p> <p>D. 12th grade</p> <p>E. Ungraded or other grade</p> |
| <p>Q4. Are you Hispanic or Latino?</p> <p>A. Yes</p> <p>B. No</p> |
| <p>Q5. What is your race? (Select one or more responses.)</p> <p>A. American Indian or Alaska Native</p> <p>B. Asian</p> <p>C. Black or African American</p> <p>D. Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander</p> <p>E. White</p> |
| <p>Q6. How tall are you without your shoes on?</p> |
| <p>Q7. How much do you weigh without your shoes on?</p> |
| <p>Q21. Have you ever been physically forced to have sexual intercourse when you did not want to?</p> <p>A. Yes</p> <p>B. No</p> |
| <p>Q31. Have you ever tried cigarette smoking, even one or two puffs?</p> <p>A. Yes</p> <p>B. No</p> |
| <p>Q41. During your life, on how many days have you had at least one drink of alcohol?</p> <p>A. 0 days</p> <p>B. 1 or 2 days</p> |

- C. 3 to 9 days
- D. 10 to 19 days
- E. 20 to 39 days
- F. 40 to 99 days
- G. 100 or more days

Q47. During your life, how many times have you used marijuana?

- A. 0 times
- B. 1 or 2 times
- C. 3 to 9 times
- D. 10 to 19 times
- E. 20 to 39 times
- F. 40 to 99 times
- G. 100 or more times

Q60. Have you ever had sexual intercourse?

- A. Yes
- B. No

Q61. How old were you when you had sexual intercourse for the first time?

- A. I have never had sexual intercourse
- B. 11 years old or younger
- C. 12 years old
- D. 13 years old
- E. 14 years old
- F. 15 years old
- G. 16 years old
- H. 17 years old or older

Q62. During your life, with how many people have you had sexual intercourse?

- A. I have never had sexual intercourse
- B. 1 person
- C. 2 people
- D. 3 people
- E. 4 people
- F. 5 people
- G. 6 or more people

Q64. Did you drink alcohol or use drugs before you had sexual intercourse the last time?

- A. I have never had sexual intercourse
- B. Yes
- C. No

Q68. Which of the following best describes you?

- A. Heterosexual (straight)

- B. Gay or lesbian
- C. Bisexual
- D. Not sure

Q80. During the past 7 days, on how many days were you physically active for a total of at least 60 minutes per day?

(Add up all the time you spent in any kind of physical activity that increased your heart rate and made you breathe hard some of the time.)

- A. 0 days
- B. 1 day
- C. 2 days
- D. 3 days
- E. 4 days
- F. 5 days
- G. 6 days
- H. 7 days

Q82. On an average school day, how many hours do you play video or computer games or use a computer for something

that is not school work? (Count time spent on things such as Xbox, PlayStation, an iPod, an iPad or other tablet, a smartphone, YouTube, Facebook or other social networking tools, and the Internet.)

- A. I do not play video or computer games or use a computer for something that is not school work
- B. Less than 1 hour per day
- C. 1 hour per day
- D. 2 hours per day
- E. 3 hours per day
- F. 4 hours per day
- G. 5 or more hours per day

Q84. During the past 12 months, on how many sports teams did you play? (Count any teams run by your school or community groups.)

- A. 0 teams
- B. 1 team
- C. 2 teams
- D. 3 or more teams

Q85. Have you ever been tested for HIV, the virus that causes AIDS? (Do not count tests done if you donated blood.)

- A. Yes
- B. No
- C. Not sure

Q88. On an average school night, how many hours of sleep do you get?

- A. 4 or less hours

- B. 5 hours
- C. 6 hours
- D. 7 hours
- E. 8 hours
- F. 9 hours
- G. 10 or more hours

Q89. During the past 12 months, how would you describe your grades in school?

- A. Mostly A's
- B. Mostly B's
- C. Mostly C's
- D. Mostly D's
- E. Mostly F's
- F. None of these grades
- G. Not sure

Q99. How well do you speak English?

- A. Very well
- B. Well
- C. Not well
- D. Not at all

During the past 12 months, how many times did someone you were dating or going out with physically hurt you on purpose? (Count such things as being hit, slammed into something, or injured with an object or weapon.)

- A. I did not date or go out with anyone during the past 12 months
- B. 0 times
- C. 1 time
- D. 2 or 3 times
- E. 4 or 5 times
- F. 6 or more times

Q23. During the past 12 months, how many times did someone you were dating or going out with force you to do sexual things that you did not want to do? (Count such things as kissing, touching, or being physically forced to have sexual intercourse.)

- A. I did not date or go out with anyone during the past 12 months
- B. 0 times
- C. 1 time
- D. 2 or 3 times
- E. 4 or 5 times
- F. 6 or more times

2. Results

About 16% of 4721 students experienced dating violence, about 22.7% among the female and 8.3% among the male.

Basically, a corrgram is a graphical representation of the cells of a matrix of correlations. The idea is to display the pattern of correlations in terms of their

signs and magnitudes using visual thinning and correlation-based variable ordering. Moreover, the cells of the matrix can be shaded or colored to show the correlation value. The positive correlations are shown in blue, while the negative correlations are shown in red; the darker the hue, the greater the magnitude of the correlation.

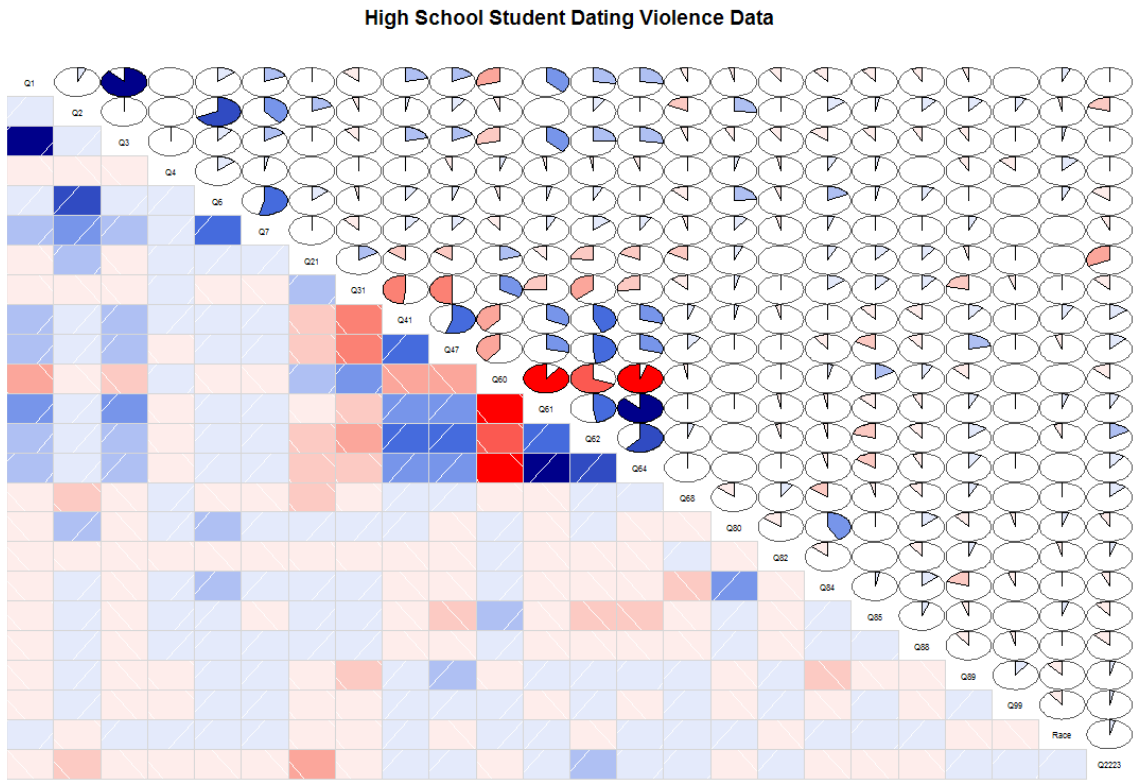


Figure 1.matrix of correlations between variables

According to the logistic regression, the likelihood of being a victim of dating violence decreased when the students aged. Male were less likely to be a victim of dating violence than female. Students who had been forced to have sexual intercourse were more likely to be a victim. Alcohol abusers were more

likely to be a victim of dating violence. Students who have never had sexual intercourse were more likely to be a victim, so were students who had been tested for HIV. Students spoke English less fluent were more likely to be a victim however students who did not speak English at all were less likely to be a victim.

Table 2. – Logistic Regression for Being Victims of Dating violence among High School Students

| | Estimate | Std. Error | z value | Pr (> z) | |
|--------------|----------|------------|---------|-----------|-----|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| (Intercept) | 0.830 | 1.197 | 0.693 | 0.488 | |
| Q1 | −0.173 | 0.082 | −2.099 | 0.036 | * |
| factor (Q2)2 | −1.104 | 0.143 | −7.704 | 0.000 | *** |
| factor (Q3)2 | 0.082 | 0.155 | 0.525 | 0.599 | |

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|----------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| factor (Q3)3 | 0.197 | 0.206 | 0.956 | 0.339 | |
| factor (Q3)4 | 0.152 | 0.269 | 0.567 | 0.570 | |
| factor (Q4)2 | -0.046 | 0.114 | -0.400 | 0.689 | |
| factor (Race)2 | 0.378 | 0.347 | 1.089 | 0.276 | |
| factor (Race)3 | 0.066 | 0.285 | 0.232 | 0.816 | |
| factor (Race)4 | 0.212 | 0.476 | 0.446 | 0.656 | |
| factor (Race)5 | 0.580 | 0.250 | 2.317 | 0.021 | * |
| Q6 | 0.229 | 0.683 | 0.336 | 0.737 | |
| Q7 | 0.000 | 0.003 | -0.144 | 0.885 | |
| factor (Q21)2 | -1.481 | 0.128 | -11.547 | < 2e-16 | *** |
| factor (Q31)2 | -0.051 | 0.112 | -0.461 | 0.645 | |
| factor (Q41)2 | 0.180 | 0.156 | 1.157 | 0.247 | |
| factor (Q41)3 | 0.272 | 0.151 | 1.796 | 0.073 | . |
| factor (Q41)4 | 0.113 | 0.179 | 0.629 | 0.529 | |
| factor (Q41)5 | 0.193 | 0.188 | 1.024 | 0.306 | |
| factor (Q41)6 | 0.479 | 0.203 | 2.355 | 0.019 | * |
| factor (Q41)7 | 0.455 | 0.209 | 2.183 | 0.029 | * |
| factor (Q47)2 | 0.106 | 0.158 | 0.668 | 0.504 | |
| factor (Q47)3 | 0.209 | 0.162 | 1.293 | 0.196 | |
| factor (Q47)4 | 0.439 | 0.194 | 2.255 | 0.024 | * |
| factor (Q47)5 | 0.336 | 0.207 | 1.624 | 0.104 | |
| factor (Q47)6 | 0.033 | 0.224 | 0.146 | 0.884 | |
| factor (Q47)7 | 0.230 | 0.176 | 1.311 | 0.190 | |
| factor (Q60)2 | -0.920 | 0.311 | -2.957 | 0.003 | ** |
| factor (Q61)2 | 0.029 | 0.340 | 0.086 | 0.932 | |
| factor (Q61)3 | 0.481 | 0.356 | 1.352 | 0.176 | |
| factor (Q61)4 | 0.147 | 0.289 | 0.508 | 0.611 | |
| factor (Q61)5 | 0.049 | 0.251 | 0.194 | 0.846 | |
| factor (Q61)6 | 0.069 | 0.236 | 0.293 | 0.770 | |
| factor (Q61)7 | 0.056 | 0.233 | 0.242 | 0.809 | |
| factor (Q62)2 | -0.745 | 0.200 | -3.725 | 0.000 | *** |
| factor (Q62)3 | -0.709 | 0.202 | -3.506 | 0.000 | *** |
| factor (Q62)4 | -0.643 | 0.210 | -3.071 | 0.002 | ** |
| factor (Q62)5 | -0.851 | 0.239 | -3.569 | 0.000 | *** |
| factor (Q62)6 | -0.819 | 0.284 | -2.882 | 0.004 | ** |
| factor (Q64)2 | -0.025 | 0.151 | -0.164 | 0.870 | |

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|---------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| factor (Q68)2 | -0.094 | 0.336 | -0.281 | 0.779 | |
| factor (Q68)3 | 0.101 | 0.155 | 0.653 | 0.514 | |
| factor (Q68)4 | 0.294 | 0.268 | 1.095 | 0.273 | |
| factor (Q80)2 | 0.137 | 0.209 | 0.652 | 0.514 | |
| factor (Q80)3 | 0.071 | 0.185 | 0.385 | 0.700 | |
| factor (Q80)4 | 0.056 | 0.179 | 0.313 | 0.754 | |
| factor (Q80)5 | 0.088 | 0.183 | 0.482 | 0.629 | |
| factor (Q80)6 | 0.047 | 0.174 | 0.271 | 0.786 | |
| factor (Q80)7 | 0.132 | 0.216 | 0.612 | 0.541 | |
| factor (Q80)8 | 0.011 | 0.166 | 0.064 | 0.949 | |
| factor (Q82)2 | 0.058 | 0.168 | 0.345 | 0.730 | |
| factor (Q82)3 | -0.007 | 0.180 | -0.041 | 0.967 | |
| factor (Q82)4 | 0.223 | 0.158 | 1.415 | 0.157 | |
| factor (Q82)5 | 0.074 | 0.163 | 0.455 | 0.649 | |
| factor (Q82)6 | 0.353 | 0.180 | 1.956 | 0.050 | . |
| factor (Q82)7 | 0.289 | 0.141 | 2.050 | 0.040 | * |
| factor (Q84)2 | 0.018 | 0.114 | 0.160 | 0.873 | |
| factor (Q84)3 | -0.170 | 0.141 | -1.205 | 0.228 | |
| factor (Q84)4 | 0.160 | 0.154 | 1.038 | 0.299 | |
| factor (Q85)2 | -0.486 | 0.128 | -3.800 | 0.000 | *** |
| factor (Q85)3 | -0.481 | 0.195 | -2.468 | 0.014 | * |
| factor (Q88)2 | -0.109 | 0.185 | -0.590 | 0.555 | |
| factor (Q88)3 | -0.269 | 0.168 | -1.599 | 0.110 | |
| factor (Q88)4 | -0.337 | 0.167 | -2.014 | 0.044 | * |
| factor (Q88)5 | -0.812 | 0.187 | -4.348 | 0.000 | *** |
| factor (Q88)6 | -0.265 | 0.255 | -1.037 | 0.300 | |
| factor (Q88)7 | -0.234 | 0.369 | -0.634 | 0.526 | |
| factor (Q89)2 | 0.058 | 0.110 | 0.532 | 0.595 | |
| factor (Q89)3 | 0.096 | 0.135 | 0.711 | 0.477 | |
| factor (Q89)4 | 0.209 | 0.227 | 0.918 | 0.358 | |
| factor (Q89)5 | 0.287 | 0.343 | 0.837 | 0.403 | |
| factor (Q89)6 | -0.679 | 0.765 | -0.888 | 0.374 | |
| factor (Q89)7 | 0.059 | 0.296 | 0.199 | 0.842 | |
| factor (Q99)2 | 0.391 | 0.141 | 2.780 | 0.005 | ** |
| factor (Q99)3 | 1.182 | 0.438 | 2.696 | 0.007 | ** |
| factor (Q99)4 | -0.264 | 0.835 | -0.316 | 0.752 | |

