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FORMATION OF ECOLOGICAL PERCEPTION DURING THE EDUCATIONAL PROCESS

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At the present stage, the prospect of further development of human society in terms of its relationship with nature has become the subject of study and reflection not only for specialists of natural science, but also for philosophers, sociologists, economists, engineers, technologists and other representatives of humanitarian and technical sciences. This large-scale ecologization of science, education and other spheres of human activity allows considering ecology as a part of a general scientific perception. Today the main task of the educational system is to develop this type of perception in proper time.

In general, perception is a complex, synthetic and integral formation of social and individual consciousness, which is based on knowledge, convictions, beliefs, attitudes, aspirations, hopes, values, standards and ideals.

There are four main components in the structure of the perception:

1. Cognitive component

This component is based on generalized knowledge (everyday, professional, scientific knowledge, etc). It represents a specific scientific and universal picture of the world, systematizing and generalizing the results of individual and social learning, styles of thinking of a certain community, nation or era.

2. Value regulatory component

It includes values, ideals, convictions, beliefs, standards and directive actions. Value is the property of an object or phenomenon to satisfy the requirements and desires of people. The system of human values includes notions of good and evil, happiness and unhappiness, objective and purpose of life.

For example, life is the main value of a person, as well as his security. At the same time, one of the purposes of perception is that a person can be guided by certain social regulators. Consequences of sustained and repetitive human's assessment of his/her relationships with other people are the social norms: moral, religious, legal, environmental, etc., governing the daily lives of both the individual and society. They are more imperative and obligatory than values. Standards are the means which connect significant values of a man with his practical behavior.

3. Emotional-volitional component

To implement the knowledge, values and standards in practice it is necessary to study their emotional-volitional aspect, to transform them into personal opinions, convictions, beliefs, and to develop certain psychological readiness to act.

4. Practical component

Perception is not just a generalization of knowledge, values, beliefs and attitudes, but the real readiness of a man for a certain type of behavior in specific circumstances. Without the practical component the perception would have quite an abstract nature. Even if this perception directs a person to contemplation, it still develops and promotes a certain type of behavior.

On the basis of previous material, we can define the perception as a set of views, ratings and standards that detect attitude to the world and act as guides and regulators of behavior. To move to the concept of ecological perception it is important to consider the very concept of ecology. Literally the term "ecology" means "the doctrine about the house". This term was championed by Ernst Haeckel in the middle of 19th century and originally it was

mostly of biological content. Since then, the notion of ecology increasingly expanded found application outside the natural sciences. At the present stage ecology itself acquires the features of perception. Thus, we achieve the concept of ecological perception that gradually overtakes all spheres of our lives. Substantive core of this perception is the principle of consideration of human and nature in their unity and interdependence. Ecological perception is divided into two approaches to the problem of the relationship between man and nature. According to the first approach, these relationships are based on rules set by the person (anthropocentrism). The second approach, believing a person to be a part of nature and considering the common development of man and the environment, examines the development of human society as part of the evolution of nature (ecocentrism). In other words, human progress is made contingent upon the requirement to obey the laws of nature.

Scientific and technological revolution erased the distinction between these two approaches. Today, human destiny depends on natural forces as well as the fate of nature depends on us. And since the current method of interaction between man and nature is a deadlock, the future of mankind needs to be associated with the normalization of this interaction through the formation of ecological perception.

Formation of environmentally oriented perception and consciousness is recognized by most scientists as the main way out of crisis. Along with this, the nature conservation technologies are still of high importance. However, these technologies have only auxiliary functions connected with environmental ethics. The latter is understood as an ethical system that can regulate relationships between a man and environment. We should teach future professionals to be aware of all the negative influence of their actions in the professional field on the world around us

without justifying their actions whatsoever. It is quite challenging task, but it can be solved by focusing on the formation of ecological perception in the educational process. The laws that govern nature and man are surprisingly simple, unified and understandable to all. They were formulated in the form of the postulates by the American scientist Barry Commoner in the middle of the XX century.

The first law. Everything is connected to everything else.

The law reflects the ecological principle of holism (integrity) and based on the law of large numbers. This means that the living dynamics of complex and branched ecological chains eventually forms a single complicated system. In an abstract version this statement repeats a certain dialectical materialist position on universal connection of things and phenomena; in a more specific level it acts as an extension of the cybernetic nature.

The second law. Everything must go somewhere.

This law speaks of the necessity of a closed cycle of matters and guaranteeing a stable existence of the biosphere. This is an informal paraphrase of the fundamental physical law of conservation of matter;

The third law. Nature knows best.

The law has a double meaning. It appeals to get close to nature and at the same time to be very careful with natural systems.

The fourth law. There is now such thing as a free lunch.

The law says that every new achievement is inevitably accompanied by the loss of something old. This ecological law combines three previous laws. According to Commoner, "the global ecosystem is a connected whole, in which nothing can be gained or lost and which is not subject to over-all improvement, anything extracted from it by human effort must be replaced. Payment of this price cannot be avoided; it can only be delayed. The pre-

sent environmental crisis is a warning that we have delayed nearly too long".

The consequence of these laws is everything happening today in the modern world. In essence, they are based on fundamental physical and chemical principles. Commoner laws lead to the realization that "the environment knows no borders" and "thinking globally act locally". Threats to the ecological and economic crisis are associated not only with the growth of human impact on the environment and depletion of natural resources. These threats are primarily the result of human disturbance to the basic laws of nature. All the processes occurring in human society follow the processes of nature. Hence it appears the need to use the philosophical aspects of environmental ideology of the unity of man and nature, their relationship based on knowledge of the laws of nature during any educational process.

Unfortunately, we do not consider this aspect while teaching. The main disadvantage of the existing education system is the inability to give extensive training to enable graduates to understand and solve problems requiring a multidisciplinary approach. In this regard, the role of formation of ecological perception in the learning process is increasing. The ecological perception reflects a holistic understanding of the world and a synthesis of various human activities, based on knowledge of properties of the biosphere. The rapid development of mankind in the technical and consumer direction has led to exclusion of life, nature and earth sciences by the sciences of industry, commerce and banking. The purpose of knowledge and education is not the life of society, people's health and desired sustainable development of humanity, but the profit and business success. People are proud of their scientific and technological progress, not noticing the irreversible processes associated with the violation of stability (homeostasis) of the biosphere. For this, according to the laws of nature, we have to pay public health and to spend huge sums on health care. Improvements are only possible with a change of consciousness. It is necessary to change direction in shaping the consciousness of the younger generation to peaceful coexistence with the biosphere, recognizing that it is infinitely wiser and stronger.

Here is one of the conclusions of the biosphere theory of a prominent Russian scientist V.I. Vernadsky: "... humanity, social systems, the structure of scientific knowledge and the scope of equipment and technologies are in unity with the environment. Change of any component sooner or later affects the state of the whole system. Ecology provides a specific disclosure of the methodological idea of the unity of man and nature, vision and understanding of the relationship of man and nature on a planetary scale".

Ecological education (from preschool to university) should be seen as the ideology of the educational process as a whole, with main task to form an "ecological perception".

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THE MODERN VISION OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE REPUBLIC OF KAZAKHSTAN

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Active reforms of higher education in Kazakhstan and analysis of this social institution for the period of Kazakhstan's independence indicates certain social trends and evolutionary development connected with the transition to free market economic relations. The quest for competitiveness of graduates and determination of their place in the labor market puts the universities in the special conditions aimed at diversifying of the institutional structures.

At the same time there is a tendency toward a constant quantitative increase in the number of students willing to get higher education, which reflects the rising importance of higher education and the prestige of the university diploma.

This leads to an expansion of educational services and consequently to the formation of the private education sector. However, due to the reduced state funding to the needs and development of higher education there is the destruction of a unified system of centralized procurement of institutions of educational, scientific documentation and the program material.

Such situation in the higher education system in Kazakhstan has necessitated the creation of a new national model, but unfortunately without regard to global principles of development in the higher education system, which led to decrease in the quality of education in general, especially in technical higher education sphere.

At the state level this leads to continual reform in education, especially, in higher education, as well as to the constant improvement of legislation regulating this activity.

The main stages of reforms in higher education in Kazakhstan were:

Stage 1 - establishment of regulatory and legislative framework of higher education (1991-1994);

Stage 2 – modernization of the higher education system; renewal of the content (1995-1998);

Stage 3 - decentralization of management of education financing, expansion of academic freedom of educational institutions (1999-2000);

Stage 4 - strategic development of higher professional education (the current stage that was launched in 2001).

The initial stage of reforms in education was the most complicated. The difficulty of that period was the periodic lag between the legislature and real events in the field of education, which required regulation. The main tasks of the first stage were creating a network of institutions of higher education, renewing specialties of higher education in order to ensure relative independence of Kazakhstan in personnel training, as well as meeting the needs of the labor market by regions.

In determining the legal status of universities the Higher Education Act regulates: both state and private higher education institutions can function in the Republic of Kazakhstan. Universities have the right to operate from the date of issuance of the license. They can independently form their student body and determine the learning activities to meet the needs and capabilities of the individual.

Universities can provide full-time education, in-service education and externship. There is a single national standard of higher education for the proper profile for all forms of training on a particular specialty. In 1994 the State Standard of Higher Education of Kazakhstan, which identified the introduction of a multilevel structure of higher education which

includes academic bachelor and master degrees, was approved.

By the end of the first stage of higher education reforms there were problems of strategic importance: imbalance of the structure of training in the context of specialties; inefficiency of government regulation, spread of unfair competition in the market, which reduced the quality of higher education and caused the devaluation of the local high school diplomas.

Also, there was a trend when both private and public universities in search of support during the formation of the list of specialties were forced to focus not so much on the economic situation, but on stereotypes of mass consciousness. The tendency of over-training in legal and economic fields appeared in the early years and lasted for some time. Law and economics were the main and even the only areas of education for the vast majority of private schools.

Economic and law specialties were opened in many state universities, but they did not have a lot in common with their specialization.

State attempted to regulate the growth and specialization in higher education system was one of the outcomes of this stage. In 1993 the first Regulation on licensing of educational institutions was adopted. However, this provision regulated only the main aspects of the problem. But even in this period, the share of educational services decreased, thus decreasing the accessibility of education.

The second stage of Kazakhstan education reformations was crucial because it was characterized by the start of integration of our country into the world educational market. The most important point was the adoption of the Law of 13 December 2007 "On ratification of the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in Europe" (a convention signed on April 11, 1997 in Lisbon).

The third stage was characterized by decentralization of administration and financing of education (1999-2000). In 1999, there came a time when innovations in higher education became visible for a considerable part of society and began to affect the interests of the broad segment of the population. Prior to this period, Kazakhstan reforms of higher education almost entirely followed reforms of Russian education.

Many factors affected the reforms:

- Commonality of the situation (although Russia had better starting positions because of the presence of a greater scientific, methodical, personnel and logistics);

- Kazakhstan's dependence on Russia in terms of methodological support, and rooted in the habit of several generations of Kazakhstan to focus on Russian university and research centers, and multiple links on a personal level;

- Common use of the Russian language by Kazakhstan citizens and the tendency to use it for the vast majority of world scientific and educational literature. Kazakhstan and Russia had common achievements and common mistakes in the educational reformation process.

The Russian system of higher education at its origin followed a model of the German system. In the German system, there is still no certification ladder "Bachelor - Master." This particular model is borrowed by the post-Soviet reformers of higher education from the American model. For Kazakh universities that innovation seemed alien, as it confused the system of certification of specialists. Mechanically some forms of knowledge control were adopted.

However, really advanced features of Western models, such as competition-based preparatory courses, the differentiated grading points for the disciplines, flexibility and mobility of educational programs, a variety of funding sources and forms of business activities did not attract

the desired interest of the government bodies that form the educational policies in Russia and Kazakhstan.

Over the last years, the paths of education reforms in Russia and Kazakhstan went their separate ways. Due to better economic opportunities Russia provided a certain space for the market of educational services and the development of private educational institutions, but in its education policy it focused primarily on the preservation of public and free higher education.

Kazakhstan has chosen a much more liberal policy in higher education. The key points of a qualitatively new stage of reforms in Kazakhstan are:

- Firstly, the transition to a new system of forming of a student body,

- Secondly, denationalization and privatization of most higher education institutions.

The most important achievement of the third stage of reforms was the adoption of the Law of 7 June 1999 "On education" and introduction of changes and additions to it by the law of Kazakhstan on 22 November 1999.

The system of grants and loans raised the level of accessibility of higher education in a strong dependence on the current socio-economic situation in the country. The legislation of Kazakhstan, particularly, the Law "On education" does not clearly define principles, objectives and functions of the formation of state demand for specialties and the number of state grants.

At the same time, the concept that the volume of state grants should be determined exclusively by the current needs was put forward. If we consider a strong trend of steadily reducing the public sector in the economy, social sphere, science and culture, it becomes apparent that free higher education may be a rare and even exceptional event in the life of Kazakhstan. Thus, the important task of conceptual definition of the state's role in the development and functioning of higher education is preserved in Kazakhstan.

In order to implement the main provisions of the Law on Education, 13 resolutions on Higher Education were adopted. Among them we can note: "On the State Educational Grant," "On Approval of the multilevel structure of higher education," "On approval of the development, confirmation and the duration of the state educational standards," "On Approval of the state certification organizations education", "On Approval of Regulations for licensing of educational activities ", etc.

The decree of the President of the Republic of Kazakhstan of September 30, 2000 approved the State Program "Education", which for the first time fully considered all aspects of the integral continuous system of education. The program defined the main directions of development of the education system for the period up to 2005. Funding of State education programs was to be carried out within the resources of the State budget meant for the education system as well as through loans, technical and grant assistance of international organizations and sponsors.

If we consider the modern period of development of higher education, it is planned to achieve the following main objectives:

- Creation of an effective system of educational management, which will ensure the formation of a competent professional person, a competitive specialist who can independently and creatively solve professional problems and realize personal and social significance of professional activity and be responsible for its results;

- Ensuring the implementation of the principle of "life-long learning";

- Creation of conditions for producing high-quality, competitive, result-oriented education.

To summarize the above, I would like to draw the following conclusions.

The Republic of Kazakhstan is recognized by the international community as a country with a free market economy. During the short period of independence the country has achieved significant growth of the economy, integrating with the global community.

In this regard, it significantly increases the role and importance of education system and human resources as the criteria of social development, economic strength and national security. Changes in the social relations system influence education, requiring mobility, adequate response to the realities of a new historical stage and meet the needs of economic development.

Kazakhstan education system continues to develop in older structures, contents and methodologies, not allowing it to take its rightful place in the world educational space.

To stimulate the development of higher education and improve its quality, it is important to realize:

- Further improvement of the higher education specialties classifier to address the segmentation, narrow-specialization, imbalances and unnecessary duplication of training;

- Development and introduction of advanced systems and technologies for learning, including credit and distance learning;

- Expanding access to higher education by increasing the number of educational grants, creating a new model of student loans;

- Introduction of a mechanism of allocation of State grants for the training of professionals among the best universities in the country;

- Development of social partnership to attract employers to the organization of professional internships, training of students, employment of graduates;

- Increase in educational grants from companies interested in training and obtaining qualified specialists in their business profile;

- Development of regulations, organizational and economic mechanisms for building scientific institutions for the training of specialists with higher education;

- Ensuring transparency of financial and business affairs of schools;

- Strengthening and updating of the facilities of higher education institutions;

- Formation of new principles of management and marketing of universities based on strategic planning, quality management system and improving of the autonomy;

- Creation of conditions for preferential training of highly qualified technical specialties, ensuring the implementation of the Strategy of Industrial and Innovation Development of Kazakhstan for 2003-2015.

THE ROLE OF EDUCATION IN THE FORMATION OF NATIONAL COMPETITIVENESS

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The role of education in the sustained development of countries' competitiveness and for the strengthening of countries' positions in the world economy is becoming very important. The educational sector is one of the main "trouble spots" of the sustained development of the world economy. Under the conditions of globalization all economically developed countries consider the attraction of the most

promising scientists and highly-skilled professionals as the main priority of their policy. "Brain drain" is one of the main factors of slowdown in economic development in the post-Soviet countries. Kazakhstan will not be able to take an adequate place in the world without stabilizing the situation and increasing the education level in the country. Nowadays, economic growth is identified with scientific and technological advance, and, in the first instance, with professionalism of manpower. A man's knowledge, abilities, and health together with scientific knowledge materialized in a new technology are one of the wealth forms of the country.

Nowadays one of the main tendencies of the world economy development is the competitiveness for the high-quality human capital which is one of the main features of the world innovative development and the growing mobility of the highly-skilled professionals to provide the spreading of knowledge. [3] The President of the Republic of Kazakhstan N. Nazarbayev stated in his Message to the People of Kazakhstan, "Almost all successful modern countries integrated to the system of the world economic relations counted on "intelligent economy". Therefore, first and foremost, it is necessary to develop the human capital of the country." [5]

The development of human potential is one of the main objectives of the Republic of Kazakhstan. The competitive advantages of the economy and the possibilities of its modernization are directly determined by the human potential accumulation and usage in the country. It is highly-skilled professionals who determine the possibilities and bounds of necessary changes of social development.

The system of education of Kazakhstan is to become dynamically developing and able to react to the world processes of globalization and informatization. The clear state policy in the sphere of education reforms and professional training (es-

pecially technical education and innovative management) is of great importance. The state policy in the sphere of education carries out the following objectives: reproduction and development of national culture; strengthening of the state's status on the world market; reproduction of human capital in accordance with the economy needs; satisfaction of educational needs in accordance with the culture peculiarities and the stages of personal socialization.

The necessity of the educational system's state support results from its capability to produce not only human but also social capital. Schools form social norms and ethical values reducing transactions and other costs and lowering social tension between different groups of population. The given normative aspect of education requires a direct administrative control.

As foreign precedents show, the innovative activity requires the adequate level of higher education. Therefore, the educational reform must involve all levels and areas of professional training. The state policy in the sphere of education and professional training is to solve the following objectives:

- to determine professional training for innovative activities as one of the priorities of the educational development;

- to found institutions for professional training, certification, and retraining of working and technical specialists with the participation of the state and private sector;

- to enrich material, technical, and methodological resources of all kinds of education;

- to work out and implement educational standards fitting with the world requirements;

- to collaborate with other countries in the sphere of professional training and for the attraction of highly-skilled specialists to Kazakhstan;

- to found (on the basis of interna-

tional precedents) new higher educational institutions and to change the specialties of current institutions (universities) to specialized ones for professional training in the sphere of high tech industries;

- to train the specialists for the development of innovative spheres such as managers and experts of innovative projects; specialists for international marketing, patent law, potential risk assessment and ways of its decreasing, venture financing organization, etc. [2].

The human capital formed by the system of education is considered as an indispensable factor of the economic growth and so it is supported by the state almost in all countries.

On the one hand, the sphere of education is the most important factor of the economic growth and the increase of labor productivity. On the other hand, it is of great importance for the solution of a number of social problems connected with the life quality improvement, namely, with the optimal employment of the population and the more rational spreading of national income. Scientific approach to the formation and accumulation of the human capital can promote the development of the given tendencies in the economy of Kazakhstan. Thereupon, education is to be of high importance in the system of social priorities.

In the Republic of Kazakhstan the progressive development and modernization of education are possible due to the all-round support at the initiation and implementation of the educational reforms. Education is recognized as one of the most important priorities of the long-term Strategy "Kazakhstan-2030". [1] The common aim of the educational reforms in Kazakhstan is the adaptation of the system of education to a new social and economical environment. The President of Kazakhstan set the problem of Kazakhstan's entering the number of the 50 most competitive countries of the world [4]. Therefore, the improvement of the educational system is of great importance for it.

A number of state programs such as "State Program of Education Development in the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2011-2020", "State Program of Science Development in the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2007-2012", "State Program of Technical and Vocational Education Development in the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2008-2012", "Program "The Children of Kazakhstan" for 2007-2011", and "Program of Provision the Children with a Pre-School Education and Training "Balapan" for 2010-2014" are adopted to meet new objectives.

The "Strategic Plan of the Development of the Republic of Kazakhstan up to 2020" pays much attention to the education support. By 2020 a cardinal modernization of all levels of education (from pre-school up to higher education) will have been implemented. Everyone will be provided on a regular basis with the possibilities of getting knowledge and skills at every educational level and advanced professional training.

The state will provide all children regardless of the place of their residence and the income of their families with a pre-school education and training. The secondary level will be transformed to the 12-year model of education stipulating ten-year universal compulsory education and two-year vocational education. At the same time the content of educational programs will be reconsidered for the purpose of necessary competence development. Professional training will be linked to the plans of country's industrialization. Technical, vocational, and higher education will be transformed to the system fitting with the requirements of modern labor market. At the same time, the educational standards will be formed on the basis of professional standards by means of National Qualification System. A new system of E-Learning will be implemented in the

systems of secondary, technical, professional, and higher education. Higher educational institutions will be provided with academic freedom and the introduction of corporate management principles. The improving of educational services will be realized together with the increasing of education financing, with the widening of educational system infrastructure by means of foundation of non-government and non-commercial agencies, creation of the independent national system for accrediting educational institutions according to the world standards and independent ratings, introduction of the elements of corporative management in the educational institutions, and by means of improvement the mechanisms of education quality control. Due to the considerable state support the prestige of being a teacher will grow up [7].

The main objective of modernization in the sphere of education is the revival and development of the best traditions of domestic enlightenment, the strengthening of Kazakhstan's positions among the highly educated countries, and the integration of the country to the world educational society.

According to the UNESCO recommendations for sustained development education expenditures are to make up 6-7% of the gross domestic product (GDP) of the country. The expenditures of Kazakhstan make up only 4% (Table 1).

Table 1 – Education expenditures from the State Budget of the Republic of Kazakhstan in 2007-2010, million USD.

	2007	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**
Total costs	3261,2	4349,1	5064,3	5409,9
% of GDP	3,7	4,0	4,4	4,1
Note – made up by the author on the basis of the data of the Agency of Statistics of the Republic of Kazakhstan at the rate of the National Bank of the Republic of Kazakhstan on December 31, 2010				

In Kazakhstan the expenditures per pupil is lower than average expenditures in the countries of the third group (countries with less than $1000 per capita GDP) such as China, Turkey, and Russia. The evolution of budget expenditures per pupil at different levels of education is presented in Table 2. It is obvious that educational expenditures grow to a very little degree.

Table 2 - Budget expenditures per pupil at different levels of education (USD per pupil)

	Pre-school education and training			**Secondary education**			**Technical and vocational education**		
	2008	2009	2010	2008	2009	2010	2008	2009	2010
Total costs	825,6	732,0	951,8	747,6	886,0	1106,5	376,5	404,3	481,0
Note – made up by the author on the basis of the data of the Agency of Statistics of the Republic of Kazakhstan at the rate of the National Bank of the Republic of Kazakhstan on December 31, 2010									

The difference between the expenditures in Kazakhstan and in the second group countries (countries with $10000-20000 per capita GDP) such as Spain, Korea, Czech Republic, and Israel is much more considerable. The same situation takes place with the countries of the first group (countries with more than $20000

per capita GDP) such as USA, Japan, Luxemburg, and Australia.

The ratio of Kazakhstani teacher's salary to per capita GDP is still much lower than in OECD countries and lower than in Russia. [6] The data of the educational workers' salary are presented in Table 3.

Table 3 – The salary of educationalists, USD

	2006	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**
Pre-school teachers	131,3	170,6	184,9	231,1	288,9
Secondary school teachers	134,3	175,0	189,6	236,9	296,2
College teachers	179,5	233,3	252,8	316,0	395,0
Teaching staff of higher educational institutions	208,1	274,6	297,5	371,9	464,9
Note – made up by the author on the basis of the data of the Agency of Statistics of the Republic of Kazakhstan at the rate of the National Bank of the Republic of Kazakhstan on December 31, 2010					

The main objectives of the State Program of Education Development in the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2011-2020 are the increasing of education competitiveness and the development of human capital by means of people's provision with high-quality education for the sustained development of the economy. The State Program suggests a complex of measures covering the changes in the structure, content, and technologies of education and training, management system, organizational and legal forms of educational subjects, financial and economic mechanisms. The given program suggests the solution of current problems. According to it a new model of teachers' labor remuneration will be worked out. The new model will include the following:

- introduction of differentiated coefficients for the calculation of teachers' salary and additional payment for qualification category;

- introduction of the result-oriented salary mechanism.

As a result of the taken measures by 2015 the average teachers' salary will have been equal to the salary in private sector.

The result-oriented financing will be the component part of the reforms in the sphere of state expenditures management in secondary education.

By 2015 the mechanism of per-capita financing will have been realized in all educational institutions. It will allow of increasing the effectiveness of budget expenditures and will promote the accessibility of high-quality education for different layers of population. Teachers will be suggested the mechanism of per-capita financing of their professional development - a voucher-module system. Teachers will be given the opportunity to choose the place and time of their professional development course by means of transferring the sum of payment to teachers directly.

To promote the accessibility of paid educational services it is being planned to work out the mechanism of State Educational Accumulation System. With the help of the given system all citizens of Kazakhstan will be provided with the possibility to regularly accumulate the means for their child's tuition fee in colleges and higher educational institutions in future. The given system suggests the accrual of state bonus to the savings of citizens.

Moreover, for the development of the effective educational system it is necessary to increase the educational expenditures by means of investors' attracting. The attraction of private investments to the sphere of education and science will be

implemented through the current mechanisms of private and public enterprise. [8]

In future economic benefits will be closely connected with educational investments considerably increasing the quality and efficiency of labor force. [7] Any capital investments in the sphere of education are the investments into profitable human resources corresponding to current and perspective needs of an individual, region, country, and the tendencies of the world development. Close cooperation of scientific thought and the practice of education together with the improvement of educational structure and the principles if its management at different levels with regard to social and productive needs of the society is of great importance for the given correspondence. The role of education also consists in predetermining the future states of the society.

In recent years favorable economic conditions have emerged in Kazakhstan. According to the macroeconomic growth characteristics the republic is considered as one of the leaders not only among the CIS countries but also among the countries with economic systems transformation.

Radical changes of Kazakhstani economy ensured the formation of market relations and the consecutive integration of the country into the world economy. Stabilization and economy development allow of raising the educational expenditures making it possible to constantly refresh the infrastructure and the resource base and to improve the quality of education. A new course of Kazakhstan's economy oriented to the use of natural resources and the development of science intensive productions on the basis of latest scientific research and human capital use has been approved. Hereby, under the current conditions the necessity of education and the investments' increasing is of great importance.

Nowadays it is quite necessary to make use of all human potential to help our country achieve an intellectual breakthrough. It is recommended to invest considerably to healthcare, culture, and education to form the intellectual and creative potential of the Republic of Kazakhstan. Nowadays the researches on modern human potential are of great practical and theoretical value. Therefore, the application of the world precedents accounting cultural and national traditions could promote rapid integration of Kazakhstan into the world society. One of the objectives of Kazakhstan is to lay the scientific-education foundation for the economy and to fill in all gaps in education. Education is to be considered as the main means in the struggle for competitive recovery.

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QUALITY ASSESSMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION SERVICES

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Nowadays higher professional education becomes a social structure performing certain functions in society and education. Knowledge is becoming a factor of development. The experience of world's leading economic systems lays emphasis on the capital investment in education [1]. One of the ways of it is the raising of the educational level of the population and the spreading of higher education. The working out of an adequate policy of higher education development suggests the consideration of a number of common and specific questions concerning the usage of modern limited resources with maximum efficiency. The development of market relations in the country required revising the paradigm of educational process development and made for the necessity to attract economic instruments for efficiency increasing by means of educational services quality improvement.

The analysis of the modern state of the sphere of higher education shows that the problems of higher education financing, the strengthening of competitiveness between higher educational institutions, predictable demographic reduction in the number of consumers of educational services are reflected in the quality of educational services of higher educational institutions. Socio-economic realities put forward new demands to the quality of higher education.

Quality nowadays is becoming the leading strategy of a number of organizations and is considered as the main component of competitive advantage. It especially concerns the system of higher education directly linking education with real economy of the country. Cardinal changes of modern socio-economic development of Kazakhstan require a considerable increasing of creative potential and competitiveness of graduates [2]. The solution of this global task is determined by the realization of a complex of measures for improvement the system of higher professional education. The problem of the effectiveness of educational organization management becomes very important among these measures. Besides, such educational organizations are found being under the conditions of growing competitiveness and have to revise traditional approaches to the management of educational process taking into account modern market demands. As it is known, market dictates its demands in agreement with consumers' demands. Consequently, the improvement of skilled personnel management and training is of great importance for socio-economic development.

Once having faced with the necessity of education quality raising it should be kept in mind that the object of training and education is always a personality: it always stands at the input and output of

educational process. Therefore, the main objective of educational process is the successive satisfaction of all types of consumers according to the principle of increase. Thus, the result of education is set in the form of complex personal changing relating to his/her ability to take a certain social, productive, and economic niche as a producer and a consumer.

The basis of the process of needs analysis is the active quality marketing [3]. Unlike product marketing the study of educational and scientific market is often combined with the understanding of consumer's inability to clear form his/her demands. At the same time there emerges a complex problem of advanced influencing the market, i.e. formation of future demands for further satisfaction. The factors influencing the quality of educational process are the following:

- an instructor is the basis of the process as he/she passes not only the knowledge but also his/her experience, skills, and life position.

- a student who is also the source of knowledge but not all instructors can use it;

- the environment of education and life including an informational one;

- motivation to study (is to be based on the creation of conditions under which the result of training is directly connected with success on a labor market);

- the study and the reaction of educational process to the change of the environment;

- the modularity of education as an instrument of innovative process. There is a point in seeing the department as the carrier of certain knowledge processes and the assistant of students in their decisions on complete individual educational programs provided the accomplishment of minimum requirements of the State Compulsory Standard of Education within certain schools and specialties;

- internationalization, i.e. the competiveness of a course or an educational cycle in domestic and foreign markets relating to graduates' skills recognition. The course is to be oriented to the world level of achievements in the same area;

- students' orientation to the participation in market relations either as consumers or producers;

- the creation of conditions for cyclic renewal of knowledge. Students are to remain the clients of higher educational institutions even after graduating.

Unfortunately, educational standards consider quality planning as the conformity with the established list of courses with the possibility of introducing variable regional and internal components. The standards do not contain the requirements to a specialist, as for a four-year term qualification values could change. Thus, the standards requirements can be considered as not a quality criterion but as a safety criterion (the course will not make the position on a labor market worse). Consequently, the content of education quality must be formulated and assessed by higher educational institutions themselves taking into account their position on the regional, Kazakhstani, and international markets.

It is impossible and not necessary to directly transfer business models to education but all the universities of the world are now facing the same problem as commercial organizations: how universities can work more efficient "producing" graduates of higher quality?

Under the conditions of resources' limitedness, customers' instability, and competitiveness the decision on the strategy of higher educational institutions becomes of vital importance. The state considers the mission of higher educational institutions as the training of high-skilled specialists and the meeting personal needs of intellectual, cultural, and moral development. Besides, higher educational institutions are to develop science by means of

scientific researches and creative activity of research and educational personnel and students.

On the basis of the mission the objectives to ensure development continuity are worked out. The number and quality of higher educational institutions production give the characteristics to their scientific, educational, economic, and managerial activities. The output is the values made by higher educational institutions [4]. When working out the strategy much attention is to be paid at the improvement of both quality and quantity of the output. Besides, higher educational institutions are able to create other external values, such as to form cultural sphere in the region.

When rationalizing the development strategies of such complex organizational systems as modern higher educational institutions it is necessary to predict the consequences of every development variant. Mutual influence of main components of higher educational institutions should also be taken into account. They are the managerial resource of administration, educational potential, research activity, administrative and social components, capital construction, etc. The quantity of such factors amounts to tens and sometimes hundreds of them. For instance, annual reports of some foreign higher educational institutions include more than 200 features in the sphere of scientific research. The objective of predicting is not solved by traditional methods that complicates the evaluation of long-term consequences of taken managerial measures and lowers the effectiveness of institutions management. At the same time, in modern economic situation the price of mistakes in higher educational institutions management increases manifold. Thus, the working out of the methods of systemic description of complex organizational systems functioning and their implementation is very topical.

When predicting complex educational systems the method of qualitative modeling is very effective. The advantages of the method include little needs of information concerning the mechanisms of interaction of separate variables in a model-based organizational system, possibilities of considering the given system as a whole, the simplicity of description of dynamic processes of its main indices changing, the use of different types of variables (of numerical and non-numerical structure), the quickness of results, the simplicity of their interpretation, a flexible structure of the model, and the simplicity of its supplement and reconstruction.

Due to its advantages, the given method finds more application in nature management projects, complex ecological systems analysis, in studying the mechanisms of technological and natural risks regulations [5], in predicting the results of technical re-equipment of industrial structures, etc. The method of qualitative modeling makes it possible to predict the perspective states of higher educational institutions for different alternative variants of their development and is effective for the practice of managerial decisions taking [6].

Nowadays some experience of such models working out has already been accumulated.

In agreement with the current notions of higher educational institutions as managerial objects we can single out the following criteria for educational services quality assessment: literature provision (Л), material provision (О), labor stimulation (С), teaching quality (П), students' knowledge level (З), and teaching staff's participation in research activity (Н). These criteria are traditionally used for the State Certification of institutions.

Hereafter, the factors Л, О, С, П, З, Н are marked as X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, X_5, X_6, respectively.

Hence, the model of educational services quality can be presented as the following:

$$K = f(X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, X_5, X_6) , \qquad (1)$$

Analytically the given model is formed on the basis of statistical data processing by means of regressive analysis methods. The given model is then presented in the formula (2) [7].

$$K = a_0 + a_1X_1 + a_2X_2 + a_3 X_3 + a_4 X_4 + a_5 X_5 + a_6 X_6 , \qquad (2)$$

where a_i is a coefficient of linear regression, $i=0,1,2,3,4,5,6$.

But the given modeling is complicated with the complicacy of getting necessary statistics as the influence of the indices on educational process quality is generally of qualitative or subjective character.

Thus, to model the higher education quality assessment (K*) the following heuristic equation can be used [7]:

$$K^* = (b_1X_1^* + b_2X_2^* + b_3 X_3^* + b_4 X_4^* + b_5 X_5^* + b_6 X_6^*) \qquad (3)$$

Where * stands for the quantitative expression of the index

To assess b_j the following formula is used (4)

$$b_j = \frac{1/H_j}{\sum_{i=1}^{6} 1/H_i} , \qquad (4)$$

where H_j is the normative expression of j-qualitative factor

b_j shows the part of X_j from K^*, i.e. b_j can be considered as a coefficient of factor priority in the development and raising educational quality, determining the degree of j-factor influence K*.

At the same time the following conditions are to be taken into account for X_j factor:

$$b_j X_j \geq \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{6} 1/H_i} \qquad (5)$$

Having calculated b_j in the formula (4) the following type of relation is determined (according to the state normative levels of indices presented in the State Certification procedures):

$$K^* = 0,00027X_1^* + 0,74971X_2^* + 0,00012X_3^* +$$
$$+0,09371 X_4^* + 0,06248 X_5^* + 0,09371 X_6^*, \qquad (6)$$

The given relation, taking into account the condition (5), makes it possible to assess the quality of educational services of different institutions. Moreover, on the basis of the relation it is possible to determine the educational services quality within certain speciality.

All qualitative factors of the model being presented in a quantitative way by means of $b_j X_j$ calculation make it possible to define the weakest index of the institution which requires increasing. Its application does not seem difficult as all indices are contained in annual internal reports of

all institutions and their departments.

The given model was applied to assess the quality of educational services provided by two state universities and a private one of East Kazakhstan. The results are presented in Tables 1-3.

Table 1 – The evolution of educational services quality indices (University 1)

Years	X_1^*	X_2^*	X_3^*	X_4^*	X_5^*	X_6^*	K^*
2008	0,039	0,042	0,024	0,029	0,041	0,070	0,245
2009	0,039	0,055	0,030	0,022	0,039	0,075	0,260
2010	0,040	0,048	0,035	0,034	0,041	0,084	0,282
2010/08,%	102,56	114,29	145,83	117,24	100,00	120,00	115,10
Note – calculated by the author.							

The analysis of estimated data of Table 1 indicates the increasing of the educational services quality index of University 1 over the last three years by 15,1%. The reasons of positive quality evolution are the improvement of teaching staff's work stimulation and the increasing of research activities of the personnel. But the literature provision indices (X_1) and the students' skills quality indices (X_5) need further increasing as their evolution made up only 2,56% and 0%, respectively.

Table 2 – The evolution of educational services quality indices (University 2)

Years	X_1^*	X_2^*	X_3^*	X_4^*	X_5^*	X_6^*	K^*
2008	0,038	0,052	0,039	0,032	0,036	0,082	0,279
2009	0,033	0,060	0,039	0,029	0,038	0,095	0,294
2010	0,044	0,060	0,047	0,035	0,037	0,100	0,323
2010/08,%	115,79	115,38	120,51	109,38	102,78	121,95	115,77
Note – calculated by the author							

The analysis of quantitative indices of Table 2 indicates the increasing of the total quality of educational services by 15,77 %. It is also explained by the improvement of teaching staff's work stimulation and the increasing of research activities of the personnel. The least growth is observed for the factor of students' skills quality indices (X_5) – 2,78%.

Table 3 – The evolution of educational services quality indices (University 3)

Years	X_1^*	X_2^*	X_3^*	X_4^*	X_5^*	X_6^*	K^*
2008	0,038	0,067	0,020	0,031	0,037	0,075	0,268
2009	0,038	0,082	0,027	0,028	0,039	0,084	0,299
2010	0,039	0,090	0,033	0,036	0,040	0,097	0,334
2010/08,%	102,63	134,33	165,00	116,13	108,11	129,33	124,63
Note – calculated by the author.							

Similarly to the above calculations, the analysis indicates the increasing of the index of material provision, the rise in staff's salary, and the increasing of research activities. As a result, the quality of educational services of University 3 over 2008-2010 increased by 24,63%. The weakest points are the literature provision factor (X_1) and the student's skills quality factor (X_5). The evolution is 2,63% and 8,11%, respectively.

Table 4 – The evolution of educational services quality indices (Universities 1, 2, 3)

Universities	2008	2009	2010	2010/2008,%
1	0,245	0,260	0,282	115,10
2	0,279	0,294	0,323	115,77
3	0,268	0,299	0,334	124,63
Note – calculated by the author.				

The analysis of total indices of Table 4 indicates the following: the least level of educational services quality is observed in case of University 1 (the lag is observed for the whole period); the most level of evolution is indicated in a private University 3 (due to the university's management orientation to international cooperation and, consequently, the possibilities to attract highly-skilled instructors including foreign ones, the research activity financing, and the renewal of material and technical basis).

Therefore, the given relation can help to determine the quality of educational services annually and to compare the index evolution relating to one institution or all institutions. The analysis of quantitative indices makes it possible to determine the weakest points of the educational process of tested institutions.

By substituting real values the quality of educational services can easily be assessed. Normative values for b_j are found in the reports of State Certification of the institutions.

The given relation may contain a great number of qualitative factors. Moreover, when assessing the annual quality level we can also assess the level of self-development of an institution by means of comparing К* of the current year and К* of the previous year. Let us suppose a higher educational institution meets the requirements but if we compare the levels of quality indices with the previous ones we will see the self-development index has remained the same, i. e. the quality of training is the same but, if taking into account the time, it is lower. We cannot say that all enumerated indices are to

be increasing constantly. But if we consider the specific proportions of indices we will be able to find the problems requiring financing and to determine if it has been fulfilled.

Therefore, it is necessary to take into consideration the regime of institutions development in the sphere of quality or positive evolution of all objective indices. The assessment results may be included in the State Certification results. Moreover, further state forms of education development stimulation are to be sent to the organizations with the highest indices of the development regime, i.e. the encouragement mechanism is to be used (additional grants and subsidies, etc.).

The assessment of educational services quality according to the given model gives the following advantages:

- Higher educational institutions are able to assess and follow the quality evolution over a certain period of time;

- Higher educational institutions are able to determine the problems of educational process and to take measures for their correction.

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PSYCHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF PEDAGOGICAL COMMUNICATION OF FUTURE TEACHERS AND PSYCHOLOGISTS

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The questions of pedagogical communication organization, content and teacher training are revealed in the studies of O. Abdullina, N. Kuzmina, N. Kukharev, A. Mudrik, H. Liymetsa, D. Ruvinskiy, V. Slastenin, M. Subkhankulov, L. Kharaeva, Kh. Sheryazdanova, A. Yermentaeva, L. Shcherbakov, etc. The structure and the basis of teacher pedagogical communication are determined in their works.

Considering the basis of professional pedagogical communication of the future teachers and psychologists, we rely on a number of propositions developed in psychopedagogical science. The idea of professional pedagogical communication of the future teachers and psychologists is fundamental to our understanding as the complex formation, which has moral, educational, and psychological components at its basis. This logic of professional pedagogical communication discloses the matter of a teacher-students interaction, the content-transfer of human values by the teacher and the result, which should be achieved in the process of this interaction – establishing well-defined relationship between the teacher and students. Communication always has a personal nature, i.e. it acts as an individual form of social relations, their personal and psychological concretization. That is why the problem of identification of certain features of pedagogical communication of future teachers and psychologists, as well as the use of data obtained at its improvement process, expects the study of psychopedagogical literature on specific issues. Namely, what personality traits of the teacher are the most important in the process of pedagogical communication: what really represents the importance in the teacher for students with whom he interacts; how the socioethnic personality traits of the teacher are reflected in the communication process, and their relative independence and the dialectical connection in the communication of the future teachers and psychologists.

This formulation of the problem supposes an orientation to the knowledge, skills and personal qualities of the future teachers and psychologists, which are important in the communication, their development in the professional training system. At the same time the communication problems are not the abstract out of time

and space teacher should consider, but of a person, who lives in a certain ethnic environment at a particular stage of development of society, as a bearer of certain ethnic properties.

The specific psychology characteristics of different nations are preserved. These characteristics include the following components: 1) national consciousness; 2) ethnocentrism; 3) national feelings, mood, temperament; 4) volitional elements of the nation; 5) national directions; 6) national character; 7) national taste; 8) national stereotypes, prejudices, biases; 9) psychological side of the national symbols of values. One should bear their relativeness in mind, because there is no nation which would have absolutely unique features. There can be different degrees of intensity, which appears in the practice of communion, filling it with specific content.

Both teaching and interpersonal relationships of the future teachers and psychologists are modeled and structured on the pattern of interpersonal relations specific to an ethnic group as well as a person at any social and professional role feels closeness to the customs, habits and traditions of the environment in which one grew up and was educated. The aim and the manner of use of acquired personalized meaning, norms and values can be most important in the teacher's professional communication as the orientation basis of the interaction. Normative-value system forms the social attitudes to quite definite normative communication. All of the above must be seriously comprehended, since taking into account ethnocultural variables allows completely new way to look at the traditional socio-psychological universals. On this basis, improving of the potential pedagogical communication will expand, identifying the communication peculiarities in different cultures and will favor the better problem solving of the individual's behavior regulation.

The analysis of pedagogical and psychological studies of a number of scientists (N. Anikeeva, N. Berezovin, A. Bodalev, V. Grekhnev, A. Dobrovich, V. Kang Kalik, A. Kirichuk, Y. Kolominskiy, S. Kondratieva, A. Kurakin, A. Leontiev, M. Lisina, T. Malkovskaya, A. Mudrik, L. Novikova, L. Petrovskaya, L. Ruvinskiy, V. Slastenin, A. Tolstykh, Kh. Sheryazdanova, A. Yermentaeva, etc.) shows that the training of teachers to the pedagogical communication is a twofold process: on the one hand, it is the acquisition of some new knowledge, skills and experience, and on the other hand, it is the alteration, modification and development of already formed psychological properties of an individual. Both of the aspects should be viewed in the context of broad connections between the teacher and the reality because the personality of the future teachers and psychologists is an active subject of assimilation of systemic effects of organizational structure of continuing education as well as sociocultural, ethnic, culturological, traditional factors of social environment. It is in this "ensemble" of social relations in which professionally relevant knowledge, skills, personal qualities of future teachers and psychologists, are formed. These aspects define the professionalism, personality, and as a matter of course specific features of relationships with the students and other people around a teacher.

The relevance of this problem is further enhanced in the present period of revival and significant increase in the national self-consciousness. For example, in Kazakhstan today there is a growing tendency toward returning to national culture, rising of people's interest in religion, increasing number of national Kazakh schools. Meanwhile, Kazakh schools mostly located in rural areas, where the elements of business and interpersonal communication of the future teachers and psychologists are interwoven in a complex manner. This raises new content in peda-

gogical communication of the future teachers and psychologists, because school starts to some extent serve as the family, teachers – as the parents. In Kazakh schools, as elsewhere, most of the employees are women, who tend to be more ethnocentric. They are the main carriers of the nation's traditions and customs as they maintain and pass them on from generation to generation. The custom of "honoring the elders" in accordance with age, sex, social rank is essential not only at home but also in the process of education. Kazakh schools are characterized as having "akin relationships" inside of them between the teacher and students, colleagues, administration. This feature makes the content of pedagogical communication specific.

We fully agree with the opinion of many national pedagogy scholars that unique methods and forms of national education based on the progressive customs and traditions provide tremendous potential for development of the individual and their moral qualities. The works of Sh. Zhalgassova, S. Zhamansarieva, A. Mukhambayeva, etc., consider various manifestations of national identity in the content of education and in Kazakh schools, open the possibility of using traditional means of teaching in the educational process. But yet not enough study were obtained about such urgent issues as: the impact of national traditions and national psychology on work and personality of the teacher; teacher's understanding and application of the values of national communication; the specific features of the professional training of future teachers and psychologists to work in the national Kazakh school.

The logic of these issues research involves determination of common, particular and individual in the pedagogical communication content of the future teachers and psychologists. It requires a number of observations. First, as we study the problem of formation and development of knowledge, skills and personality characteristics of teachers and psychologists as a condition for improving the pedagogical communication it is necessary to reveal the external factors which not only promote, but also prevent it. Secondly, considering the reasons of the difficulty of pedagogical communication of the future teachers and psychologists, we partly examine them beyond the personality of the teacher and the psychologist trying to understand not only subjective, but also objective reasons for their difficulties in communicating with students and others. The effectiveness of educational activities depends to a large extent on how the forms of their organization and the content itself suppose communication, where its natural forms turn into professional and functional and serve as an instrument of influence. At the same time competence in the communication is required from the teachers and psychologists. Here the competence in the communication means the ability to establish appropriate contact with students; knowledge and skills to ensure effective process of pedagogical communication. The question of competence in communication of the future teachers and psychologists has its own peculiarities, as there is a certain stereotype of the teacher and psychologist the minds of students in Kazakh schools. Under the preserved high social status each teacher of Kazakh schools priori considered as a specialist with a high culture of communication in the framework of ethnic etiquette. His communication with students, parents, colleagues and other people must conform to a well-defined standard of the nation and it must be clearly differentiated in accordance with age, sex, individual psychological, social and features. Thus, future teachers and psychologists have to be the reference person not only in educational activities, but also in everyday communication situations, this is how the system of definite

expectations works.

Such understanding of communication competence of future teachers and psychologists in a specific environment requires an analysis of its communication core. A. Bodalev [1] includes the content of concept communicative core "all the psychological characteristics that managed to develop in a given individual, and which appear while that individual communicates. More or less integrated experience with different categories of people reflects in all this set of properties".

Hence, the communicative core of a person is a harmonious unity of knowledge, skills and personal qualities of the future teachers and psychologists, which are significant in pedagogical communication. The personality of the teacher and his communicative orientation, attitudes, motivations, capabilities and commitment to pedagogically expedient ways of communication with students are studied in the works O. Abdullina, I. Bagaeva, S. Batrakov, A. Bodalev, V. Grekhnev, S. Yelkanov, I. Zyazyun, A. Zhuravlev, I. Kuzmina, A. Mudrik, Y. Shaposhnikova, Kh. Sheryazdanova, A. Yermentaeva, etc. Depending on the theoretical position of researchers various components of the communicative core content of the future teachers and psychologists were determined, as well as the level of its establishment, role and place of different subjective qualities of pedagogical communication and the degree of their infuence on the nature of the interaction. However, in modern pedagogy and psychology there is no integrated system of components of teacher's communication competence, where the ratio of the properties, the level of expression of individual properties, the nature of the relationships between them would be taken into account. There are several models of formed communicative core of the teacher. Some of the variants are considered further below.

L. Mnatsakanyan and K. Levitan [2]

state that communication in the teaching activities to the maximum extent includes professional and personal qualities. The authors have compiled an extensive list of main skills and personality traits of the teacher. In their view, high level of knowledge of the taught subject, ability to convey knowledge and skills to the students, exactingness, general erudition, and kindness are necessary in the process of interaction with the students.

Thus, problems in relationships lead to loosing of the student's communication skills, limit the possibility of communication experience, block the development of necessary personal qualities and determine the maladaptive behavior.

Personality traits of the teacher, which affect the professional pedagogical communication in a negative way, represent the second group difficulty reasons.

Thus, T. Polyakova [3] suggests that the lack of teachers' special communicative skills, lack of commitment to their development, instability of temper can lead to serious difficulties in the relationship of the teacher with the students.

Y. Kolominsky [4] identifies the following list of teacher's traits that prevent normal communication with the students: lack of understanding of students, injustice, anger, low or excessive exactingness, pedantry, imposition of own views tactlessness, the contradiction between words and deeds, dishonesty, shortcomings in teaching. The dominance of at least one of these character traits in the "ensemble of mental properties" can have dangerous consequences for the moral state of a student. For example, the O. Bondarenko in her study determined that 50% of students feel increased anxiety in the process of communication with the teacher. Sociopedagogical analysis of E. Panova, L. Rybako, Y. Moroz reveals the following: 22% of teenagers reported to the teacher's rudeness, insults, humiliation, yelling, total indifference ("do not see me as a per-

son"), 16% say that they were physically assaulted by the teacher. Hence children account the teacher's aggressive behavior for negative personal qualities of teachers.

T. Malkovskaya believes that qualities such as temper, straightness, hastiness, harshness, heightened self-esteem, self-confidence, stubbornness, lack of sense of humor, excessive softness, simple-mindedness, sensibility, sluggishness, excessive restraint, disorganization also have negative influence on teacher's professional and pedagogical communication.

In the study of T. Yatsenko [5] two types of teacher and student's relationship are distinguished – friendly and hostile. These types depend on the interpersonal orientation of the teacher. It is established that the hostile attitude of the teacher varies to a large extent in relation to different students. Most often negative emotions appear toward weak, unattractive, melancholic and phlegmatic children.

Teacher communication experience with different categories of people, his age characteristics, sex, unique understanding of cultural values of communication and other factors reflects in the personal qualities, which degrade pedagogical communication is reflected . For example, S. Kondratyeva in her experimental studies [6] found out that male teachers have more difficulties in understanding students in the communication process then female teachers have. The data obtained suggest that teachers of natural disciplines are less competent in understanding the state of the student and one and a half times higher rate their ability to establish contacts than teachers of humanities. It is known that inadequate self-esteem determine the inner position of those who rely only on force, orders, power, who does not tolerate opposition, remarks in his address, who does not recognize the right of students to have their own opinion.

Thus, inadequate self-esteem of the future teachers and psychologists leads them to the wrong comprehension of the degree of their proximity to the students and measures of influence on them. In this case the syndrome of exaggerated self-esteem comes to the existence, promoting self-satisfaction of the future teachers and psychologists.

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TRANSFORMATIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE REPUBLIC OF KAZAKHSTAN

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Education is a purposeful process of upbringing for the interests of an individual, society and state. It consists of students participating at all educational levels. Under current market economy the level of secondary and special education is determined by the demands of production, science engineering and social relations.

Any society in any country is rarely satisfied with its system of education. Even in the Soviet period there were a lot of talks about the crisis in education. At the same time nowadays the topic of the crisis is relevant in Kazakhstani society. Today we try to adopt the system of foreign education. The transition from the controlled economy to the market economy resulted in changing priorities in education. Are there new satisfactory models of secondary and higher education suitable for Kazakhstan? What can we adopt from the western economy to reform our educational system? What kind of training is reasonable to be applied to our higher educational institutions? How should the society raise the brainpower of Kazakhstan? What is the role of universities in that process?

Is it possible to answer these questions and find a model of an ideal school? Initially, we should try to find out if there is the ideal of education and what is the model of an educated person? The world is not integrated anymore; therefore, there hardly exists a single approach. But we do not divide countries in 'more developed' or 'less developed'. We single out the countries to imitate and, as a result we can outline a certain model of an educated person of the modern developed society.

If we really want to become a part of the civilization we call 'the developed world' (by that we mean modern Western Europe and North America), we have to think it over how to make our society similar to the western one. The entrance of Kazakhstan to the Bologna process gives real advantages for Kazakhstani higher educational institutions and students. They are the following: bringing of educational programs and syllabi into accordance with the European standards; recognition of the country's qualifications and academic degrees; ensuring academic mobility of teachers and students; recognition of the educational credits of Kazakhstani students at foreign universities; implementing two-diploma education program; recognition of Kazakhstani diplomas in European Union; the right of graduates being employed in any country-participant of the Bologna process.

Kazakhstan has taken a considerable step forward adopting a three-stage model of higher education: Bachelor – Master – Ph.D. Despite of that, we have not been able to manage reaching full similarity with the western educational system.

Let us consider the educational system of several Western European countries and American educational system.

One of the specifics of the US educational system is the absence of government-controlled system of education as each state has the right to determine its structure independently. Academic degrees awarded after the completion of full course are Bachelors, Masters and PhD. The list of degrees is not regulated by US legislation. Colleges and universities independently determine the list of the qualifications and the requirements for those qualifications. Accrediting associations influence degrees' titles, as well as labor market and academic society. As a rule, American universities are presented in a

form of campuses with academic offices, laboratories, libraries, dormitories, teachers' housing, coffee shops and dining halls, sports and cultural facilities.

Associate degree includes 2 years of training in the community colleges after graduating from secondary school.

Bachelor's degree requires 4 years of instruction at universities after graduating from secondary school. A university graduate is to pass an assigned number of credits and to pass all exams.

Master's degree includes 1 or 2 years of instruction in the corresponding major (Music, Business Administration, Technology, Pedagogy, etc.) at universities after receiving Bachelor's degree. A Master student has to write a final thesis and defend it. Thus, the student demonstrates his/her ability to gather, analyze and summarize the material. This often requires knowledge of foreign languages.

Doctoral degree (PhD) requires 5-7 years of research after graduating from Bachelor's school and often implies having a Master's degree.

The level of education for different degrees is also different. For instance, for getting a degree in nursing, accounting, engineering and architecting it is enough to have Bachelor's degree. But being a doctor, a dentist or a lawyer requires Master's degree or PhD.

An academic year consists of 2 or 3 semesters and lasts for about 9 months (from September till May or June). The basis of instruction is lectures being read to large groups of students (sometimes up to a thousand students). Each student has his/her own syllabus renewed with the help of an adviser two times a year. Students are able to choose their academic courses themselves. Students do not take notes of the lectures as instructors give them printed copies. At the end of each semester students take exams. The expulsion of students takes place very seldom as students are allowed to retake exams several times.

The specific features of educational system in England are strict discipline, classical ways of teaching, well-organized educational process and all-round program of students' preparation for business and social life.

In England and Wales receiving Bachelor's degree requires 4 years of instruction, in Scotland it takes 4 years. In case of receiving Bachelor's degree, it is required to take Sandwich courses. As a result, the total term increases correspondingly. Some universities suggest a degree in specific areas such as Arts and Design, but this requires taking a basic course before 3 years of instruction on the major.

An academic course finishing with awarding Bachelor's degree in such degrees as Medicine, Dentistry and Architecture takes up to 7 years of instruction.

There are several kinds of Bachelor's Degree in Great Britain. Their names depend on major. There are four main degrees: BA (Bachelor of Arts), BSC (Bachelor of Science), BENG (Bachelor of Engineering), and LLB (Bachelor of Law). There is also Bachelor of Medicine and Bachelor of Dentistry. Bachelor's degree is awarded after 3 or 4 years of instruction at a full-time department. British Bachelor's degree is recognized all over the world providing graduates with opportunities for a successful carrier in any country. Bachelor's Degree is the first level of higher education in Great Britain. The next level is Master's Degree.

Postgraduate Courses begin after Bachelor's degree and suggest Master's Degree and Ph.D.

There are two types of Master's programs: research programs and advanced training programs. As a rule, Master program consists of lecture courses, seminars, exams and a diploma project. After passing the exams and defending the project students are awarded with Master's degree. Research Master's degree is called

M.Phil (Master of Philosophy). The given degree is received after 1 or 2 years of independent research work under the guidance of a supervisor.

In Great Britain a majority of Doctoral or PhD programs are mostly research ones. There are neither lectures nor seminars. A scientific adviser provides a student with the topic of the research and all necessary requirements (place, equipment and materials necessary for the research). The completion of research program requires 2 or 3 years. By the end of the program a student has to demonstrate and publish the results of his/her research in official summaries, scientific or specialized journals and to write Doctor's thesis. Doctor's degree is awarded after successful defense of the thesis.

Higher education in France is available only after receiving a Bachelor's degree. Most of higher educational institutions (universities and high schools) in France are under the authority of Ministry of Education. High schools are more prestigious and it is more difficult to get in them. It is possible only after 2-3 years of study at preliminary courses.

Higher education in France is divided into 3 cycles. The first cycle implies 2 years of instruction (students study fundamental courses and several optional subjects on majors). After the completion of the first cycle students are given the diploma of general higher education, DEUG - Diplome d'etudes universitaires generals. The second cycle also suggests 2 years of instruction (students receive special education). After the completion of the first year students take Licentiate exam. After the completion of the second year students defend their diploma project and receive Master's degree. The third cycle of higher education includes 1 year of instruction, after which students receive the diploma of higher special education, DESS - Diplome d'etudes superieures spesialisees (it gives the right to practice the profession) or the diploma of higher advanced education, DEA - Diplome d'etudes approfondies (it gives the right to take a post-graduate course).

The modern system of higher education in Germany considerably differs from the system of higher education in Kazakhstan. The principle of academic freedom is proclaimed in Germany. According to it, all higher educational institutions and all students are provided with freedom regarding management and study, respectively. There is no a strict compulsory system of education. Much depends on students' independence, responsibility, and self-discipline. A German student does not attend classes together with the coursemates, but according to the major and the program chosen makes up his/her own syllabus and organizes his/her study to meet rather high requirements of the major.

The system of higher education of the Federative Republic of Germany includes different types of educational institutions that are able to meet the needs of all students.

'Hochschule' is a humanitarian institution. 'Fachhochschule' is a university of applied sciences or a high special school. The peculiarity of 'Fachhochschule' is a close link between theory and practice. All 'Fachhochschule' programs include two compulsory practical semesters. Besides, each apprenticeship is shorter (usually 8 semesters). 'Fachhochschule' trains high-skilled specialists for such areas as Engineering, Business Administration, Design, and Social Sciences. After the completion of the course students get the Diploma. Thus, 'Fachhochschule' attracts students with a shorter track to their further career. Statistics data shows that a quarter of all students get into 'Fachhochschule' university.

'Universitaet' is larger than 'Hochschule' or 'Fachhochschule'. The number of departments and courses is large too. It is up to 400. Students do their

scientific work, fundamental and applied researches. 'Universitaet' trains the specialists in Medicine, Natural Sciences, Technical Sciences, Humanitarian Sciences, Jurisprudence, Theology, Economics, Sociology and Agrarian Sciences. A wide range of department courses provides students with inter-disciplinary education. 'Universitaet' provides students with the following degrees: Diplom, Magister, Doktor. The academic title of an associate professor or professor is 'Habilitation-recht'. Furthermore, he is awarded with a certificate giving the right to lecture at a university level.

'Technische Universitaet' is a technical university. Students research different scientific areas of science such as Chemistry, Physics, Mechanical Engineering, Electronics, Electrical Engineering, Material Science, etc. Academic degrees are similar to those of 'Universitaet'.

There are also a number of specialized higher educational institutions such as pedagogical schools, theological schools, art schools, music schools, cinematography schools, etc. The apprenticeship depends on the type of the educational institution and the degree it provides with.

According to the framework 'Law on Higher School', the standard apprenticeship ('Regelstudienzeit') i.e. the period when a student can take a full academic course and take the first final exam for qualification which includes 9 semesters. Another standard can be used only in special cases. For instance, to get Bachelor's degree (Bachelor or Bakkalaureusgrad) the standard apprenticeship includes 3 or 4 years. After that a student can take the second final exam for Master's degree (Master or Magistergrad). In this case the standard apprenticeship includes from 1 to 4 years. The standard apprenticeship for 'Fachhochschule' with getting the diploma

(Diplom FH) includes 4 years. In order to prepare for Doctor's thesis defense, a student has to study additionally 2 or 5 years more. Due to the fact that study at university is connected with research work, a lot of students increase the standard apprenticeship.

Nowadays the system of Kazakhstan education faces a number of difficulties. It is not only the system of education that needs to be changed. At the same time, students should change their attitude towards academic freedom. The understanding of independent study should be imparted since childhood.

It is impossible to change the education system in a short period of time as there are gaps between the levels of secondary and higher education. There are also gaps between the levels of higher education and the system of science which now has to retrain specialists and increase their professional level.

Speaking of education crisis it is helpful to understand the necessity of drastic changes of the forms, methods and content of education. It is necessary to form the diversity of educational systems including teaching Philosophy and Scientific Manpower Training.

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TWELVE YEAR EDUCATION IN HIGH SCHOOLS: PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS

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When speaking about the necessity of special preliminary study of school children going to continue education in higher school it should be noted that the transition to twelve year school in Kazakhstan is becoming very actual as it provides the future students with the organization of different forms of professional (primary) and special (advanced) grounding.

The period is not aiming to eliminate shortcomings: it aims at creating conditions for qualitative mastering the disciplines of higher school. The Project of the State Normative Document on twelve-year school (Astana, 2005) is oriented on modernization, improvement, renovation of education, capable of meeting the new demands, norms, and regulations.

In this period the role of qualitative language grounding is extremely high. It may be done thorough deep and versatile investigation of the lingua didactic experience, analysis, and selection of the most rational and effective ways that are called for solving teaching tasks. To achieve this goal successfully one should first of all define the structure and the content of teaching, these are presented in the syllabus meeting the State Normative Document requirements. The aim of the syllabus for school graduates is to show the ways for systematization and developing linguistic theory knowledge got in the basic school and techniques of forming skills and habits in using them in different communicative situations. The tasks of teaching at that period are aimed at developing logical and associative thinking of the learners, forming firm linguistic knowledge, improving all speech activity types, striving for self-perfection.

We have compiled a syllabus in which we present the author's vision of the twelve form period instruction tasks. The syllabus is based on both general and particular didactic principles that take into consideration school graduates' experience in mastering languages.

They are:

- the principle of considering real and potential possibilities of the learners;

- the principle of organizing repetition including the elements of new into the content of each lesson;

- the principle of the linguistic material correction based on communicative tasks determination;

- principle of interference in bi- and poly-lingual teaching;

- the principle of creative approach to using the interactive innovative techniques in the aspect of the status of the target language (native, non-native, foreign)**;**

- the principle of using the professionalization material**;**

- the principle of organizing universal regime for the work on forming skills and habits in general subjects.

Compiling the syllabus for the applicants seeking admission to higher school we proceeded from the assumption that an ideal model of a school leaver is supposed to be an intellectual, aware of the language and culture of his own nation and taking interest in the languages and cultures of other nations. New conditions of teaching were also taken into consideration. They help to raise the school leavers' activity, their wish to realize their own possibilities in realizing the perspectives of teaching. Special attention was paid to the principles of continuity of secondary and higher school and teaching perspectives; as in different schools one may observe both the

firmness of the previous work and "pedagogical cracks"; recommendations should be found on how to escape them.