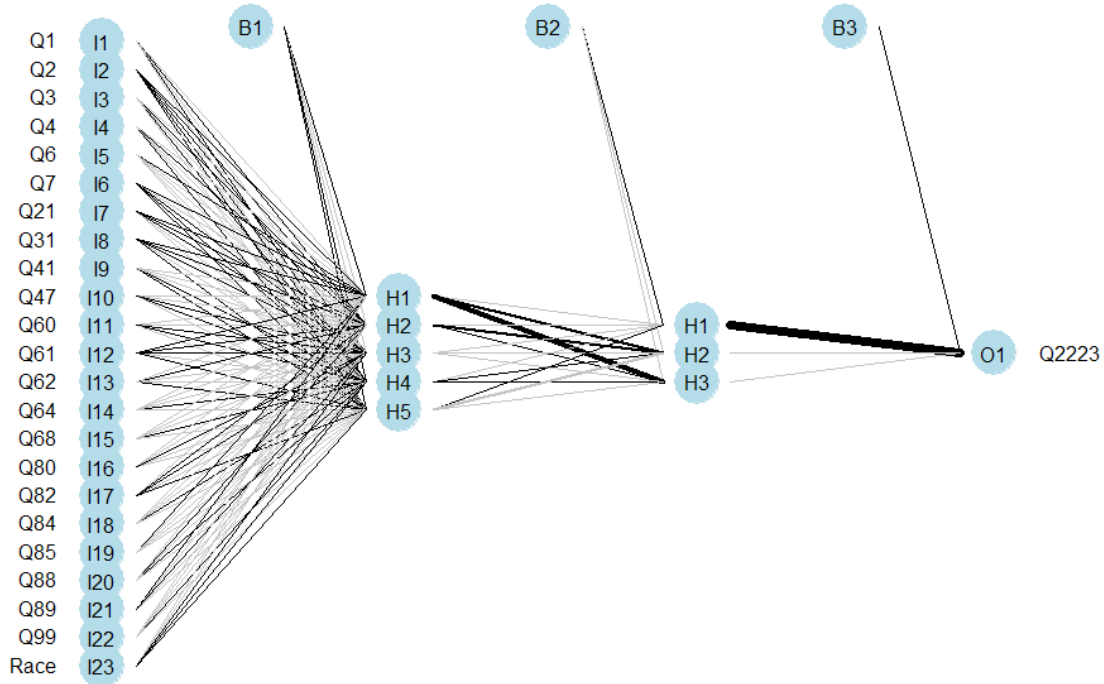


Figure 2. Artificial Neural Network in training sample

In above plot, line thickness represents weight magnitude and line color weight sign (black = positive, grey = negative). The net is essentially a black box so we

cannot say that much about the fitting, the weights and the model. Suffice to say that the training algorithm has converged and therefore the model is ready to be used.

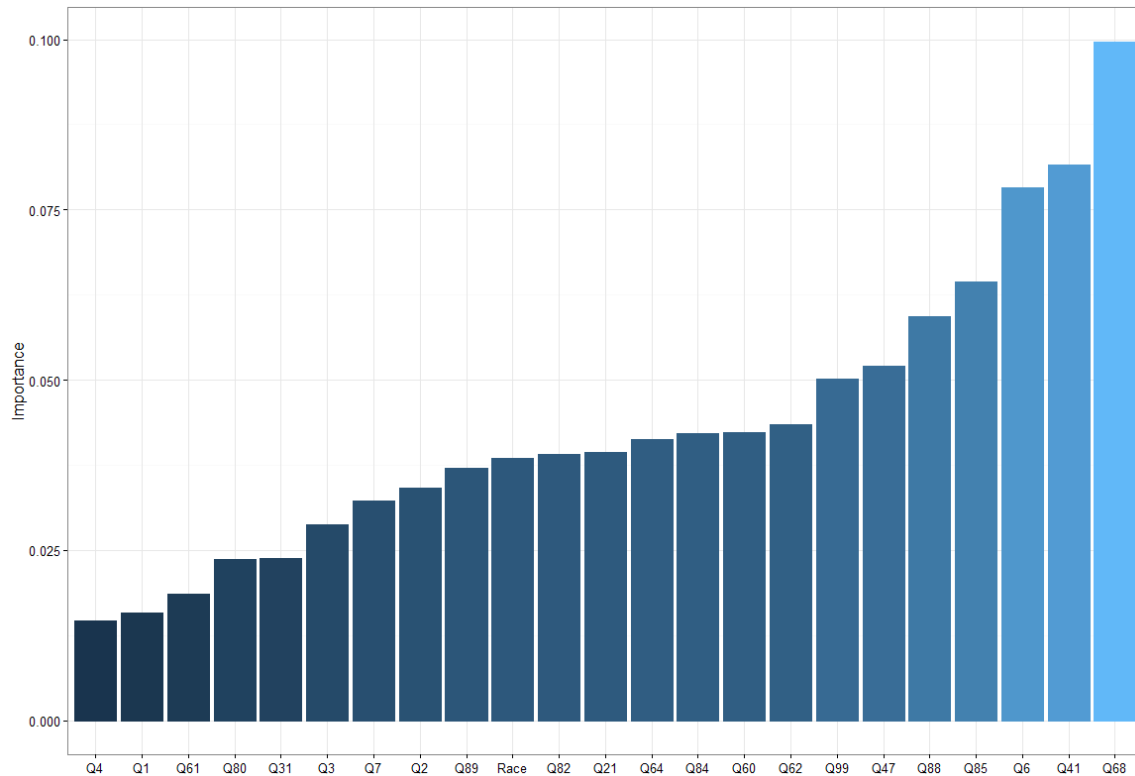


Figure 3. Variable Importance in Artificial Neural Network

According to this neural network, the top 5 most important predictors were Q47 (During your life, how many times have you used marijuana), Q88 (On an average school night, how many hours of sleep do you get?), Q85 (Have you ever been tested for HIV, the virus that causes AIDS), Q6 (How tall are you without your shoes on?), Q41 (During your life, on how many days have you had at least one drink of alcohol), Q68 (sexual orientation).

For training sample, the ROC was 0.77 for the Logistic regression and 0.81 for the artificial neural network. Artificial neural network performed better clearly. However in testing sample, the ROC was 0.75 for the Logistic regression and 0.71 for the artificial neural network. Artificial neural network had worse performance.

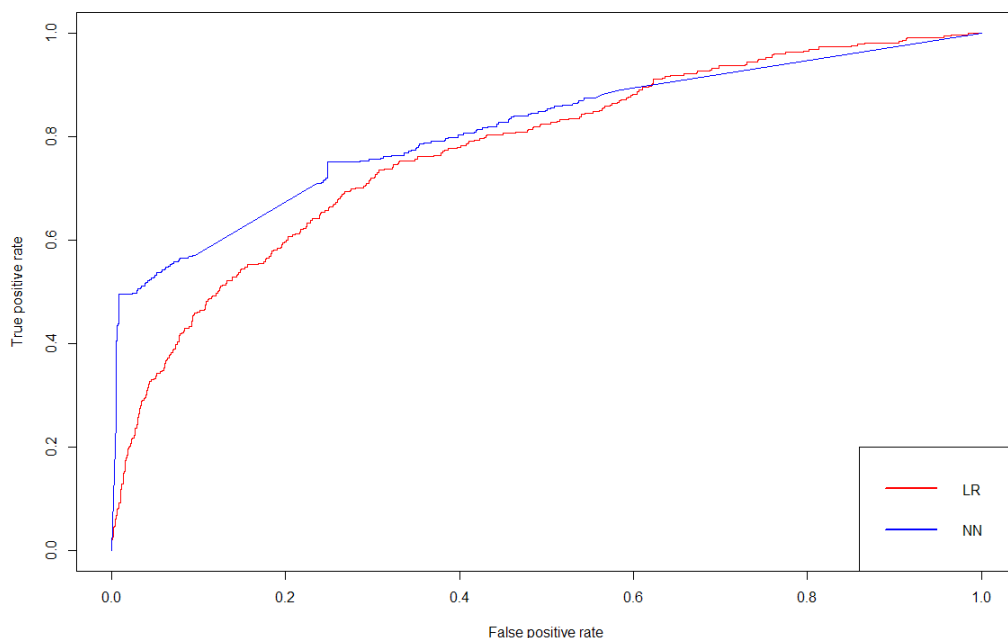


Figure 4. ROC in training sample for Logistic Regression (Red) vs Neural Network (Blue)

By visually inspecting the plot we can see that the predictions made by the neural network are (in general) less concentrated around the line (a perfect alignment with the line would indicate an ideal perfect calibration) than those made by the Logistic model.

3. Discussions

Among female victims of intimate partner violence, 94% of those age 16–19 and 70% of those age 20–24 were victimized by a current or former boyfriend or girlfriend⁶. According to the logistic regression, male were less likely to be a victim of dating violence than female. Further students who had been forced to have sexual intercourse were more likely to be a victim. Alcohol abusers were more likely to

be a victim of dating violence. Students who have never had sexual intercourse were more likely to be a victim, so were students who had been tested for HIV. Students spoke English less fluent were more likely to be a victim however students who did not speak English at all were less likely to be a victim.

According to this neural network, the top 5 most important predictors were Q47 (During your life, how many times have you used marijuana), Q88 (On an average school night, how many hours of sleep do you get?), Q85 (Have you ever been tested for HIV, the virus that causes AIDS), Q6 (How tall are you without your shoes on?), Q41 (During your life, on how many days have you had at least one drink of alcohol), Q68 (sexual orientation).

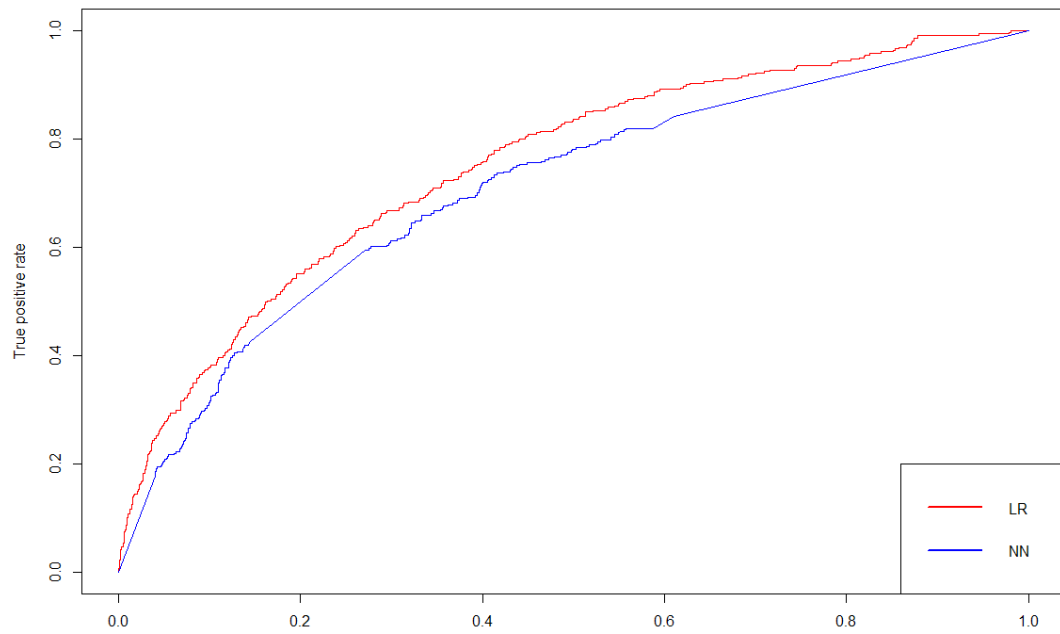


Figure 5. ROC in testing sample for Logistic Regression (Red) vs Neural Network (Blue)