The content correction was organized on the basis of entropy approach, that is by linear-boundaries setting data on linguistic and their adequate usage in composing texts of different styles and genres. Repetition and generalization character of learning the subject and its communicative nature supposes to introduce new data for preliminary study.

Theoretical foundations for lingua didactics are usually based on a systematic structural approach. It singles out three groups of notions. The first group lists notions of general didactics (*methods of scientific research, ways and techniques of teaching, knowledge, skills and habits, lessons*, *didactics, stages of the lesson and others*) and psychological characteristics (*thinking, memory, perception, interpretation, memorizing, reproducing, usage*).

The second group of notions reflects the peculiarities of the subject taught and may be characterized as the discipline general methodical basis, which is fully correlated with the term *lingua didactics.*

Having analyzed the possibilities of the discipline and considered the structure elements of the subject we singled out the following points as the main content components: aims of teaching language, means of teaching, and organization of learners' activity at different stages of mastering the discipline. The enlisted elements compose the structure of lingua didactic knowledge.

The third group of notions is related to the content of concrete themes. For example, the content structure of teaching material related to the theme "Phonetics" would contain the following elements of knowledge: aims of teaching, content of teaching, particular principles of phonetic acquisition, peculiarities of didactic material selection for mastering phonetic laws, the role and function of audio-lingual means, peculiarities of students' speech activity.

Teaching school graduates requires a special system of work. It should be directed on simultaneous theoretical and practical mastering of language phenomena by means of correct selection of training, linguistic and communicative exercises, parallel developing of all the types of speech activity – listening, speaking, reading and writing. Nowadays in the content of linguistic disciplines cycles normative language aspect prevails, less attention is given to the communicative aspect of the subject. Necessity arises to a more thorough selection of the material for mastering the themes "Speech Culture (Etiquette)", and "Stylistics".

Mastering a language supposes the existence of the communicative approach as a basis, so it is necessary to organize the correct dosing of the material and systematize the data on functional stylistics. For this one should organize correct selection of linguistic theory, rational introduction of speech notions and tasks for training exercises targeting the necessary grammar minimum mastering, and working out stable communicative habits. We think that the problem may be solved by introducing elective courses into school teaching and by means of well-organized subject interaction between the disciplines of humanitarian cycle that are remarkably related with communicative function

The syllabus pays much attention to forming universal skills. While studying humanities the pupil is supposed to a) learn to compose simple and complex plans of the texts and use these plans correctly, b) get information on theses, c) learn peculiarities of free, text bounded and planned synopsis, d) get ideas on the spheres of application of review and annotations, e) get acquainted with the informative and indicative reports functioning, f) master the skills of compiling references and reviews. These skills will be improving at other lessons but the universal pro-

cedure of their forming and structuralizing is done at linguistic lessons.

It should be noted that the group of habits pointed out is not only of universal and interiorized character but it also directly promotes to the prospect principle: having mastered them while school leaving period the student will feel comfortable and will be able to organized independent cognitive activity. For this purpose the senior pupils are associated with research work. Research is actively included into school practice, and becomes an important mark for social status of secondary educational institutions. In lyceums and gymnasiums teachers' linguistic associations are being transformed into chairs. This is done not only for improving teachers' research activities, but for forming pupils' research skills.

Researching activity is a remarkable form for schoolchildren development. It is organized to raise their theoretical knowledge and to work out an independent and creative approach to learning.

Changes in the sphere of education are closely connected with teaching languages at school. Increasing the importance of the school subjects demands a new approach to mastering languages and different variants of their teaching in particular. Nowadays theory and practice development of language teaching is characterized by different researches, aiming at the more effective ways of teaching that lead to forming a solid scientific foundation. It will provide for the correct an effective procedure of pupils' knowledge repetition and generalization.

HISTORICAL ASPECTS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE REPUBLIC OF KAZAKHSTAN

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The system of Higher Education in Kazakhstan began to develop only in the Soviet period due to the absence of necessary amount of professorial staff, economic decline and slow rise of school education. All these factors detained the process of higher school organization up to the end of the 1920's. Before this the experts of higher education were trained basically in Moscow, Leningrad, and Tashkent.

At the beginning of the XX century Kazakhstan education and pedagogical science began an intensive development. A new generation of enlighteners developing materialistic views of the predecessors and brining new ideas to the theory of education emerged in the society.

The Soviet Power brought a great number of economic and social reforms to Kazakhstan. The literacy campaign was approved and instead of old schools a new comprehensive school for all layers of population was introduced. Specialized professional, vocational, and high schools were founded.

The first significant period in the system of higher education was 1928-1940. In 1926 the Kazakh Department was founded at Tashkent Pedagogical Institute. In 1928 it was transferred to Alma-Ata and converted into Kazakh State University. Two years later it was renamed into Kazakh Pedagogical Institute.

In 1935 it was named after Abay Kunanbayev (now it is the Kazakh National Pedagogical Institute). Since that period some new institutes and universi-

ties were opened gradually – the Zooveterinarny Institute (Alma-Ata, 1929), the Agricultural Institute (1930), the Technical Institute (Alma-Ata, 1934), and the Kazakh State University after S. Kirov (now it is the Kazakh State University after Al-Farabi). In 1931 the first Medical Institute was founded. Pedagogical institutes were opened in Uralsk, Aktyubinsk, Petropavlovsk, and Kustanay. The system of correspondence education began to develop in 1930's.

One more important period in the system of higher education was 1936 – 1938. The decisions regulating the order of entering high schools were adopted in 1936. In 1938 the first postgraduate program was founded at the Kazakh State University.

But in the 1930's high schools of Kazakhstan, despite of high rates of their development, did not satisfy the needs of national economy for the specialists as many of them were at the initial stage of their development. Among the students and professorial staff the number of representatives of native population grew slowly. In 1936 there were only 8 Kazakhs among 42 teachers of the Kazakh State University. The problems of higher education were aggravated with Stalin reprisals that took away the lives of outstanding scientists and teachers [1].

The second period is 1941-1945 – the Great Patriotic War. The scientific potential of Kazakhstan grew much. First of all, it was connected with the fact that the evacuated scientists and scientific institutes stayed in the republic. During the war Candidate's degrees and Doctor's degree were given to 130 teachers of high schools and seven new institutes of the Kazakhstan Department of the USSR Academy of Sciences were organized. The Pedagogical Institute of Foreign Languages (1943), the Shymkent Institute of Construction Materials Technology (1943), the Conservatory (1944), and the Female Pedagogical Institute (1944) were founded in Alma-Ata. After the war, the Karaganda Medical Institute (1950), the Semipalatinsk Zooveterinary Institute (1951), and the Karaganda Technical Institute (1953) appeared. The research done by pedagogical staff was completed due to evacuated and subjected to repression scientists and teachers. The number of students grew from 10.4 thousand in 1941 up to 15.1 thousand in 1945.

The third period we might denote is 1946-1963. The largest event after the war was the foundation of the Kazakhstan Academy of Sciences (June 1, 1946). The members of the Academy of Sciences of Kazakhstan were the outstanding scientists of the period. The first president was K.I. Satpaev. However, in the first post-war years in all branches of the national economy there was observed a sharp shortage of qualified personnel. In the 1950's other 13 institutes were founded [2].

During the post-war period the most vulnerable point in the system of higher education was a lack of educational and material resources. For a long time there was a lack of educational rooms, dorms, textbooks, scholarship funds, school desks, chairs, bedside-tables, and bedding. In the educational institutions teachers and students used morally and physically out-of-date equipment, devices, mechanisms, and means of training.

The quality of the professorial staff did not meet the requirements of the time. In 1960 only 99 people, or 2.2 % of regular teachers of high school had a rank of professor or a doctor's degree. Only 921 people were senior lecturers, teachers with candidate's degree or 20.3 % of all staff of high schools. The situation changed slowly. By the 1990's more than half of the professorial personnel of high schools did not have academic statuses and degrees. The amount of teachers with the Doctor's degree and the Professor's degree did not exceed 2% of an average

number of high school teachers. In six higher educational institutions there were no teachers with Doctor's degree at all [3].

In 1959 the state committee was formed to centralize higher education management. Then it was transformed into the Ministry of Higher Education of Kazakhstan.

Khrushchev's ideas of approximation of intellectual and physical work and the strengthening of connection between school and industry led to a radical reform of education at the end of the 50's and the beginning of the 60's. In 1958 the law that was duplicated in 1959 with the republican Law "About Strengthening of Connection of School and Life" was passed. According to the Law the compulsory eight-year education was brought in instead of the seven-year and ten-year education. After that the graduates were obliged to work at factories or in agriculture for three years, combining work and study or to study at polytechnic schools. Entering high schools then was caused by the industrial experience, instead of theoretical preparation of applicants [4]. In Kazakhstan the transition to the new system was completed in 1962-1963.

The reform caused ambiguous consequences. The turnover of staff in industry increased. The prestige of higher education fell; scientists and intelligence worked on physical, unproductive works to the detriment of their professional work.

In 1964-1990 some positions of the reform were reconsidered, and the compulsory ten-year education was introduced, new curricula and plans started to be developed, and in 1970 the charter of an average comprehensive school was affirmed. Three steps of education - initial (up to 3 classes), eight-year and comprehensive ones (10 years) were brought in. The graduates of the eight-year schools could continue education in the ten-year school or technical training colleges and comprehensive special educational institu-

tions, and then had the right to get into high school.

The following years the system of higher education developed gradually. In 1975 the Alma-Ata Energetic Institute began training the specialists to meet the demands of the republican industry and municipal economy. In 1976 first students entered the Alma-Ata Institute of Railway Engineering. In the following years several other institutions were founded.

Main changes were basically observed in the number of students. In the 60's, 70's and 80's 27 institutions of higher education were opened, i.e. almost as many as for the previous period. The number of specialties also increased. In 1986, 550 thousand students of more than 200 specialties were trained in 55 high schools and 246 technical schools.

The scales of changes were well visible on the comparative background: in total for two years (1978-1979) the number of graduates from high schools and technical schools was equal to the number of students graduated within the 50's.

The forth period is 1991-1994. The acceptance of the Law on languages and corresponding articles of the Constitution marked the revival of national education. Schools and university departments with the state language of instruction appeared. After 1991 the private education establishments - schools and higher education institutions appeared. The leading higher educational institutions - the Kazakh National University after Al-Farabi, the Almaty State University after Abay, the Kazakh Polytechnic Institute and others - opened new departments necessary for the professional training of experts, capable to undertake a responsible task in carrying out independent domestic and foreign policies of the Republic of Kazakhstan. The International Kazakh-Turkish University after H.A. Jassavi in Turkistan, the Institute of Culture in Uralsk, and other establishments of higher education en-

rolled their first students.

The international connections of the system of national education extended those years. In 1991 over 1000 Kazakhstani pupils, students and post-graduate students continued their education abroad. The structure and subjects of scientific researches of the National Academy of Sciences of the Republic of Kazakhstan was harmonized with new requirements. New scientific research institutes were organized. The network of Branch Academies of Sciences got extended. Engineering and Agricultural Academies of the Republic of Kazakhstan began to work. For award of scientific degrees and assignment of academic statuses, quality assurance of dissertational works the Supreme Certifying Commission of the Republic of Kazakhstan was founded.

At the same time the negative moments were also observed: the financing of science and education was cut down, and owing to economic difficulties social vulnerability of teachers amplified.

The legislative and normative legal base of higher education of the independent Republic of Kazakhstan developed at that time. The primary goals of that period were the creation of a network of higher education institutions and the updating of specialties of higher education to maintain the sufficient independence of the republic in professional training, the satisfactions of needs of market economy, areas and regions. The accepted measures found the legislative fastening in the Law of the Republic of Kazakhstan "About Higher Education" (1993). In 1994 the State Standard of Higher Education of the Republic of Kazakhstan was authorized. For the first time it defined the introduction of multilevel structure of higher education in the country, academic degrees of bachelors and masters.

The fifth period is 1995 – 1998. The Kazakhstan system of higher education was modernized. The given stage was characterized by:

- The conceptual definition of the development of the system of higher education that found its reflection in the Concept of the State Policy in the field of education, authorized by the National Council on State policy at the President of the Republic of Kazakhstan on August, 4, 1995,

- The acceptance of new normative legal statuses regulating the activities of higher educational institutions.

- The first educational standards on 310 specialties of higher education were accepted (1995-1997).

- The private sector of education was actively developing.

The sixth period is 1999-2000. The principles of entering higher educational institutions changed dramatically. The transition to experts' preparation with higher education was carried out on the basis of the state educational order. Since 1999 a new model of a student's contingent formation was introduced by giving the applicants state educational grants and state educational credits on a competitive basis.

The basic tendency of the development of higher education was the refusal of the state monopoly for education, the cancellations of the rigid centralized management in the field of education and the strict regulation of the activity of higher education institutions. As a result the private sector of higher education started to develop under the law of a competition on equal terms. The state higher educational institutions received the right to carry out the enrollment and training of students on a paid basis.

The most important point was the work on the recognition of the Kazakhstan documents abroad and similar foreign documents in the Republic of Kazakhstan. That was promoted by the signing on April 11, 1997 the ratification and the statement by the Decree of the President

of the Republic of Kazakhstan № 202-13 RK of December 13, 1997 the Lisbon Convention on the recognition of the qualifications regarding higher education.

The Agreement on the Mutual Recognition and the Equivalence of documents on education, scientific degrees and ranks was signed on November 24, 1998 between the Governments of Belarus, the Kyrgyz Republic, the Russian Federation, and the Republic of Kazakhstan. The given agreement was deposited in the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of the Republic of Kazakhstan and came into force on October 1, 1998.

According to the Report signed by the Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Kazakhstan and the Moscow State University after M. Lomonosov, the Kazakhstan Department of the Moscow State University was founded in Kazakhstan. The Russian-Kazakh Modern Humanitarian University (nowadays the Kazakh-Russian University) was founded in Karaganda.

The international connections of the system of higher education extended. Many students began to participate in study abroad programs:

- international educational exchanges;

- receiving grants of the Governments of foreign states and the international organizations;

- receiving an international grant "Bolashak";

The Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Kazakhstan began to take part in carrying out the programs of international organizations such as UNESCO, ACTR/ACCELS, Peace Corps, Information Service of USA (USIS), SOROS Foundation, the American Council on the International Researches (IREX), the British Council in Kazakhstan, the German Service of Academic Exchanges (DAAD), the National Center of School and University Programs of

France (CNOUS), and the Bureau on Linguistic and Pedagogical Cooperation of the Embassy of France in Kazakhstan.

Carrying out all these tasks was possible through a strong normative legal basis; and with this purpose the new Law of the Republic of Kazakhstan "About Education" was accepted in June, 1999. Education was proclaimed the priority area of the state policy which was fixed by the guarantees including legal and economic obligations of the state. The Law in the corresponding articles differentiated the competence and the responsibility of central, local representatives in the area of education within the framework of the established competence. Special attention was given to the question of perfection of higher education to improve the quality of experts' preparation,.

The recent seventh period starts in 2001. So, in 2001 according to the International Qualifier of Education Systems a new Qualifier of Preparation Directions and Specialities of Higher Education was developed and passed. According to the new Qualifier the work on the development of the state standards of education was started. The main difference of the new state standards was in the fact that 70% of total amount of an academic load made the state component, and 30% academic hours were conducted by high schools. It raised the academic freedom and mobility of high schools and allowed taking into account the features of the demand of labor market of a certain region in the corresponding experts. The state standards of higher education are now obligatory for all higher education institutions regardless of patterns of ownership, their types and kinds.

The unified state standard on blocks of social humanitarian and natural science disciplines in the structure of educational professional programs was developed and issued. It was passed with the purpose of carrying out the uniform ideology and

humanization of the system of higher education. Such unification allowed providing the academic mobility of students and adaptability to manufacture of the educational process.

The decrease in quality of experts' preparation, especially in private high schools, the State Accreditation of high schools was introduced - the recognition (the confirmation by the state for the next term) by the status of the organization of education) [5].

In the following years the bases for transition of the system of professional training on the world standard "bachelor - master model" were incorporated. A complete three-stage model of a professional training (Bachelor – Master – Doctor), based on the credit system of training was created. High schools were given a significant academic freedom. The scientific research used in training became more active. In addition to that, academic mobility increased.

A new model of a student's contingent formation by means of carrying out complex or uniform national testing and giving state educational grants and state educational credits on a competitive basis to the most prepared youth was adopted.

Instead of traditional system of educational process organization the credit system of training which stimulated the active independent work of students was adopted. It provided with electing an individual educational trajectory, mobility, the big degree of academic freedom of students and post-graduates; promoted the recognition of documents on education in the world educational space.

The system of the independent external estimation of educational achievements took root: the unified national testing (UNT) and the intermediate state control (ISC).

The creation of conditions for accreditation preparation of professional educational programs of high schools ac-cording to the requirements of the leading foreign accreditation agencies was carried out.

The amount of higher educational institutions, the contingent of students, and the state educational order increased.

The main positive moment in Kazakhstan for the years of its development is the preservation of society unity, as the objective result of constructive cooperation of people included in different kinds of the organizations [6].

The higher education of Kazakhstan at the present stage is characterized by:

- the continuous structure of education supposing the realization of the opportunity of life-long learning,
- the modernization on the basis of national traditions and world tendencies in the sphere of education,
- the equality of access to all steps,
- the unity of its elements and requirements,
- the continuity of all steps of education.

In area of the higher school the priority directions now are:

- the improvement of the quality of higher education,
- the development of scientific researches,
- the perfection of the educational technologies,
- the formation of the system of additional higher education.

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HARMONIZATION OF THE NATIONAL SYSTEM OF HIGHER EDUCATION BY MEANS OF THE BOLOGNA PROCESS

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The reformation of higher education characterized by different stages and difficulties is far from its completion as current innovations wreck the old system and the transition to the new system sometimes results in lack of understanding and non-acceptance of the process by society.

All initiations and transformations happen under the influence of certain factors for the purpose of life's improvement.

The Bologna Process is the process of harmonization of the European educational systems through the Bologna Declaration in order to create the European Higher Education Area.

The Bologna Process has two reasons:

1) For the last decade higher education has become a profitable business but in comparison with the American institutions the European ones have been at a disadvantage and incur losses;

2) The European Union is now being integrated into a single state. Common socio-economic and political structures are characterized by a unified educational system so as to provide the basis for a single labor market and for further integration of Europe.

First of all, the Bologna Process is based on the principles of voluntariness and requires nothing from its participants. Its main objective is transparence, comparability, clarity of modern educational systems and the possibility of easy transition from one system to another as nowadays different countries still have different educational systems. For instance, in most countries Medical education still preserves its traditional one-level structure though in several countries there are such qualifications as Bachelor of Medicine, Bachelor of Dentistry, and Bachelor of Surgery. There is also difference in the apprenticeship. Bachelor's degree implies 3 or 4 years of study, Master's degree – 1 or 3. As it has already been stated, nowadays educational systems of different European countries are not similar. It is difficult to say if they become alike. At any rate, the documents of the Bologna Process emphasize the idea that national peculiarities of educational systems are an all-European wealth.

Main objectives of the Bologna Process are the following:

1. Introduction of the system of comparable degrees by means of adopting diploma transcripts to increase international competitiveness of the European system of education.

2. Introduction of two-cycle education: undergraduate and graduate. The former lasts not less than 3 years. The latter leads to obtaining Master's degree or Doctor's degree.

3. Introduction of the European system of credits (on the basis of ECTS - European Credit Transfer System). It also provides students with the right to choose courses he/she wants to study. The given accumulative system will work under the "life-long education" concept.

4. Development of students' mobility (on the basis of two previous points).

Development of faculty and staff mobility by transferring the period they work in the European region. Introduction of the transnational education standards.

5. Assistance to European collaboration in quality assurance for the purpose of comparable criteria and methodologies elaboration.

6. Introduction of education quality system in institutions of higher education with the participation of students and employers.

7. Assistance to European ideas of higher education, especially in developing curricula, inter-institutional cooperation, mobility schemes, joint educational programs, and in research activity.

The decision to participate in the creation of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) was taken in Bologna by the representatives of 29 countries (Bologna Declaration, 1999). Nowadays it is considered to be a unique agreement as the Process now includes 47 countries-participants out of 49 countries ratified the European Cultural Convention of the Council of Europe (1954). The official date of the Bologna Process is considered June 19, 1999 – the date of Bologna Declaration signing. The Bologna Process is open for other countries.

Europe is now on the way to its unity. Higher education influences the formation of society in a considerable way therefore the diversity of educational systems impedes the unity of Europe. United Europe implies free transition of labor force, goods and capital thus resulting in the necessity of qualifications comparability. Finally, higher education is becoming a profitable business where the USA takes leading positions. Only united Europe may count on success in the sphere.

Main figures of the Bologna process are the following:

- Ministers of Education of the countries having signed the Bologna Declaration.

- Representatives of the EUA (European Universities Association), EURASHE (European Association of Institutions in Higher Education), ESU (European Students' Union), ENQA (European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education), and UNESCO-CEPES (the UNESCO European Center for Higher Education).

- The Bologna Process is also maintained by the European Commission and the Council of Europe.

The advantages of the Bologna Process includes the following: availability of higher education; further increasing of the European education quality; developing students' and teachers' mobility; successful employment of graduates as all academic degrees and qualifications are oriented to labor market.

Due to scientific and technological advance and market demands skills and knowledge that students get at the higher educational institutions are to be of high quality and enriched according to various changes in the world. Therefore, it is necessary to teach students how to enrich their skills and knowledge when required.

The last decade is characterized by a great number of initiatives in the transformation of higher education. Delicate steps turned out to a great number of reformation projects: from state educational standards to academic mobility.

The notion of state compulsory educational standard has not to be explained. The document is basic for Kazakhstani educational system but academic mobility is an innovation.

Academic mobility is the possibility for the students, teachers, and managerial personnel to "move" from one university to another to exchange the experience, to overcome national seclusion and to reach all-European perspectives. According to the recommendations of the Bologna Declaration it is advisable that each student spends a semester in another higher educa-

tional institution preferably abroad.

It is evident that a high level of academic mobility implies a developed infrastructure but it is not real. Even now in some countries academic mobility is rather limited. It is difficult to say about the number of students studied at European and other foreign higher educational institutions. Financial question is of great importance too. The given problem is of great importance for higher educational institutions and Education Administration bodies. In the Western Europe students' mobility is also low (5-10%). Several countries succeeded more in the given sphere. For instance, in Finland 30% of students take part in the programs of academic mobility (it is planned to increase up to 50-60%).

Russia joined the Bologna Process at the meeting of Ministers of Education of European countries in Berlin in September, 2003. In 2005 the Minister of Education of Ukraine signed the Bologna Declaration in Bergen.

Kazakhstan joined the Bologna Process in Budapest in 2010. The decision of Kazakhstan to join the Bologna Process was unanimously supported by the representatives of 46 countries-signers of the Bologna Declaration. Thus, Kazakhstan became the 47th country-participant of the Bologna Process. The flag of Kazakhstan was established in the Gallery of the Flags of the Countries-Participants of the Bologna Process. Before this, 30 out of 145 Kazakhstan's higher educational institutions had already signed the Magna Charta Universitatum which is the basis of the Bologna Declaration. The decision of joining the Bologna Process was taken by the Committee of the Ministers of Education of the countries-participants of the Bologna Process thus showing high appraisal to the educational reforms in the sphere of higher education in the republic of Kazakhstan.

Kazakhstan is the first Central-Asian state admitted as a full member of the European Higher Education Area. Along with the signing of the Bologna Declaration the country is to fulfill the key terms:

- to introduce a three-stage educational system (Bachelor's degree – Master's degree – Doctoral Degree (PhD)

- to assure the accreditation of educational institutions

- to introduce an educational technology similar to ECTS - European Credit Transfer System

Kazakhstan has met all requirements for joining the Bologna Process. The Education Act of Kazakhstan stipulates the transition to a three-stage education, high students' mobility, and a credit system. Together with foreign universities and institutions Kazakhstan train students on Ph.D. program and introduces a new mechanism of quality assurance by means of creation of the system of institutional and specialized accreditation according the international model. Several higher educational institutions have already obtained institutional and specialized accreditation.

In Kazakhstan higher educational institutions set the task to increase the quality of education and range the following criteria in accordance with their priorities:

1. Faculty quality
2. Faculty motivation
3. Material and technical resources
4. Curricula quality
5. Knowledge quality
6. Students' quality
7. Infrastructure quality
8. Innovative activity of the managerial staff
9. Introduction of innovations
10. Competitiveness and achievements of the graduates

Joining the Bologna Process gives real advantages to Kazakhstan's higher educational institutions and students. They are the following: bringing of Kazakhstan's educational programs and curricula to conformity with the European stan-

dards; recognition of Kazakhstan's qualifications and academic degrees; academic mobility assurance both for students and teachers; recognition of Kazakhstan's credits in foreign universities; realization of the programs of two-diploma education; convertibility of Kazakhstan's diplomas of higher education in Euro-zone; the right of graduates to work in any country-participant of the Bologna Process.

Nowadays Kazakhstan is entering the world educational area. 18 higher educational institutions have signed the Magna Charta Universitatum. A number of international seminars on the problems of Kazakhstan's joining the Bologna Process have been held. This can be explained by the necessity to reform the educational system of Kazakhstan because of Kazakhstan's integration in ITO and joining the Bologna Process.

Besides the advantages the given process has its own disadvantages. Joining the Bologna Process has resulted in the confusion of curricula and has caused certain employment problems for graduates with Bachelor's degree. A four-year Bachelor program is considered as not completed higher education.

It is impossible to avoid certain difficulties when transforming the system of higher education. Society is to accept this new system. Employment problems are being solved very slowly. The transition to the module system is complicated as it contradicts the standard of Kazakhstan. All standards are to be changed consistently including the standards for secondary education.

Nowadays a number of universities in Kazakhstan train students on Ph.D. program and Doctor's program (on various specializations). Ph.D. program is conducted at foreign universities or with the help of guest professors as scientific supervisors or instructors. Some higher educational institutions provide two-diploma Master's and Doctor's programs (students

get a diploma of a Kazakhstan university and a diploma of a foreign university).

Unfortunately, there are still a lot of unsolved questions. How to combine Ph.D. programs and Doctor's programs with the development of fundamental and applied science in the country? How to motivate doctoral students and their scientific advisors to generate new knowledge but not just write their Doctor's thesis? There are also some problems with scientific journals of high impact-factor where doctoral students must publish their research results. The credit system adopted in Kazakhstan is to be replaced by the ECTS. Diploma transcripts are to be similar to European transcripts (DS). Education quality administration is also to meet the European requirements. All these changes must be legislated.

In Kazakhstan higher educational institutions are told how many graduates and on what specialities to train. Other leading European countries managed to adjust their non-traditional qualifications to the basic model thus becoming the part of the Bologna Process. For instance, in Germany there is a degree similar to Russian Doctor of Sciences which implies a four-stage system of education. French system also has four stages and Scotland system of education – 6. It also should be mentioned that some elitist European higher educational institutions tactfully refuse to take part in the Bologna Process. Leading Moscow universities also do not hurry to join it.

The Lisbon Convention gives the signers the right for reservations and partial entering the Process to help the countries-participants save their own educational traditions adapting them to the new system.

Nowadays the Bologna Process is one of the most disputable questions in the sphere of higher education in Kazakhstan. Traditionally higher education was highly appreciated in the society. Under the cur-

rent diversity of political, economic views, and the evaluation of the country's development priority the importance of educational system development is not doubtful.

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ORGANIZATIONAL ASPECTS OF DEVELOPMENT AND IMPLEMENTATION OF INFORMATION LEARNING SYSTEMS

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At the end of the twentieth century and at the beginning of the twenty first century scientific and technical progress conditioned by informational and communicational technologies (ICT) onrush caused a number of new logical tendencies in all areas of life. The process of informatization of education which can be considered as a line of socialization and human development under conditions of modern scientific technical revolution is very important for the modern society. It is significant for higher education system because generally the improvement of professional education is carried out through the individual experience of a particular educator. Meanwhile, particular methods do not consider sociology, psychology, age physiology and management theory achievements at a proper level. At the same time, the didactics and private methodology developing content, objects and methods of professional education should reflect the basic achievements in the field of modern information science (Beshenkov A.S., Kozlov O.A., Kuznetsov A.A., Lapchik M.P., Matrossov V.D., Henner Ye. K. and others) and professional education computerization (Polyakov V.A., Panyukva S.V., Robert I.V., Sofronova N.V and others). The achievements of such sciences as general management theory, computer sciences, logics and psychology turned out to be unclaimed in the practice of higher education system. At the same time, the abilities of computer science methods, activity approach and management theory under conditions of wide usage of ICT facilities in professional education are not studied in full.

Modern information technologies provide students with access to non-

traditional courses of information, increase the efficiency of unsupervised work, give new opportunities for creative work and consolidation of different professional skills, and allow implementing new forms and methods of education using mathematical simulation of the phenomenon and processes.

Informational technologies of education provide a teacher with an opportunity to apply both particular types of educational work and their complex for achievement of the didactic goals, thereby creating educational environment. Teacher-orientated tools allow updating the content of the automated education programs according to the modern knowledge and technology concepts.

Development and implementation of informational technologies into the educational process of higher education system are carried out according to the state scientific and technical programs that are executed by the educational institutions, regional centers of informatization and research organizations dealing with educational problems and new information technologies.

Under conditions of a drastic shortage of resources and means during the process of developing scientific and technical programs for information technologies growth, it is useful to set the following priorities:

• Usage of information technologies in educational purposes;

• Usage of programs that can be widely applied in the educational process, e.g. courses taking a considerable part of the schedule: disciplines of the basic educational cycle (natural scientific, humanist, socioeconomic, general-technical cycles);

• Implementation of projects provided with program-methodical complexes that are very important for disciplines regarding scientific, technical and methodical base changes;

• Conducting Research projects

aimed at scientific support and methodological provision with information supply of education.

The following problems were appointed as the main tasks of information support of education:

• Providing all higher education institutions of Kazakhstan with Internet access on the basis of development of their own telecommunication structures;

• Development of the uniform system of informational resources based on WWW-technologies and databases with remote access;

• Creation of a new generation of the intellectual program-instrumental development environments of teaching computer programs, designing and scientific researches automation systems;

• Target development of the program-methodological complexes in different disciplines of a study plan;

• Development of liberal education information support;

• Further improvement of information technologies of distance education and their implementation in practical projects (on a priority basis in regions);

• Development of electronic textbooks including textbooks for distance education;

• Creation of normative legal support basis of the program products, developed for computer maintenance of the educational process;

• Wide implementation of open-ended system technologies during development of computer teaching programs and systems of scientific researches automation.

One of the most important components of information system in education is development and implementation of the state informational technologies of knowledge testing at all levels of educational system.

1. Telecommunication technology

Telecommunication technologies

give new possibilities for students and teachers. Scientific research has shown that computer networks actualize need of a student to be a member of a social community. The increase of interest to study and consequently a general increase of study progress were mentioned. International telecommunication projects spread all over the world. With the use of new informational technologies the interregional and international competitions are carried out.

2. Computer-aided training courses

Computer-aided training courses are developing in educational system very fast. Such courses include programs, methodological and study materials (slides, handouts, audio, video materials, etc.) that are necessary for different types of educational process.

Nowadays there is a tendency to develop and use the integrated systems supporting different information components such as texts, dialogs, image data including analytical and imitation models of explored objects and phenomenon, databases and expertise, support system of defined professional actions implementation: scientific and engineering calculations, computer-aided development, etc.

3. Distance education

The experience of long-term existence of higher education institutions has shown that individual education is the most popular type of long professional education, but its main limitation factor is time. In a system of professional development and retraining a time factor mainly appears in a mismatch of the term needs of a specialist in studying facilities with declared schedule in an educational institution. The other important side of the problem is a content of study programs that do not take into consideration the individual requirements of potential students.

Thereby, the research of alternative ways of education individualization is still an actual problem.

Qualitatively new possibility of a self-preparation and improvement of professional knowledge offer new informational education technologies at a distance (distance education) using local and global networks, CDs, videos, television cable casting and satellite broadcasting.

As opposed to traditionally organized courses of resident education and nonresident education, usage of informational technologies allows educating directly from the workplace which in case of proper organization allows personalizing this process and provides with necessary time for education without any interruptions during your work.

The conception of computer education is based on the principles of learning process autonomy (self-education). Its implementation assumes a new combination of studying and controlling programs with developed component of mutual moral responsibility of teachers and students. The autonomy in the educational process supposes not only higher educational institutions independence, but also a right of students to choose an individual educational directions within the scope of multilevel educational system.

4. Specialists training at the field of new informational technologies

Nowadays there is a lack of specialists in the field of new informational technologies. Especially it concerns modern technologies for work with information in local and global computer networks. At the same time, since foreign market of electronic communication and information develops more dynamically, it is necessary to expect the development of these tendencies in our country that can increase a gap between supply and demand on the specialists of appropriate specialization.

A lack of specialists aggravated by the processes of their switching from higher schools to business and other corporations may become an obstacle for creation of the uniform system of informa-

tional recourses of education. In addition, there is a risk that created system will be used insufficiently because of low level of potential users training. Thus, we can distinguish two main goals:

1. To increase the capacity and level of training specialists in creation of modern informational recourses;

2. To improve the preparation quality of specialists in using modern informational recourses.

The solution to these problems requires training narrow specialists, developing appropriate programs, educational and methodological literature and improvement of study process quality. For example, it is necessary to organize training of qualified administrators and postmasters for the endpoint and reference nodes of computer networks, for information and communication nodes of higher educational institutions and other organizations.

The usage of new informational technologies is restrained by their inefficient active distribution among potential users, such as teachers, scientists and management personnel of the institution of higher education that sometimes hardly imagine capabilities of teleconferences, post and files servers, and modern technologies for information searching. This problem requires training and re-training the university personnel using all forms of professional development.

There are basic directions that were formulated with a glance of examined basic principles of the information support of education process:

1. Conception of the education information support process development (including usage of computer technologies in every department).

2. Development and creation of information network with a purpose of providing all students with access to networks recourses of the university and Internet;

• formation of Internet class provid-ing students who do not have their own modern computers and teachers and researchers with access to the Internet from their workplaces;

• development of the University Internet Center; organization of open access classes;

• organization and regular conduct of courses and seminars regarding work with new network products (initially for teachers);

• expansion, development and continuous support of WWW-server of the university; creation of WWW-servers of departments; creations of educational WWW-servers;

• formation, development and continuous support of department intranets;

• formation and support of distributive databases in different enterprises and in different academic subjects.

3. Development and implementation of teaching and methodological software for teaching new informational technologies:

• development of computer-aided courses; formation of a technological database for development of electronic and video courses; monitoring, analysis and implementation of modern program products and technologies for developing computer-aided training courses;

• development of the replication, distribution and support of computer-aided training courses; creation of educational video library;

• certification and quality assessment of software tools of training purpose.

4. Accounting organization of teaching courses requiring computer methods of teaching, searching for software tools for education in Kazakhstan and abroad, preparation of recommendations about acquisition of specific packages; a preliminary analysis of suggested systems quality.

5. Initiation of testing center. Organization of students and school students line testing using computer technologies;

development and approbation of new testing methods.

6. Development of distance education system:

• Development of the Concept of Distant Education System on the basis of a university;

• Initiation of a specialized computer class for distance education equipped with multimedia assets and a video class (due to these classes formation, education methods efficiency would be tested. Also it will give an opportunity to implement experimental maintenance of the developed programs and methodological provision of courses, demonstrating various educational technologies capabilities, peculiarities of educational process and methodological and scientific seminars holding);

• Development of informational networks for distance education for correction or addition of individual or general educational programs; organization of access to Kazakhstan and foreign educational databases.

7. Improvement of information technology specialists training:

• improvement of instructional plans and programs in computer science (examination and practical mastering of network technologies);

• training and retraining of teachers;

• expansion and intensification of interaction between Informational Technologies Center and departments;

• organization of Education Center using new (network) informational technologies;

• creation of specialized laboratory for highly skilled specialist training in the field of modern information technologies.

Implementation of the directions mentioned above would practically ensure the activation of scientific and technical recourses usage by university graduates as the main source of revival and progress of the country. Consequently, implementation of these principles would efficiently assist the dynamic increase of economic potential and social prosperity of the Republic of Kazakhstan.

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DEALING WITH SUBSTANCE ABUSING OFFENDERS: A CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM RESPONSE

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Introduction

The criminal justice revolution in the United States that is the subject of this article began with some overworked professionals in Dade County, Florida. These professionals came together from legal, criminal justice, and substance abuse treatment backgrounds to address the difficult issue of repeat offenders with substance abuse problems clogging the criminal justice system. The group determined that a possible solution to these problems would be a complex model linking the authority of the court and the supervision and drug testing services provided by probation with substance abuse treatment. While all the courts and service agencies had worked together in the past, this new model called for a higher and more formalized level of cooperation. The model worked and has continued to work. And as programs have emerged in over 2,400 courts across the United States and globally, the core of the model has changed very little. This model, now known as the Drug Court Model, has revolutionized the system of justice for many substance abusing and addicted offenders.

The intuitive appeal of the drug court model is obvious. It makes sense that the authority of the court should be brought to bear on the daily activities of substance abusing and addicted offenders. Substance abuse treatment in the United States has, historically, maintained rather low levels of retention. The extent to which probation services and incarceration are ineffective at changing substance abusing offender behaviors is well documented. The United States has been on a prison building binge that has one in every 134 residents of the United States incarcerated at midyear 2009 (West, 2009), despite reduced levels of criminality in nearly every category of crime. The United States incarcerates a higher percentage of its citizens than any other country in the world (International Centre for Prison Studies, 2011). Over half of these prisoners report substance abuse or dependence at the time of incarceration (Mumola and Karberg, 2006). The drug court model was designed with the goals of maintaining offenders in community-based treatment and reducing the need for incarceration.

After twenty plus years of operation the empirical evidence supporting the drug court model goes well beyond the initial intuitive appeal. There is a strong body of scientific research that supports the use of drug courts with substance abusing offenders (c.f. Huddleston, Marlowe, and Casebolt, 2008). In 1996 the National Association of Drug Court Professionals (NADCP) with fiscal and oversight support from the Office of Justice Programs (OJP) undertook to codify the drug court model. This codification became known as *The 10 Key Components of Drug Courts* (NADCP, 1997) and while these components have been revised slightly over time for particular circumstances, they still reflect the core elements of drug courts. These components are as follows:

1. Drug courts integrate alcohol and other drug treatment services with justice system case processing.

2. Using a non-adversarial approach, prosecution and defense counsel promote public safety while protecting participants' due process rights.

3. Eligible participants are identified early and promptly placed in the drug court program.

4. Drug courts provide a continuum

of alcohol, drug, and other related treatment and rehabilitation services.

5. Abstinence is monitored by frequent alcohol and other drug testing.

6. A coordinated strategy governs drug court responses to participants' compliance.

7. Ongoing judicial interaction with each drug court participant is essential.

8. Monitoring and evaluation measure the achievement of program goals and gauge effectiveness.

9. Continuing interdisciplinary education promotes effective drug court planning, implementation, and operations.

10. Forging partnerships among drug courts, public agencies, and community-based organizations generates local support and enhances drug court program effectiveness.

These principles have been time-tested and replicated in all types of environments. They remain an excellent resource for individuals seeking to plan and implement a drug treatment court. Overall, research findings concerning drug courts suggest that programs with solid intensive treatment components (Taxman & Bouffard, 2002) and well-rounded ancillary service provision (i.e. educational, mental health, and employment) are the most effective in producing long-term effects (Listwan et al. 2002, and Fluellen & Trone, 2000). It is also well documented that the impact of the judge on the program should not be underestimated (Marlowe, 2002, and Marlowe, Festinger, & Lee, 2004). And, while the research is still limited as to the reasons that the drug court model works (see Goldkamp, White & Robinson, 2001) there is significant literature that does support the effectiveness of the complete model in dealing with non-violent offenders.

This article is focused on the planning, implementation and evaluation of drug treatment courts. Suggestions will be made regarding important considerations

and steps needed to ensure that a new drug court program be ready to answer the questions related to efficiency and effectiveness that are likely to be raised. Some of the mistakes made in the past will be discussed and current research related to *best practices* will be discussed. Further, this article will focus on bringing the growing body of drug court research to practice.

Planning Drug Courts

Planning a drug court is a strategic process that requires several steps. These steps include identifying the scope of the problem, building a collaborative approach among key stakeholders, developing community support, and identifying funding sources. Each of these steps is critical to the development of a healthy drug court program. In many cases, drug courts have been established based upon the drive and desire of one particular person in a community, such as the judge. And while this drive is important, careful planning and consensus building are equally important as the program transforms from an idea to reality.

Analyzing the Drug and Alcohol Problems in a Community

Frequently, the scope of the substance abuse and crime problem in a community is assumed. Leaders in communities are often well aware of the issues related to drug and alcohol abuse in their communities. It is, however, important that these intuitive beliefs be converted into data when planning a drug court. And, while the question of actual substance abuse and related criminality are important, it may be the case that the question of gaining appropriate leverage over potential participants is more important. For example, recently the members of a treatment court team in a somewhat rural jurisdiction were concerned about the low number of referrals that they were receiving. This

court was a municipal court that accepted both drug offenders as well as DUI offenders. They considered the high number of DUI cases in the community as part of their analysis and relied heavily on this number for planning the court program. However, they failed to consider the fact that most first time DUI cases in this jurisdiction received diversion as a sentence and third time DUI offenders were processed in District Court as felonies. Only those offenders who had been arrested for their third DUI had enough jail time associated with the charge to warrant participating in an 18-month treatment court program. Thus, the overall number of DUI arrests was not a very accurate predictor of those who might want to participate in the program.

When identifying a "target population" it is important to consider more that the number of arrests. There are several questions that need to be answered. First, how many people from the community are involved in drug and/or alcohol related criminality as measured by the numbers of arrests? Secondly, how does the prosecutor's office generally deal with these offenders? Are they diverted, processed through plea agreements, or run through court? And which court in the community or district generally has jurisdiction? Finally, what sentences do they receive for their criminality? This last question is important in terms of the leverage that drug courts will have to enroll participants and to hold them accountable when they do enter the program.

The Collaborative Approach

The core of the drug court model is collaboration. This collaboration is most visible in the drug court team meetings and in court. Drug court teams generally consist of members or representatives of the prosecuting attorney's office, the public defender's office, law enforcement, probation, treatment, as well as the judge. Frequently, well-functioning drug court teams include an evaluator. The team is central to decision-making related to the responses of the court to the behaviors of the participants.

In 2008, NPC Research of Portland, Oregon, undertook a project designed to identify *best practices* for treatment courts. Since that time, over 100 courts have been considered using cost and recidivism rates as measures of program performance. After the data was collected on program performance surveys were conducted with program staff. These surveys focused on elements related to the Ten Key Components (NADCP, 1997) as well as other issues related to program function. From this data, 28 key drug court practices were identified as being the most correlated with program performance (e.g. reduced recidivism). These practices have been labeled as the *Best Practices* for drug court programs.

It is important to note that these practices have not been identified as causing the improved outcomes. They are more a list of practices engaged in by the "good" programs from around the country. Many of these practices are linked to programs with longer histories and as such it may be the case that some of the older programs have been able to adapt to variables such as target population and available resources to create an effective system. These practices have been ordered based upon the order of the Ten Key Components (NADCP, 1997). They are not ranked in any way.

Table 1. Practices Related to Positive Outcomes

The drug court has a single treatment provider (that can make other referrals as needed).
The treatment representative is expected to attend all drug court sessions.
The prosecution is expected to attend all drug court team meetings.

The prosecution is expected to attend all drug court sessions.
The defense attorney is expected to attend all drug court team meetings.
The drug court allows non-drug charges (as admission criteria).
The drug court expects 20 days or less to pass from a participant's arrest to drug court entry.
The drug court maintains a caseload of less than 150 participants.
The drug court program is expected to take one year or more for completion.
Drug court has guidelines on the frequency of group treatment sessions that a participant must receive.
Drug court has guidelines on the frequency of individual treatment sessions that a participant must receive.
In the first phase of drug court, drug tests are collected at least 2 times per week.
Drug court staff generally has drug test results within 48 hours.
The drug court requires participants to have greater than 90 days "clean" before graduation.
The drug court decreases the frequency of future treatment sessions as a reward.
Only the judge can provide participants with tangible rewards.
The judge is assigned to drug court for a term greater than 2 years (or indefinitely).
In the first phase of drug court, the participant appears before the judge in court once every 2 weeks or less.
In the final phase of drug court, the participants appear before the judge in court at least once a month.
The drug court maintains data that are critical to monitoring and evaluation in an electronic database (rather than paper files).
The drug court collects program statistics and uses them to modify drug court operations.
The drug court uses the results of program evaluations to modify drug court operations.
The drug court has participated in more than one evaluation conducted by an independent evaluator.
Team members receive training in preparation for the implementation of the drug court.
All new hires to the drug court complete a formal training or orientation.
All members of the drug court team are provided with training.
The drug court team includes a representative from law enforcement (not including probation).
The drug court has a formal partnership with community members that provide services to participants.

(Carey, Finigan and Pukstas, 2008)

It is clear from this list of *best practices* that team membership requires actual participation. While the role of the judge in the process is well documented in the literature (Marlowe, Festinger, & Lee, 2004), it is becoming increasingly apparent that the entire team has significant effect on the outcomes. Research is clear that the regularized interaction between a judge and the drug court client is vital to program success particularly for "high risk" offenders. High risk in this case is defined as those clients with previous failures in drug abuse treatment with antisocial personality disorders (Marlowe, Festinger, & Lee, 2004). Drug court judges volunteer several hours a week to review the status of clients and hold drug

court sessions. For many treatment court clients, the communication with the judge in these hearings is the first and only time in which a legal professional shows an interest in their progress and this serves as a powerful motivator. While the judge generally manages status hearings, the entire team is given the opportunity to have input into the decisions made about clients. After these decisions are made the judge holds a hearing to meet with clients and order that the clients follow the group decisions.

Drug courts also serve as a conduit between substance abuse treatment and the criminal justice system. Historically in the United States, treatment has been considered a completely separate enterprise and at times the treatment process is at odds with the criminal justice paradigm. Drug courts promote a working relationship between treatment, the judiciary, and law enforcement. This relationship promotes continuity of care and helps to retain clients in treatment. National drug court retention rates seem to hover around 70% while 80 to 90% of those simply ordered into treatment drop out before completing 12 months (Marlowe, DeMatteo & Festinger, 2003). A wide body of research supports the idea that "the length of time a patient spent in treatment was a reliable predictor of his or her post-treatment performance" (Huddleston et al, 2005).

However, collaboration for a healthy drug court goes well beyond the actual team. Prior to implementing a treatment court it is important to build relationships with all of the stakeholders in the community. These individuals or entities are crucial to successful program implementation. City and or/county government officials are important as these groups may provide resources. These resources go beyond financial commitments and include space for meetings, court resources, and support. Local businesses are valuable resources for providing incentives and as-

sisting with job placement for participants. Finally, local social service resources such as shelters, mental health facilities, housing services, employment services, medical providers and dental providers can prove invaluable for drug courts seeking to improve the quality of life for participants.

Developing Community Support

Community support is critical to program success. This support can be garnered by opening the doors of the proposed program to interested parties and the media during the development phase. The benefits of having community support are often unexpected and somewhat difficult to quantify. A recent example of this surprise support came to light in a community with a newly established DUI court program. The program coordinator made a practice of trying to find one social group or agency for a presentation each month. During one of these presentations an elderly gentleman who asked if donations could be made to the program approached him. He went on to say that he was an alcoholic and had struggled with the disease for close to 50 years. The program coordinator suggested that he could donate to the program via the non-profit agency established to help manage funds for the program. About six months later an attorney notified the program manager that the gentleman had passed away and left a substantial sum to the program. After going through the probate process the program received close to $200,000 with no strings attached.

Funding Sources

In the United States there are four basic means by which drug courts are funded. The first of these is through federal grants. These grants may be obtained through the Bureau of Justice Assistance (BJA), the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP), and from the Substance Abuse and Mental

Health Authority (SAMHSA). And, while the federal dollars have fluctuated a bit over the years, there has been a strong commitment from the government to help establish these programs. It should be mentioned that federal funds are largely reserved for new or expanding programs and not designed, generally, to support the sustainability of such organizations.

Nearly all of the states have establishing revenue streams for drug courts. In fact, as of April, 2007, forty states had codified funding for treatment court programs (Huddleston, Marlowe, and Casebolt, 2008). Funding from these appropriations generally requires an application to the state agency responsible for the funding. These agencies can be from the judicial or executive branches of government and often have extensive and useful program requirements. Many of these states also require programs to gain local funding matches for all or some of the distribution.

Local funding generally comes in two kinds. In many cases local governments, such as cities or municipalities, will provide resources that can be considered "in-kind" donations to the programs. The donations can be in the form of meeting space, court services, and employee time. And, in many cases, county commissioners and city councils may have some discretionary funds that they can allocate to such programs. A second type of funding is donations from local social and civic organizations. These funds can be used to defray costs or purchase incentives for participants.

Implementation

After the strategic planning has been completed and the team has been assembled it is important to formalize the relationships with the various entities involved. Commonly new drug court programs develop contracts with treatment providers but it is also important to memo-

rialize the expectations of the other member organizations. Memoranda of understanding (MOU) are a good way to accomplish this. These memoranda should be established with all of the agencies represented in the treatment court team as well as those that are providing resources (e.g. local mental health providers). These agreements frequently help to prevent misunderstandings and memorialize expectations on both sides.

The push to establish treatment courts in a community can be from both internal and external sources. Recently, a court in a relatively prosperous tourist destination was pressured by the State Department of Transportation to implement a treatment court program. The community had an extremely high rate of drunken driving cases and the State Department of transportation had available funds for the program. After some cajoling, the judge agreed to accept the funds and attended training. After listening to the speakers at the training, the judge was further convinced of both the need in her community as well as her ability to manage a treatment court program. Upon returning to her community she worked diligently to identify a treatment provider for the new program and held a meeting with the public defender and prosecutor. The County Prosecutor, however, was not sold on the program and maintained that the only appropriate participants for a treatment court program are low-risk offenders. This lack of agreement led to a court that was hampered by the lack of appropriate participation.

Establishing the Behavioral Model

One of the central elements of the drug court is the management of participant behavior through a strategic system of sanctions and incentives designed to encourage pro-social activities. These sanctions and incentives are focused on both distal and proximal goals and may be

formal (e.g. a gift certificate) or informal (e.g. a positive comment from the judge). It is critically important that the program establish a behavioral model that is at once firm yet fair. As the primary figure of authority within the treatment court program, the judge most frequently is the one delivering the sanctions and incentives during the court sessions. There is a strong body of literature available that prescribes the appropriate approach for the behavioral model (c.f. Arabia, et al., 2008). It is important to define the proximal and distal goals that participant have during the program. For example, an addict with a long history of substance abuse is likely to relapse during the early phases of the program. For these individuals treatment attendance is the most critical proximal goal while complete sobriety may be a more distal goal. As such, attendance should be treated as the most important behavior during the early phases of the program and sanctions or rewards should be used accordingly.

The behavioral model employed in drug courts requires a high level of community-based supervision and frequent randomized drug and alcohol testing. These two components are central to the planning of a new program. Most often, local probation resources work well for the community supervision aspect of the program.

Evaluation

One of the most important and profitable tools for ensuring program success is the use of scientifically driven process and outcome evaluation. Process evaluations should be considered tools for the management of a productive program. They provide a point-in-time assessment of program performance and a comparison to the known best practices of treatment courts. Process evaluations allow program managers to seek the answers to important questions they have related to the func-

tioning of their programs. As such, there are two important elements that bear mentioning in relation to these evaluations. First, the evaluations should be driven by the management teams' needs. While there are standards by which programs should be measured including best practices and the Ten Key Components (both mentioned in detail above), the real crux of the evaluation should be centered on the issues being faced by the program in question.

One of the common issues that arise in treatment court evaluations is the question of how best to use the limited resources available to treatment court teams. As programs grow the time requirements alone can become quite daunting. Many programs struggle with how to provide the "right" services for their population. A recent program evaluation identified just this problem. The program was brimming with participants and turning away appropriate candidates due to lack of space. The evaluator was familiar with recent research regarding the use of risk/needs assessment to determine the appropriate level of care for program participants. It was determined through careful analysis of the program population and the potential participants on a waiting list that many actually would be better suited for a program with less intensive supervision but similar treatment levels. These individuals were deemed low risk/high need and were frequently members of the community who were in relatively good standing (i.e. holding a job and supporting a family). The team decided to open a "Track Two" program that had as its major elements intensive treatment but less constant oversight. The early returns on this program have been promising and the team is delighted to be able to serve a needy population without further stretching the already thin resources of the program.

Performance Measures

In the spring of 2006 the National Drug Court Institute published performance measures for drug courts that were based upon a growing body of research in the fields of substance abuse and drug courts (Heck, 2006). The drug court logic model suggests that short-term or proximal program goals such as sobriety and reduced recidivism, lead to long-term, or distal, outcomes. Based upon research related to substance abusing offenders in the criminal justice system the goals of program retention, participant sobriety, and reduced recidivism provide a strong basis for expectation of improved long-term outcomes for program participants (Taxman, 1998). Additionally, it is important to discuss the amount of services provided to participant while they are in the program. This is more a measure of program functionality than expected outcomes.

Retention

Retention is calculated as a ration of those who complete a program over all of those who enter the program given a limited time frame. Nationally, adult drug courts report a retention rate of approximately 67 to 71% (Huddleston et al, 2004). However, this rate varies widely from location to location. Factors that influence retention include the amount of leverage that the court has over participants as well as the severity and type of criminal and substance abuse history of the participants. Interestingly, while drug courts have frequently been accused of selecting clients that are likely to succeed even without intervention, the data suggest that those with longer criminal histories and more severe alcohol of drug issues tend to do better in drug courts when compared with those with limited criminal and substance abuse exposure. It is unambiguous in the literature that length of stay in treatment beyond a minimum threshold (generally 90 days) improves outcomes for

clients.

Sobriety

Sobriety is an important goal for any treatment court program. Sobriety is most reliably measured using drug and alcohol screens. Self-reported data in this area is not considered reliable although many supplemental programs such as Alcoholics Anonymous allow substance abusers and addicts to define their own sobriety dates. All drug screens should be documented. One of the common mistakes made by programs is that they retain information only on dirty drug or alcohol tests. This method ignores some of the most valuable data related to programmatic outcomes. Further, the literature is unambiguous about the positive pro-social effects of clean time for addicted offenders (Satel, 1999).

Recidivism

Recidivism is simply defined as the rate at which drug court participants reoffend. This usually includes any types of new offenses with the exception of technical violations of probation and traffic or other infractions handled by a citation. And, while the concept is simple to define it is often very difficult to gain consensus on measurement. After much debate the National Research Advisory Committee determined that the best means for measuring recidivism in a local court program during the evaluation process is through the use of arrest statistics. This choice is based upon several factors. These factors include the relative ease of accessing these numbers as well as the need for treatment court teams to respond quickly to arrests of offenders in the programs.

Services

Another important measure of programmatic performance is the number and variety of services provided to treatment court participants. It is important to ensure

that the myriad and varied needs of the program participants are considered and that these needs are met when feasible. One of the biggest lessons learned in the drug court movement was the high level of co-occurring disorders that were evidenced in the populations being served. It was wrongfully assumed by many program managers and judges that the primary and only major problem facing participants was related to substance abuse. As time passed it became increasingly clear that mental illness was a common companion of substance abuse and those programs that failed to consider and treat this problem were destined to suffer with relatively poor outcomes.

Process Evaluations

Normatively, an objective outsider should conduct the process evaluation with both experience conducting evaluations and knowledge of the field. Process evaluations are tools that should be used for program improvement. They should focus on elements of the program such as the extent to which the program is attaining its goals or the appropriateness of the treatment given the individual offender's assessment. A good description of the important questions for process evaluations can be found in Local Drug Court Research: Navigating performance measures and process evaluations (Heck, 2006, available on-line at www.ndci.org). During the early years of the federal funding for drug courts there was a requirement that drug court grantees performed "evaluations" on their programs. However, few, if any, guidelines were given to programs establishing of what a process evaluation should consist. Evaluations were sent in from all over the country and when reviewed by knowledgeable researchers it was determined that the information gathered in these "evaluations" was so scattered and misguided as to be completely useless. In many cases the lo-

cal program assigned a clerk or some other internal program staff to perform the evaluation.

Some Common Mistakes

There are several mistakes that are commonly made by drug court teams eager to begin work. The first of these is failing to adequately prepare for implementation. Many programs seem to rush forward without training and this can lead to mistakes and poor outcomes. For example, a program was recently established in a relatively urban jurisdiction. The prosecutor in this jurisdiction was only interested in working with the drug court if it was handled as a diversion program for low level and first time offenders. His reasoning was that he did not want to place his community at risk by keeping individuals with serious addiction problems in the community. As might be expected, the results were mixed. Many of the participants felt as if the intensity of the program was overkill and many who really needed the services of a drug court were excluded from consideration. After attending drug court training, the prosecutor was convinced that the program should be expanded to include those offenders with more serious substance abuse and criminal histories. Outcomes changed noticeably and the program started to flourish.

Failing to formalize relationships is another common mistake. In the rush to begin accepting clients that desperately need services, many programs rely on handshake agreements and informal relationships. One such program was recently confronted with the very real possibility of shutting their doors because of a failure to memorialize agreements. In this case it was an agreement with a local treatment provider. The program had been running smoothly until a dispute emerged between the treatment personnel and the judge about how best to manage a particular client. As the dispute escalated the treatment

provider simply decided that he could no longer work with the drug court program and suddenly all of the program participants were without treatment services. Fortunately this situation resolved itself quickly but the effects of not having a contractual relationship were potentially devastating.

Another common mistake is that programs take data for granted. It is impossible to evaluate a program or measure the successes of a program without adequate data. For many years programs frequently kept paper files in filing cabinets as a means for tracking program activity. This makes evaluation and research extremely time consumptive and expensive. There are several "off the shelf" drug court electronic databases and few good reasons not to invest in such a tool.

Conclusion

During the past twenty years the drug court model has grown and prospered around the United States and abroad. The growth has been amazing given the difficulty of making changes in any criminal justice related enterprise. This growth, however, has not been without the pains that go along with such changes. As courts continue to mature it is likely that there will be more changes. However, treatment courts serve an area of incredible need. And, as such it is incumbent upon those of us who practice or research in the field to ensure that the best information is available and the best practices are followed. We have learned a great deal since the first drug court was established in 1989. However, we have much more to learn. Unfortunately, mistakes and oversights in drug courts are seen in the lives of the program participants and their families. And this is a cost that is simply too high to bear.

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CONSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK OF POLITICAL ORDER AND ETHNOPOLITICAL CLASHES IN THE REPUBLIC OF KAZAKHSTAN

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A constitution is a code of legal norms which has supreme legal force and regulates the basis for relations between a person and society on the one part and the state on the other part. A constitution has a sociopolitical dimension, which means that it is a kind of a social contract which regulates the political interests of social groups. Failing such a contract it would be difficult to reach consensus in the society. [1] However, process of discussion and adoption of the Constitution can trigger off political and legal conflicts.

Legal conflicts connected with mass events have certain features. As a rule, these are political and ethnic relations between a group of population, social strata and political parties. Legal aspect of such mutual relations does not arise at once instead it is being formed as far as relations are get institutionalized. For instance, subject of self-determination of a nation, idea of establishment of the state and then proclamation of sovereignty, delineation of state borders, etc. arises in an ethnopolitical conflict. It is impossible to clench all these matters without adoption of relevant legal acts. Meanwhile, legal aspect of a conflict is formed from that moment and further it can evolve within legal procedures. Ethnopolitical confrontations in Kazakhstan between the Kazakh and the Russian population during discussion and approval of the Constitution of the country had the very same features.

One of points at issue was a text of the preamble of the Constitution which reads as follows: "We, the people of Kazakhstan, united by a common historic fate, creating a state on the indigenous Kazakh land … accept this Constitution.". [2] As a rule preamble of the Constitution sets out conceptual provisions which represent its platform and axiological values which convey philosophy of the basic law of a country.

Preamble of the Constitution purports that the people of Kazakhstan is a main subject and is a sole source of state power in the country. However, it contains not only political and legal aspect but also historical and cultural context. On the one

hand it reflects the existing political reality, i.e. polyethnic composition of the population. On the other hand this wording of the preamble tried to find an idea and political compromise which would help reach some common denominator in polar positions held at that time by representatives of the Kazakh and the Russian ethnicities in their views of both their history and shared political future. Indeed the wording "people united by a common historic fate" is an appeal to collective historical memory which implies common achievements, experience and hardships with an urge to proceed to creating common statehood, to become a full subject of joint future for every ethnos and national minority residing in the republic. At that mentioning of "the indigenous Kazakh land" in the Constitution on the one hand is an idea which confirms a thought of a continuous process of ethnogenesis of the Kazakh nation and on the other hand a stating fact of new political reality, i.e. proclamation of the Republic of Kazakhstan. It only confirms the thought that citizens in this state must not be derogated from their rights in terms of ethnic affiliation and at the same time priority should be given to symbols, standards and values of the Kazakh culture during a process of political socialization of a person. That is why this formula of interethnic consensus is quite compromise both in terms of content and form and it has been fixed in the Constitution of the country.

Another matter of dispute between representatives of the Kazakh and the Russian ethnicities was clause 1 article 2 of the Constitution of the Republic of Kazakhstan "The Republic of Kazakhstan is a unitary state with a presidential form of government." [3] Following USSR collapse former Soviet republics marked their political frontiers which divided previously uniform space into separate territories. Territories of residency of different ethnicities in the Soviet Union did not al-

ways coincide with the administrative borders. The former USSR had the widest settlement of the Russian ethnos. One of biggest Russian diasporas outside their historical native land stayed in Kazakhstan. If one studies geography of settlement of the Russian ethnos in Kazakhstan, the Russians made the bulk of the urban population and major industrial centers as well as in northern and north-western regions of Kazakhstan. That fact was attributed to both socioeconomic and historical and geographic reasons.

Northeastern region of Kazakhstan was turning into one of seats of separatist attitude in the republic. That time the region had strong pro-Russian attitudes. Moreover, such aspirations were heated by activities of informal regional leaders and politicians of Republic-wide and Union-wide level. In particular, well-known deputies of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR Petrushenko A., Vassilyeva T., and deputies of the Republic's Parliament Galenko A., Vodolazov A. were active organizers of numerous political separatist campaigns. In particular, Vassilyeva T. has repeatedly advocated separation of the right bank of Irtysh River of Kazakhstan and its joining Russia or establishment of a national autonomy. [4] Developments following a Transdniestria variant could have lead to bad political after-effects.

Another separatism seat was formed in western Kazakhstan when in June 1990 Ural Cossacks established a revival committee which adopted the Declaration of establishment of autonomy for Ural Cossacks, revision of the borders of the Kazakh SSR, restoration of the territorial division of Russian in the borders existing before 1917. The adopted manifest substantiated separation of a number of oblasts of Kazakhstan to the benefit of Russia. Anti-separatism meetings held in cities of the republic were a response to that initiative. Azat public movement came up with that idea and it managed to

mobilize thousands of supporters against celebration of 400 years of service of autocracy by Ural Cossaks.