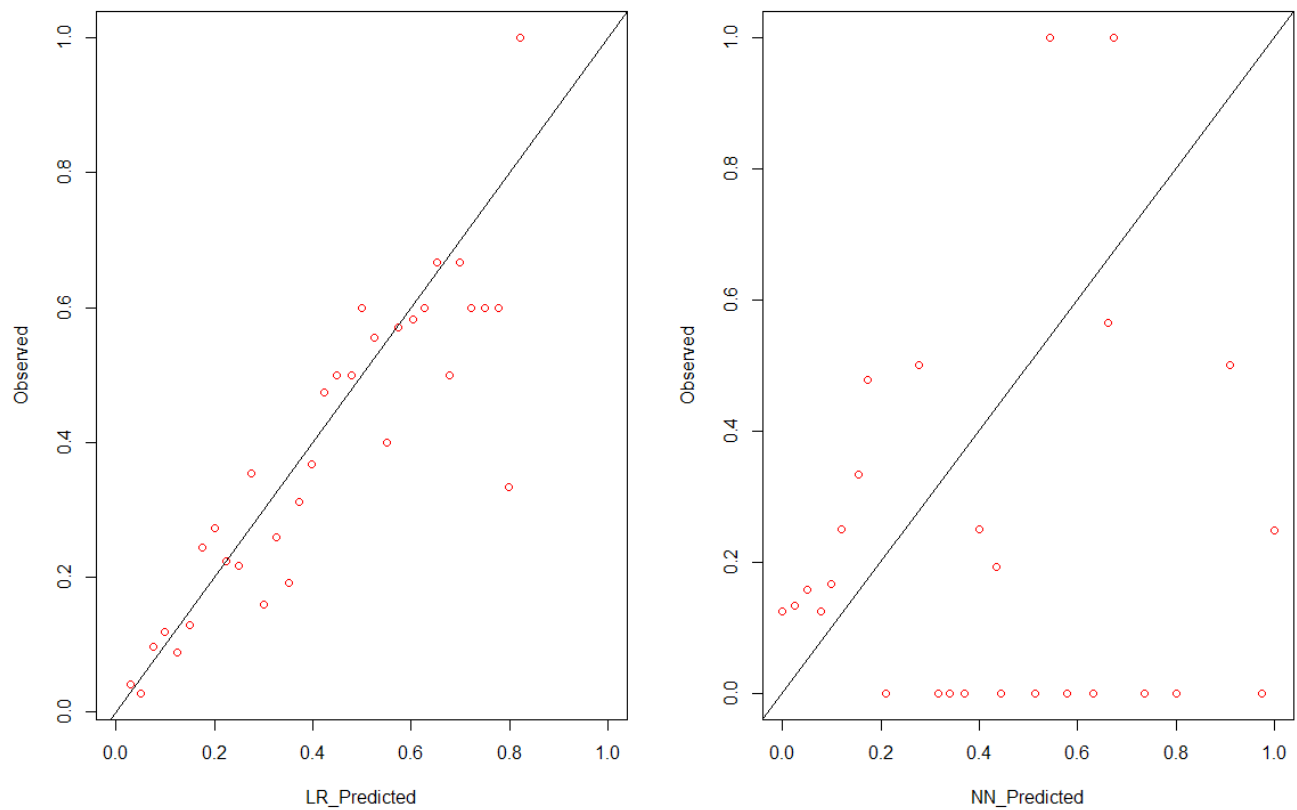


Figure 6. Predicted Probability vs. Observed Probability in testing sample for Logistic Regression (Red) vs Neural Network (Blue), sorted by predicted probability

To have an open communication and discussion on this matter as soon as possible, we further provide a predictive model using artificial neural network as well as logistic regression as a tool for early detection. Only 33% of teens who were in a violent relationship ever told anyone about the abuse. Eighty-one (81) percent of parents believe teen dating violence is not an issue or admit they don't know if it's an issue. Though 82% of parents feel confident that they could recognize the signs if their child was experiencing dating abuse, a majority of parents (58%) could not correctly identify all the warning signs of abuse. To help more victims of dating violence, we should encourage local schools and youth programs to train teachers, school counselors, and athletic coaches on how to recognize children and teens who are victims of intimate partner violence. Provide educators with resources and prepare them to intervene in domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking situations. We believe that our predictive model could be a useful tool in early detection and prevention interventions.

There are limitations of this study. Some known factors which might predict of being a victim of

dating violence were not available in this study, like self-esteem. Further we did not test the external validity neither for logistic regression nor for the ANN. However, we did a comprehensive split-sample validation with both strategies. As to performance of these two models, logistic regression had a similar discriminating capability and a better calibration between predicted probability and observed probability. Future studies could use outside data and test the performance of the outputs from these two models in this study.

A predictive model would be an extremely useful tool to detect dating violence victim among high school students. As long as the variables included in our tool are available, the risk to be a victim of dating violence could be easily predicted. Early detection and intervention could be made available for the students at high risk being victim of dating violence. It is worth noting that our proposed model and the specific development method — either logistic regression or neural networks — must be evaluated and validated in an independent population.

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Section 8. Philology and linguistics

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EXIL DER ÖSTERREICHISCHEN AUTOREN 1933–1945 UND SEIN POSITIVER EINFLUSS AUF DIE GESCHICHTE DER WELTLITERATUR

Abstrakt: Der Artikel befasst sich mit dem Thema der positiven Rolle des Exils auf die österreichische Literatur als Teil der Weltliteratur. Abgesehen von der schrecklichen Emigrationswellen in der Zwischenkriegszeit und die Lebenstragödie vielen österreichischen Autoren, hat Exil die Entstehung und die Anerkennung der weltweit berühmten und beliebten Werke der österreichischen Autoren verursacht.

Schlüsselwörter: der Aufstieg des Faschismus, Emigrationswellen 1933–1945, österreichische Exilautoren, autobiographische, utopische, historische Romane, Suizid im Exil, S. Zweig, F. Werfel, E. Weiß.

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ЭМИГРАЦИЯ АВСТРИЙСКИХ ПИСАТЕЛЕЙ В 1933–1945 ГОДЫ И ЕЕ ПОЗИТИВНОЕ ВЛИЯНИЕ НА ИСТОРИЮ МИРОВОЙ ЛИТЕРАТУРЫ

Аннотация: статья занимается вопросом позитивного влияния эмиграции 1933–1945 годов на австрийскую литературу, в частности, на мировую литературу. Помимо страшных волн эмиграции и сломленных судеб многих писателей-эмигрантов, эмиграция стала причиной появления на свет многих произведений, получивших мировое признание и принесших всеобщую славу и любовь своим создателям.

Ключевые слова: становление фашизма, эмиграционные волны 1933–1945 годов, австрийские писатели-эмигранты, автобиографический, утопический, исторический романы, суицид в эмиграции, С. Цвейг, Ф. Верфель, Э. Вайс.

Австрийская эмигрантская литература — одна из важнейших и значительных глав австрийской литературы XX столетия. Как известно, многие писатели, с именами которых связаны представления об австрийской литературе, в период с 1933 по 1945 год, под натиском гитлеровского антисемитского режима, вынуждены были уехать из Австрии, пробыв долгие годы в эмиграции, где некоторым из них пришлось остаться навсегда.

Уже с первых дней становления фашизма писатели еврейского происхождения превратились в жертв национал-социалистического преследования. Гитлеровцы незамедлительно приступили к активным действиям: уже в феврале 1933 года под лозунгом «для защиты народа и государства» нацистская партия начала преследовать своих противников, был ужесточен паспортный контроль на всех вокзалах и аэропортах. Это означало одно: начало первого массового бегства из страны евреев, коммунистов и антифашистов.

Утром 12-го марта 1938 года войска национал-социалистической Германии захватили территорию Первой Австрийской Республики, не встретив никакого военного сопротивления. В течение короткого времени Австрия была присоединена к политической структуре Третьего Рейха.

В том же году страну обошла вторая волна бегства, но на этот раз уже за пределы Германии, а именно во Францию, Великобританию, Палестину, Швейцарию, Советский союз, США и Китай. На тот период эмигрировать было достаточно тяжело, но невозможным назвать этот процесс было нельзя. За возможность уехать приходилось бороться и чуть ли не отвоевывать необходимые документы, визы и паспорта.

Третья волна бегства прошла уже в ходе начавшейся войны и после печальных событий в Нидерландах, Франции и Дании летом 1940 года.

В период 1933–1945 годов из-за невозможности ни жить, ни работать под гнетом антигуманного, антисемитского фашистского правительства страну покинули такие австрийские писатели,

публицисты и журналисты, как Роберт Музиль, Пауль Целан, Стефан Цвейг, Теодор Крамер, Лео Перутц, Эрих Фрид, Эрнст Вайс, Оскар Кокошка, Элиас Канетти, Франц Верфель, Макс Брод, Герман Брох и многие другие. По определенным причинам, в частности из-за отсутствия достоверной документации, до сих пор невозможно составить полный список всех эмигрировавших австрийских писателей [1].

Таким образом, приход к власти гитлеровского правительства и аншлюс Австрии стали исходным пунктом в трагедии австрийского народа, в частности, литературного мира страны.

Эмиграция как условная литературно-историческая и эстетическая категория всегда будет иметь место в научно-литературном дискурсе. Продукция эмиграции склонна к тенденции эстетической дезинтеграции и наличию малого количества новаторских форм выражения [2]. Последствием того стало прекращение дебатов насчет форм письма и предполагаемого отказа эмиграции от современности. По сути, с одной стороны, языку стала присуща радикальная рефлексия, а с другой, пробуждение интереса к инновативным поэтическим аспектам в рамках экспрессионистских дебатов, что было зарегистрировано в дневнике Клауса Манна от 1938 года [3]. И как бы парадоксально это ни звучало, но исключительно наличие такого исторического события, как Аншлюс привело к созданию огромного количества эмигрантских произведений, да и по сути, самой эмигрантской литературы с присущими ей особенностями смысловых и языковых средств выражения.

Вклад «эмиграции» в мировую литературу безусловно велик. За период существования эмигрантской литературы у нее появились свои творческие ветви, такие, как например, эпический театр Бертольта Брехта, исторические, утопические и автобиографические романы, которые были новыми видами литературных текстов. Помимо этого агитационные антивоенные листовки и радиопередачи как еще ветви эмиграционной

литературы являлись важным фактором в антифашистском движении.

Излюбленным жанром литературы в эмиграции был исторический роман. Этот жанр пришелся по вкусу и зарубежному зрителю, читавшему немецкоязычные романы, как правило, в переводе. К историческим романам относятся «Мария Стюарт», «Мария Антуанетта», «Магеллан» С. Цвейга. Другой ветвью эмиграционной литературы был утопический роман. Этому жанру был свойственен классический культурный пессимизм, что отчетливо наблюдается в романе «Игра в бисер» немецкого писателя Г. Гессе или в романе «Звезда нерожденных» австрийца Ф. Верфеля. И третьим жанром был автобиографический роман. В творчестве каждого из писателей-эмигрантов есть произведения с автобиографическим подтекстом. Одним из самых ярких примеров автобиографического романа был «Вчерашний мир» С. Цвейга. Однако, в целом, австрийские писатели-эмигранты были крайне неактивны в политической жизни в эпоху двух мировых войн, и нет практически, ни одного австрийского военного романа, за исключением национал-социалистической литературы.

Эмиграция 1933–1945-х годов — это, скорее, душевное состояние, медленно убивавшее своих заложников, чем просто политическое явление. Именно на рубеже войны, в период, когда еще не забыты ужасы первой мировой войны, на человечество обрушивается новая, и по всей видимости, более масштабная беда. Холокост, травля народов, концентрационные лагеря и многие другие «признаки» новой системы вводили людей в панику.

Нередко жизнь писателей-эмигрантов несвоевременно обрывалась. Зачастую решение покинуть жизнь писатели принимали сами. Так, в случае с судьбами представителей австрийской эмиграционной литературы 1933–1945-х годов Стефана Цвейга, Франца Верфеля и Эрнста Вайса, можно провести немало параллелей, которые по-

могают понять читателю, что заставило писателей эмигрировать, и являлась ли эмиграция причиной их скорой гибели.

В несвоевременном уходе из жизни вышеуказанных писателей-эмигрантов нельзя винить эмиграцию, это было бы несправедливо, ведь, если бы эмиграция в целом являлась бы абсолютно убийственным процессом, то всех эмигрантов ждала бы такая же участь. Однако истории известны тысячи имен писателей-эмигрантов, чья жизнь была поколеблена новыми событиями, но, в целом, они продолжили жить и творить. Так лауреат нобелевской премии И. А. Бунин, А. И. Куприн, В. В. Набоков, другой лауреат нобелевской премии австриец Э. Канетти, выдающийся представитель немецкой литературы «потерянного поколения» Э. М. Ремарк, американский лауреат нобелевской премии Э. Хемингуэй и многие другие смогли, будучи вне родины, продолжить свой литературный успех.

Суицид С. Цвейга многими его современниками был резко критикован. Никто не мог понять, как человек, у которого было все, деньги, слава, любимая жена, а страны, в которые он эмигрировал, встречали его с почестями, мог так нелепо оборвать свою жизнь. Причиной тому, предположительно мог быть душевный кризис С. Цвейга и нежелание смириться с собственной старостью. Он мог и не эмигрировать, но жизнь его, скорее всего, закончилась бы так же. В эмиграционный период С. Цвейг все чаще обращается к истории и историческим персонам. По всем видимости, это говорила в нем тоска по старому времени. Эмиграция стала, своего рода, поводом, чтобы уйти из жизни, а может быть даже и из тела, в котором С. Цвейг чувствовал себя уже некомфортно.

Для Ф. Верфеля, вечного пацифиста, эмиграция не была неожиданностью. Если С. Цвейг был уверен, что за отсутствие в его творчестве политических мотивов, ему удастся избежать нацистского преследования, то Ф. Верфель эмигрировал,

разумеется, не без совета супруги Альмы Малер, добровольно. Ф. Верфель — это один из трех писателей, в чьей жизни эмиграция сыграла положительную роль. Переведенные произведения писателя на английский язык и экранизация многих романов принесли Ф. Верфелю настоящую мировую славу.

Самая несчастливая участь выпала на долю врача и писателя Э. Вайса. Здесь наблюдается картина того, как беднота погубила человека. Так же как и в случае со С. Цвейгом, эмиграция стала последней каплей в переполнившейся чаше. Но, в отличие от С. Цвейга, Э. Вайс чувствовал полное разочарование, так как постоянно был вынужден просить материальной помощи у друзей, его не печатали, он не был востребован. До эмиграции жизнь Э. Вайса

была немного лучше, но это была незначительная разница. У Э. Вайса просто не было средств выживания. Однако эмиграция, а вернее его эмигрантское произведение «Очевидец» подарит ему долгожданную славу, но, к сожалению, лишь спустя 20 лет после смерти писателя.

Война — это трагедия. Каждая трагедия имеет свои последствия. Последствием двух мировых войн для австрийской культуры стало появление нового течения в литературе — эмигрантской литературы. Эмиграция принесла с собой много семейных драм, жертв, потерь и утрат, но при всем этом, нельзя умилять ее вклад в историю австрийской и мировой литератур, ведь именно эмигрировав, многие писатели Австрии завоевали всемирную славу и признание.

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Section 9. Philosophy

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"THE POLITICS OF RECOGNITION IN A MULTICULTURAL SOCIETY"

Abstract: The purpose of this work is to disclose and assess the various concepts of a thought stated in Charles Taylor's work 'The Politics of Recognition', and reveal the main, in my opinion, public dilemma of many modern states — on the one hand, aspiring for universalization, Unity, common understanding of justice and the Law, and on the other hand, however, there is an existential desire of various individuals, groups of the majority and the minority, nations and folks, and national minorities to survive.

Keywords: multiculturalism, recognition, cultural and religious projects, the Other, liberalism, trumpism.

Our identity is shaped by recognition or the absence of such recognition. The forms of non-recognition can be harmful; they can be a form of oppression and can force a person into a reduced mode of being. In such a way, (Taylor [4, P. 3] and Susan Wolf [6, P. 75] provide an example with women here), the object can internalize a picture of his or her own inferiority. Even when the situation in future is more favourable, this object may be incapable of taking advantage of the new opportunities, because the force of this internalized oppression is so great. Due recognition is not just a courtesy we owe to people. It is a vital human need related to human freedom.

Two changes in the past centuries are very important for understanding the concepts of identity and recognition in the modern world. The first was the collapse of social hierarchies as the basis for honour and inequality, where honour was a matter of preferences. As against this notion of honour, the modern

notion of dignity, inherent to all people, was adopted, in which the inner voice led to understanding the authenticity, as the previous understanding was in touch with some outer source — God, the Idea, etc.

Each of us has an original way of being human. This is an idea of Modern. Prior to the late 18th Century, no one thought that the differences between human beings had this kind of moral significance. According to Herder [1, P. 40–41], an individual should not only be true to himself or herself, but also to a nation. We can recognize here the seminal idea of modern nationalism. This new idea of authenticity, like the idea of dignity, also appeared as an offshoot of the decline of hierarchical society. In earlier societies, identity was largely fixed by one's social position. What decisively undermined this social identification was the idea of authenticity. This social authenticity is not socially determined, but must be generated inwardly.

The idea of authenticity is the idea of monological character, a monologic inward creation. But the Other for the language is, however, necessary. The crucial feature is dialogical human life. This crucial feature of human life is its fundamental dialogical character. We always define our identity in dialogue, sometimes in struggle. The dialogue with the Significant Others may continue even when they have disappeared from our lives. The monological idea seriously underestimates the place of the dialogical in human life. The Significant Other, the person I love, becomes a part of my identity.

The move from the concept of Honour to the concept of Dignity results in politics of universalism, emphasizing the equality among people. For some, it has affected only civil rights and voting rights; while for others, it has extended into the socioeconomic sphere.

According to Immanuel Kant [7, P. 658], we are rational agents, capable of directing our lives through principles — universal human potential. This potential should be respected in every person. But there is a conflict. On the one hand, it requires that we treat people equally. On the other hand, we have to recognize and even particularity foster the politics of equal dignity.

We can move to humane attitude only to the extent that we are recognized, and the struggle, which leads to slavery and masterdom, is tragic. The master is recognized, but recognized only by the slave. The struggle for recognition can find only one satisfactory solution — reciprocal recognition among equals. It is possible in a society with a common purpose. But a common goal of a society also causes problems — as for the concept of equality of esteem (Rousseau), it is necessary to point out to incompatibility, when we speak about identity, about particularity. In Rousseau, three things seem to be inseparable: freedom (non-domination), the absence of differentiated roles, and a very tight common purpose. Everything, according to Rousseau, is directed by the general will. This results in tyranny.

Is there an alternative here? First is liberalism, equality of right. But in this case, we should consider the issue of different cultural contexts. For different cultural contexts, different interpretations of equal rights can be applied. The issue, then, is whether this restrictive view of equal rights is the only possible interpretation. If it is so, then it would seem that the accusation of homogenization is well founded. But, perhaps, it is not. According to Taylor, it is not so.

Dworkin [4, P. 56], for example, makes a distinction between two kinds of commitment. On the one hand, everyone has their own views about the end of life and what to strive for; and on the other hand, the acknowledgement of a commitment to deal fairly and equally with each other, i. e. mutual recognition, regardless of the personal goals, but the goals of the society. Dworkin claims that modern democratic society does not adopt any particular substantive view about the end of life, i. e. view of the good life. The society is rather united around a strong procedural commitment to treat people with equal respect. The decision of the majority is not always the way out as there is the possibility of not treating the minority with equal respect. The way out of this dilemma lies in Kant's answer about autonomy. Human dignity consists of autonomy, and not of a collective goal related to the end of life. 'The power to consider exposing for oneself some view of another.'

The alternative point of view is that a society with strong collective goals can nevertheless be liberal, capable of respecting individual goals and diversity, including those people who do not share the society's common goals. The politics of equal respect interferes with diversity and difference: (1) because it insists on uniform application of the rules that define these rights and (2) it problematizes collective goals, which interferes with diversity and difference. The politics of equal respect cannot accommodate cultural differences — the concept of differences, namely the aspiration of the members

of distinct societies to survive. And this survival is a collective goal, which almost inevitably would call for some variations in the interpretation of law in different cultural contexts. Thus we have unification and collective goal; and strive to survive, and different cultural contexts. And this dilemma stands out through the whole course of modern history.

There are other forms of liberalism, which consider these relationships differently. The alternative forms of liberalism call for the invariant defence of certain rights. There would be no question of cultural differences determining the application of habeas corpus. As their aim, these alternative forms are willing to weigh in completely different historical situations, the importance of certain forms of uniform treatment against the importance of cultural survival, survival of a certain cultural group. In this paradigm, integrity of cultures is very important. The major question is whether cultural survival can be acknowledged as a legitimate goal, i. e. the recognition of the equal value of different cultures.

The main issue of Multiculturalism, I think, is the demand for equal recognition of a new culture brought into the autochthonic canon, and this is a homogenizing factor for both elements (new coming and autochthonic)— this is likely a try to fit into a mould, and this 'fitting' culture also suffers.

But the issue doesn't end here. There is ethnocentricity. First, excellence: as one arrogant saying that 'the Zulus should produce a Tolstoy'. And the second: contribution is yet to be made. There must be something — midway between the inauthentic and the homogenizing demand for recognition of equal worth, on the one hand, and self-immurement within ethnocentric standards, on the other hand.

This is rather a moral issue: the need of power of will, and in this case, this is the moral will for normal and equal studies of cultures. Only then the fusion of horizons is possible, according to Taylor [4], and he is supported by M. Walzer [5, P. 99], who is opposed to the so called high-minded moral absolutism. The core of the first kind of liberalism is in-

dividual rights, and as a result, a rigorously neutral state, i. e. a state without cultural or religious projects or, indeed, any sort of collective goals beyond the personal freedom and the physical security, welfare, and safety of its citizens.

The first sort of liberalism is the official doctrine of immigrant societies like the United States and Canada. For the United States is not, after all, a nation state, but a nation of nationalities — a social union of social unions, according to John Rawls. So far as Liberalism 1 is concerned, there is no privileged majority and there are no exceptional minorities.

The second kind of liberalism is a state that strives to provide for the survival and flourishing of a particular nation, culture, or religion, or of a set of nations, cultures, and religions — so long as the basic rights of citizens, who have different commitments or no such commitments at all, are protected. Thus, the fundamental rights in Liberalism 2 are recognized.

Liberalism 2 is optional. In fact, Liberalism 2 will sometimes opt in favour of Liberalism 1. And here politics adapt to fit the changing circumstances.

But multiculturalism is another form of liberalism, where there is a need to take responsibility for the cultural survival of minority groups. Liberalism 1 does not illustrate this. This is a modified form of Liberalism 2— but for everyone, and not only for the 'title' nation. The result of multiculturalism is, in fact, a move to Liberalism 1, which we can observe now: No one has any protection in a free Anglo-Saxon society, which is a social union of social unions, the country of immigrants, where each social union lives to its risk and fear.

Thus, Trumpism and kickback from multiculturalism, and in general liberalism, No. 2 is natural in the past days. The fight for recognition can spontaneously begin, and this fight is the essence, the catalyst of world history. It means that there is no present in this world of guarantees, and it means that it is necessary to work at one's own risk when people will unite in groups to survive.

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ENGLISH INSTRUCTORS' PERSPECTIVES AS A FACILITATOR ABOUT TEACHING STRATEGIES, STUDENT MOTIVATION AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Abstract: The purpose of the study is to inspire students with peculiar instructional strategies, since motivation is the crucial factor that teachers can target in order to promote academic achievement, including learner centered approach, problem based and flipped classroom learning. More importantly, numerous studies have been posited the great impact of the suggested methods to enrich student motivation. The researches shows that psychological as well as classroom factors help instructors to eliminate students' motivation killer, and using variety of teaching methods according to pupils' needs and desire leads to academic motivation and accelerate education progress.

Keywords: Pupil motivation, teaching strategies, learning success, increasing educational outcomes.

Introduction

In an increasingly interconnected world, the role of motivation is of great importance in learning. Several studies in the education field have produced comprehensive knowledge competence; however, the question of students' motivation has become one of the ongoing problematic issues in today's world of globalization. Glynn, Aultman and Owens (2005) even put forward that learners' motivation is a debatable and controversial area in education. Furthermore, it is an area of introducing innovative approaches due to the societal factors that enhances motivation on pupils permanently. Vedder, Boekaerts, and Seegers (2005) proved that a school climate is not organized because of the students' needs, values, beliefs and interests, and as a corollary, it is prone to a decline in learners' encouragement and efforts in the odyssey education, whilst professors have recognized the backing role of teachers as a part of the school community. Additionally, motivation often decreases when students pass from elementary school to high school. The National Research Council (2004) reported that more than 40%

of high schools' students are disengaged from learning, pay less attention and show little effort on their study, since the main reason is lack of motivation. Moreover, the other compelling data based on the 2006 survey revealed that when asked the reason of dropping out of school, 70% of high school students explained that they were not motivated (Bridgeland, DiIulio & Morison, 2006). Particularly, in learning and teaching process, motivation is the most essential criteria and aim for the success (Gardner, 2006). As motivation has a compelling share in the learning process, it helps to define to what extent the learner presumes a positive and engaging role. Therefore, the classroom practices should develop pupils' encouragement in the short-term and learner achievement in the long-term.

The Purpose of the Study

This study aimed at exploring the ways of increasing students' motivation that make an effect on learners' academic achievement. The major goal of the research is to investigate rational and innovative ways to increase pupils' inclination towards the education process. What key strategies can be used

to improve students' motivation? How can teachers arouse pupils' attention to the learning process?

These are the major questions of the research that need to be clarified. The main purpose of the investigated paper is directed to the students' motivation problem. Thus, directions how to eradicate this gap will be shown.

The findings validate that lack of motivation and enthusiasm causes failures; therefore, teachers use sophisticated technologies, approach individually, build trust, motivate intrinsically and extrinsically, implement problem based learning, learner centered approach and demonstrate their teacher personality as motivational factors for student motivation.

Significance of the study

The researches pointed out that improving student motivation will significantly impact on higher educational outcomes, because motivational teaching strategies and their application in learning setting demonstrate students' passionate and lifelong commitment to the learning process. Essentially, educators should be aware of the importance of motivation to reinforce activities and in this case students will show persistent motivation, interest and effort. Additionally, the study revealed that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation influence students' life. Highly motivated pupils produce high educational outcomes so that instructors should involve learners in education by novel and flexible approaches. Thus, this study will be based on different types of teaching ways such as using student-centered, flipped classroom approach and implementing problem based learning to generate students' motivation towards education.

1. Literature Review

1.1. Learner Centered Approach (LCE)

Schweisfurth (2013) defined that Learner Centered Education is a pedagogical approach which provides students, and requires a high level of activity in the learning arena. The suggested approach is based on pupils' needs, capacities and interests. LCE enhances democracy, social justice, individual freedom, and produce power to avoid authoritative sys-

tem and changes society and develops critical thinking capability. Considering learning and academic engagement as a social process, considerable social theories address the sociocultural aspect of learning and thus contend for the need to comprehend and nourish the social and cultural identity of the student (Benesch, 2001; Canagarajah, 2002; Phan, 2009; Singh, 2009). Instructors in learner-centered schools aim at building structures and processes to stay in a close touch with the needs of each child, for instance by fostering caring relationships between teachers and their pupils and search alternatives to ensure that every student gets individual attention (Astuto & Clark, 1995). Thus, learner-centered instruction demands the principles of freedom, participation and empowerment contrary to bureaucracy and control. Self-determination theory supports pupils' basic psychological needs such as autonomy, competence and relatedness so that teacher as a facilitator play an important share to improve students' encouragement for school activities and assist learners to apply any competence and skill-relatedness.

Prince (2004) explained active learning as demanding pupils to do meaningful learning tasks and figure what they are doing. Such environment is called student-centered approach with the guidance of the instructor where learning occurs. For instance, for a truly engaged student, the joy of learning encourages a perseverance to achieve the desired target even in the face of hardship. Engaged students have the abilities to work cooperatively and know how to transmit knowledge to cope with problems creatively. The most fascinating work enables for creativity, sparked curiosity, gives a chance to collaborate and makes a feeling of success.

Learner-centered instruction is the paradigm shift from "top-down" to "bottom-up" teaching models and apparently demands a novel approach towards education system (Starnes and Carone 2002). Such kind of instruction expects the educator to act as a motivator, guide and facilitator who concentrates on pupil learning rather than content delivery. Intrinsic

and extrinsic motivation can also be shown as a good approach. A number of research studies have investigated that intrinsically motivated learners score higher academic achievement, have lower levels of fear and anxiety and higher comprehension of capability and engagement in learning process than learners who are not intrinsically encouraged (Wigfield & Eccles, 2002; Wigfield & Wager, 2005).