Tension began to get more exacerbated on September 15, when 800 representatives of the Cossak communities wearing military uniform presented themselves in the Cathedral of Christ the Saviour. The atmosphere reached its peak at midday. The authorities decided to take the Cossaks away to railway stations and to send them to their homes in order to avoid outrages. Departure of Cossaks and then supporters of Azat GDK who earlier arrived in the city allowed easing tension which finally subsided. [5]

Another subject of ethnopolitical conflict was a principle of single citizenship which is fixed in clause 3 article 10 of the Constitution reading as follows "Foreign citizenship of a citizen of the Republic shall not be recognized." [6] In such manner it was legislatively determined that no citizen of Kazakhstan can have valid citizenship of any other state. Citizen of Kazakhstan can receive and have citizenship of Kazakhstan provided that he/she simultaneously does not have any other citizenship.

At that time representatives of not indigenous population accounted for 60% in the ethnic structure of the republic. Moreover, a lot of them had their historical native land, for instance, ethnic Germans, Poles, Greeks. That is why it was impossible for the principle of single citizenship not to become a subject of high-pitched arguments in poliethnic cultural environment. However, it was still the ethnic Russians who voiced the strongest protest in that problem. Several reasons were behind such behavior. First, disagreement with a loss of one big native land and their formerly dominating politico-economical and sociocultural status in it and second, concerns in connection with possible complication of trade and economic and humanitarian relations between neighboring regions of the two countries.

Nevertheless the Constitution has recognized single citizenship principle which was advocated by national patriotic forces and that decision was substantiated by the following arguments of political and legal nature. Military service in Kazakhstan is universal and every citizen of conscription age must do military service for a regular term in the armed forces of the country. It is also a constitutional obligation of a citizen which is confirmed in the Constitution where it is stated that protection of the Republic of Kazakhstan is a solemn duty and obligation of each its citizen. In case if any citizen of Kazakhstan has citizenship of another state it will be impossible for such citizen to discharge this constitutional obligation to protect his native land because foreign citizens do not have a right to serve in the Armed Forces of the Republic of Kazakhstan.

Another political and legal conflict which would arise in case if dual citizenship principle was approved in the republic is that it would be impossible for any citizen to exercise his/her elective right, namely to be elected and to elect to the state agencies, to participate in republicwide referendums or to have access to civil service because due to legal and political reasons such rights cannot be recognized for a citizen of any other nation. This principle has also been fixed in the Constitution of Kazakhstan.

Still key point at issue was determination of a status of the Kazakh language and the Russian language and political and legal position of Kazakhstan as a sovereign nation. 1990s were featured with growing tension in northern regions caused by ambiguous response of the Russian speaking population with respect to the status of languages and system of state in Kazakhstan. In late November a local Soviet in Ust-Kamenogorsk initiated amendments to a draft of new Constitution of the Republic of Kazakhstan. The coun-

try began discussing a new version of the basic law which entailed growing tension on inter-ethnic grounds.

The population began to send to Ust-Kamenogorsk Soviet hundreds of remarks, amendments and suggestions related to a draft of the new Constitution. Essentially they concerned status of the languages, establishment of two chambers in the Parliament, i.e. Soviet of the Republic and Sovient of Nationalities, deleting the word "unitary" from draft wording. Deputies of the City Soviet sent their proposals to Almaty. Not all suggestions were adopted and it caused outcry of a part of the population voiced at large-scale meetings throughout the republic. [7].

Discussion of a constitutional status of the state language has caused maximum exacerbation in Kazakhstan's society. The Constitution assigns state status to the Kazakh language while the Russian language is used along with it in state organizations and bodies of local self-government and the state sees to creating conditions for studying and developing languages of the people of Kazakhstan. [8]

National and patriotic movements were not broadly developed in post Soviet Kazakhstan due to historical and political reasons. Nationalism ideology failed in the republic and did not develop into a dominating trend of internal policy. That is why history of Kazakhstan and especially the language gained meaning of a national idea among national patriots. They assigned to the language a part of rousing national feeling of the Kazakhs which was amorphous at that time and integration of the people based on political idea. Language was used as a tool to identify the Kazakh ethnos and to shape a new sociocultural contest of its existence in political and legal conditions of the post Soviet period. But on the other hand having provided the Kazakh language with a status of an equivalent of the national idea it was difficult to avoid assigning sacral

meaning to it. The Kazakh language was begun to be perceived as a treasury of the national culture and therefore its role and position were determined by the moral and ethical mission which was imposed on it in the work of reviving national self-awareness.

Meanwhile, representatives of Slavic movements of Kazakhstan maintained an opposite view of the language problem. In their opinion the Russian language also has to be assigned status of the state language. Arguments in favor of that stance were its popularity in the post soviet space, wide sphere of application in the republic, poliethnic composition of Kazakhstan's population. However, status of the official language granted to the Russian language the field of use and opportunities of application of which are not less than those compared to the Kazakh even though guaranteed by the Constitution caused their vigorous protests. Slavic public movements held several campaigns including pickets, meetings, demonstrations and even arranged a number of publications in printed mass media and speeches on TV where they stated their disagreement with unequal in their opinion status of the languages. They argued that it indicated obvious discrimination in terms of language. Thus, a linguistic problem despite constitutional guarantees of ensuring full functioning of the languages was in their opinion direct consequence of unequal legal status of the languages.

It should be said that those statements of representatives of the two ethnoses contained more commitment and political assessment rather than constitutional and legal since in fact a language is rather a tool than a feature of political status or sacred value. First of all it is a tool of communication and exchange of information. And this is functional mission of the use of language. Even though an opportunity to settle linguistic clashes within the constitutional and legal process

is first of all connected with use of a functional approach to settlement of language-related problems.

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METHODS OF LEGAL TAX REGULATIONS

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The state realizes its taxation activity using certain methods. Taxation activity methods are means and techniques, with the help of which the state performs its functions in the sphere of taxation.

Taxation methods include not only promulgation of regulatory legal acts, which directly determine rights and duties of subjects and participants of tax relations, but also a range of other legal acts and legally significant activities.

Major legal methods of the state tax system regulation are given in Picture 1.

Let us briefly discuss characteristics of methods of legal tax system regulation in the Republic of Kazakhstan.

The first and the major method is promulgation of regulatory legal acts by authorized state bodies. By means of these acts the state establishes and enforces taxes, determines rights and obligations of subjects and participants of tax relations (taxpayers in the first place), defines legal responsibility for tax law infringement, forms the structure and determines the competence of its tax bodies. The totality of these acts represents tax legislation of the state. Tax Code uses the term "Tax and duties law" in this case.

Adoption of any regulatory legal act (including the law of the Republic of Kazakhstan), which concerns taxation, but is not provided for by the Tax Code, make this act invalid and consequently leading to no legal aftereffects.

Tax Code states that tax legislation is effective in the entire territory of the Republic of Kazakhstan and applies to all individuals and legal entities, and their structural departments (clause 1, art. 3, TC).

Giving characteristics to taxation regulation in the Republic of Kazakhstan at the Constitutional level, we can single out its following peculiar features.

Article 35 of the Constitution of the Republic of Kazakhstan says: "Payment of legally established taxes, fees and other obligatory payments shall be a duty and responsibility of everyone".

In spite of its laconism the article has a very substantial meaning.
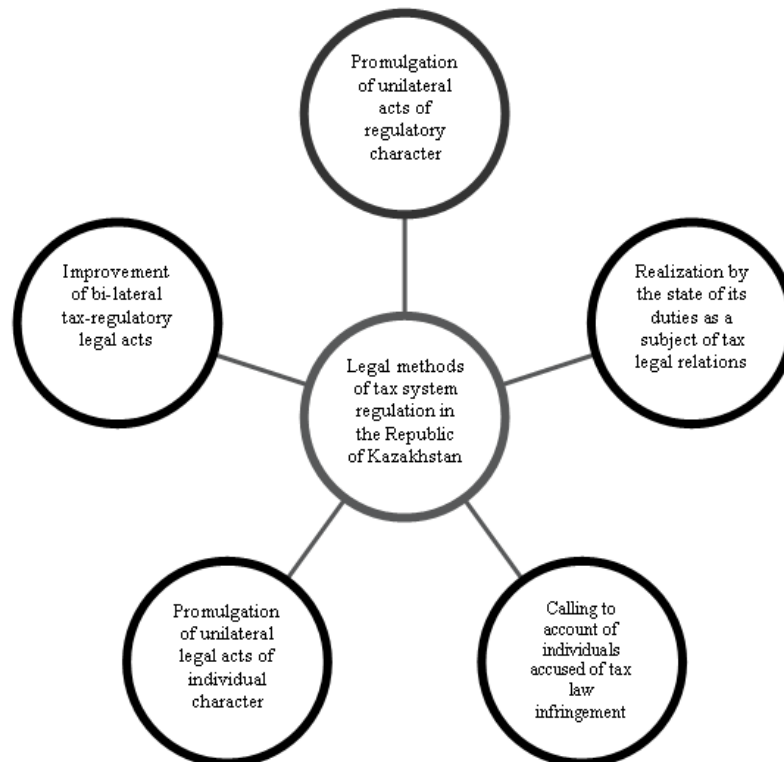
Picture 1 - Legal methods of tax system regulation in the Republic of Kazakhstan

First of all it provides for the duty to pay taxes by everyone which is the established principle of universality of taxation. Besides, we need to note that this article is located in part II of the Constitutions and has a title "Rights of the individual and citizen". Consequently, th is duty to make payments applies only to individual tax payers.

Let us also mention that some authors interpret the article quite broadly saying that it applies not only to citizen tax payers, but also to officials of organizations-taxpayers, i.e. it applies to legal entities, too.

Everything said does not mean that legal entities are not obliged to pay taxes – the difference between them and individual tax payers lies in the fact that the obligation of citizens to pay taxes is of Constitutional character while the obligation to pay taxes by legal entities is determined by Tax Code.

In the second place, paying taxes is defined as an obligation for all citizens, which makes it different from any voluntary payments or dues paying which is a necessity resulted from signing agreements.

The second method of state tax system regulation is adoption of individual legal acts on taxation.

Individual legal regulatory acts are mostly applied when taxes are paid in compliance with tax notification or tax notice sent to a tax payer by taxation authorities. This method of tax payment is used in paying individual property tax, when taxation authorities calculate the tax sum and sends a tax payer the tax notification against which the taxpayer pays taxes.

Tax notification is a written message sent to a tax payer by a taxation body which states the obligation for a taxpayer to pay taxes.

This notification is characterized by all features of an individual legal act, i.e. it regulates certain tax law infringements, is addressed to a certain person, and is of

single use. This act generates the obligation with the person to whom it is addressed, is obligatory and compulsory, which is characteristic of any legal acts.

The notification contains a full name or a full title of the taxpayer, taxpayer registration number, date of notification, tax obligation sum, tax obligation discharge requirement, grounds for notification, taxation order.

The notification must be handed to a taxpayer or the taxpayer's representative, signed by them or there should be another way to confirm notification sending and receiving.

Tax notification as a form of individual legal act is used in quite varied cases and situations.

Thus, tax notification is used in those cases when calculation of a tax sum is made by a taxation agency. It is also used in calculation of tax sums, penalty fees and fine sums as a result of a tax audit, and also as a means to ensure an obligation discharge concerning outstanding tax obligation and compulsory collection of tax arrears.

Elimination of infringements revealed as a result of office control can also become the subject of tax notification. This notification can be connected or cannot be connected with payment by a taxpayer of a certain sum of money and contain, for example, the requirement to eliminate infringements of tax legislation.

Tax notification can be addressed not only to the taxpayer but also can be sent to a tax agent, and can used to convert the penalty to money on bank accounts of taxpayer's debtors.

Tax Code determines the date for each tax notification fulfillment.

The third method of state tax system regulation is execution of bilateral tax legal acts.

The first place among such acts belongs to a tax agreement.

Currently the use by the constitution of a tax agreement is connected with the institute of the so called investment tax preferences.

Investment tax preferences are granted in corporate income tax and property tax.

The preference consists in granting to a taxpayer who invests means into creation of new enterprises or extension and renovation of the existing ones of a right to additional deduction from an aggregate annual income and also in granting such taxpayer with exemption from property taxes on fixed assets put into operation within the frame of an investment project (investment program).

The preference is given to a taxpayer in accordance with the contract signed by the authorized state agency which determines the date of the preference commencement.

Corporate income tax preferences give the taxpayer a right to deduction from the aggregate annual income of a cost of fixed assets put into operation with equals shares depending on the period of preference existence.

Property tax preference consists in granting exemption from paying tax on property put into operation within the frames of investment project (investment program) with fixed assets.

Preference effectiveness period is determined in each separate case depending on investment size and cost recovery but cannot exceed five years.

In the world international practice tax agreement and tax preferences it brings are usually referred to as "tax credit" or "investment tax credit".

Both tax credit and investment tax credit are the means of changing the tax payment date or, to be more exact, shifting this date to a later period of time. Such change in tax payment date does not create a new tax obligation.

Characterizing tax legal agreement we should mention the following of its

features:

- this agreement serves as a method of performing by the state of its tax activity;

- legal tax agreement is a method of regulation of social relations which according to their economic properties are of tax character;

- one of the parties in this tax legal agreement is an authorized state body, acting on behalf of the state and for the benefit of the state and the other party is the taxpayer;

- the parties in the tax legal agreement are not equal in their rights in civil-legal sense. This type of agreement is used for partial regulation (in addition to the imperative methods regulating this relation in general) which is of tax legal character, i.e. of state-authoritative character;

- tax legal agreement as any other type of agreement is based on agreement of the parties.

Tax legal agreement is a type of financial legal agreement and has its peculiar specific features determined by the peculiarities of material tax relations regulated with the help of this agreement. This agreement is treated according to the same criteria that are put forth to other types of agreements. To the civil legal regulations, in particular.

The forth method of regulation is the realization (by the authorized body) of the rights and obligations as the subject of a certain tax legal relationship.

The process of realization of the state tax activity gives rise to multiple tax legal relations (both material and organizational). The most interesting relations in this case are material tax legal relations since in accordance with them the state realizes its major taxation objective – receives money which is the sense and purpose of tax activity.

Though substantial tax legal relations are "authority-subject" relations (i.e. relations of legal inequality), nevertheless each subject of this relation has both rights and obligations. The state in this legal relationship is represented by the state body which has both rights and obligations both as a state representative and as the ingenious participant of this legal relation.

The major objective of a taxation agency as a state representative in substantial tax legal relation and as its ingenious participant is ensuring discharge of tax obligations by the taxpayer, i.e. securing complete and timely tax payment.

For these purposes the state authorizes this agency with legal power and provides for different legal mechanisms of collecting tax, and, at the same time, vests the othr party with certain responsibilities.

Thus, state bodies have the right to exercise tax control in the order prescribed by the Tax Code, check taxpayer's pecuniary documents, account books, records, budgets, cash, securities, calculations, declarations and other documents related to tax obligations, demand from the taxpayer to provide documents concerning calculation and payment (withholding and transfer) of taxes, explanations concerning the way the documents are filled out, and also documents confirming correctness of calculation and timely payment of taxes, withdraw taxpayer's documents testifying to any tax infringements, examine all objects used to generate revenue regardless of their location, make an inventory of taxpayer's property (except taxpayer's living premises), receive information from banks about taxpayer's bank accounts and flow of funds, determine tax obligation of the taxpayer using indirect methods, bring a case before a court in accordance with the legislation of the Republic of Kazakhstan and so on.

This activity being a legally important unilateral activity of the

authorized state agencies serves as a method of exercising by the state of its tax activity.

The fifth method of state tax system regulation is calling to legal account of individuals accused of tax law infringements.

The state can use different types of legal liability for tax law infringement. The two most frequently used type of legal liability are criminal and administrative ones, which are provided for by the Criminal Code and Administrative Infraction Code.

It is widely accepted that tax law infringements are divided into pecuniary and formal ones. According to some of the authors the major difference between them consists in the fact that pecuniary infringements result in damaging the state with uncollected or late payments and formal infringements have no sign of damage, it is enough to have formal breach of a certain tax law norm. The example of such tax law infringement is the refusal to provide documents by the request of a taxation body. Such refusal is considered tax law infringement no matter whether tax nonpayment took place or not.

Depending on the type of tax aw infringement there are currently two types of legal liability: criminal and administrative.

Bringing infringer of a tax law to account the state, as a rule, pursues two goals.

The first one is securing the discharge of tax obligations, the core of which is paying the tax. This is especially characteristic of the situation when the taxpayer fails to pay the tax, pays it in a smaller amount or fails to pay the tax before the due date. Bringing to account such taxpayer the state at the same time makes him perform the tax obligations in a proper manner.

The second objective of legal liability for tax law infringement is

punishment of a taxpayer which serves as a means of disciplining and prevention of tax law breaches.

The measure of administrative legal liability as it is provided for by Article 16 of Administrative Infraction Code is the administrative fine.

Measures of conditional legal liability as it is provided for by Articles 221 and 222 of the Criminal Code are fines, public works, deprivation of a right to take certain positions and be involved in certain activity.

Thus, the topic of taxes, their legal securing and functioning is one of the most debated and urgent topics in our society. This is easy to explain: taxes are the concentration of interests of all social classes and individuals; taxes are the means of development of pecuniary basis for the contemporary state existence and functioning, and in socially oriented state taxes is the source of financing of social programs in which the society as a whole is interested.

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THE AMERICAN SOCIETY OF THE FIRST PART OF THE XIX CENTURY: AN INTERPRETATION BY ALEXIS DE TOCQUEVILLE

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A famous French historian, sociologist, politologist of the 19th century Alexis de Tocqueville lived and worked in the period of formation and consolidation in the western societies of bourgeois social and political system called "democracy" by the scientists of that time. The wish to provide stable advancing development for a new type of social relations, develop mechanisms of control over their progress induced de Tocqueville to study this society.

The researcher made his analysis based on materials of USA social development history of the first half of the 19th century and gave an account of the research in his famous work "American Democracy". His first book was completed in 1835, the second book was finished in 1840.

The concept of American democracy as a social phenomenon is a considerable part of de Tocqueville's ideas and, at the same time, it is quite ambiguous, it provokes discussion and, consequently, requires further research. The article makes an attempt to study the topic. We need to note here that in this article we do not make an attempt to describe the content of the category "democracy" as a major element of de Tocqueville's political philosophy. This problem has been successfully solved by the modern science [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9].

De Tocqueville analyzed American democracy in accordance with his perception of the phenomenon as a complex social and political system. A major part of the first book about the states of North America studies democracy as a political phenomenon, the second part of the book describes democracy as a social phenomenon.

De Tocqueville viewed democratic society as a type of organization based on its immanent feature which is termed as "equality of conditions of human existence" [10, c. 27]. He considered a movement toward democracy as a trancecendent process, directed at the future from the remote past.

At the same time, the notion "democracy" in de Tocqueville's discourse had a specific historical meaning. By using this word the scientist designated bourgeois society that superseded feudal-aristocratic society. Essential characteristics of this phenomenon are drawn in this case from the antithesis "aristocracy-democracy". "Aristocracy" in this context meant a feudal society. "Democracy", at that stage of the evolution of this phenomenon, stood for a bourgeois society.

De Tocqueville vested the society with such generic features as class privilege of the elite, its civil full rights, wealth and enlightenment, opposed by class underpriviledge, legal vulnerability, poverty and ignorance of masses. It's a polar society, the society of extremes, legal and class inequality, represented by people "very big and very small, very rich and poor, very educated and ignorant" [10, c. 504].

In contrast to this a democratic society based on "equal conditions for human existence" is viewed by the French historian as an averaged and balanced society lacking class differences, based on freedom of entrepreneurial activity, humaneness of laws, mild morals, relative uniformity of mental guidelines and way of life, oriented on the good of the majority [10, pp. 27, 31, 61, 492].

De Tocqueville considered civil equality as one of the most considerable

values of a democratic society, a kind of imperative for the behavior of its citizens, sameness of needs, goals and interests. Equality is viewed as the element of a natural right of every person to self-realization, life, freedom, property [10, pp. 61, 377].

In the basis of people's commitment to ideals of equity the scientist also saw political premises. Thereupon he mentioned that the lower classes of the society always had a purpose to "push the representatives of the higher classes aside from state management affairs" [10, p. 161]. The scientist called this aspiration "democracy instinct" or "natural sense" [10, p. 162], and specified that aspiration to equality had always existed, but in the New time era it made a resolute break through in the destruction of class-feudal society and creation of class-lacking political legal bourgeois society [10, p. 373]. Equity was the distinctive feature of a new epoch; its priority being the distinctive goal of a mass consciousness, a behavior stereotype for people of democratic society [10, p. 372].

De Tocqueville considered the process of establishing "equal conditions for people's existence" irreversible, "predestined from above inevitability", which has "universal long-term character" [10, p. 29]. He pointed at the fact that in the process of its establishment and evolution the democratic process can change its social meaning, that its steadfast development can in perspective outgrow the frames of social relations and become a real threat to "bourgeoisie and the rich" [10, p. 29].

The concept of equality formulated by de Tocqueville in the mid of the 19th century and conveyed in his first book "Democracy in America" was criticized by its researches. John Stuart Mill, who appreciated works of de Tocqueville, at the same time believed that the latter erroneously mixed "effect of democracy with the effect of civilization", united "in one ab-stract idea all trends of a new commercial society and gave them a name of democracy" [11, p. 198].

The author of research about American liberalism A.V.Valyuzhenich spoke about de Tocqueville as a researcher who is "incapable or unwilling to see behind seemingly democratic social and political institutions of the United States", who "overpassed the facts of drastic economic and political inequality, increasing as capitalism was evolving" [12, p. 78-79].

Negative assessments of such kind make it necessary to specify what the researcher meant by "equal conditions of human existence" in a social sense. Search for the answers to this question brings us to the analysis of the bourgeois society stratification model, built by the author of "Democracy in America".

The nature of this model consists in the following. Invariable feature of any social system according to de Tocqueville is the presence in its structure of the three basic gradations: the rich, including the wealthiest citizens; the middle class, including all those who "being not wealthy enjoy comfortable living"; and the poor – "those, who own small property or do not own anything and make their living from doing work provided by the representatives of the first two classes" [10, p. 169].

Depending on the type of a social system the quantitative characteristic of these three classes changes [10, p. 169]. In aristocratic societies the majority is made of the poor, their poverty is "hereditary" and "inescapable"; the class of the rich is not numerous, their incomes are connected with land domains, the social status is hereditary; the middle class is also not numerous [10, p. 459].

Stratification of a democratic society was viewed by the scientist as substantially different. He connected it specific character with democratic equality. In this aspect he characterized "equal conditions of human existence" as a certain leveling

process during which "almost all extremes are softened and subdued, everything which is outstanding is obliterated, giving way to something averaged which neither stands out nor sinks too low, which is neither brilliant nor too miserable as it was before" [10, p. 504].

This property of equality in de Tocqueville's opinion in a certain way transformed property relations, averaging quantity of the riches of certain [10, p.504]. defining American democratic society of his time, he emphasized this peculiar feature: the poor in this society are "quite few in number", "there are no proletarians in America" [10, p. 188]; "the rich are also not numerous"; property status is not fixed by the class division and thus is very variable [10, p. 459]. The majority of citizens in the USA are proprietors [10, p. 170].

In their social structure between the two polar conditions of poverty and wealth de Tocqueville found "countless numbers of almost equal people, who can be called neither rich nor poor in the full sense of these words, whose property was substantial enough for them to want order, but insufficient to arouse envy" [10, p. 460].

The thinker considered this property of a democratic society its constituent feature, generic feature, the peculiarity that differed it from all previous forms of society. He viewed the democracy that took shape as a society of proprietors, a social system in which the proprietor outnumbered those who didn't own anything.

Thus, the category "equal conditions of human existence" in de Tocquevill's theory does not mean political, property or intellectual homogeneity of a democratic society. It expresses the equality of rights, the equality of opportunities, civil equality, provision of conditions necessary for welfare of the majority, not everyone, dominance of proprietor of an average income, "the middle classes". This meaning of de Tocqueville's theory is mentioned by the majority of the researchers of his works [13, 14, 15, 16].

De Tocqueville saw great benefits in this peculiarity of a democratic society. He thought that a society arranged in this way corresponds to the ideals of justice. Many of its features are known to be severely and fairly criticized; more than once the scientist expressed his regret concerning the fact that grandeur and brilliance of aristocratic societies are irrevocable, and nevertheless he said: "It is natural to believe that the creator and guardian of people would be glad to see flourishing of all people, not certain individuals; … It is possible that the equality is not developed enough, but it is more fair, and this fairness adds grandeur and beauty to it" [10, p. 504]. A democratic society was viewed by the thinker as the reasonable world order, which provided the opportunity to harmonize the interests of all social classes, preserving the relations of private property, civil equality and political freedom.

A great virtue of a democratic organization of the social relations according to de Tocqueville is the fact that this organization develops in each member of society respect to property, a developed sense of property, healthy conservatism, carefulness, temperance of social behaviour, ability to a social compromise, creates on this basis an appropriate political culture.

This purpose, in his understanding, was capable of forming the basis for stability, viability and dynamism of a bourgeois society. "Persistent and tenacious" sense of property, characteristic of the middle class as no other element of social system, forms in the society certain norms and values – integrity, diligence, perception of religious morals; "respect to fair professions", active living and civil positions [10, pp. 189, 460, 392, 403, 431, 444]. De Tocqueville considered such orientation of social interests, political culture and mental attitudes very important

prerequisite for deep revolutionary movements to become rare in democratic society [10, p. 459].

As it follows from the title of the book, and as de Tocqueville himself used to say, the purpose of the research was not in reconstruction of the history of the United States, but in studying their democratic institutions. Reconstruction of the "image of democracy itself", its model; learning "important lessons" from the experience of functioning of this complex social and political system; the experience, which can be useful for France [10, p. 34].

The research experience – American social and political institutes – was seen by the scientist as completed or almost completed in its development [10, p. 34]. He believed that equality in North American states reached its "extremes" [10, p. 27, p. 61].

The researchers asked a rightful question to what extent an image of American society created by de Tocqueville coincided with reality he witnessed. Searching for the answers many of them came to the conclusion that it the only slightly coincide.

De Tocqueville was often reproached for distorting the picture of American reality of the 30s of the 19th century. In particular, E. Pessen decisively rejects his opinion that wealth in Jacksonian America was not that significant as in Europe; according to him the idea, according to which the majority of the rich population in the USA had once been poor, ungrounded [17].

In accord with him a soviet researcher A.V.Valyuzhevich writes about de Tocqueville as a "young French aristocrat, who proved to be incapable of looking behind the façade of social institutions of the United States and overpassed such facts of bourgeois society economic life as regular industrial crises, disastrous position of the working class and social injustice " [12, p. 78].

Evaluations of such kind brought de Tocqueville the fame of a creator of "egalitarian myth" about Jacksonian democracy. Stating this fact, N. N. Bolkhovitinov, for example, affirmed: "As it is known, the French Count was most of all surprised with "equality of social conditions" in America and it was him who became one of the major creators of "egalitarian myth", which has been quite popular in American historiography up to the present time" [18, p. 261].

Indistinct quantitative characteristics and indistinct terminology increased the number of critical evaluations of the concept of described by de Tocqueville American democracy as a form of society organization. John Stuart Mill made a fair comment saying that one of the drawbacks of the book about American democracy is the fact that "many of its statements, even those obtained by observations, look like simple abstract speculations" [11, p. 220].

Besides, Mill's approach to the analysis of de Tocqueville's concept from a position of acceptance of the fact that despite certain inaccuracies the concept was created on the basis of scientific observation and, on the whole, quite adequately explains the essence of the researched phenomenon – seems to be the most accurate key to understanding the French scientist's ideas.

De Tocqueville's claim that there are no proletarians in America that he made in his first book based on his analysis of equality of social positions in American society undoubtedly was a big mistake. The transition from manufactory stage of capitalism to mechanized production in America started in the end of 18th – the beginning of the 19th century. In the first two decades this process made good progress in such sectors of industry as cotton industry and shipbuilding industry. Consequently the 20s – 30s became the years of shaping the industrial proletarian cadre in these industries, especially in the North-

East of the country, which is a proved fact [18, 19, 20].

During his stay in America the French author didn't manage to reveal the trends of its social economic development with sufficient accuracy. At the same time, it is quite possible to say that the general picture of social and economic development of the USA of the first third of the 19th century, described by de Toqueville in his famous work, was not completely fallacious.

In this respect we need to mention that his attention was not focused on the trends of this development which took root in the beginning of American history and lasted for many decades, but on the assertion and large-scale spread of capitalistic of farm enterprises over the North American states where the phenomenon got its complete and classical embodiment.

More than once in his book about American democracy de Tocqueville analyzed land relations, forms of land heritage and lease, and land legislation. He knew well and interpreted underlying processes that happened in the sphere of land lease relations and land property. Moreover, based on analysis of feudal lease forms he devoted a separate book called "How Democratic Institutions and Mores Tend to Raise *Rent and* Shorten the Terms of Leases" to the description of farmer's land lease. [10, p. 422].

In this part of the research the scientist came to a conclusion that "the laws of democratic development are characterized by the strong tendency to increase in number of landowners and decrease in the number of lessees" [10, p. 422]. The French historian made a fair reference to the fact that abolishment of class inequality and class limitations in the sphere of land ownership did not just formed a basis for fast development of capitalistic forms of agriculture, but also proved to be an important pre-requisite and a basis for the process of democratic equality expansion

in American society in general. "When the classes are mixed, - he wrote, expressing this idea, - big fortunes, as well as extreme poverty, become quite uncommon, and social difference between a landowner and a land lessee decreases with every day" [10, p. 422].

In the same way de Tocqueville made a conclusion concerning the fact that the major public organization of Anglo-Americans is the "purely democratic principle"; this conclusion was described in another part of his research and, as previously, was based on analysis of land relations of colonial and post-colonial period of their history [10, p. 56-57].

In general, de Tocqueville based his democratic society model on his understanding of social processes that took place in the agrarian sphere of agricultural development of the North American States of that time. It was largely connected with the idea of a wide expansion in that society of small land property and capitalistic farmland lease as a basis for middle class capital development.

This picture of the US development in the 30s of the 19th century described by de Tocqueville was confirmed by subsequent research; the authors of the research came to the conclusion that in spite of considerable technical success of the country during the initial stage of the industrial revolution, this sphere of its economic advance was developed poorly and unevenly both in terms of territorial and branch characteristics. Many of its spheres preserved manufactory and small-scale commodity production. At that time north American states remained an agrarian country.

Summarizing the results of research made on the issue N.N.Bolkhovitinov writes: "Thus, in spite of great success in industrial development achieved by the 40s of the 19th century the United States, as we think, were still on the doorstep of great changes"; overwhelming majority of

working population were involved in agriculture [18, p. 136]. G.P. Kuropyatnik provides data according to which home production in North American States of that time exceeded industrial production at a ratio of 4:3 [18, p. 16].

In the light of these facts de Tocqueville's opinion, that there were no proletarians in America and that the prevailing capital was that of the middle class, expressed in the beginning of the 30s, is not at all biased though insufficiently accurate.

In this respect it would be fair to pay attention to the remark of S.A.Issayev regarding the fact that criticism toward de Tocqueville's concept regardless of being well-grounded are often connected with a certain distortion of is actual judgments [22, p. 9-10].

These distortions happen due to the fact that the researchers of his work sometimes fail to consider the evolution of assessment of American industrial development which took place in the views of the writer in the period from the early 30s to the early 40s.

This evolution is clearly seen in comparison of contents of the first (early 30s) and the second (early 40s) books about American democracy.

While the first book contains the claim "America has no proletarians", several chapters of the second book contain analysis of major signs and natural laws of industrial development of the societies of de Tocqueville's times, social consequences of industrial overturn in the North American states, problems of interest and social position correlation of manufacturers and wage workers [10, p. 404-406, 407-408, 423-424, 492-494].

The scientist wrote about unenviable fate of proletarians: "they have to work daily not to die since they hardly have any other property but their hands. Long-lasted oppression have ruined them, and the poorer they get, the easier it becomes to oppress them. Such is the vicious circle they will not be able to break" [10, p. 424].