2. Flipped Classroom Strategy

The flipped classroom has become one of the modern technologies in education. It is also considered as an “inverted classroom” and is related to teaching activity on what the student actively does (Lage et al., 2000). The approach brings active student engagement and collaboration with other students directly into the classroom. It has been improving considerably, impacting on teaching activities, developing meaningful assessments and fostering pupils’ active learning. Moreover, it can be a standard of teaching-learning practice to inspire pupils to study with their full potential. In this regard, the flipped classroom approach guides teachers to promote students’ engagement in learning through application and practice. FCM is composed of three fundamental pillars such as online videos, physical classes, and an interactive platform (Mason, Shuman, & Cook, 2013). The key aim of the flipped classroom is to form active learning and involve students concentrating on conceptual knowledge rather than factual recall to increase student leverage technology and ability of exploring and inquiring.

The flipped mindset provides learners’ chances for advanced preparation and time to determine knowledge gaps that need clarification. In the class students make group discussion and at home they watch asynchronous video lessons and make online collaboration. According to the learning model, pupils can monitor theoretical data out of the class where they desire in comparison with conventional method. Hence, flipped classroom learning is enjoyable, flexible and facilitates the learning and meets students’ expectations. Pupils have more time to

master the materials by practicing under the instructors’ guidance. If teachers don’t synchronize their instructional methods with the learning ones of the new millennia, learning process will not be successful.

2.1. Problem-based learning

Problem-driven learning is the other pragmatic approach to motivate students. By using this mode, teachers can awaken students’ curiosity, passion and vehemence. It is a way of forming deep content learning and developing hands-on abilities as opposed to conventional approach such as lectures and discussion. Problem-based learning is a teaching and learning way in which pupils are engaged in challenge problems without preliminary study and knowledge deficient in order to deal the problems by extending their existing understanding to produce a solution. Capon and Kuhn (2004) revealed that PBL did not have an effect on declarative knowledge, however, it significantly affected learners’ ability to integrate, transfer knowledge through multiple disciplines. In contrast, Kirschner et al. (2006) countered the argument that PBL is not an effective method because of ignoring human cognitive architecture as well as cognitive load principles. This claim does not give a detailed insight of the significance of PBL, as the implementation of this method is on contrary enables students to contribute their previous knowledge and on another, prospers analytical reasoning, conflict-solving and critical analysis skills on students.

As opposed to the Kirschner’s notion, Hung (2011) elicited that problem-solving is a multiple step process that students must clarify what the nub of the problem is and what needs to purposefully analyze an issue, study, generate alternatives and then contrive a solution. More interestingly, the instructional goal in problem-based learning is to enrich students’ experiences and motivate pupils to cope with the problems autonomously and rationally by investigating scientifically to demonstrate and develop learners’ cognitive abilities. Furthermore, PBL environment develops learners’ inquiry abilities, reflective thinking, a chance

of emphasizing misconceptions and habits of mind in hypothesizing the role as well as tasks required. Pupils spend time researching, analyzing, and cooperating to deal an ill-structured problem in a PBL curriculum. Moreover, researches have explained that secondary school pupils retained more data with the help of PBL model than a traditional lecture.

3. Study

3.1. Theoretical Framework and Research question

As indicated above, motivation is an immensely indispensable foundation for students' engagement and academic achievement. For this purpose, self-determination theory is one of the most outstanding of all research theories to identify academic engagement and motivation. Therefore, this theory was used as theoretical framework for this research, since it postulates that three main psychological needs such as autonomy, competence and relatedness involve students in being more accountable as well as responsible towards the tasks and simultaneously gives students an opportunity to demonstrate their intellectual abilities as they want. So, academically motivated students will comprehend school and learning as valuable. A review of literature described the principles, particularly used by teachers for encouraging pupils to learn during academic activities. Previous studies also conducted learner centered, flipped classroom approach and problem based learning led to positive education outcomes and were considered as independent variables. Motivation is the only variable depending on teachers' instructional approaches.

Three terms need to be defined for this investigation.

Flipped learning is a pedagogical approach in which short videos are given to students for watching at home, but in classroom walls mainly focusing on exercises, discourses to create an interactive learning medium.

Motivation transversal skills- students obtain different skills such as communication, organization and leadership skills and transfer them in the future.

Outward manifestation- involves students in physical universe and shows importance of the creative process.

3.2. Methodology

A qualitative research methodology was applied for this study, as this type of research uncovered the target participants' behaviors and perceptions according to specific issue. Therefore, it was more suitable for analyzing, perceiving of underlying reasons and opinions how to enhance students' encouragement and participation grounded on scientific theories. Qualitative research defines the problem, improves an approach to it and also helps to comprehend the crux of the issue. As it is the way of "exploring a problem and developing a detailed understanding of a central phenomenon" (Creswell, 2012 p.16), such method best suited for this research.

4. Discussion

The study indicated that learner encouragement could be improved by instructors' motivational strategies in learning setting. The data analyzed and the concepts about motivation were necessary for education system in which teaching and learning were taking place. The teachers addressed student motivation from two perspectives such as psychological and classroom factors. In terms of psychological factors, firstly, building strong trust led to accomplishment, which was pointed out by school instructors. MacGrath (2005) identified that "relationships are at the heart of teaching since it is an activity based on communication. Some of the necessary elements that build and maintain constructive relationship include trust, be on their side, treat everyone with respect all of the time, be in charge and lead them to achievement, work together, and show you can listen and accept what the student says. Empathy can help to build a trusting relationship" (P. 57). Moreover, they discussed the importance of trust, since if erosion of trust happened; it definitely decreased motivation, which in its turn worsened the quality of education. Educators' perceived organizational support such as fairness and teacher support creates a sense

of willingness on pupils stay focused on learning. As indicated earlier, the other factor that included in psychological factor was heterogeneity of students. According to the teachers, it diminished learner motivation. Studies identify psychological factors impacting students' learning outcome on education, which were not reflected in literature review. Coming to the classroom factors, teachers use activities, contents and dynamics. They highlighted songs or music, which were coded as a special striking category among materials based on teachers' initiative and emphasized motivating contents or topics. Based on the results, the other most motivating factor was the teacher herself or himself, because personality potentially encouraged being approachable or sharing the learners' experiences.

More interestingly, teaching materials should be according to learners' need, interests and motivation. In terms of learner centered model, teachers elucidated that the student was focused on the center of the process, and the instructor supported and directed the learning process. A review of literature in this study also supported the necessity of this approach. Furthermore, the other motivational way is technology, as today's students have grown up with a variety of digital landscape in comparison with their educators (Jukes, 2008), they are more likely encouraged by multiple technology. Hence, technology enhanced learning is a beneficial motivator for secondary school students. Technology and instructor motivation have positive effects on learner motivation (Atkinson, 2000), because pupils respond positively to technological learning where teachers should create activities with the help of technological tools. Qualitative method presented in this study dis-

cussed and was of interest to study different aspects of motivation to increase enjoyment of school and educational aspirations.

Conclusion

The study proves that motivation is important to involve learners in education. For this purpose, each teacher has their own methods to generate motivation and meet pupils' needs. The findings show that the best way of inspiring students is to use several motivational techniques, since without developing students' motivation to learn, educational outcomes will be declined and as a corollary, it will worsen productivity and effective functioning of any school. On another, results show that psychological factors have not been reflected in this paper, which can also encourage learners and develop education outcomes. Furthermore, the research involved only one school and a small number of language instructors. Future research can include the impact of psychological factors on students' academic performance and school success and involve additional schools as well as larger numbers of educators to get more information about motivational strategies. By increasing the number of participants, analyses can be more comprehensive based on teachers' answers. What is more, data will be analyzed to know learners' perspectives with regards learning motivation such as intrinsic and extrinsic, students' reflective thinking skills about learner centered approach, problem based and flipped classroom learning. For researchers, it might be essential to get data how educators increase student autonomy, learner motivation and learning progress. It is imperative to know the most appropriate teaching-learning strategies that instructors implement in secondary schools.

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MAXIMIZING LEARNING IN LARGE CLASSES

Abstract: The purpose of the article is to maximize learning in large classes. For some educators teaching in large classes is a problem. But experienced, skillful teachers can manage it properly. They use appropriate methods, beneficial strategies to carry out teaching in overcrowded classes. To make such classes advantageous it is necessary to engage all the learners with interesting and inspirational tasks. So, educators can improve a better comprehension of managing large classes and implement appropriate strategy to overcome difficulties.

Keywords: learning output, problem solving, critical thinking, research- based strategies, effective teaching.

Introduction

The general purpose of the topic is to realize how teachers can maximize learning in large classes. As it is one of the essential themes, effective and proper ways need to be found to manage the class and particularly increase academic motivation and achievement. Some educators consider that teaching in large classes is a great problem or a real world issue. Thus, teachers' experience, perception and the way of using fruitful and appropriate methods in teaching overcrowded classes can yield the maximum learning outcome. In this regard, this study will convey a clear view of the case to offer some beneficial strategies to deal with the challenges and promote effective teaching and learning process. In doing so, stakeholders can be aware of the problem and get sufficient information and tips related to the presented topic.

Learners' motivation can increase if they feel valued in the learning community. Thus, the data in the study was grounded on learners' needs, interests and expectation. Lindeman (1926) even addressed that the curriculum in adult education should be formed around the learners' desire.

1.Literary review

1.1.Effective classroom activities

Effective classroom activities in large classes can include small group activities and Application Response Collaboration (ARC) model. The small group activities are effective ways for increasing classroom engagement and compelling learners to take active roles, although taking the instructors' much time. Hourigan (2013) revealed that ARC model allows teachers to engage a number of learners with interesting and inspirational tasks that arouse attention "without requiring each learner to speak during class in order to be recognized for a willingness to think and share ideas" (P. 355). Allen (2008) emphasized three essential elements of the ARC model to manage the class such as a) creating a warm climate in the classroom that impacts a long term and positive effect on learning; b) increasing learners' enthusiasm and; c) teacher-learner interaction. If teachers value learners' ideas and perspectives, it will increase productivity and effectiveness.

1.2. The factors leading to maximize learning

The new factors-self-disclosure, care leadership and make the class feel smaller, can be effective to manage the large classes. In terms of self-disclosure,

it is related to storytelling such as disclosing teachers' personal stories and sharing peer stories. The second strategy is called care leadership that teachers foster mutual respect, value learners' opinions and associate the course material to learners on a personal level. The last way is to make the class feel smaller. For example, teachers know learners' names, inspire their participation and use general data about learners.

Obviously, ratings received in smaller classes are higher than in larger classes. Unlike small classes, teachers in large classes are especially not able to contact with all learners and pay considerable attention (Harmer, 2000). Therefore, large classes ought to be set up and handled in a careful way and teachers must organize effective and creative activities. Hepner (2007) explained that teacher find it onerous to manage large classes where there are different levels and personalities. Hereby, it can be advantageous for instructors to divert the number of class responsibility to learners and give learners space to teach one another. More interestingly, Messineo, Gaither, Bott, and Ritchey (2007) revealed that experienced learners were more likely to prefer large classes. Furthermore, less student-faculty interaction and more anonymity can be observed in large classes.

2. Study

2.1. Program objectives

Instructional objectives are considered to be used for the study. Airasian (2012) explained that whilst the instructor is experienced, listing his/her objectives reminds him/her to concentrate on what learners are expected "to get out of instruction, not just what teaching activities will be" (P. 77). The authors also explained that writing course goals and objectives impact on effective teaching and assessment that "may range from simple learning of facts to higher-level thinking and performance skill" (Gronlund, 2000; McAshan, 1979; Stiggins, 2001). Similarly, Linn and Miller (2009) addressed that instructional objectives play the role of the guide for developing faculty teaching and assessing students' learning. Furthermore, Lei (2008) explained that the last step in

the instructional process is to identify to what extent learners have attained the learning objectives.

Learners will be able to:

- remember new factors in effective teaching;
- summarize the key points such as creating higher order thinking: effective classroom activities;
- see large classes as an advantage;
- identify what kind of teaching strategies can bring effectiveness to large classes;
- list effective classroom activities of large classes;
- describe the difference of learning between large and small classes;
- explain the different ways of maximizing the learning and focus on the big ideas such as core concepts and benchmarks.

2.2. Plan of the Program

Firstly, teaching large classes effectively needs to have a clear and careful syllabus, reasonable assignments and well-organized lectures. Then, associational brainstorming method will be used to check out the learners' prior knowledge and experience. Additionally, think-pair share will be useful to make them think and talk about the differences between small and large classes and mini-lectures will be also given to learners to engage them in course material and this way will help learners to review and organize their learning. Incorporable active learning strategies will develop learners' interest with regards to study and lead to successful outcomes. Moreover, behavioral science research attracting learners to feel committed to individual, group and mass activities is the major principle. Furthermore, learners can be provided with a variety of materials such as textbooks, posters, handouts and pictures.

3. Discussion:

Explicit teaching has a profound effect on how teaching practices can be made and grounded on direct teaching. Therefore, explicit instruction is useful to set clear goals and structure the lesson according to learners' expectations and away of ambiguous explanations and information. So, learners can improve a better comprehension of managing large classes and implement appropriate strategies to over-

come. As explicit teaching is based on direct teaching, asking questions, collaborating and providing detailed practice were expedient for designing the workshop activities. Therefore, some specific classroom activities such as small group activities-quesdiscussion, brainstorming and engaging activities- one sentence summary, one minute paper and the ARC model will be advantageous for learners to perceive materials clearly. On another, learners can also be engaged in analyzing, synthesizing and solving the problems through indirect learning. Postman and Weingartner (1969) identified that “the inquiry environment, like any other school environment, is a series of human encounters, the nature of which is largely determined by the teacher” (p. 34). In fact, inquiry based learning is advantageous for large classes, which results in maximizing learning. In doing so, learners are actively engaged in the learning process. Additionally, the Whole Part Whole learning model is the other aim of creating systematic design framework, since WPW model is a way of providing the learner with comprehensive understanding about the content at different levels of performance and gives an opportunity for higher order cognitive development (Swanson, 1991). The first whole is a starting point that explains why, what and how to be taught as well as provides the motivation. The parts of the Whole-Part-Whole learning models are the instructional parts. If the learner does not perceive one of these parts, there cannot be the full understanding of the whole. The second whole is

the forming together of the parts that leads to complete understanding of the content and it resulted in preparing the learner for further instruction and comprehension.

Conclusion:

The essential part of the study is the outcomes. Accordingly, through qualitative evaluations such as participant observation, in depth interviews it will be evident how effective the study was. Furthermore, questionnaires, reaction evaluation and re-diagnosis can also be helpful to know the result of the research. Firstly, observation method can be helpful to analyze whether or not the study was effective for learners, since by observing them. The other evaluation method is in-depth interviews carried out face-to-face, which will discover learners’ attitudes, satisfaction and create high level of understanding to determine the outcomes clearly. Tests such as pretests and post-tests can be the next useful mode to check learners’ knowledge acquisition. What is more, reaction evaluation gives an opportunity to know positive and negative feelings of learners. Kirkpatrick (1971) explained that this method gives data about how the learners are responding to a program. For example, learners’ positive and negative feelings or their likes and dislikes. The other essential way is to re-diagnose learning needs. This method helps learners to re-examine their models of desired capabilities and reevaluate the differences between the model and their newly improved levels of capabilities and skills.

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Section 10. Economics and management

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THE IMPACT OF INDUSTRIALIZATION ON THE ENVIRONMENT AND ATTRACTING FOREIGN INVESTMENT TO THIS SPHERE

Abstract: The article reflects the importance of industrialization in the country's economic development. At the same time, the main attention is paid to industrial aspects of the negative impact of industrialization on the environment and to the development of measures to prevent it. In conclusion, this article shows the restructuring of industrial sectors based on environmental requirements and in particular, attracting foreign investment in the development of new modern industries.

Keywords: Industrialization, foreign direct investment, economy, international trade, import, export, industry, ecology, environment.

Industry plays an important role in the development of the national economy. The high level of industry leads to strong economic power, the increase in the living standard of the population, the development of scientific and technical progress. Economic issues of particular importance to the implementation of the industrialization process. Industrialization is one of the main criteria for the development of the economy. The degree of industrialization of the country defines its level of development due to which has been carried out in the Republic of Uzbekistan. First President Islam Karimov said "Uzbekistan is now carrying great energy to build a strong industry, the transformation of the existing facilities [1, 15]." As industrialization is a result of development, this process takes a few years. The economic growth should be the basis for the effective implementation of the industrialization process. Industrialization, in this case industrial development is a process of effectively using the technological achievements of national agricultural development. In the current context of globalization the countries

penetrate into national markets from one country to another as a result of the international trade for industrial goods. The development of the national industry involves protecting the national market.

As result of industrialization sectors in improvement occurs, for instance food, textile, chemical, metallurgy, automobile, construction, electronics industries. While macroeconomic stability is being kept, both range of integration in economic sector and a number of finished goods enhance but reduction emanates in wage differences too. Meanwhile, the industrial development we all should get responsible to avoid environmental pollution industrial waste as well.

Meanwhile, modifying industrial sectors and using potential of resources, regulation economical and ecological relations possess a significant role in the system of international relations. On account of development both production and scientific, technological progress worldwide man's influence on environment is exceeding. In that case it leads to unexpected natural changes. We are supposed to

attitude with environment cautiously, use best out of modern technologies on production and also establish reasonable reproduction. Moreover, various type of organic waste must be used as a raw material. The experience of developed countries in the world, 85% of waste recycling is possible [2].

Many countries have set up separate collection of waste materials. As a result, the vast majority of raw materials such as paper, plastic, aluminum, set to recycling. This process adversely impacts on economic environment, positively. Recycling process of waste materials saves energy and raw materials significantly. According to statistics in Japan, 34% of rubber and cable materials, 43% of glass products, 54% of paper and cardboards are taken from recycling of waste materials. But in China 33% of products made from metals such as aluminum, iron, copper, 34% of wool, silk, leather and haberdashery items are taken from recycling of various waste materials. In our country in the regions which specializing in cotton from cotton processing plants 300–550 thousand tons of lignin material are not recycled as a waste material, they are thrown away every year. This, in turn disparately impacts on ground water, air and soil of the land, as a result deteriorates environmental situation. The basis of cell wall of all plants and other living organisms consist of lignin. Lignin includes 63.8% carbon, 6.04% hydrogen, 29.7% oxygen [3]. Natural and Recycled lignin is dark brown amorphous powder from the appearance. The composition of natural lignin is of great importance when it is used in agriculture. There is 1–2% amount of humus in irrigating soils leads to the rapid mineralization of organic residues. Natural lignin positively effects on the chemical composition and structure of the soil.

Fuel-metallurgical and mining industry occupies a special place in the industrialization. The mining industry has significant impact on the environment. It is crucial to organize of the relationship between the activities of the production process as well as the factors of nature in terms of economical-environmental safety. It is suitable for purpose to

reproduce the negative environmental impacts of the productions of industrial enterprises, namely to evaluate the integration of nature and the production for increasing the efficiency of the production.

Particularly, the first president of Uzbekistan Islam Karimov stated the following in his so-called book (each of us is responsible for the prosperity of the motherland), "we must not forget that, economic progress is objectively correlated with the preservation of natural resources, and provision of healthy environment, if not it might lead to catastrophic consequences thereafter" [4. 29]. energy sector is necessarily related with the ecology. At present, plants and industries in general contaminate the atmosphere with tons of toxic chemicals at an alarming rate. Ironically, we have no idea whether this means we have the sophisticated and environmentally-friendly technologies, or vice versa?

Well, frankly speaking our knowledge on natural processes and level of know-how that we imply in technological procedures simply don't accommodate with the level of using natural resources. If this is the initial problem we face, the following that is our complex relation with the surrounding could easily be the second we encounter today. In this direction, firstly, ongoing of environmental degradation, consequences of unpredictable climate change, frequent drought and depletion of water resources, the lack of sufficient investments in irrigation, land reclamation and restoration of soil fertility are the main problems. Indeed, as a result of using chemicals as well as mineral fertilizers continuously is increasing the ecological violation of lands. And as is known to all that in flowing water there exist a lot of inorganic and organic hazardous substances. This flowing water, particularly, alters into completely unexpected detrimental combination when household water mixes with water which comes out of industry fabrications. Thus while establishing new industry fabrications, implementing new technology domestic, industry manufacturing as well as water which is separate from atmosphere should be mainly taken into consideration. Due to the fact that

flowing water coming to environment impacts negatively upon the balance of the environment.

Also, in the Republic of Uzbekistan the size of land allocated for industrial waste is expanding. And this is instigating a change in the natural landscapes. Only fuel-energy complex is considerably causing environmental pollution in the republic. For instance, while mining a ton of coal 20 m³ of mixture of methane substance, 0.25 tons of strip mining substances, 7 tons of rocks in the holes and 2.8 m³ of ground water are formed. Furthermore, during the process of recycling coal, 0.23 tons of enriching waste and 0.25 tons of cinder are formed [5, 33]. Thus, today, at the contemporary degree of industrial development and in condition of increasing transport types it is hard to determine the territory which meets ecological production requirements. Adverse impact of coal on the environment gives rise to adverse impact of the nature on people. Meanwhile, this effect human generation. As is apparent, we should develop and industrialize economy not by damaging and destroying the nature, but using our mind. So as to attain this, we should repudiate the principles of unlimitedly and simply collecting material values and start sticking to the principle of achieving essential material prosperity. Attracting foreign investments to the branches of industry in this direction enables to eliminate ecological issues in the country and to rationally utilize waste products quickly attracting scientific and technological achievements into production.

By attracting foreign investment many can be carried out such solving structural problems in economy, increase employment social stability, restructuring the industry, assimilating of natural resource, expand the producing processes, creating new vacancy, increasing of wages and purchase power of people, to develop the agriculture and reproduce, increase export potential as well as achieving new technological facilities. The investment resources of managing the developing processes in economic fields. The investment means also is used in production and servicing, moreover it directly provides the

unused saved capital by population to be used in various processes. Attracting the foreign investment and using it effectively can activate to organize a competitive technological base in production mastering new technology quickly and advantages in importing.

Following the above mentioned factors it can be said that foreign investment gives the opportunity to produce ecological fresh product in industry and export them with more easy.

The Republic of Uzbekistan focused on development of industrial sectors and the expansion of environmentally friendly production, reduce energy and resource consumption, production, need to expand the use of active investment policy for introduction of energy-saving technologies, renewable energy sources in the strategy of Republic of Uzbekistan on 5-year-development structure of 2017–2021. As well as introduction of water and resource-saving technologies in the agriculture that is raw material base of industrial sector, the use of high-performance agricultural machinery, mitigate the negative impact of global climate change and the drying of Aral Sea to development of agriculture and the life of the population and implementation of investment projects on them is highlighted in the strategy. This shows that many reforms were implemented on this direction in our country. In this direction one of the way to tackle the environmental issues of a country, it is considered to be useful to accelerate the development of the ecological tourism. Ecological tourism is based on resting effectively with the help of human organic dependance, developing direct encounter as well as in the nature, bringing enjoyment, amusement, giving assistance, power, knowledge, as for organizers, helping them increase their income, for sure, keeping ecological-economical steadiness as well as stability. Engaging foreign direct investment to this site is reasonable. That's why considering all the tasks, to engage foreign investments in our country to local fabrications is the main priority. It is considered to provide ecological clean manufacturing. To do this, analysing social-economic development of the areas, evaluating

their resource capability as well as using maximally all the opportunities, it is vital to do long-term decision-making for increasing the lifestyle of the population, directing to provide the development of future generation by minimizing adverse consequences which impact upon ecological surrounding.

In a nutshell, industrialization is to be carried out by efficiently extracting natural resources and using the nature itself on behalf of the basic needs. not for something extravagant! Meanwhile, industrialization plays its adverse role to pollute environment. More-

over, it erupts and finally might breach the natural life-cycle which was set millions years ago. Paradoxically, we have to enhance the industry and manufacturing sector in order to rehabilitate and improve it at the same time. On top of that, our business environment should find new reliable investment flows namely, foreign capital inflows to the country have to be allocated meaningfully and objectively. To do this, reforming the industry sectors in compliance with the ecological standards and developing brand-new innovational streams are indeed urgently required.

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THE INTERRELATION OF MOTIVES AND STIMULI IN THE PROCESS OF A COMPANY'S MANAGEMENT

Abstract: The paper, according to the research based on the questionnaire-based survey carried out in the JSC textile company “Imeri”, studies the interaction of the following: the motives of material welfare, social interaction, a matter of self-identity, recognition and self-assertion, and of social guarantees and the interaction amongst their relevant reasons. There are guidelines that will be helpful for managers to handle motivations.

Keywords: Motivation; Material welfare; Motives; Incentives; Self-identity; Self-assertion; Recognition.

The end of the 80's of the 20th century is a historic period distinguished by the depth of transformations, of their dimensionality and versatility, experienced in all the areas of social life in Georgia. Taking human factors for granted and a simplified attitude towards human behavior, characterized for the authoritative-administrative system, became obsolete for the modern market system. For in the world of anthropocentrism an effective management is based on the selection of personnel, development and motivation.

The authorities tried opposing economic and social cataclysms with the market reforms and anti-crisis policy measures elaborated with the help of international organizations. As a result of that, Georgia has adopted a socially — oriented mixed economy based on the market principles. Still, the economic performance is insufficiently efficient. After the crisis Kutaisi, the former industrial centre of the Imereti region, suffered greatly. However, in the years of 1996–1997 the oldest textile company, which is currently functioning under the name of the JSC textile company “Imeri”, was fully

re-equipped with the assistance of the Swiss firm “Interplastics”.

In 2016 the company took out a loan amount of 315 000 EUR from the fund “Produce in Georgia” and created further job opportunities on the basis of the area held under its ownership. Today it is a successful company with its modern equipment and facilities. The management of motivation can play a significant role in achieving higher levels of productivity and upgrading the quality of the product manufactured. Since an in-depth study of the characteristics of the management of motivation will enable managers to eliminate obstacles and improve the working process.

A motivated employee is able to fulfill his/her full potential, and set the goals that they can accomplish. Therefore, It is highly important to select the efficient motivation techniques for the personnel management. Certainly, the same is true of the enterprise such as the JSC textile company “Imeri”. Besides, it is a complex and constant process to generate high levels of motivation in employees since, on the

one hand, it is essential to take into consideration the following factors: goals and of employees, organizational strategy, corporate culture, existing resources, cadres policy and so forth. On the other hand, under the pressure of the ongoing constant changes, and because of the new challenges companies are facing, they feel obliged to work towards the development and enhancement of their highest calibres.

Our objective was to study the interaction between motives and stimuli within the process of management in the JSC textile company “Imeri” applying the questionnaire — based survey. The research showed that the motivation of getting material welfare, Determined by salary, profit participation, food reimbursement and others, is characterized by a high level of dissatisfaction. Because of that, it is a sense of obligation/responsibility that the employees have during the performance of work rather than a mere desire or wish (19%) to fulfill the task given. And that is worsened by the fact that the purchasing power of salaries and wages is very low caused by the national currency devaluation. As for the food reimbursement and other social benefits, only 1% of gross revenue is spent on them. For this reason, money is considered as a primary motivation for 68–70% of respondents.

The motive of social interaction, which is expressed in the style of the democracy of leadership, participation in collective decisions, corporate culture, cultural and other events, is satisfactory. This is explained by the fact that the number of the formal and bureaucratic approaches to management has maximally decreased in the company, and 95% of managers are insightful and democratic, and focused on short-term planning and outcomes. Approaches of 30% of employers to their employees are individually oriented and employee’s ideas are taken into consideration to ensure more effective outcomes.

The interaction among life awareness, career management, learning opportunities, access to new technologies and information and incentives for the promotion of creativity is positive and valued with increased pay in the company.

The degree of the interaction of the motive of self-esteem and recognition with the expansion of the sphere of competence, personal welfare, public recognition and other incentives is low and does not exceed 2%. We believe this is caused by the tough social background.