Industrial progress got factory workers into innumerable social miseries. Their beggarly existence was viewed by de Tocqueville as extremely hard, fraught with social outbursts, and containing a dangerous premise for social instability increase [10, p. 424],

The scientist linked the infringed position of masses of proletarians not only with peculiarities of their professional and social status, but also with the logic of factory system development and inherent to it division-of-labor principle: "What can we expect from a man, - he wrote, - who spent twenty years of his life producing pinheads? And where else can such a man apply his mental ability – his share of powerful human intelligence that so often shocked the world – than in inventing a more perfect way to produce pinheads!... As the principle of labor division is becoming more popular, the factory worker is becoming more helpless, limited and dependent" [10, c. 407].

In the second part of the research devoted to American democracy de Tocqueville not just did not "bypassed" such fact of capitalist economy as regular industrial crises but managed to see one of its patterns: "I am absolutely sure, - he wrote in this concern, - that regular reiteration of industrial crises is a chronic illness characteristic of democratic nations of these days. It can be indemnified, but it cannot be cured since the reason for its appearance is not accidental" [10, p. 406]. He demonstrated limited character of social mobility in democratic societies [10, p. 407, 408, 424].

In the same research de Tocqueville revealed such pattern of a new society development as an increasing role of state; he saw the reasons for appearance of this phenomenon in complication of society economic life, expansion of large-scale

manufacture, and necessity to coordinate and regulate it at the state level [10, p. 493].

The thinker stated the indisputable fact that interference of the state into economic life of the society leads to its direct participation in establishing large manufactures and managing them. In this concern he wrote: "As the state becomes more powerful its expenses grow; it starts to consume manufactured products in larger quantities. Thus, the monarch in every realm becomes the largest manufacturer" [10, p. 493].

Describing mining operations as an example de Tocqueville paid attention to the fact that mines, which had been previously privately owned, often pass into the hands of the state. "Today the state exploits them or lease a concession, their owners turned into people who have the right to use mines as the property of others, and this right is regulated by the state. Besides, the state insists on its right to manage them, regulates their activity and makes them operate as the state thinks appropriate, constantly scrutinizing their operation" [10, p. 493].

The same kind of trends were discovered by de Tocqueville in organizations of education, charity and other types. He mentioned that the power of the state begins to spread across the spheres that previously had been the sphere of individual freedoms. Numerous types of activity never controlled by the state before "get under this control, and their number is constantly growing" [10, p. 490]. Even employer-employee relations, - emphasized the scientist, - now require regulations from the state [10, p. 492].

In the early 40s de Tocqueville stated a growing number of population involved in manufacture, based on it intensive development of new social classes including the class of industrial bourgeoisie. Showing the dynamics of this process he mentioned that in feudal society the population involved in manufacture was not numerous and was not an independent element in the structure of the society; entrepreneurial activity and property were not protected legally as secure as land property; since that time the world has seen a great revolution; private property on the means of production which previously was at the initial stage of development, evolved and spread across Europe"; the class of people involved in industrial production not only grew in number but became wealthier more socially important [10, p. 492-493].

Thus, according to the contents of the second book "Democracy in America", in the early 40s de Tocqueville discovered and clearly defined all major trends and pattern of bourgeois society development, connected with the final stage of industrial revolution. His conception about democratic society economic development evolved in accordance with evolution of the society itself.

It was Europe rather than America that helped de Tocqueville to understand this evolution. Emphasizing that social and economic processes he researched are of universal, common for the west character the scientist at the same time was guided to a greater extent by European experience [10, p. 492]. It is interesting to note that while writing the book about American democracy he visited England twice, where the industrial revolution had reached its final stage and revealed all consequences related to it.

His English travel notes reveal close attention to the content of the revolution. In the notes de Tocqueville not just stated that England of his time had a class of industrial proletarians and provided the description of its difficult economic position, but also interpreted a social role of this layer of the population as a class – bourgeoisie antagonist [23, p. 367].

Substantial material for examination of social and economic processes that took

place in European bourgeois society of the 30s-40s was drawn by the historian from the experience of France. It is quite enough to mention the description of industrial districts of Paris and its working population, given by the author in his "Reminiscences".

We cannot but consider the fact that de Tocqueville was contemporary of two rebellions of weavers of Lyons and Silesia and chartist movement which were known across France and Europe, whose experience could be used in his comprehension of new tendencies in social transformations of that time.

From the analysis above we can see that American society evolution toward social differentiation increase in the ten-year period of the 30s was noticed and understood by de Tocqueville. His understanding though practically did not change his general perception of a democratic society as a special type of society capable of proving "equal conditions for human existence".

As seen from the table of contents of the second book about American democracy the historian maintained his conviction that American society social differentiation connected with industrial production growth remains limited by the frames of this economic sphere and will spread only in industry, and only in its certain branches, and will become an "abnormal exception" in the system of a balanced social structure, based on the principle of "equal conditions for human existence" [10, p. 408]. In his deep conviction stable well-off middle class will form a firm basis for such society. This conviction will be shaken only by the key event of February revolution in France – June, 1848.

Erroneous in de Tocqueville's interpretation of the American society of the 30s of the 19th century is not the reconstructed by him general image, but his deep conviction that the equality of social positions is an imminent to this society

characteristic, inherent genetically and invariable. If he did make a mistake this is what it was about. "It would not be exaggeration, - writes H.J. Laski in respect of this mistake, -to say that in the time de Tocqueville wrote his book America he described was quickly disappearing" [25, p. 19]. The same opinion was expressed by M. Girard [24, p. 57]. G. Mosca and G. Buful note that the distance between wealth and poverty, which attracted de Tocqueville's attention in the early 30s of the 19th century and was not as great as in Europe, several decades later exceeded the depth of European differentiation [26, p. 200].

The tendency to appearance of a new type of social and economic inequality and new industrial aristocracy which was revealed by de Tocqueville in the second half of the 19th century transformed into a fundamental feature of bourgeois social system of industrial society epoch, and not its secondary element as de Tocqueville saw it.

The assessment of this side of de Tocqueville's historical and social views should include recognition of the fact that being mistaken in details, he did not make a mistake in his general forecast of the future of a democratic society. The model of this society as a new type of social reality, designed by his shrewd mind, became a certain theoretical premise on the basis of which it became possible to create a system of social regulation containing real opportunities for relative harmonization of contemporary society. To a considerable extent it was realized in the social system of developed countries of the West of the late 20th – early 21st centuries.

Following de Tocqueville the opportunity to create the society of the middle class as a basis for a legal state was considered by E. Durkheim and M. Weber. This idea became widely spread and recognized in the 50s-60s of the 20th century reflected in different modifications of the

theory of "the state of the prosperity". R. Aron, in particular, based his variant of this model on sociological ideas of de Tocqueville. [1, 13, 27].

What concerns doubts and mismatches in the concept of the scientist C. Lefort fairly states that we should not try to catch de Tocqueville in the trap of his contradictions – the result would be inconsiderable; moreover, "as any great thinker de Tocqueville teaches with his contradictions" [14, p. 266].

On the whole, it is possible to say that the concept of the American society developed by Alexis de Tocqueville in spite of all the drawbacks has a strong heuristic origin. The concept helps to get a better understanding of the processes which underlay social and economic development of the North American states of the first half of the 19th century, and see the complexity and ambiguity of this process. Created by de Tocqueville model of democratic society in a certain way helped to foresee contemporary democratic society, and made a certain contribution into the development of neoliberal social ideas. The concept, proposed by de Tocqueville, became the foundation of contemporary social theories.

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THE ECONOMY OF KAZAKHSTAN: POLICY FEATURES IN THE FIELD OF BANKRUPTCY

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A market economy operates according to certain rules and provides opportunities for companies to become prosperous. A market economy does not have a place for companies that lag behind. Formal adherence to market criterion of resolving crisis situations in an organization which is usually the elimination of all insolvent institutions will inevitably lead to mass unemployment, lowering living standards and increasing income differentiation. All this leads to an increase of social tension and presents insurmountable obstacles to economic growth.

An alternate solution to crises is the institute of bankruptcy. It restores the viability of the organization by helping the company overcoming financial difficulties. Furthermore, the institute of bankruptcy eliminates non-viable elements of the market.

A comparative analysis of national models of organizations insolvency in the world economy indicates that the bankruptcy institute in France and in the United States focuses on protecting the interests of the debtor. The priority is given to an organization that operates and functions as a company; therefore, its cessation through elimination is the last measure to undertake. However, a strict rule used by the French is to support the organization's activities in any case. While reducing the share of assets that creditors expect from the liquidation process of the insolvent debtor weaken the entire economic system as a whole. In addition, using the model allows the debtors to abuse their rights. Corporate governance issues of "Enron" in the U.S. can serve as an example.

In the legal systems of Great Britain and Germany, bankruptcy is a way of debts repayment at the expense of the liquidation and sale of bankruptcy estate. For instance, in Germany the process is aimed at maximizing the debtor's assets for their distribution among its creditors. Along with unfavorable market conditions, lack of opportunities for funding due to banking crisis, the bankruptcy law of 1999 caused significant number insolvent companies in Germany. According to the law, explicit encouragement was given to terminate the organization because creditors were interested primarily in the sale of assets of the company that was experiencing

a difficult situation rather than in its recovery. Thus, as international experience shows the national models of organizations insolvency regulation and rights distribution in favor of debtors or creditors is largely a political choice by the states and governments.

Kazakhstan's independent economy, which is only 20 years old, is characterized by the use of neutral models of insolvency regulation, which combines both debtor's and creditor's interests protection. For example, bankruptcy system in Kazakhstan cannot accept only the interests of the creditors, as it can be done in some economically developed foreign countries. The bankruptcy should facilitate the implementation of the macroeconomic strategy of the state, helping to preserve the productive capacity of the country and not to be destructive but a creative force.

It should be noted that effective functioning of the institution of bankruptcy in the national economy is possible only if there is a qualitative legislation on insolvency and mechanisms for its implementation are established. The law of the Republic of Kazakhstan "On Bankruptcy" of 1997 is the third part of legislative documentation (the first law was passed in 1992, the second - in 1995) that regulates bankruptcy procedures. Until now, the law underwent multiple amendments (more than 30 times) in order to improve the country's insolvency regulation mechanisms. Despite that, the legal basis of the insolvency of organizations requires further improvement.

Initially, since the introduction of the institution of insolvency, the most dysfunctional organizations went through the bankruptcy process in Kazakhstan. These organizations did not have to restore the solvency of the debtor and the continuation of their operations: a large percentage of bankruptcies accounted for the organizations with no assets through the sale of which the creditors claims could have

been met, as well as absent debtors. Absent debtor – is a debtor, whose physical location, as well as the location of the founders, members, managers and officials, without whom the entity cannot operate, is not identified during six months. The national budget for the program 003 "Implementation of procedures for liquidation and bankruptcy" each year provides funds to carry out liquidation procedures of the insolvent debtors. As a result, objectives of the procedures to eliminate insolvent institutions are not achieved. As a result, entrepreneurs had the stereotypical attitude to the Law of the Republic of Kazakhstan "On bankruptcy", which can be used as a way to close the organization through the sale and concealment of property.

The practice of the institution of bankruptcy demonstrates that business entities do not consider bankruptcy as a mechanism for recovery. For instance, in Kazakhstan in 2008, the rehabilitation processes were introduced at only 15 organizations (0.7% of the liquidated), in 2009 - 14 organizations (0.6% of the liquidated), in 2010 - for 43 organizations (2.0% of the liquidated).

The institute of bankruptcy must reduce the number of negative effects in the event of insolvency, and ensure financial recovery, restructuring and liquidation of insolvent organizations. It must protect the rights of creditors as well as the interests of owners. In addition, it requires further development in the policy of the state in regulating the processes of bankruptcy. The urgency of improving the mechanisms of bankruptcy also depends on ongoing changes in Kazakhstan's economy in a globalized world.

Now due to the crisis in the global economy, a number of competitive enterprises have difficulties with loan repayment and loan servicing. This creates a risk of bankruptcy, default by lenders, investors and counterparties, default of tax

obligations and a negative impact on banks' loan portfolio. In turn, deterioration of banks' financial position reduces the possibility of crediting the real sector and may ultimately hinder economic growth.

This suggests that it is the time that entrepreneurs caught in difficult circumstances, are provided with effective tools of financial restructuring and rehabilitation stipulated in the bankruptcy law. Thus, over the last one and a half years more than 70 debtors have gone through the procedure of rehabilitation and 30 out of which restored their paying capacities. 84 organizations are now in a rehabilitation procedure and more than 13 000 workers are fully employed and in addition to that 8 organizations that successfully completed the rehabilitation in 2011 saved more than 1,000 jobs. It should be mentioned that majority of organizations that went through the rehabilitation procedures were municipal and public, but recently this procedure has become popular among the other forms of business organizations.

The use of rehabilitation procedures by the institute of bankruptcy provides the debtor with the following advantages:

1) growth of debt stops once the rehabilitation procedure is introduced. Forfeits (fines and penalties) for all types of debt of the debtor, including bank loans, are not charged.

2) repayment of deferred payables is carried out according to the repayment schedule according to the 3-year rehabilitation plan. In addition, the repayment of deferred payables is carried out on the first day after the administration of the rehabilitation process, and after 4 months, i.e. after the approval of the register of creditors. This gives the company time to create a working capital.

3) during the rehabilitation procedure the company continues carrying out its economic and financial activities, including participation in tenders.

4) rehabilitation procedure applies to business: legal entities and individual entrepreneurs.

5) claims of creditors are satisfied within the period of rehabilitation procedure.

It should be noted that the introduction of rehabilitation procedure has several advantages to the banks: a guaranteed return of borrowed funds within 3 years, participation in the committee of creditors and monitoring the conduct of the rehabilitation process. It follows that the introduction of the rehabilitation process will help stabilize the economic development and reduce social tension in the country.

Practical experience shows that the model of insolvency in Kazakhstan plays an important role in the national economy. It involves many of the structures of different levels of government: the Ministry of Finance of the Republic of Kazakhstan, the Committee on the Insolvent Debtors within the Finance Ministry and its territorial agencies - the departments, the Ministry of Justice of the Republic of Kazakhstan, organizations of professional managers in bankruptcy procedures, specialized economic courts, and other state and commercial organizations.

In connection with the existing problems of the real and financial sectors due to the global financial crisis, the Government of the Republic of Kazakhstan in March 2011 approved a program of post-crisis recovery, which aims to improve competitive enterprises, the debt of which exceeds 4.5 billion tenge. Competitive enterprises, whose debt is less than that amount, will benefit from state support in the framework of the "Road map business 2020", approved by the Government of the Republic of Kazakhstan on 13 April 2010. It should be noted that government support of enterprise rehabilitation is a temporary measure and is directed to help businesses move to the growth strategy. Therefore, the possibility to enter the post-crisis recovery program is limited.

Kazakhstan's economy requires a common concept of public policy in the field of bankruptcy. This concept should include a set of laws and regulations that is refined on an ongoing basis in accordance with the radical changes in the national economy. In addition to the existing law of the Republic of Kazakhstan "On bankruptcy" as amended and supplemented, the "Rules of interaction of state bodies for the prevention, detection and suppression of facts and deliberate false bankruptcy," etc., a legislation on financial restructuring of institutions of self-regulatory organizations should be developed. Changes in the law "On Joint Stock Companies", which make provision for protection of property rights with introduction of bankruptcy procedures in organizations, should be well-thought-out.

The concept of public policy to prevent bankruptcies should include provisions that establish new and strengthen existing structures of bankruptcy institution. In order to develop an appropriate mechanism for implementing the state policy in the area of bankruptcy it is necessary to establish a permanent Coordinating Council to improve organizations' well-being. The composition of this council should include representatives of industry ministries, the judiciary, tax authorities, enforcement authorities and others.

The main tasks of the Coordinating Council should include:

- coordination of state and public organizations during crisis management and financial improvement of enterprises;

- preparation and implementation of the National program of financial rehabilitation of enterprises;

- analysis of financial condition of the economically and socially important enterprises of the republic, and development of appropriate measures for their improvement;

- overseeing the implementation of bankruptcy procedures in large and socially important insolvent enterprises;

- formation of positive attitudes towards bankruptcy procedures as a natural economic process, which facilitates the recovery of the economy;

- establishing a system of training, retraining of crisis managers.

The main priority in the state regulation of insolvent organizations is creating a regulatory framework for governing bodies of insolvent institutions in bankruptcy proceedings.

Studies show that bankruptcy laws in foreign countries usually put forward requirements for professional quality control of the organization's governing body. For example, in U.S., UK, Germany, Belgium, Italy a governing body (the manager) is a person who either has a license or authorization from the competent authority, or a member of a certain professional organization or person entered in the special list. In almost all countries the responsibility of governing bodies (the managers) are regulated in the civil and criminal codes. Many countries seek to ensure their obligations. The governing bodies have the insurance coverage both for their activities in the framework of their profession and for procedures while filing for bankruptcy. In Canada, associations of "Insolvency practitioners" develop standards of their managerial activity.

For ensuring the effectiveness of the mechanisms associated with the failure of organizations in the management of the bankruptcy proceedings it is necessary to create a common regulatory control system in the Republic of Kazakhstan which may consist of the following:

- Professional and other requirements to the person who is the bankruptcy governing body (the manager);

- Liability insurance for those performing duties of the bankruptcy governing bodies (managers);

- Professional activity standards for those who are the bankruptcy governing

bodies (managers).

In Kazakhstan, obtaining a license allowing managing property and affairs of insolvent debtors during bankruptcy proceedings is realized by an applicant – a physical entity that must meet the following eligibility requirements:

1) have a higher law or economic education and be trained in educational institutions for continuing work as the administrator of external observation, bankruptcy trustee in accordance with the laws of bankruptcy;

2) have at least three years of experience in one of the following areas: economics, finance, accounting and analysis, control and audit, legal, or being the head of the legal entity at least for three years.

In addition, these requirements should include the provision of training in acting as an assistant manager, as well as membership in a self-regulatory organization. The last requirement entails conforming changes in the regulatory system of control in the Kazakhstan economy.

It should be noted that the purpose of state regulation in the bankruptcy process should be to maximize market self-regulation. The state should reduce the regulatory role in crisis management, transferring its functions to the operational management of an insolvent organization of leading professional crisis management organizations, leaving behind only the control and enabling functions.

World experience indicates that a system of self-regulation at the micro level in countries with the developed market economies was established a long time ago and covers practically all spheres of economic life. All kinds of professional associations of lawyers, notaries, auditors, insolvency administrators develop ethical standards and special activities that create mechanisms for monitoring compliance with these rules. Thereby their activities contribute to improving the quality of their professional activities and reduce the number of violations in the field of entrepreneurship. As a result, self-regulatory organizations are considered as mechanisms of stability and balance on the microeconomic level.

To increase the effectiveness of regulatory and economic failure of organizations in Kazakhstan's economy it is imperative to create self-regulatory organizations of governing bodies (managers) (SROM). It is the responsibility of SROM to appoint managers to carry out the bankruptcy procedures. The lender/creditor submitting the application to the court to declare the debtor bankrupt, mentions only the self-regulatory organization, which, in turn, nominates managers who file for and deal with bankruptcy procedures.

Noteworthy in this regard, the experience of Russia, where the trustee is a member of a self-regulatory organization and approved by the arbitration tribunal. Self-regulatory organization offers the court three candidates of arbitration managers. Therefore, according to Russian practitioners to initiate bankruptcy proceedings for any lender is a complicated issue since "it is useless to buy only one arbitrary manager, one needs to buy the entire self-regulatory organization or its staff."

A key element of the regulatory system of control procedures for bankruptcy is a mandatory liability insurance of managers for accidental damage to third parties involved in the bankruptcy case. Third parties who are entitled to compensation for damage shall be deemed a debtor and creditors of the debtor. This insurance is complemented by the creation of compulsory SROM compensation funds, which are formed exclusively in the form of money from contributions of members to recover damages caused by the activity of SROM managers. The Government of the Republic of Kazakhstan establishes conditions and procedures for allocation and

disbursement of compensation fund. The means of compensation funds will be applied only in case of impossibility of full compensation for losses at the expense of insurance liabilities as well as in the case, if such losses were not included in the insurance, that is, if there is an intentional infliction of damage control in course of business by managers. We emphasize that this self-regulatory organization must pay for the guilty trustee, using funds from the compensation fund.

Thus, the proposed changes in the regulatory control of the bankruptcy proceedings will allow securing independence of the managers of various participants in bankruptcy cases and will make them responsible for property liability and for retaining control of the parties filing their bankruptcy procedures.

The rules for self-regulation do not conflict with the formal rules established by the state and are legitimate. Therefore, it is assumed that SROM will monitor compliance with laws and regulations governing the activities set by the Government of the Republic of Kazakhstan; SROM will protect the rights and legitimate interests of its members. It will provide information openness of bankruptcy procedures among the members and will encourage professional growth and level of training of its members. The authorized body of the state will monitor the implementation of legislation by the self-regulatory organizations.

Thus, under the new regulatory system of control based on the study of foreign experience, the concept of Republican SROM as a vertically integrated organization that brings together all regions of the country and operates on principles that encourage its members to execute the bankruptcy procedures in strict accordance to the law is proposed for implementation. The result will be an increase in the degree of managers' responsibility for the results of the bankruptcy proceedings. In the event of damage to the debtor or debtor's creditors by the rehabilitation or administration managers, the losses should be compensated at the expense of their insurance liability. In case of the fund shortages the losses are covered by the SROM compensation fund.

It should be noted that the creation of SROMs will enhance the effectiveness of the economic insolvency regulation system of organizations by bringing a competitive professional management in carrying out bankruptcy procedures. SROMs will also increase the proportion of rehabilitation procedures, enable the percentage growth of the repayment of debts and will prevent negative tendencies in Kazakhstan economy in the sphere of bankruptcy.

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PECULIARITIES IN THE RESEARCH OF THE ESSENCE AND STRUCTURE OF THE TERM «UNIVERSITY MANAGEMENT SYSTEM»

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Management is an element and simultaneous function of the organized systems of different natures (biological, social, technological) and it conserves the structure, maintenance of activities, programs and goals of activities.

General patterns of management are identified by cybernetics - the science which generalizes the pattern of any type of management that occurs in nature in human society and also in mechanical systems. We study specific aspects of management in technical systems that are relevant branches of technical sciences, in biological systems - in branches of biology. Management in the socio-economic systems is studied within the framework of the theory of socio-economic processes.

The ongoing process of division of labor has led to the isolation of management in social and economic systems as an independent activity, the allocation of managerial work as a specific field of employment. Management has been transformed into the most important sphere of economy and social life.

The sphere of management, production and consumption are the main socio-economic processes that form the backbone of modern economies. Production creates the material and product materials, goods and services necessary to maintain its self-reproduction and consumption through distribution and exchange.

In its turn the consumption (production, non-productive, social) creates the preconditions of production and provides the labor resources.

Effective management ensures the processes of production, distribution, exchange and consumption coordinates them as parts of a single socio-economic system (1). The main task of management is to develop socio-economic system.

In modern management, different socio-economic systems are considered. They are sums of people and groups united to achieve a goal, solve a problem based on the principles of division of labor and distribution division of responsibilities. It could be private enterprises, organizations, scientific and production associations or government agencies.

In the process of management an organization acts in the management environment of its subject and object. Management forms and supports the organization and it itself should be organized.

The definition of "management" in organizations is controversial in science, because there are different definitions due to the different paradigms and approaches to its understanding. Management is defined as "the formation of goal-oriented behavior of the system through information impacts produced by a person (a group of people) or device" (2).

The author (3) points out that management activity means the management of groups of people who should be treated as social-controlled systems.

According to one of the definitions (4), management is an ongoing and purposeful process of working on controlled object to ensure its functioning and efficient development. Management system is a mechanism that enables this process.

Lebedev O.T. (5) in his work says that management is a focused process of influencing the subject of management control to an object to achieve a result.

In other different studies (6, 7) the

term of management has no less than thirteen definitions. Thus, Academician D.M. Gvishiani (8) believes that the organization and management are not equivalent categories and should be considered separately, and this opinion is shared by P. Drucker (9). Human progress is not defined by natural resources and technologies but rather by management effectiveness.

In our opinion, the most scientifically accurate and efficient in practice is a paradigm which considers that the core of all processes is a person with his interests, values and attitudes.

Therefore, it is a person who is the main control element in the organization and who can act as a subject and an object of management. This paradigm corresponds to the nature and essence of management.

Thanks to conscious management, individual appears as concerted collective action. All human activities - permanent and seasonal, physically heavy and light, smart, useful and useless, etc. are accompanied by management.

Any activity causes the need, possibility and necessity of management, reflects the nature and essence of management as a specific type of human activity.

In general, using the cybernetic approach in any model of the control events regardless of the nature can be represented as follows in drawing 1.

According to the general control scheme, the object of control is a managed subsystem, and the subject of management - managing subsystem. Between the latter and the object of control there is a direct connection in the form of control actions to carry out any action and feedback in the form of the results of these actions. Comparing the actual results of actions of the object of management to target commands allows considering about the effectiveness of management actions.
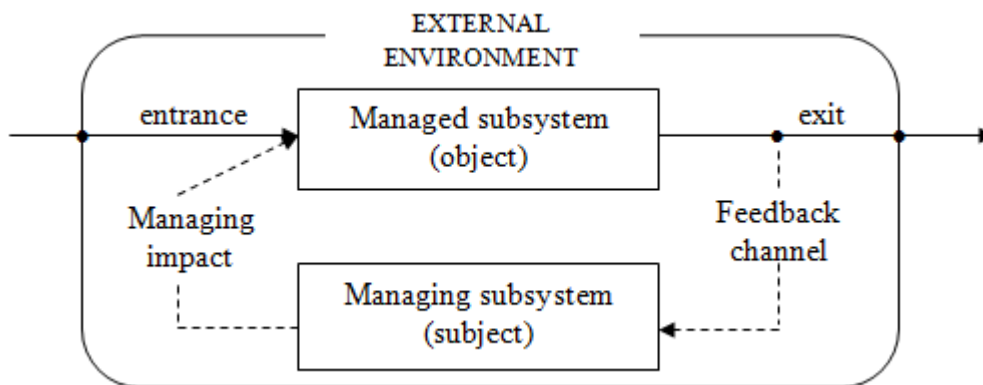
Drawing 1 – Cybernetic model of management

The subject of management is an individual or entity person performing the power-effects on lower levels of management. The director, department head as well as other individuals and groups engaged in managerial impact on object control can serve as the subjects of management in the organization.

It is known that the object of control is exerted influence by manager. Aspects of economic activity (product quality, interaction with customers, marketing), types of resources (financial, labor, information), characteristics of production (performance, attitude, employment), as well as socio-economic system itself and its processes may be objects of management in an organization.

The external environment has a significant impact on the object's state and

the entire management system. The degree of interaction with the environment depends largely on their effectiveness.

Control actions are laws, decrees, regulations, government programs, regulations, instructions, rules and regulations, orders, instructions, and directions of economic managers of organizations.

Feedback is the result of direct observation and control of the managed object by the subject and certain authorized persons, papers, reports and other statistical reporting, outcomes analysis, material control and accounting.

A lot of goals and challenges faced by organizations of different classes and different industry sector lead to necessity to have special knowledge, methods and techniques ensuring effective joint action of every person in divisions.

The theory of university management, as well as any scientific theory, historically developed as a process of knowledge accumulation by successive reflection of practical experience, previous theoretical developments, intuitive assumptions and hypotheses. Therefore, scientific theory of university management can be presented structurally as a pyramid whose base is the practical experience of management. It is at this level where we formulate the axioms and inference, empirical rules and recommendations which serve as the basis for developing the next logical forms of knowledge with its laws, principles, methods and forms are developed.

The most important component of the logical forms of scientific knowledge of the theory of university management is its conceptual apparatus. Set of concepts with which there is the possibility to reflect and express the phenomena inherent to management of higher education institutions, as well as the relationships between them by fixing their essential properties and characteristics.

The relationship and consistency of scientific concepts can be represented in a diagram (drawing 2), modifying the published views on the theory of university management.
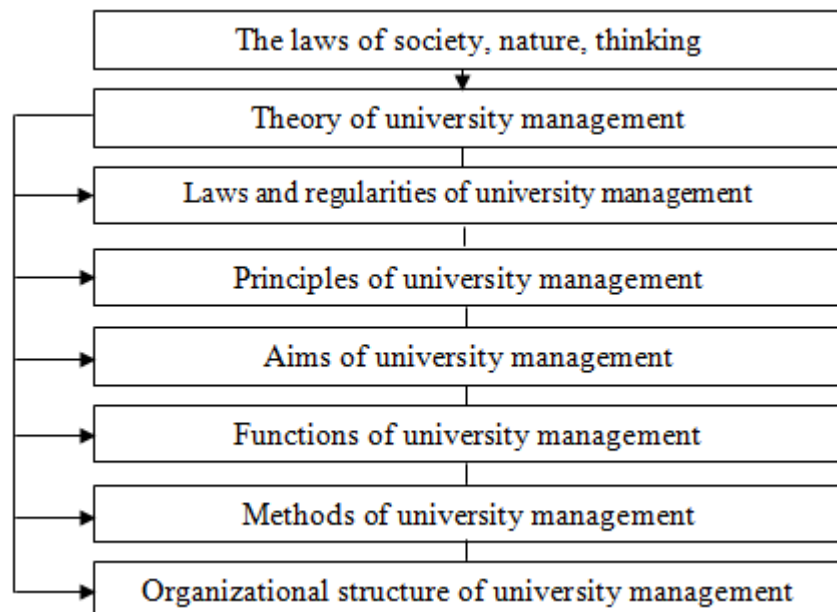
Drawing 2 – Connection of main concepts of university management

We briefly consider the relationship between basic concepts of university management.

The laws of nature, society and

thought are the highest levels knowledge and have the form of universality, which is they express the general attitude, communication, common to all phenomena of this kind or class.

Based on the laws of society certain control laws are formed. They are acts adopted legislatively, the expression of objective necessity in nature and society, which include (5): the law of the unity of the integrity management system, the law providing the necessary degrees of freedom control system, the law required variety of control systems; law correlation of the management and control systems, the proportionality of production and management.

Control laws are universal in nature and should have a universal character for all social formations, for all modes of production. On the basis of common control laws formed the laws of educational administration, higher education institutions.

Principles of management express the most important and regularly repeating tendencies which in turn reflect rather steady interrelations between management elements in institutes of higher education. Principles already in space and time, than the law; it is the form of display of the law in the concrete specific conditions limited in space and in time.

In institutes of higher education it is necessary to carry to number of the major principles of management:

1. Development of the theory and practice of management by institutes of higher education according to transformation of forms and methods of the organization of economy.

2. External influence on a choice and formation of a control system by institutes of higher education.

3. Correlation operating and operated subsystems (the subject and object of management).

4. Optimization of levels of management in institutes of higher education.

5. Optimum use in managerial process in the functions of control, the account and the analysis.

Under the influence of display of principles in the organization the principles of management representing initial, fundamental, base ideas of administrative activity (scientific character, systemizing, integrated approach, efficiency etc.) are formed. Management principles, synthesizing objective principles of management, define lines of real administrative practice in institutes of higher education.

Management of institutes of higher education is based on the certain basic principles which definition is the major problem because the knowledge and their observance allow raising management efficiency. In modern conditions, the management of institutes of higher education it is necessary to adhere to following principles: respect and trust for the person; cooperation; social justice; an individual approach; personal stimulation; collective decision-making; constant updating etc.

Representing the general rules, principles form requirements to a control system of institute of higher education - to functions, methods and organizational structure managements (OSM).

The management purpose is the leading element in activity of administrative-and-management personnel of institute of higher education. Purposefulness assumes the realized movement to clear and a clear aim, despite all obstacles and even contrary to them. Under the purpose in public practice, including in management of institutes of higher education, usually understand some ideal, in advance set result which should be reached to the subject of management. To the most typical purposes of management of institutes of higher education carry:

- Maintenance purposes (preservation, stability) the reached condition arise when it is necessary to fix such condition because it satisfies the subject and object

of management, or is caused by danger of deterioration of this condition which should be prevented;

- The purposes of an exit from an undesirable (crisis) condition arise, when parameters, indicators of functioning of system essentially below standard level, do not satisfy to inquiries of object of management and purposes of the subject, is much worse than an indicator of conditions of similar objects. They are directed on overcoming a recession, a non-admission of decrease in indicators below maximum permissible level, and creation of preconditions of lifting (stability, functioning);

- Development purposes consist in change of quantitative parameters and qualities of functioning of system for its transfer in the desirable condition characterized by the best values of target indicators. The purposes of development of institute of higher education can consist in achievement of the certain fixed degree of quality of educational services, satisfactions of growing requirements etc.