As regards to the interaction of the motives of social guarantees with the stability of employment, flexibility of the work schedule, compensation packages and other incentives, it is less reliable at this stage, which is because of the fact that products are not characterized by high competitiveness and are focused on the target market, which in turn is due to the absence of the base of raw materials in Georgia. The company serves only those foreign firms (German firm “Lebek”, Italian firm “GF Mode”, Turkish firm “BTM Textile”), which are suppliers of raw materials. However, the company is trying to increase the production and base the management on the interaction between motives and incentives, which will give the employees the opportunity to improve their living standards, receive social guarantees and make their work financially as well as spiritually rewarding. Besides, to ensure more effective management it is appropriate at this point to consider the following recommendations: 1. Nowadays the consumer society is distinguished by a diversity of tastes, values and interests and its motivation is affected by various factors. Therefore, it is recommended for executives to permanently explore the changing determinants and maintain determinant-oriented management. 2. Forms of unexpected incentives should be used when recognizing the contribution of employees.

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PROBLEMS AND PRECONDITIONS OF UKRAINE REGIONS INNOVATIVE DEVELOPMENT

Abstract: The article analyzes the problems of innovative development of regions of Ukraine. The preconditions are determined and proposals are made to strengthen the innovation of the regions as a key factor in implementing the policy of integration and decentralization.

Keywords: innovative development, regional innovation policy, intelligent specialization.

In the context of globalization and geopolitical challenges, one of the main factors of the regions decentralization policy is their ability to move on to the path of a new socio-technological system and, thus, to ensure its competitiveness. The results of the application of the new regionalism theories provisions [1–3] in practice show that the success of the state economic policy in the direction of decentralization largely depends on how much new knowledge is formed depending on the nature of the tasks in implementing the programs of socio-economic development of the region and how closely they interact Local elites (especially within the framework of the formation of innovative ecosystems) for the exchange of knowledge, the choice of the correct trajectory of their intellectual efforts.

In this context, the implementation of international cooperation programs of Ukraine requires the development of an adequate state innovation policy that takes into account the experience and successful practices of the European Union countries, which for a rather short period managed to form an integrated innovation system, where a regional approach plays a significant role.

At present, Ukraine's regions face a number of problems in this regard, as their economy does not meet the conditions necessary for the formation of an innovative type of economy: they lack a sufficient

mass of wealthy consumers, lack financial means to support the development of education and science. The economy of the regions, as well as of the whole country, is at a low technological level. Statistical analysis shows that the general tendency of all regions of Ukraine is a decrease in the level of scientific knowledge of the gross regional product in recent years. On average, the share of financing for R&D expenditures in the GRP fell from 1.17% in 2005 to 0.83% in 2014. Even in the leading regions – Kyiv and the Kharkiv region, the level of research has dropped from 2.7% to 0,4% and from 3,2% to 0,7%, respectively. These data indicate a further deterioration in the quality of reproduction of production potential in the country's economy.

According to the results of the survey, it has been found that trends that are already becoming sustainable are particularly alarming: 1) a decrease in the number of executives of research and development in Ukraine, especially researchers (in 2015, the reduction occurred in almost all regions except Volyn region and Kyiv), which negatively affects the number of scientific and scientific works performed in some regions of the country and led to a decrease in the number of submitted and obtained security documents for industrial property objects; 2) the reduction of submitted applications for the receipt of security documents is for inventions, which

adversely affects the improvement of technological processes, which is a constant component of modern production [4]; 3) the low level of use of industrial property objects in the economic activity of enterprises, that is, the low level of capitalization of rights to industrial property objects in intangible assets in the regions of Ukraine (in some regions it is actually zero), which adversely affects the development of processes of commercialization of intellectual Property (IV) and the formation of intangible assets in the country as a whole.

All of the above problems cause the low rating of Ukraine in the world. Thus, according to the results of The International Property Right Index 2016 [5], it occupied 116th place (between Nicaragua and Madagascar). The index of the level of protection of property rights in Ukraine remains extremely low: only 3.93 out of 10 possible (in 2014 it was 4.2 out of 10 possible).

Summarizing the results of the study, we have a general tendency to preserve all signs of an unstable innovation process with signs of a loss of scientific and technological potential that is unacceptable for an economy that seeks to grow on an innovative basis. Among the reasons that hinder the realization of the role of the scientific and technological factor of increasing the competitiveness of the Ukrainian economy, in particular, the following can be called: lack of effective state innovation policy; Insufficient demand for innovations, as the Ukrainian economy in its current state does not form an active interest of the majority of business entities in the results of scientific developments, or the latter are not able to effectively use innovative developments (with the exception of the defense industrial sector of production, which intensified its activities through Known objective reasons); The lack of coherence of the state educational, scientific and technological, industrial and innovation policy, and so on.

Yet, in the regions, successful and dynamic clusters have been created that go to domestic, regional and foreign markets. The dynamic develop-

ment of regional clusters is accompanied by various types of organizational support. In the country, the «boom» of start-ups is getting more and more actualized. However, the main obstacle to development is the lack of modern technological infrastructure. «Soft infrastructure» of innovation activity is created in the regions of Ukraine, especially in connection with the development of creative industries. However, its elements are also fragmented. It is necessary to combine opportunities under the general coordinating principle. An important role in this can play in the Chamber of Commerce and Industry, formed clusters, for example, the «soft infrastructure» of the cluster in the industrial area of the region provides for the accumulation and distribution of financial resources necessary for its development, facilitates the organization of the transfer of modern technologies and commercialization of research.

Today, when the world is divided into the main markets, including high-tech, Ukraine faces alternative strategic challenges for opportunities to use its scientific achievements: first, to mobilize existing technologies of mass consumption and to revive a full-fledged domestic market at the regional level; Concentration of technologies and investments on the basis of regional innovation clusters, formed on the principles of reasonable specialization; Fit into budget constraints (state target programs) and attract private capital (public-private partnership). The greatest potential for the definition of smart specializations is Vinnitsa, Dnipropetrovsk, Zaporizhzhya, Lviv, Nikolayev, Sumy, Kharkiv oblasts, as well as Kyiv. Most of them have formed machine-building clusters as modern affiliate networks. However, at present, the development of innovation networks in Ukraine can be described as fragmentary, and their impact on innovation activity at the moment is insignificant.

In the context of strengthening international cooperation of Ukraine, especially with the EU countries, there is also another group of strategic tasks — to integrate with TNCs in the technological chain of

production processes, especially in terms of attracting regional economic agents. An important strategic issue remains the search and implementation of the mechanism for involving the education sector in innovation as a full member of the national innovation system. This requires not only attention to fundamental research, but also the disclosure of the potential of entrepreneurial activity of scientific institutions, the creation of a knowledge-generating environment and technology.

The results of our ongoing regular research on the state of the innovation sector testify to the lack of a consistent and systematic approach to public financial support for innovation and technological development of the industry. Among the reasons hampering the implementation of the role of innovation and technological factor of increase of competitiveness of the Ukrainian industry include the following: 1) the lack of demand for innovation, as economic policy does not generate active interest the majority of economic entities in the results of scientific research or they find themselves unable to effectively use of innovations; 2) the lack of development institutions, ensuring the functioning of innovative economy in all its components (organization and management development; financing, marketing, commercialization etc.); 3) low solvency of the population that gives rise to its inability to pay higher prices for higher quality products. As a result, the processes of modernization of Ukrainian industry, as well as reproduction of scientific and innovative potentials become complicated.

The retrospective of the implementation of public administration policy in the EU, which reflects the new stage of spatial development and the strengthening of the role of regions in the development of their territories, shows a steady trend towards the implementation of innovative transformations and makes it possible to distinguish, among other things, the following: a significant delineation of functions between the center and the regions that gives regions and municipalities the status of direct

participants and organizers of the technological modernization process on a qualitatively new innovative basis; Development of territorial network models of organization of scientific and production systems; Involvement in the territorial network models of small industrial and innovative business; Use of public-private partnership as one of the basic mechanisms of interaction of the state and business communities in the innovation sphere.

Today, the reform of innovation processes in Ukraine should be based on the positive experience of developed European countries and the implementation of European standards of decentralization, taking into account their own national peculiarities (smart specializations), especially at the regional level, which will avoid many mistakes, reduce material costs and time, and optimize own Algorithm for implementing reforms.

In order for Ukraine to become an international business player, in addition to the development of new technologies and products, it is important to form a specialized infrastructure and environment for new markets (modern innovation and technology hubs). To this end, attention should be paid to the definition of tools for the formation of new markets and tactics of the behavior of domestic companies of the regional level among global competitors and to answer the question: how to change the innovation ecosystem in the regions of Ukraine to gain leadership in the markets of the future.

Improving the mechanisms of implementing regional innovation policy in the direction of sustainable development of regions on the basis of decentralization principles can take place through the implementation of measures for the formation of new high-tech companies in the creative industries, monitoring and evaluation of the degree of creativity of the regional economy to develop a program of actions in this sector, promotion of exports of high-tech products, Stimulation of creative activity, outsourcing of high-tech products and services, implementation innovative inclusive business models.

In order to implement the European integration policy, the state authority, from the point of view of the principles of preserving identity and national identity, should have a scientifically grounded and practically oriented program, not only with slogans

on reforming the national economy, but also with the mechanisms for its transfer to a regime of enhanced innovative development within the framework of the implementation of the provisions European economic model.

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Section 11. Science of law

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LEGAL REGULATION AND IMPLEMENTATION OF LAW: INTERACTION OF PROBLEMS

Abstract: The article is devoted to a comprehensive study of the problems of legal regulation and implementation of legal provisions. The author analyzed the approaches mentioned in various theoretical sources of legal sphere and revealed a number of distinctive features of legal provisions implementation. In the article is considered interaction of legal regulation and implementation of legal provisions as an activity to implement these prescriptions into legal behavior of the subjects in order to achieve socially useful results provided by the legislator and determine the social value of such activity.

Keywords: legal regulation, legal provisions, legal sphere, legislator, social value.

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«ПРАВОВОЕ РЕГУЛИРОВАНИЕ И РЕАЛИЗАЦИЯ ПРАВА: ПРОБЛЕМА ВЗАИМОДЕЙСТВИЯ»

Аннотация: Статья посвящена комплексному исследованию проблем правового регулирования и реализации правовых норм. Автором проведен анализ подходов, фигурирующих в разнообразных теоретических источниках правовой сферы, а также раскрыт ряд отличительных

особенностей реализации правовых норм. В статье анализируется взаимодействие правового регулирования и реализации норм права в качестве деятельности по воплощению этих предписаний в правомерном поведении субъектов в целях достижения социально-полезных результатов, предусмотренных законодателем, и определении социальной ценности такой деятельности.

Ключевые слова: правовое регулирование, реализация правовых норм, правовая сфера, правомерное поведение, законодатель, социальная ценность.

Актуальность проблемы. Одним из актуальных направлений как теоретико-правовой, так и отраслевых юридических наук, является исследование проблем правового регулирования и реализации правовых норм. Тем самым подчеркивается специфическое значение исследуемой категории как процесса, который является «точкой приложения» силы права к реальной действительности и повседневной жизни людей. Однако объективная сложность и многогранность понятия права не способствуют выработке единого подхода к пониманию юридической наукой взаимодействия его правового регулирования и реализации.

Степень разработанности проблемы. Большой вклад в разработку вопросов, связанных с определением реализации норм права, применением норм права, места реализации норм права в механизме правового регулирования и его соотношения с другими правовыми явлениями сделали известные отечественные ученые-теоретики: С. С. Алексеев, Г. Ф. Шершеневич, В. В. Лазарев, Ю. С. Решетов, Р. А. Халфина, В. С. Нерсисянц, Ф. Н. Фаткуллин, Ф. Ф. Фаткуллин, М. Ф. Маликов и др.

Целью данной статьи является исследование общих подходов к правовому регулированию и правореализации в юридической науке, их взаимодействию, выделение и анализ существенных признаков этого явления.

Новизна исследования. В статье путем проведения анализа подходов, которые фигурируют в разнообразных теоретических источниках правовой сферы, раскрыт ряд отличительных особенностей реализации правовых норм в контексте многоаспектного процесса, отражающего

комплексность характера воплощения правовых предписаний в реальную жизнь современного общества. Сделаны выводы относительно того, что взаимодействие правового регулирования и реализации норм права необходимо понимать в качестве осознанной деятельности по воплощению этих предписаний в правомерном поведении субъектов в целях достижения социально-полезных результатов, предусмотренных законодателем, и определении социальной ценности такой деятельности.

Изложение основного материала. В философии реализация понимается как переход от предположения о том, что предмет, существующий вне мышления, предмет в себе, противостоит или может противостоять нам, к собственному познанию реального, то есть к познанию того, что оно существует в себе, без противопоставления акта познания; установление того, что предположение мышления о реальности относится к предмету (установление реальности), может быть проверено опытным путем или с помощью мышления. Реализовать что-либо — значит осознать реальность факта [15, С. 412.]. Реализация (от лат. *Realis* – вещественный, действительный) — осуществление любого плана, замысла, идеи и т. д. [12, С. 280].

Таким образом, реализация представляется сложным процессом, в который включаются субъект реализации, объект реализации (определенный план, предписание, идея), осознаваемая субъектом возможность воплощения объекта в реальность (напрямую зависит от того, что именно субъект видит конечной целью реализации, чего он хочет достичь в итоге), способ такого воплощения (определяется спецификой объекта

реализации, имеющимися у субъекта ресурсами) и его результат. В контексте последнего ключевым становится соотношение между достигнутым результатом реализации и целью, которые были заложены в объект как неотъемлемый его элемент.

Категория «реализация» в теоретико-правовых и отраслевых юридических исследованиях может употребляться в разных значениях. Такая вариативность порождена исключительной сложностью и многоаспектностью природы феномена права. Она может быть сведена к широкому и узкому подходу к пониманию реализации в праве.

В широком смысле термин «реализация» может рассматриваться как практическое осуществление, воплощение, внедрение права в общественную практику. В таком смысле он в основном используется в рамках так называемой естественно-правовой концепции правопонимания, которая берет свое начало в традициях гуманистической философии XVII–XVIII вв. В соответствии с представлениями ее сторонников о сущности и функционировании права, реализацией могут считаться любые пути приобретения правом свойств положительного применения, перевод его с модуса только возможных в данном социуме юридических форм, с уровня естественного регулирования права на уровень реального фактора общественной жизни [5, С. 406].