The maintenance of management of institutes of higher education is defined by functions, which express essence of administrative relations. One of the first researchers of functions of management is A.Fajol. He has allocated the following from them: a prediction (planning), the organization, coordination, control. The subsequent generations of researchers add the most various signs in the given classification: motivation, management, communications, estimation, decision-making, personnel selection, negotiating etc.

In our opinion, it is possible to agree with the point of view of scientists as the management maintenance can be established only by the practical analysis. Besides activity of the person is many-sided and various and always includes subjective elements. Therefore, there are always distinctive features and lines. However for effective, complete management of insti-

tutes of higher education should make a uniform complex of functions of the management, characterizing all completeness, all spectrum of interaction of the subject and object managements. Modern control systems provide all without an exception necessary functions of management in institutes of higher education, such as:

- The integrated control systems of educational and research business process, quality, the basic production assets, shots, the finance, the accounting and administrative account;

- Strategic and operational planning of activity of the institute of higher education, directed at working out of the purposes and the problems defining reference points in development of institute of higher education;

- The management of supply allowing effectively using material base of institute of higher education;

- Controlling provides execution of operations, including processes of preparation and carrying out of studies. Besides, controlling allows carrying out monitoring of all business processes of institute of higher education;

- Uniform and accessible in real time university's information system;

- Opportunities of information technology for all business processes of the institute of higher education, etc.

Management methods institutes of higher education are ways of performance of the functions set forth above, representing ways of influence of the subject on object of management for achievement of the certain result. By means of them use of laws of social development is carried out. They reflect, on the one hand, the maintenance of these laws, on the other hand, a control system level of development. Management methods get out and used depending on a combination (priorities) of functions of management and from a combination (choice) of its means (tools) of management; are grouped in character of

influence on: administrative (organizational-administrative), economic, socially-psychological.

Among the major categories in management of institutes of higher education, the concept the OSM which is formed on the basis of certain functions of management. It is the category of management science reflecting the organizational party of relations of management and making unity of levels and links (divisions, bodies) managements in their interrelation and co-subordination. Degree of conformity the OSM institutes of higher education to management methods, character of problems of functioning and development of institutes of higher education, rules of law, the internal logic of development of management institutes of higher education, and also a number of private characteristics and parameters - stability and flexibility of operating and operated subsystems should be thus defined. The degree of their adequacy and appropriateness to the current situation should be evaluated. For this purpose, it is necessary to consider requirements of adequacy of organizational level to elements of the material base providing various aspects of activity of management by institutes of higher education. As a rule, in institutes of higher education linearly-functional organizational structure of management.

It is known that historical successes of the nation are defined not by natural resources, not economic basis or technologies, but rather the talent of the people, and management efficiency, which is understood as creation of favorable conditions for achievement by the organization of good results in the caused terms with the least expenses. Hence, management efficiency represents productivity of activity of a concrete operating subsystem, which should be reflected in various indicators of a condition of a subsystem and assumes a finding of the best organizational forms, methods, technologies of

management of institutes of higher education with a view of achievement of certain social and economic results according to the planned indicators.

Efficiency is an indicator of aspiration to the result, but not result, and a variant of correctness, accuracy of a direction to it.

Productivity as an indicator reflecting degree of achievement of an object in view is obliged to have quantitative expression. Hence, productivity – a certain indicator of process, an indicator of how the received result to in advance planned corresponds.

To operate effectively means to initiate, deduce objects of management on desirable lines of development.

In a modern science and practical "management" more often is considered as system. Application of the system approach in management research gives the chance all-rounded analysis of the given object.

The system is a set of the co-operating elements, which are in relations and communications with each other, making the complete formation which qualitatively distinct from elements is making it.

Various and diverse definitions of concept "system" are in details analyzed in researches (10, 11, 12), system definitions are stated and in classical works of such scientists, as a background of Bertalanfi, A. Holla, R. Akkofa, K. Uotta, G. Sajmonova, etc.

In our opinion, it is expedient to join conclusions of experts (10, 12) that numerous attempts to establish some standard definition of concept "system" have not led to success and that, probably, such problem is insoluble at strictly formal level owing to what more correctly to speak about certain family of concepts "the system" concerning various classes of system objects.

Also it is possible to divide the point

of view of experts that at carrying out of concrete research it is necessary to define working concept of system which reflects the accepted concept of representation of object and can change depending on a carried out stage, aspect, features of solved problems.

In management science in the beginning of 90th there was the certain conceptual device, allowing describing a control system of the organization. Definitions of this concept can be treated according to work (13), as structure and the nomenclature of administrative bodies and posts.

The majority of authors consider interrelations between elements therefore the made definition is treated as follows:

- "the design" of organizational system characterizing structure, interrelation of control links and execution (object and the subject of management) (14);

- the organization subsystem which components are groups of co-operating people: its functions consist of perception of certain problems of the organization (inputs) and the subsequent performance of a set of actions (processes) in which result the decisions (exits) increasing the income of activity of all organization (satisfaction) or optimizing some function of all inputs and exits of the organization (15) are developed.

Thus, the control system represents difficult object that includes administrative sights, ideas, theories, social technologies, organizational forms of expression, functioning and development of administrative relations - set of the organizations, establishments of the given society, and also is characterized such important by properties, as: uniqueness, low predictability, purposefulness, ability to self-training and adaptation.

In the course of control system research it is necessary to reveal, of what components, elements consists, as they co-operate with each other and with an environment. Compatibility of elements is necessary for system formation among themselves, establishment possibility between them of productive communications.

The literature analysis on the given matter of the research has shown that among the set of theoretical and empirical approaches applied in modern system of the scientific knowledge, the most well-presented with theoretical and experimental points of view, in our opinion, is the structure of elements of the control system, presented on the drawing 3. It allows analyzing from following parties: theories, process, structure and technology of management.

It is necessary to consider that the theory and managerial process characterize administrative activity as process, and structure and technology of management - as the phenomenon (it in what affects, finds out essence of process). All elements entering into system should be professionally organized for effective work of the organization and are adapted for changing environmental conditions.

The control system cannot be considered a separate object from management. Therefore at research of a control system as object of research, along with it, the operated social and economic system (in given article - institute of higher education) acts.

According to researchers, the institute of higher education is a versatile educational institution realizing educational programs of higher and after university formation on a wide spectrum of specialties. It carries out retraining and (or) improvement of professional skill of experts with higher education and scientific and pedagogical workers; spending fundamental and applied researches; being the scientific and methodical center in areas of the activity.
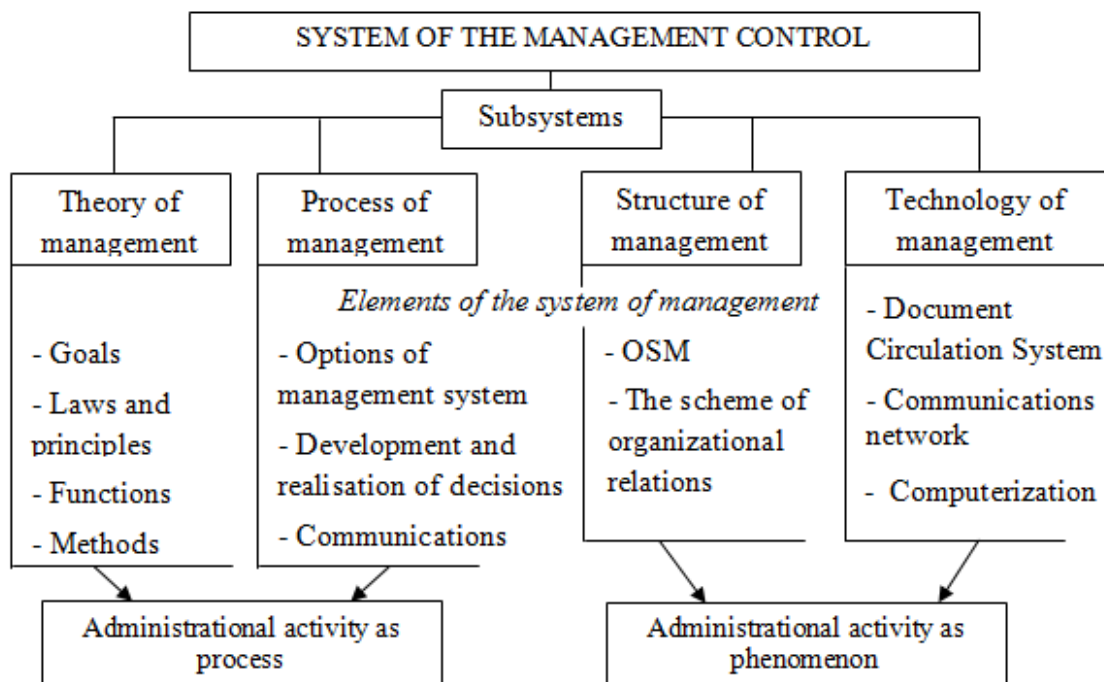
Drawing 3 – System of the management control

Constant search of ways of its perfection as process, as way of achievement of the purposes and as adaptation tool to environment becomes one of problems of construction of an effective control system of institutes of higher education. In addition, necessity of performance of last condition influences those decisions, which are accepted concerning the first two. This is because the ways of construction of management as uniform, complex and interconnected system is in direct communication with those goods which as a result of management are realized in the market environment as possibility of achievement of purposeful effect a great influence is rendered by consumer characteristics of the made goods.

The institute of higher education is considered as the subject of market economy acting in a role of the manufacturer of the special goods - educational services and carrying out function of reproduction of public intelligence through preparation and retraining of highly-skilled personnel for formed innovative economy (16).

From positions of efficiency to performance of this role the institute of higher education is represented and as a control system. Institute of higher education, functioning as control systems, is investigated from positions of process of manufacture of educational services and result of their realization through release (preparation) of experts, competitive on a labor market; from positions of research and innovative activity, through working out of scientific ideas, scientific methods, software products, inventions, "the know-how", creating conditions for high-quality preparation of experts.

Specificity of activity of institute of higher education as manufacturer consists in manufacture of the special goods where its consumer consumes this kind of the goods as concrete live work (intellectual), activity. Hence, management of institute of higher education is the management directed on granting of qualitative educational services. Thus as commodity producers institutes of higher education it is the non-profitable, noncommercial organizations even if granting of educational services has market character.

So, Batalov J.V. (16) says "educational services is the specific kind of activity caused by necessity of satisfaction of spiritual needs of the person, not having material results, directed on maintenance of useful effect in the form of acquisition by the person of set of knowledge, abilities, skills and competence, necessary for their realization in sphere of intellectual work".

Considering the given definition, it is possible to recognize that during this specific kind of activity between the manufacturer and the consumer of services there are certain economic relations at which they exchange among themselves «one vital means, another - work, service which wants to consume the first».

Such characteristics as intangibility, inseparability from the consumer, indissolubility in manufacture and consumption, impossibility of preservation of volume and quality, absence of the property differ from the material (substation) goods educational services. Specific features,

consisting in rendering of a set of information services at which the volume of the saved up information, pass from quantity to quality to meet the desire of the consumer and form new knowledge and outlooks, in other perception of world around and development of possibilities for participation in system of its existence.

As the end result of activity of the institute of higher education creation of the goods possessing in special consumer cost as set of knowledge, abilities, skills and competences which former graduates - the experts acting on a labor market as the specific goods - hired highly skilled labor have already seized acts. These goods are characterized by consumer cost (value) which should satisfy requirements and expectations of consumers of these goods - the enterprises, the state, a society, and also own expectations of its carriers - experts as direct and primary consumers (and accomplices of manufacture) educational services of higher education (drawing 4).
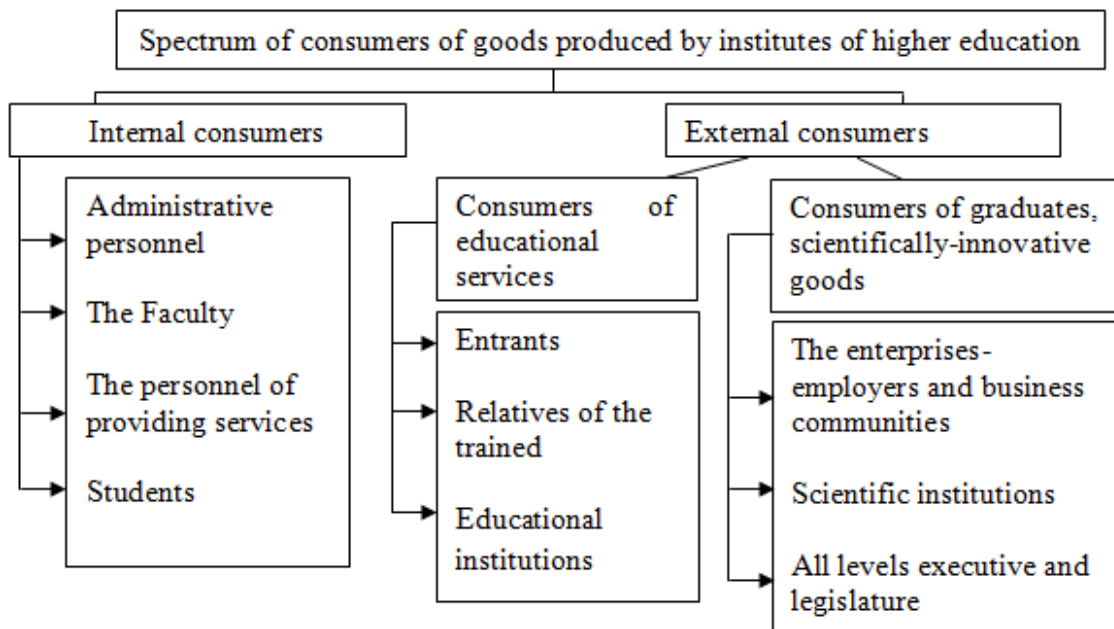
Drawing 4 – Classification of the basic consumers of production of institutes of higher education

The stated allows recognition that as the commodity form of educational services educational process, organized by institute of higher education on preparation of competitive experts for innovative economy acts. The consumer purpose is the satisfaction of its requirement for higher education reception. The commodity producer overall objective is to satisfy requirements of consumers as much as possible. On the market, the institute of higher education delivers the original goods - experts with higher education as carriers of set of knowledge, abilities, skills and competences for use in certain area of professional work.

Thus, the control system of institutes of higher education is a set of the interconnected elements (the purposes, functions, management methods, the OSM etc.) and the subsystems of management co-operating among themselves for achievement of an overall objective of their activity.

The control system always exists and functions within the limits of the setting - environment. In a general view, the concept of "environment" includes factors, which influence the condition of concrete system and compel it to react, changing thus its internal environment. At that time, it is not in a condition to operate factors of environment and is capable to adapt to its requirements only: modern technologies, the advanced technics, profitableness, competitiveness, security resources, including information, flexibility etc. At the same time, the experts prepared by institutes of higher education (as the end result of activity of institutes of higher education) affect in the course of the labor activity and change its condition to environment.

In relation to the institutes of higher education conducting educational, scientific, and innovative activity, to environment as to their infrastructure from which they co-operate, it is possible to carry: all

levels of legislative and executive power, regional controls formation, the branch ministries, departments and their regional structures; the enterprises-employers and business communities (legal bodies of all patterns of ownership); associations and associations (community), trade unions; scientific institutions, divisions of academies of Sciences, regional scientific communities; establishments of the social environment; establishments of formation of other levels; consumers of production of scientifically-innovative activity of university.

Management can be really successful in the event that it is in constant and continuous development if it is focused on the changes providing viability the organizations and accumulation by it of innovative potential. Realization of this position becomes possible under condition of detailed research of corresponding control systems and assumes the end result working out and the offer of the most effective variants of their construction.

Faultless optimum system management of institutes of higher education it is impossible to create, however, continuous process of its perfection with accent on ability of flexible reaction to environment changes – a necessary condition of management efficiency.

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GENDER POLICY AND THE POLITICAL INVOLVEMENT IN KAZAKHSTAN OF WOMEN

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The modern woman is simultaneously a product and an active subject in the crisis of the patriarchic relations, structures and mentality, and their gradual replacement by polycentric reality.

Gender approach to the analysis of political, and socio-economic processes and events reflects their study from the point of view of both men's and women's interests. Gender policy is based on the belief in the necessity of breaking the existing traditional stereotypes about the relations between men and women and the role of women in society, including the need for the social and political involvement of the woman for successful solution of family and youth problems, as well as children's education and upbringing. Gender policy is directed at achieving the equality among the sexes; at elimination of all types of discrimination, which exist in profit distribution, politics, sexual relations, and everyday life; and at attaining the change in views on the role and place of the woman in the society and politics.

Legislation, regulating the citizenship rights of women, has always been rather progressive in the countries of the Eastern Europe and the former USSR republics. Formal legislative arrangements have never been an obstacle for the achievement of the gender equality and inclusion of women into the highest ranks of political authorities. However, the totalitarian principle of social organization with its one-party system, non-alternative

elections, and unlimited power of the no-menclature has been a barrier. This past experience in the post-Soviet countries was not unusual: the practice of women integration into politics in the majority of countries has shown that even the exis-tence of the whole complex of the state laws and acts that guarantee the political, economic, and cultural equality of women and ban any form of sexual discrimination, does not automatically lead to the political participation of women, and their inclu-sion into the state ruling processes equally with men. In summary, the source of the existing practical inequality of women and men in political life is the inconsistency between the legal equality of men's and women's rights and their real opportuni-ties to realize this equality.

Women in leadership positions typi-cally pursue their careers in the spheres, which are ignored by males: protection of maternal and children's rights, protection of the sexual assault victims, development of children's institutions, social protection, gender equality in pay for the similar type of work, as well as in access to bank loans, etc. Women frequently contribute to the formulation of the state policy aimed at the development of patriotic feelings and dedication to the state. Meanwhile, they rarely contribute in leading positions, which deal with economic or financial pol-icy, internal or external affairs and other traditionally male dominated fields.

Given the persistent gender inequal-ity and the international experience, which showed that mere change in legislation is not sufficient to eliminate such inequality, in evaluating a national gender policy, it is important to look not only at legislative changes, but also on their implementation in practice and on the actual results of the policy in terms of changes in the position of women in the country as compared to that of males. The goal of this paper is to implement such an analysis for Kazakh-stan.

Gender policy in Kazakhstan

From the results of sociological sur-veys and analyses elsewhere we can draw a conclusion: gender inequality still exists in Kazakhstan. During 1990-2000, the de-crease in total employment took place, mostly, at women's expense and there was an active migration of women from paid labor to unpaid house work, and\or to-wards irregular non-qualified employment. Unemployed women in Kazakhstan con-stitute 58 per cent, and their wage in all types of activities adds up to only 60.8 per cent of cumulative male's pay. Even in traditionally women-dominated spheres, like health care, education, social protec-tion and others women earn less in com-parison with men [1].

Elimination of sexual discrimination is one of the main priorities in gender pol-icy in many countries. At present, Kazakh-stan is considered one of the most progres-sive among post-soviet states meeting this priority. The 1979 UN "Convention on abolishment of all types of discrimination against women" was ratified by Kazakh-stan in 1998. This convention is directed to ensure the following women rights:

1. To elect and be elected in all pub-lically elected organs;

2. To take part in the formation of the state policy and be a state employee;

3. To be a member of a non-governmental organization, working on the social and political problems of the country's life.

By ratifying the convention, Ka-zakhstan has demonstrated its commitment to pursue the Beijing action platform ac-cepted by the International Women Forum in 1995.

Kazakhstan has also demonstrated its commitment to female rights by par-ticipating in more than twenty various agreements and conventions on human rights, including those that are directed to ensure equality of sexes and the protection of women and children ("On women's po-

litical rights", "On a married woman's citizenship"). In addition to joining international agreements, Kazakhstan adopted a Constitution, which guarantees equal rights and opportunities to all citizens, irrespective of their sex, ethnic or religious affiliation.

Taking into account the Soviet and some other countries experiences, Kazakhstan has not stopped with legislative changes. One of the important stages in gender policy and in strengthening of the gender movement in Kazakhstan was the establishment of the Presidential National Committee On Family and Women's issues, which is housed by the Agency on Government Services and Affairs. One manifestation of the strengthening of the women's movement was the emergence of the female issues lobby at the Parliament - "Otbasy |Family", which has contributed to group the development and adoption of the National Plan of Actions to Improve the Women's Conditions.

A marking feature of the gender policy in Kazakhstan is the fact that gender projects are initiated by the state Equal participation of women in the political and economic life is viewed by the government as a necessary condition for achieving the progress in socio-economic development, as well as for solving urgent political, socio-cultural, race, ethnical, and other problems.

To monitor the progress in resolving gender issues, the Conceptualization of Gender Politics was in Kazakhstan in year XXX. The Conceptualization plans for the following activities aimed at the achievement of the goals of gender policy:

- Introduction of compulsory gender-issues sensitivity assessment of all the adopted and proposed laws; introduction of the gender indicators into all state plans and programs;

- Stimulation of the development of state and private pre-school institutions with the aim of freeing women from house, of improving women's professional qualifications and of stimulating their professional growth;

- Promotion of women- small and medium business on the basis via state financial support;

- Creation of the national net for training and education of women-politicians and policy-makers;

- Introduction of changes and amendments into the law acts and regulations to include issues relating to women's employment and firing.

At present by the directive of the President an appropriate state strategy is being worked out based on the National Conception of the Gender Politics. This document will define the system of measures for ensuring men's and women's equality, with specific dates assigned for their implementation.

The activities of women's non-governmental organizations have considerably changed in the recent ten years. Initially most of them were oriented to the social protection of women and children, carrying out psychological and legal consulting, defending the rights of certain categories of population, such as families with many children, single-mother families, handicapped women, etc. under various conflicting circumstances. Today activities of these organizations are directed at the increase of the level of women's political involvement, issues of their equal participation in the political process, political socialization of the woman as a full-right subject of the political relations. The work of gender-issues oriented NGOs seems to be fruitful to an extent: presently, women's share in the number of first level leaders constitutes 9 percent, while their share in the number of specialists with higher education and special professional training exceeds 62 percent from the total number of women. The membership of women in Parliament's Majilis is y 19 women among 107 members (which

makes 17.8 percent of the total number of Parliament members). In the Senate this figure is lower and constitutes 4.3 percent: from the total number of 47 Senate members only two are women [2].

There is a direct connection between the policy of a country in relation to women and the degree of social stability in the state. That is why working out the mechanisms of sustaining the political and socio-economic stability of the state is a fundamental task of the theoretical and applied political science in Kazakhstan.

In accordance with the Constitution of the Republic of Kazakhstan (art.33), citizens have equal rights to the participation in the ruling state affairs. However, there is a stable tendency when the total number of women in the elective organs varies at the level of 11-12 percent. It is connected not only with the existence of certain financial and legal barriers, but, mainly, with the existing mental stereotypes.

Factors that explain low participation of women in politics

At present, low participation of women in Kazakhstani politics can be explained by several factors. First, istheir minimal representation in the electoral groups that are recruited into politics. As a rule, women-politicians come to this sphere

Another important factor is the unwillingness of the electorate to vote for women. In addition to that, in Kazakhstan there is a fragmentation of women's non-governmental organizations and parties. , The latter two factors are worsened by the low level of political culture and overall passivity of the public

Another important factor is connected with socialization. A variety of societal expectations orients men and women to different roles, different attitudes to politics and active political involvement. In Kazakhstan, -political

sphere is considered inappropriate for a woman's life force application. Moreover, politics is a sphere, where various roles of a woman come into a maximum conflict with each other. A politically active woman "…and individual…, who solves… the conflict between her own political involvement… and the social expectation that a woman cannot achieve any significant politician position" [3].

Still other important factor is unequal distribution of resources, which men and women can use in politics.

An important impediment to women's political involvement is the lack of experience. Many women come to politics from education sphere and public health services, possessing less political experience, than men. Lately, however, the situation has changed – now the quantity of women-lawyers and business-women, who have political experience, is growing.

Situational (biographic) factors make an important contribution, too. They are connected with peculiar features of the course of life of a woman in modern society. The majority of women bear the responsibility for housekeeping and their children's education; and, for this reason, they do not have enough time or energy for political activity.

It is not surprising that women, as a rule, come to politics in later age as compared to men, and among "female political elite" there are many single, divorced women and widows. It doesn't mean that men don't face the conflict between political career and family life. However, men get continue in political careers, despite such conflicts, while women are inclined to withdraw from a political career. Research shows (цитата здесь) that women much rarer, than men, satisfy their political intentions.

According to N. Shvedova, the most obvious reasons of alienation of women from the power are:

1) Difficult sociopolitical conditions;

2) Criminalization of economic life of the country;

3) Prejudices that have deeply taken roots, both concerning a woman's role in the society in general, and concerning women-politicians in particular;

4) Positions of the existing political parties of all ideological colors and shades which are characterized by underestimation of the women role in the political process, especially at decision-making level;

5) Defects of the electoral system, which complicates access of women to the highest legislative body of the country;

6) Dissociation and weakness of women's movement as a factor of political life of the society [4].

a) One of the reasons for low female involvement in politics in Kazakhstan is dissotiation of women's NGOs and parties. Women's organizations have long been in existence in Kazakhstan. Depending on the goals that they pursue they can be typologized as follows: Women's parties and movements focused on the promotion and lobbying of generic women's interests, their political, economic and social rights, increase of political representation of women and their participation in acceptance of the state decisions;

b) Women-led non-governmental organizations, whose activity is directed at the solution of social and economic problems of the society, family and children. The primary area of their concern is social adaptation, treatment, training, and employment of socially-vulnerable populations;

c) Women-led non-governmental organizations in business, which carryout vast educational activities aimed at the development of women's business skills;

d) Women's non-governmental organizations whose activity is directed at the solution of welfare problems;

e) Women's charitable foundations;

f) Feminist non-governmental organizations;

g) Women's non-governmental organizations, specializing on informational support and research support for organization representing women's movement;

h) Women's organizations in the field of health protection of women;

i) The crisis centers on rendering assistance to women and girls who have suffered from violence;

j) The organizations which are carrying out gender education and gender research;

k) Ecological non-governmental organizations.

Under the present circumstances non-governmental organizations are the basic channels for women's political education and socialization, forming skills of political activism.

Now a debatable question in Kazakhstan is gender quota at the levels of political representation. Women's non-governmental organizations address to the state with the request for introduction of a system ensuring quota through the Law on equal rights and possibilities developed by the parliamentary group "Otbasy".

At present the total number of all civil employees in Kazakhstan makes 60.5 thousand persons, including 33 thousand women, which makes 54 percent. The share of women among workers of all levels of the government makes more than 40 percent [6].

One of the examples of the lack of support is that it is only in the long-term perspective (2020) that the objective is set to attract 50 percent of population (i.e. all women who make 53 % from all population of Kazakhstan) to voting for women on which basis of 100 prepared women who are put forward on elections, should provide 50 percent of female representation in the Parliament of the Republic of Kazakhstan.

Increasing political involvement

The first step in encouraging greater female participation in politics is application of gender quotas. It has been shown to be able to reduce inequality in representation of genders in politics. The next step should be aimed at stimulating women to independently expose their own candidatures during elections.

The Leaders of the Business Women's Association of Kazakhstan insist on strengthening the possibilities for the women's non-governmental organizations so that to give them institutional force for creation of a powerful movement [7].

The factors impeding the development of women's movement development, include the following:

- lack of clear political position on problems of political, social and economic development of the society;
- lack of a universal approach to addressing gender inequality in the society;
- lack of financial an material resources (of women's non-governmental);
- absence of active political initiatives from female electorate;
- lack of the national-level female idea, capable to consolidate both the female organizations, and the female population.

To strengthen the Women's movement in Kazakhstan, the following goals should be realized:

- Create a national system of integration of the female population in social development processes;
- Educate female population on actual political problems and w the importance of legislative maintenance of women's rights;
- Expand political activity at the regional and local levels, strengthening the coordination of women's movements and non-governmental organizations;
- Introduce questions pertaining to gender policy into the practice of parliamentary hearings;
- Lobby female interests at the levels of representative and state structures;
- Organize monitoring in the field of gender relations.

During the period of its independence, Kazakhstan went through the formation of a civil society. There was a radical transformation of political values interests, and mentality what is testified by the results of many polls investigating political activity of women and mechanisms to increase female political representation at the highest levels of the power, namely:

- Women make a contribution to public life and possess considerable resource potential for representation of gender political interests;
- Without active political participation of women formation of a civil society and parity democracy in Kazakhstan is impossible;
- Protection and lobbying of the rights of women, creation of equal possibilities, liquidation of women discrimination are necessary in interests of all society and the state, both in the present, and in the future.

Political participation as a set of the purposeful actions undertaken with a view of expression of political solidarity, influence on state policy and promotion of women political leaders can be carried out in a variety of forms.

First, development of the local public initiative and consciousness increase:

- Women's own self-activation and organization;
- Women's movement consolidation, and also strengthening of interaction between successful and inexperienced women-politicians;
- Increase of women's professional and political level, which should in perspective result in their abilities to apply elective technologies for carrying out election campaigns, work with electoral resources;

Second, active informing on features of the electoral systems increases possi-

bilities for women as politicians:

- Proportional systems promote increase of female representation, especially with the high party size (the high sizes of districts and electoral thresholds);

- Proportional systems are more preferable for prolonged political struggle.

It is necessary to consider that results of gender political strategy on expansion of female representation and formation of parity democracy depend on a series of measures and change of electoral systems. Adoption of law about equal possibilities and the general working out of the laws providing realization of the rights of women should become a priority. Thus it is necessary to give considerable attention to sufficient financial support of the candidates' volumes of which can be lowered as a result of perfection of the elective legislation.

Conclusion

Gender policy in Kazakhstan seems to have achieved some positive results. An own model of a gender policy based on the account of national features and the international experience was generated. The President has stated the readiness of the state to take unprecedented measures to sustain women's access to the decision-making level. The leader of the Nation has also declared that it will be necessary to expand participation of women in production, in particular at the new enterprises, to help them to eventually occupy large political posts. It is expected that the share of women in power will reach 30 percent as it is expected in the Strategy of Gender Equality till 2016. Now women form only to 40 percent of gross national product, making thus from 70 to 80 percent of workers of social branches. Taking into account national economy growth, the female contribution to gross national product should grow by 40 percent and make 15 bln. tenge.

At the 2010 World Economic Forum it was noted that in a rating of gender equality Kazakhstan has occupied an honorable 41 place among 135 states. We are ahead of 14 states of the European Union on this indicator [8].

As demographic institutions in Kazakhstan still do not possess the real power, even sharp increase in female representation in the Parliament and maslikhats will not provide women with all completeness of the power on a level equal to men. The problem of women participation in the politics should be solved by using possibilities of appointment of women to supervising posts in executive bodies. For realization of the principle of gender equality in Kazakhstan it is necessary to create true relations of partnership between women and such division of responsibility, which would promote liquidation of gender inequality in public and private life. For acceleration of these processes, introduction of a gender quota in the Law on the equal rights and possibilities, and also in the Republic electoral system is essential.

World experience proves that under certain conditions the proportional election system and a quota system in party lists promote essential increase of female representation in bodies of the political power.

Women do not only have the right to be presented in politics, they also possess specific levers of influence on political sphere of the society. Nevertheless, distinctions between women and barriers on a way to equality make integration of women into political institutions a challenge. Activity of women-politicians is limited to many thresholds at all levels of political advancement that assumes overcoming not only structurally - institutional, extending on men, too, but also gender caused barriers. Thus, there appear systems double (in certain cases, plural) restrictions for political careers of women.