Видя в реализации все способы и формы внешней объективизации права, его перевод на уровень реальной действительности, сторонники естественно-правовой концепции правопонимания считают ее «исходной формой законодательной деятельности, в которой опосредованы объективные по обстоятельствам и естественные по условиям места и времени требования, вытекающие из самой природы вещей и содержатся в общественных отношениях» [9, С. 263].

В идеале именно ценности естественного права (призваны к жизни самой природой человека как биологического и социального существа, принадлежащие ему от рождения и до смерти,

приоритетные (верховные) по нормам позитивного права, создателем которых является государство) в первую очередь воплощаются в предписаниях законодательных актов в правовом государстве. Последнее возлагает функцию по формированию нового правового массива (функцию правотворчества) на систему органов власти по определению перечня видов нормативных актов, которые могут ими издаваться, и юридической силы актов в зависимости от положения государственного органа в управленческой иерархии. Особое место принадлежит законодательному органу, которому предоставляется исключительная компетенция издавать акты высшей юридической силы — Конституцию и законы, — а также признавать силу на территории государства высшими международными стандартами. В предписаниях этих нормативных актов аккумулируются, конкретизируются и закрепляются (а в нормах подзаконных актов развиваются и углубляются) господствующие на данном этапе общественного развития универсальные представления и требования к праву как мере свободы, равенства и справедливости. То есть считается, что процесс создания этих актов является одновременно постоянным процессом реализации идеалов естественного права, существующего в законотворчестве и вне его. И только на следующем уровне можно говорить уже о реализации собственно правовых норм, в которые трансформировались положения естественного права, признанные государством, зафиксированные законодателем в нормативно-правовом акте, и которые подготовлены к использованию должностными лицами и судами в процессе рассмотрения и решения ими юридических дел, воплощения в поведении граждан, деятельности их организаций и объединений через принадлежащие им права и обязанности.

Положения естественного права, конечно, оказывают существенное влияние на законодателя, которое проявляется в том, что они в своем

единстве играют роль парадигмы для действующего права, задают интенции профессионального правосознания, позволяют законодателю выработать нормы позитивного права, которые не вызывают нравственно-правового отторжения у граждан [3, С. 221–238]. Такое отторжение, как известно, в том числе и из истории, может привести к тому, что норма останется «на бумаге», то есть не найдет своего воплощения в общественной жизни, намерения которой так и не были распознаны и учтены в процессе ее создания.

Впрочем, рассматривать правотворческую деятельность в качестве реализующей право представляется целесообразным в философско-правовой плоскости. С позиций же современной теории права (которые по своему характеру в основном остаются позитивно-правовыми) такой подход в значительной степени нивелирует разницу между разнопорядковым по своей сути и функциональным назначением правовых механизмов, отдельными «формами жизни» права, что приводит к отождествлению реализации с другими категориями, которые используются в теории права для обозначения динамического, активного его измерения, такими как «действие права» или «осуществление права», и, как следствие, лишает ее самостоятельного значения в среде правовых явлений.

Более взвешенной выглядит формула, по которой правотворчество и правовое регулирование, в качестве властной деятельности специальных органов государства, преследует целью не реализацию, а создание права. Это предтеча, предпосылка правореализации. Таким образом, правотворчество только программирует будущие процессы практического осуществления права и его правового регулирования. Властные полномочия должностных лиц здесь вызывают к жизни не акты соблюдения, исполнения, использования или применения права, а источники или формы будущего правового регулирования. Реализация права является процессом воплощения в жизнь уже имеющихся, созданных правовых

норм. Правовое предписание считается реализованным, если оно воплотилось в жизнь, в практическое поведение людей в социально-правовой среде. Результатом такого поведения является правомерный характер возникающих при этом субъективных прав и юридических обязанностей, которые сопровождают процесс достижения целей правового регулирования [1, С. 4–5].

Кроме того, использование категории «реализация норм права» в вышеуказанном контексте адекватно освещает саму природу этого явления как закономерного завершения предыдущих процессов, связанных с формированием и генезисом правовых норм в государственно-организованном обществе.

Ценностные установки естественного права являются неизменными не только на протяжении жизни одного человека, в общих своих чертах они остаются постоянными уже много веков (право на жизнь, здоровье, свободы и т. д.). Однако на определенных этапах социально-экономического развития общества, в связи с возникновением новых типов отношений, возникает потребность в признании или подтверждении этих положений государством, распространении на них силы своего авторитета и соответствующих средств защиты от нарушений. Удовлетворить эту потребность государство способно при помощи норм права. Последние выступают источником, который несет в себе информацию о том, в какой мере государство усваивает и развивает идеи естественных и неотчуждаемых прав, как соотносит их с собственным интересом и каким способом защищает их. Нормы права закрепляют степень свободы, равенства и справедливости, которую государство признает надлежащей при данных условиях исторического развития.

Общеобязательный характер норм права, их формальная определенность и обеспеченность государственным влиянием служат как залогом того, что уложенные в государственную волю, фундаментальные положения естественного

права адекватно отображаются в правовом сознании каждого субъекта, так и ориентиром для воплощения этих положений в правомерном поведении для достижения цели правового регулирования общественных отношений. То есть можно говорить о реализации принципов регулирования естественного права в процессе реализации предписаний нормативных актов и субъективных прав и обязанностей, в которых они конкретизируются. В то же время, в отдельных случаях все же возможно говорить и о непосредственной реализации общих правовых установок, фундаментальных основ естественного права (в частности, при наличии пробелов в законодательстве). По этому поводу Л. С. Явич справедливо отмечал: «В генетическом плане осуществление права не всегда представляло практическую и теоретическую проблему, ее не было, когда защищенные силой фактические отношения на заре цивилизации были правом, ее не бывает или почти не проявляется, когда царит обычное право и судебный прецедент. Осуществление права приобретает исключительное значение при развитой юридической форме, в условиях разветвленного законодательства. Чем активнее правотворческая и регулирующая деятельность органов государственной власти, тем высшую степень актуальности приобретает реализация законов» [16, С. 202]. При таких условиях естественное право почти полностью «растворяется» в положениях нормативно-правовых актов, а, следовательно, и понятия «норма права» и «норма законодательства» наука склонна рассматривать в общем контексте (что остается характерным и для административного права).

Плюрализм подходов к данному вопросу призван к жизни исключительно сложной природой самого исследуемого явления, ведь, будучи по своей сути разновидностью социального поведения, правореализация должна рассматриваться одновременно с разных точек зрения – психологической (как система личных мотивов и стремлений

индивида к воплощению нормативных предписаний в своей повседневной деятельности), социологической (как процесс, обусловленный социально-экономическими и социально-политическими факторами), юридической (как одно из направлений специфического юридического воздействия на общественные отношения).

Обращая внимание на существование более 20 определений понятия реализации права, М. Ф. Маликов объясняет такое их количество тем, что понятие реализации права сочетает в себе не только определенные свойства юридических, но и философских категорий [6, С. 65]. С целью выделения существенных признаков реализации норм права в контексте ее правового регулирования следует привести ряд сформулированных ведущими представителями правовой науки определений этого понятия:

1. «воплощение предписаний правовых норм в конкретных действиях субъектов путем правомерного поведения, которое не выходит за пределы дозволенного законом, другими нормативно-правовыми актами» [4, 86];

2. «такое поведение субъектов права, в котором воплощаются предписания правовых норм (правомерное поведение), практическая деятельность людей по осуществлению прав и выполнению юридических обязанностей» [10, С. 263];

3. «переход норм права в правомерное поведение субъектов в форме использования принадлежащих им прав, исполнение обязанностей и соблюдение запретов с целью удовлетворения интересов и потребностей адресатов права, достижения его (права) целей» [9, С. 46];

4. «многообразный процесс практического осуществления правовых требований в деятельности тех или иных субъектов» [14, С. 210];

5. «процесс воплощения юридических предписаний в правомерных действиях граждан, органов, организаций, учреждений, должностных лиц и других участников общественных отношений» [7, С. 328];

6. «осуществление предписаний норм права в физических действиях или бездейственности субъектов» [11, С. 138];

7. «обусловленное правовыми предписаниями правомерное поведение участников общественных отношений» [5, С. 405];

8. «воплощение правовых норм и принципов в правомерном поведении субъектов права, в их практической деятельности. Его можно рассматривать как процесс и как конечный результат» [13, С. 411].

Приведенные формулировки дают общее представление о существенных признаках исследуемого явления. Таким образом, реализация норм права:

1. Определяется нормативными предписаниями (правовым регулированием), поскольку реализация является деятельностью, в ходе которой в поведении субъектов воплощаются предписания норм права, выраженные и закрепленные законодателем в соответствующей форме, ее специфика в каждом конкретном случае определяется содержанием самого нормативного материала, который включает в себя:

а) данные о круге лиц, согласовывающих свои действия с предписаниями нормы в сфере ее регулирования;

б) объем прав и обязанностей субъектов;

в) пространственно-временные границы, в которых будет протекать процесс реализации данной нормы;

г) характер нормативных требований (разрешение, обязательства, запрет – в соответствии с которыми по самым распространенным критериям классификации выделяют такие формы реализации норм права, как использование, выполнение, соблюдение, а также применение);

д) место нормы в правовой системе (отраслевая принадлежность, материальное или процессуальное происхождение);

е) форма выражения нормы права, ее структура и уровень нормативности (низкий – в так называемых специализированных (нетипичных)

нормах (принципах, дефинициях, декларациях и т. п.), высокий – в основных (типовых) нормах).

Справедлива, высказано в литературе мнение о том, что реализация правовых норм всегда предполагает наличие причинной связи между юридической регламентацией определенных социальных отношений и вступлением ними в упорядоченное состояние. Учитывая это реализацию правовых норм следует отличать от тех проявлений человеческого поведения, которые хотя и согласуются с правовыми предписаниями, но стимулируются разнообразными неюридическими факторами (например, собственными убеждениями лица, религиозными установками, факторами биологического порядка), действуют в одном направлении с нормами права [5, С. 405]. Данный признак характеризует конкретно-юридическое измерение процесса реализации.

2. Является сознательной деятельностью. Представляется целесообразным раскрыть данный признак в свете двух выделенных еще М. А. Гредескулом аспектов:

1) волевой – будучи выражением воли (воли общественной) право со своим основным и единственным орудием (нормой) врывается, вмешивается не в мир физический, а в мир духовный, оно влияет на индивидуальную свободу граждан и только через него может найти себе действительное воплощение. Воля граждан – вот тот объект, к которому обращается право, подчинение воле граждан своим предписаниям – вот та задача, которую оно должно успешно выполнить, чтобы добиться своего воплощения в жизнь [2, С. 41]. Однако волевой акт ни в коем случае не является «слепым» механическим, поскольку ему предшествует второй аспект;

2) интеллектуальный – ознакомление с содержанием нормы, ее требованиями (то есть тем, что охватывается предыдущим признаком реализации нормы права), их усвоением, осмыслением и толкованием. Без такого воспроизведения содержания права в сознании субъекта совершенно невозможно, чтобы право служило одним

из стимулов его поведения, а, следовательно, без этого нельзя говорить и о подчинении праву или отсутствии подчинения [2, С. 42]. На основе сказанного мы можем сделать вывод об опосредовании процесса взаимодействия правового регулирования и правореализации психологической составляющей.

3. Ориентируется на достижение цели правовой нормы – субъект в процессе реализации своими действиями воплощает в жизнь те общественно-полезные цели, которые предусматривал законодатель, когда закладывал в норму фундамент для наступления определенного политического, экономического или социального эффекта. В результате реализация права становится средством достижения и одновременно проверки соответствия юридической практики нормам законодательства [1, С. 6]. Другими словами открывается новое измерение процесса реализации – идеологическое.

4. Выступает критерием социальной ценности нормы права – процесс реализации нормы права выявляет степень принятия, как непосредственными субъектами реализации, так и обществом вообще, этой нормы в качестве действенного инструмента укрепления законности, поддержания общественной дисциплины, достижения социально-полезного эффекта. Как отмечал В. С. Нерсисянц, право выступает в качестве высшей социальной ценности, но лишь тогда, когда его нормы и принципы воплощаются в жизнь, регулируются и реализуются в действиях субъектов социального взаимодействия [8, С. 416]. Общественная ценность механизма правореализации видится в его способности обеспечить влияние, контроль общества над государством, которое регулирует общественные отношения [4, С. 17]. Данный признак в целом отражает аксиологическую сторону процесса реализации норм права.

5. Выражается в правомерном поведении субъекта – реализация нормы права предпола-

гает признание лицом приоритета предписаний этой нормы (а, значит, и воплощенных в этих предписаниях интересов общества и соответствующих им интересов законодателя) над их собственными интересами, целями и стремлениями. С введением нормы в действие (что предполагает включение ее в качестве инструмента упорядочения общественных отношений в национальную правовую систему) считается, что лицо, наделенное правами и обязанностями, принимает установленные законодателем «правила игры» и выстраивает собственное поведение в рамках этих правил, то есть в русле правомерности. На данной характеристике правореализации акцентировал внимание П. М. Рабинович, который видел социальную сущность последней в удовлетворении участниками общественной жизни своих потребностей социально принятыми (допустимыми) способами, средствами, которые смоделированы, «сконструированы» государством [11, С. 138]. Этот признак раскрывает динамические качества взаимодействия процессов правового регулирования и реализации права.

Заключение. Таким образом, в общем виде реализацию нормы права можно определить как осознанную деятельность по воплощению ее предписаний в правомерном поведении субъекта (т. е. в правовом регулировании) с целью достижения социально-полезного результата, предусмотренного законодателем, и выявлению социальной ценности данной нормы. Данная формулировка согласуется с общепринятым положением современной теории права, в соответствии с которым реализовать нормы права, содержащиеся в предписаниях законов и других нормативно-правовых актов, в судебных прецедентах, нормативно-правовых договорах и других источниках (формах) права означает добровольно воплотить их в жизнь – в общественные отношения, поведение граждан. Без реализации (осуществления) право теряет свое социальное содержание и назначение [13, С. 411].

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