Under new conditions approaches to

survival of mankind are being developed. New threats to national safety from the international terrorism, processes of globalization, destruction of ecological system of the planet, make new demands for the people of Kazakhstan. Under these conditions women's movement possesses sufficient potential and is capable to create conditions which will allow women to participate in the decision of destiny of the state. The cardinal solution of women's problems, and especially at the level of political representation, will promote development of a strong democratic state, preservation of stability, the world, and, as a whole, prosperity of the Kazakhstan society.

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MASS SPORT DEVELOPMENT IN EASTERN KAZAKHSTAN

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Physical culture and sport policy plays an important role in Kazakhstani reforms. The policy has the following goals: promotion of physical and mental health, elimination of drug abuse, cigarette smoking, alcohol consumption, as well as contribution to patriotic education.

The aspects of sport policy have been formulated in a number of laws, programs and strategies. In his Address to the People of Kazakhstan, President Nazarbayev stated that one of the targets for the strategy aimed at transforming Kazakhstan to the 50 most developed countries in the world is to ensure that it takes the 22nd place in the world in sports.

The State Strategy "Kazakhstan – 2030" includes a target emphasizing healthy life-style promotion aimed at popularization of physical exercise,

healthy food habits, avoiding use of drugs, cigarettes, and alcohol, and mass observation of standards of hygiene and sanitation [1]. The constitution of Kazakhstan provides for people's right for rest and health promotion, including sports [2].

The Address of the President of the Republic of Kazakhstan, Nursultan Nazarbayev, to the People of Kazakhstan "New Decade – New Economic Growth – New Possibilities for Kazakhstan" (January 29, 2010) sets the goal to bring the number of people involved in sports on a regular basis up to 30 % [3]. This target practically resulted in the development of two kinds of sports: mass recreational sport and professional. These two kinds of sports are closely connected to each other. The more developed recreational sport is, the more athletes of a high quality the country has.

Mass recreational sport develops at a different rate in different regions of the country. For instance, the number of people involved in physical exercises on a regular basis in East Kazakhstan is 15.6 % in rural areas and 16,2 % in urban areas.

As for the professional sports participation, only 28% of rural youth and 15.7% of urban youth are the members of professional sport clubs. The main reasons for this low involvement are public misunderstanding of sport's role in health promotion and insufficient work of specialists in physical culture and sport.

The difference in the number of professional athletes in Russia and Kazakhstan comprises 2.5% in favor of Russia. However Prof. Zh.K. Kholodov criticized the statistics, saying that the difference emerged as a result of classification of children and teenagers studying in sports schools as professional athletes [4]. His research indicates that the number of students in Russian sports schools is the following: 70,6% - elementary groups, 27.1% - specialized groups, 1.7% - the groups of advanced sports studies, and 0.45% - the groups of outstanding sport proficiency.

Kazakhstan has a similar situation.

Recently, the system of the rural administration of physical culture and sports has been organized to develop mass sport in rural areas. The non-government association "Zhiger" has been organized and has established a sports and cultural center in every village. According to the laws of market economy, the laws "About Public Associations", "About Physical Culture and Sports" the given centers are financed through business organizations and native entrepreneurs from the villages.

One of the peculiarities of the sports and cultural centers is the fact that all children are examined in the centers. Teachers of Physical Education at schools observe children and identify their inclinations for a particular kind of sport and then send them to the center. In the center children are examined once more. Thus, all rural children are involved and talented children are not ignored. In the centers, children get training and then are sent to the institutions of higher rank such as sports classes, local sports schools, and Republican sports schools. With the help of this mechanism all talented rural children are given the access to sports, especially Olympic kinds.

As a result of the above-mentioned research the number of sportsmen increased considerably. For instance, in 2008-2009 the number of sportsmen in Ulanskiy rayon increased by 5% and comprised 20% of the total population.

The rural program helped to solve the following problems:

- The rural system of physical culture and sports administration was examined and consolidated;
- Pedagogical and organizational conditions to assure the effectiveness of the model were identified;
- Main goals of physical culture and sports development in rural areas were explained to the population;
- The potential of the rural economy for financing sports activities were exam-

ined;

- The challenges of the development of rural sports associations ("Zhiger", "Sports and Cultural Center") were identified and discussed;

- During the implementation of the given model the following areas of concern were determined: inadequate healthy life style promotion in the media; problems with staff recruiting; insufficient material and technical support of the mass sport and professional sport in rural areas.

Given the current economic conditions, the following main pedagogical and organizational requirements were identified as necessary to assure the effectiveness of the model in East Kazakhstan:

- Facilities and equipment should meet modern standards;

- There should be a greater supply of professional trainers and specialists in rural areas;

- Incentives should be created for greater involvement of rural business in sports development area;

- Rural Akims (Governors), Heads of the Educational Departments, school principles should be more actively involved in organization of sports events and health promotion programs.

The rural program was subsequently evaluated. The practical contribution of the evaluation consisted of the fact that the system of physical culture and sports administration and organization were observed and suggestions for improvement were made. Numerous lectures and workshops on the topic 'Organization of Physical Culture and Sports in Rural Areas in the Market Economy' were held at higher educational institutions of Kazakhstan to increase the professional level of full-time and part-time students of the 'Physical Culture and Sports' faculties. Similar workshops were conducted for Teachers of physical education, for Heads of Rural Education Departments, Heads of Rural Tourism and Sports Departments, and lo-

cal Akims. The given topic was also introduced into the course for students of higher educational institutions. Recommendations for the organization of "Sports and Cultural Centers" and sports public association "Zhiger" in rural areas were provided.

The problem of sports development in cities and towns is also very important. The number of people involved in sports on a regular basis in such large cities of East Kazakhstan as Ust-Kamenogorsk and Semey comprises 10,9% and 15,8%, respectively. The reasons for the low level of involvement are the following:

- Lack of sports facilities, stadiums, etc.

- Lack of professionals for organization of sports activities or their inefficient work;

- Competition is the only kind of mass sport development events;;

- Absence of accountability of the officials responsible for the given area to the Akims or their wrong reporting;

- Lack of system of sports groups organization among citizens. For instance, in Ust-Kamenogorsk there are 37 community clubs visited by 4000 children and teenagers, but there are no adult community clubs.

Taking into account these facts "The Department of Physical Culture and Sports of the Akimat of Ust-Kamenogorsk" developed the program "Mass Sport Development in Ust-Kamenogorsk". A public Sports Council of Ust-Kamenogorsk was founded to organize sports events for pupils and students, statesmen, medical workers and teachers, and citizens. The Public Council has the following objectives:

- Development of mass sport by means of training and refresher courses, conducting workshops, and issuing special methodical and organizational booklets;

- Creation of sports centers at companies and enterprises with the appoint-

ment of responsible individuals to supervise their operation;

- Building of sports camps on river banks and outdoors to let people to attend sports any time of the year;

- Construction of enclosed tennis courts, soccer, volleyball and basketball grounds, mini gyms in basements with the appointment of responsible people.

Mass sport in Kazakhstan can easily be developed with the help of a purposeful and responsible approach. By using this approach people's healthy life style will be promoted, as well as labor efficiency and economy development. The athletes of Kazakhstan will be able to win at the Asian and Olympic Games.

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ENVIRONMENTAL PROBLEMS OF SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF KAZAKHSTAN

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The extractive and processing industry is developed in Kazakhstan and the growth rates of these branches have been increasing in recent years. Large industrial projects that lead to an increase in air pollutio and deterioration of ecology of Kazakhstan are under construction and placed in operation. For decades more than twenty billions tons of waste products have been accumulated in the republic, about one third of that is toxic.

In this regard, the ecological situation in Kazakhstan is far from satisfactory. This article considers major factors of anthropogenesis and those branches of economy that define modern ecological condition of environment of the republic. A considerable quantity of the power stations and heating plants of different capacities that use oil products, natural gas, and nuclear fuel, occupy large areas. The majority of power objects were constructed during the Soviet period and many of them do not meet today's ecological requirements; therefore, they heavily pollute the atmosphere and soil with gases and dust affecting flora and fauna disastrously.

Qualitatively new kind of influence of power industry on environment in Kazakhstan is the desalter of sea water in Aktau that works on a nuclear reactor.

As a result of mineral deposits development with infringement of scientific and technical rules, there is a loss of raw materials in the course of extraction, enrichment and transportation (Sokolovsk-Sarbaisk mineral management, Zhezkazgan ore-dressing and processing enterprise, Karaganda coal basin, Balkhash copper-smelting industrial complex, etc.). Occurrence of open-cast mines, mines, pits, disastrous funnels, pollution of atmospheric air because of the dispersing of extracted and dead rock in waste heaps and open-cast mines, extinction of natural flora and fauna, raised illness rate among workers and local population – are the results of anthropogenic human activity.

In the process of oil extraction the level of underground and ground waters goes down and the integrity of soil-vegetable cover is broken. For example, on Mangistau peninsula, the chaotic laying of dirt roads to drilling units leads to vigorous roadside soil erosion. Besides, storing surpluses of oil in open holes can often be the reason of the soil-vegetative cover disappearance. Ground and underground waters are polluted with oil, which then flow down into the reservoirs used by the population for consumption. There are examples of the Western Kazakhstan natural gases burning in flares on oil wells that pollute the atmosphere with products of incomplete combustion of hydrocarbons.

The enterprises of ferrous and non-ferrous metallurgy use considerable quantity of water (Ust-Kamenogorsk Titan-Magnesium, Zyrjanovsk, Ulbinsk, Balkhash Copper-Smelting enterprises, etc.) in the technological process. Thus the sewage containing considerable quantities of various oils, alcohols and phenols get to the rivers and water basins, and considerable quantities of sulfurous gases and dust get to the atmosphere. Technologically in nonferrous metallurgy, it is necessary to process 50-100 tons of ores to extract only one ton of metal at concentration factories; thus, a large quantity of empty ore goes into dumps, which then is stored away and occupies large areas.

Sulfuric acid is used for the production of mineral fertilizers at the metallurgical enterprises in considerable quantities. That also pollutes the environment as an industrial drain.

However, the greatest ecological damage is caused by the emissions of gaseous substances that pollute atmosphere. In fifteen cities of the republic the level of air pollution is raised by harmful emissions. These cities include Zyrjanovsk, Aktau, Temirtau, Taraz, Petropavlovsk, Shymkent, Almaty, Ust Kamenogorsk, Pavlodar. High level of air pollution in these cities is a consequence of out-of-date production technologies, inefficient treatment facilities, and poor quality of used fuel. The basic polluting substances are dust, sulfur dioxide, nitrogen dioxide, hydrocarbons, phenol, lead, hydrogen sulfide, chloride hydrogen, ammonia, etc. Each of these substances in its way negatively influences people's health. Dust, for example, causes diseases of respiratory tracts, liver and blood diseases, etc. The dustiest cities of Kazakhstan are Aktau, Atyrau, Zhezkazgan, Semei, Ust Kamenogorsk. Disorders of the nervous system can be caused by the raised concentration of carbonic oxide in the air. Thus headaches occur, memory worsens, and normal sleep is disturbed. The high concentration of carbonic oxide is observed in such cities as Almaty, Aktobe, Karaganda, Kostanaj, Petropavlovsk, Pavlodar, Semei and some other. If there are several kinds of pollutants in the air, which usually occurs, the negative effect gets even more destructive. It affects immune system that frequently leads to oncologic diseases.

Because of the disorder of human economic activities, soil cover is exposed to considerable negative influence, such as wind and water erosion, soil pollution with household and industrial wastes. Change of the vegetative cover occurs due to not only the natural phenomena, such as fires, hurricanes, etc., but also due to deforestation and bush cutting, mechanical destruction of vegetation during construction, irrigational-meliorative and a road works. Degradation of pasture lands in Kazakhstan has reached considerable sizes due to cattle pasture, soil erosion; desertification processes became more active. Vegetation reduction in city landscapes leads to rise in temperature and air pollution in cities, therefore expansion of the area of green plantings in cities and settlements has a great sanitary-and-hygienic value. Nowadays distinctly expressed tendency of

worsening of a crisis ecological situation in Aral, Balkhash, Irtysh, Kaspii regions, Rudnyi Altai, Almaty, Zhambyl, Ust Kamenogorsk, Shymkent, etc. is observed.

Speaking about the regions with catastrophic level of destabilization of ecosystems and geosystems in Kazakhstan present and former water areas of Aral sea, territory of Semipalatinsk nuclear testing facilities, northeast coast of Caspian sea, urban-industrial areas of Gornyi Altai: Ust Kamenogorsk, Ridder, Zyrjanovsk, can be named. Balkhash, Zhambyl, Zhezkazgan, Kyzyl-Orda, Temirtau, Shymkent, Almaty and Karaganda, the rivers Irtysh, Syr-Darya, Nura, Arys are regions with critical level of environmental destabilization. Aktau, Aktyubinsk, Atyrau, Semipalatinsk, Kapchagajsk and Shardarinsk water basins, lake Balkhash, Ili, Shu rivers are regions with intense level of the environmental destabilization. Regions with satisfactory level of the environmental destruction are urban-industrial areas of Kokshetau, Taldy-Korgan, Petropavlovsk, Uralsk, Ishim, Talas, Tobol, Sarysu, Ural rivers. Regions with favorable level of environmental conditions cover considerable, sparsely populated territories of Kazakhstan: semi-deserts, deserts, mountain areas (Chigarkin A.V., 1995).

Unfortunately, the problem of radiation pollution remains. Struggle against radioactive pollution can have only precautionary character as there are no ways of biological decomposition and other mechanisms, allowing to neutralize this kind of environmental pollution. Spreading by a food chain (from plants to animals), radioactive substances get into a human body with food and can accumulate in a quantity that can be harmful to a person. Nuclear weapon testing with good reason can be called the most serious crime against the nature and humankind. From 1949 to 1962 about 200 explosions in atmosphere, and from 1963 to 1989 - about 400 underground explosions were made in Semipalatinsk's proving ground; the part of them was accompanied by emissions of radio nuclides. Inhabitants of East Kazakhstan have received the greatest dose of ionizing radiation after Hiroshima-Nagasaki and Chernobyl. The information about the sickness rate connected with radiation influence was not subject to promulgation until 1989. According to informal sources of information, the number of deaths from leukemia made ten thousand people.

In Kazakhstan there is a number of factors which form radio-ecological conditions:

- Activity of the former Semipalatinsk nuclear testing ground;
- The nuclear explosions executed for the solution of economic problems;
- The enterprises of an atomic-industrial complex;
- Extraction and processing of polymetallic ores, oil and gas that increase radioactivity.

Bad condition of water resources of Kazakhstan is also recorded. Waterways of our republic are presented by near 85 thousand rivers. The largest waterways are Irtysh, Ishim, Ili, Syr-Darya, Ural, Shu, Talas, Assa rivers. Recent years have seen drying-out of the lake system. It is connected with overregulation of transboundary and inland basin flows and with natural fluctuations of their level.

Among the most terrible in the ecological relation there is a basin of the main waterway of Kazakhstan – the Irtysh River. Its waters are polluted with heavy metals (copper, zinc, cadmium, lead, arsenic, etc.) which get into the river with sewage.

Environmental situation of the Caspian region is defined by the increased level of the Caspian Sea and anthropogenous influence on sea coastal ecosystems. As experts predict the sea level rise will lead to lengthening of the coastal line to 2400 – 2700 km, and 1,2 – 2,2 million

hectares will be added to the flooded areas. Oil fields at northern and northeast coast of the Caspian Sea are exposed to the greatest danger of flooding (from 43 under the threat of flooding oil fields 32 are in Atyrau and 11 - in Mangistau regions). The Caspian Sea is the world's largest habitat of sturgeon fish. Therefore the problem of the Caspian Sea is not only interstate, but also a global problem. Preservation of Caspian Sea biodiversity is a concern for the whole world community and for the five states that have a common coastal line on Caspian.

Another most urgent problem is the preservation of Aral Sea. Since 1960, the area of Aral Sea has been essentially reducing. Use of water for agricultural crops irrigation has led to reduction by more than 90 % of natural water inflow from Tien-Shan mountains. The sea area has decreased by 2,6 million hectares, the sea has lost 6% of its volume, the water level has decreased by 12 – 24 meters, the concentration of salts has doubled. Daily 200 tons of salt and sand are scattered by wind on distances of up to 300 km. Nowadays, the processes of desertification, salinization of soil, plant and animal life exhaustion, climate change still remain and sickness rate of the population is increasing. The environmental situation of the Aral region has led to impossibility of traditional directions of economic development and has caused a number of social problems.

Destroying the environment, any modern society destroys its own future. For prosperity of the future generations it is necessary to maintain ecological stability. Thorough control over the environmental situation, rationing and prevention of industrial emissions, working out and implementation of waste-free and resource-saving technologies are necessary for preservation of ecologically stable future.

With a purpose of maintenance of a stable development of Republic Kazakhstan following mechanisms have been developed:

- Financing of actions of environmental protection from the state budget, local budgets, means of nature managers, the international loans and grants and other sources;

- Organization of competition among projects about environmental protection and rational wildlife management with their possible further financing from means of state and local budgets;

- Realization of the «pollutant pays» rule, meaning that nature user bears responsibility for financing the actions for environmental protection and for indemnity of a possible ecological damage, otherwise he should refuse to carry out such activity;

- Application of rent payments principle at the taxation of interior users;

- Gradual refusal from fiscal payments for the issues of environmental protection within standards, with reduction of the list of substances, for emissions of which the payment is taken, with simultaneous increase of stimulating value of indemnity of damage for excess of the established standards, increase of rates of administrative penalties for infringement of the nature protection legislation;

- Ecological insurance of any damage to the environment, and also the organization of funds for financing of actions for the environment restoration during the elimination of the enterprises;

- Implementation of ecological taxes on manufacturing of ecologically dangerous production and/or services, with possibility of using the funds for realization of large nature protection programs;

- Inclusion of the overall cost of natural objects into economic indicators with consideration of their environmental maintenance functions, and also costs of nature protection (ecological) works (services);

- Forming and application of the tax and tariff policy stimulating reorientation of export from raw materials to products of deep processing;

- Creation and application of the system of taxes and the duties stimulating use of non-polluting technologies, the goods and services regardless of the producing country;

- Implementation of the system of trade by quotas (obligations) between nature users;

- Implementation of market mechanisms of wildlife management, including recycling and reprocessing of the industrial goods;

- Usage of the international financial and economic mechanisms in the field of environmental protection, provided by the international conventions and agreements;

- Developing stimulating measures for charitable activities in the field of wildlife management.

Thus, the system of delivery of permissions to environment pollution allows regulating environmental pollution by the industrial enterprises.

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ALEXIS DE TOCQUEVILLE ABOUT THE PROBLEM OF SOCIAL STABILITY OF DEMOCRATIC SOCIETIES (THROUGH THE ANALYSIS OF NORTH AMERICAN STATES HISTORY)

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The problem of the future development of democratic societies, stability of their social and political life plays an important role in the works of the French historian of the first half of the 19th century Alexis de Tocqueville. He tried to solve this problem by analyzing European democratic societies of his time, the establishment of which he could witness. But the richest material for analysis was drawn by de Tocqueville from the thorough study of the history of the North American states.

This aspect of de Tocqueville's concept still remains relevant today when western democracies undergo complicated transformations and changes, and young liberal democratic states, which have appeared on the post-Soviet territory, go through difficulties in their development and growth, in many aspects resting on the historical experience of the past.

Studying this aspect of de Tocqueville's views is of great importance for the science since both domestic and western authors touch upon it indirectly through the general analysis of the concept of democracy[1].

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[1] See in: Исаев С.А. Алексис Токвиль и Америка его времени. СПб., 1993; Дементьев И.О.

De Tocqueville treated the problem of social stability of democratic societies judging from the assumption that, alongside with civil equality, the democratic society is immanently characterized by an absolute dominance of fairly well off proprietors in its structure. Besides this major social constituent he also mentioned two other elements of this structure, which, on the one hand, included wealthy proprietors - the rich - and, on the other hand, the poor. He viewed these two social layers as minor both in terms of quantity and degree of social importance.

De Tocqueville thought that such organization of a democratic society provided it with a greater communicativeness and stability comparing to other societies based on considerable civil and material inequality.

Developing this idea de Tocqueville wrote: "Between these two extreme layers of a democratic society there are countless numbers of people who can be called neither rich nor poor, whose property is considerable enough to make them want social order and small enough to arouse envy".[2]

De Tocqueville affirmed that such social organization contains many factors which were responsible for disapproval of revolutionary forms of changes in social relations by the democratic society. The most important of the factors in his opinion was the fact that the overwhelming majority of the democratic society owned certain property, since the revolution would have been a threat to that property. "Any kind of revolution, - wrote the scientist, - would be a certain threat to private property. The majority of population in democratic countries owns some property; and people are not just proprietors, they live in a society, where property is of great importance"[3].

De Tocqueville was one of the first to pay attention to the fact that proprietary psychology was characteristic of the minds and attitudes of the middle class. "Since the middle class representatives are still quite close to the poor, they clearly see suffering caused by poverty and are frightened of it. The small property they own separates them from the poor, and all their anxiety and hopes are connected with this property. Constant concerns about property and daily efforts aimed at increasing wealth make representatives of the middle class attached to their properties to a greater degree. The very thought that they can lose even a small part of their property is unbearable to them, while a complete loss of property is seen as the worst of the disasters. But the equality of conditions provides continual growth of the number of such zealous, anxious small proprietors"; no other class demonstrates "such persistent and strong sense of propriety as the middle class does"[4].

This peculiarity of social position and attitudes makes the middle class the only enemy of any social perturbations. Its sluggishness "keeps everyone in the superior and inferior positions in the quiescent state, adding stability to the entire society"[5].

Describing proprietary psychology of the democratic society citizens de Tocqueville stated that their fundamental idea was irresistible striving to increase their existing property and improve comfort of their living. This induces the desire "for any social unrest to start some time later,

Политическая теория А. де Токвиля и французский либерализм первой половины XIX в.: Автореф. дис. канд. ист. наук. Калининград, 2004; Pessen E. Riches Class and Power before the Civil War. - Lexington, 1973; Remond R. Tocqueville et la démocratie en Amérique // Livre du centenaire. - P., 1960; Hartz L. The Liberal Tradition in America. An Interpretation of American Political Thought Since the Revolution. N.-Y., 1955;

[2] Токвиль А. де. Демократия в Америке. М., 2000. P. 460.

[3] Same source.
[4] Same source.
[5] Same source.

not now"[6]. "Concern about satisfying the slightest needs of the body and acquiring the smallest conveniences in life occupied mind of the Americans all over the country"[7], and their appreciation of prosperity became "a leading feature of a national character"[8].

De Tocqueville considered social tranquility to be an important factor of social stability of the capitalist society and the most necessary condition for successful development of industry and trade, which requires certain caution, persistence, capability to compromise[9].

Besides, as de Tocqueville said, owners of movable property, who comprise the basis for industrial and commercial entrepreneurship, suffer from revolutions to a greater degree than landowners, since, "firstly, their property can be easily seized and, secondly, can be lost once and forever"[10].

De Tocqueville paid attention to the fact that the democratic majority is vested with the civil rights, the very existence of which contributes to development of legal conscience, deep respect toward law and rights, habits to follow the stereotypes of social behavior in everyday life and, consequently, holds them away from revolutionary ideas and aspirations[11]. These characteristics of the democratic society and democratic conscience are viewed by the scientist as a solid foundation for social stability, which hadn't been characteristic of any western society of the past[12].

This observation persuaded de Tocqueville to think that "people, who live in democratic societies, not only lack the desire to start a revolution, but are afraid of it"[13]. Revolutionary turmoil, if there is any, will be "of less violent character and more rare than it is usually supposed"[14].

De Tocqueville repeated this idea more than once[15], emphasizing once and again that severe property and civil inequality characteristic of the feudal society caused envy, anger and class hostility, and democracy, which brought civil equality and considerably reduced property inequality, made social life more peaceful.

At the same time, de Tocqueville was far from believing that new societies are insured against revolutions. He thought them quite possible. Moreover, he warned his contemporaries that in such societies revolutionary turmoil is more dangerous for the subsequent development than in other societies of other types, since the very nature of democracy implies prerequisites for despotism, the threat of which increases significantly in the times of revolution[16].

Elements of civil inequality, first of all inequality of black and white population were viewed by de Tocqueville as the most negative factor capable of destabilizing the American society and giving birth to the outburst of the revolution.

Expressing his concerns de Tocqueville wrote: "Concentrated in one spot of the Earth, unfair from the point of view of Christianity, pernicious from the point of view of economic policy, slavery cannot exist for a long time in the society of democratic freedoms and contemporary trend for public education. It will disappear either through the struggle of the slaves or by the will of the masters. In both cases

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[6] Токвиль А. де. Демократия в Америке. P. 461.
[7] Same source. P. 389.
[8] Same source. P. 391.
[9] Same source. Pp. 460-461.
[10] Same source. P.. 461.
[11] Same source. Pp. 190, 195.
[12] Same source. P. 462.

[13] Same source. P. 460.
[14] Same source. P. 462.
[15] Same source. Pp. 287, 461, 462, 466, 484, 495, др.
[16] Same source. P. 488, 502.

the process is expected to be accompanied by much turmoil"[17].

The author of "American Democracy" considered this confrontation as antagonistic and believed it could cause a severe conflict fraught with revolution: "If Americans ever experience the storm of the revolution, will be caused by the presence of the black population on the territory of the United States, which means the revolution will be caused not by the equality of the living conditions, but, on the contrary, their inequality"[18].

This statement is in fact a prognostication of the civil war between the North and the South which took place two years after de Tocqueville's death – another prognostication in the row of brilliant predictions that came true and up till now strike us with the depth of de Tocqueville's intuition, deep understanding of history and unique power of observation.

The scientist considered discontent of opposition electorate minority, always ready to stand up against the society majority, as the factor which could destabilize bourgeois society. "In the democratic society, - wrote de Tocqueville about this threat, - only few groupings and minorities welcome revolutionary changes, and sometimes these minorities happen to bring them in"[19].

Finally, de Tocqueville pointed out that another force capable of causing revolutionary instability is excessive ambitions of political leaders, their status seeking and mercenary interests[20].

De Tocqueville saw the same kind of threat coming from the struggle of political parties that disturbed, shook and tore up the society[21]. He saw that such unstable situation in a democratic society was caused by multiple pre-election campaigns and the elections which is the foundation of a democratic poitical system.

In particular, characterizing presidential elections in the United States, he wrote: "When crowds of people gather in a public place to elect the head of their state, they run the threat of not only dangers of the election system itself, but also the threat of the civil war, in which the elections can result"[22]. De Tocqueville was concerned that in the final run such instability can become habitual for the citizens of a democratic state[23].

De Tocqueville highlighted the dynamism, the strive for novelty, the inclination for changes so characteristic of the democratic societies and comprising a certain destabilizing background of the everyday life and contributing to the revolution outburst[24].

On the whole the scientist believed that in the democratic processes all these factors taken together will constantly give rise to a complex relations of stability and instability, conflict and consensus, which cannot be easily balanced by new societies, thought it is not at all impossible.

In this connection it is necessary to emphasize the fact that de Tocqueville distinguished to types of political instability which he characterized in the following way: "One of them, which concerns secondary laws, can exist for a long time without undermining the foundations of society. The other, constantly shaking the foundation of the constitution and destroying principles of making laws, leads to turmoil and revolutions. Such instability affects societies which live through the processes of rough changes. It is known that there are no certain ties between these two types of legislative instability. In different epochs and in different places they

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[17] Same source. P. 266.
[18] Same source. P. 462.
[19] Same source.
[20] Same source. P. 461.
[21] Same source. P. 145.

[22] Same source. P. 115.
[23] Same source. P. 168.
[24] Same source. Pp. 190, 393-394, 405.

existed together and separately. In the United States we can witness the first type of instability. Americans often change laws, but they treat the constitution with great respect"[25].

De Tocqueville emphasized more than once that he never claimed that democratic societies are guaranteed against revolutions: he just meant that "their social structure not only does not lead to inevitable revolutions, but rather takes them away from revolutions"[26].

The researcher thought that his contemporaries were mistaken in their opinion that democratic equality causes "chronic, recurrent revolutions"[27]. In his works of the 30s he tried to persuade them that such revolutions and anarchy, which accompanies them, are not "natural for democratic nations"[28]; he deeply believed that major revolutions, which change the structure of the society, would become history together with extreme social polarity of democratic societies; he could not find a place for them in a democratic society; he believed that in new social systems they would be deprived of sufficient prior beliefs.

De Tocqueville saw the real threat for these societies not in the revolutions, but in values of democratic mentality related to order and stability and thought that these values, when rendered absolute, in perspective could lead the society to stagnation and eliminate opportunities for dynamic advancing development.

He voiced is concerns in his book about American democracy: "When I think about the fortunes of the future generations, the thing I am concerned least of all is the revolution. If people of the country are limited in their interests by a small circle of their private household interests, there is an opportunity that eventually

powerful civil feelings which agitate nations and at the same time stimulate societies for development and renovation will be beyond their comprehension"; he feared that a burning thirst for ownership will after all bring people of democratic societies to "the breaking point when all new theories would be considered annoying troubles, and all signs of public progress would be seen as the first step to the revolution, out of fear of which they would refuse to evolve"[29].

Another negative consequence of initial values of democratic mentality related to order and stability in de Tocqueville's opinion was the threat that the "burning" thirst for ownership could cause despotism in democratic societies, and that for the sake of their property and quiet existence the citizens of these societies would infinitely strengthen the executive power and allot it with extreme prerogatives.

De Tocqueville paid attention to the fact that the inclination of such people to the stable public life was becoming "the only political passion", which was constantly strengthening while other political aspirations were declining: "this in a natural way disposed citizens to allotting more rights to the central power, since they believed that only this power, protecting itself, was interested in protecting them against the anarchy and had opportunities for that"[30]. Due to these aspirations they are capable of demonstrating "slavish obsequiousness" and "accepting the power of the master"[31].

On the whole the research of American democracy contains the conceptual vision of the author concerning the perspectives of the social revolution, which can be called "looking" into the past and which in this respect shows signs of re-

[25] Same source. P. 287.
[26] Same source. P. 462.
[27] Same source. P. 459.
[28] Same source. P. 463.

[29] Same source. P. 466.
[30] Same source. P. 484.
[31] Same source. P. 485.

semblance with the theory of class struggle developed by the French historians of the Restoration period – Guizot, Thierry, Mignet.

The concept of bourgeois society and the social revolution developed by de Tocqueville attracted attention of the historians of the "consensus" school[32].

In particular, they accepted his opinion that civil equality and relative property homogeneousness of the democratic society contain prerequisites for development of a certain social consensus which can become the foundation for its stability.

This idea became a starting point for their reasoning about balance, quietness and absence of conflicts in the American society of the past and in the present. Historians of this school revived the notion of «consensus universalis», which was coined and brought into circulation by de Tocqueville, and recognized him as the founder of the explanation of the Jacksonian democracy based on this principle.

Such interpretation of de Tocqueville's views reflects different aspects of his vision of American democracy, and, at the same time, to a certain extent distorts their content. This interpretation, in particular, fails to consider his understanding of the American society as a form of society in which consensus and conflict coexist and are interconnected.

A detailed analysis of this aspect of de Tocqueville's views by the historians of the "consensus" school was made by S.A.Issayev. Having studied the part of the research in which de Tocqueville used the notion «consensus universalis», he came to a well-grounded conclusion: the treatise "Democracy in America" did contribute to the development of "egalitarian myth" about Jachsonian America, but it has nothing to do with the development by the historians of this school of its "vulgar variety"[33].

Summing up the analysis of the problem under study we shall mention that de Tocqueville did not consider democratic societies as having no conflicts or being socially homogeneous, but he believed that civil equality, characteristic of such societies, and absence of big-scale property conflicts contain sufficient prerequisites for alleviating their social conflicts and for their sustainable stabilization.

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[32] See in: Drescher S. Dilemmas of Democracy. Tocqueville and modernisation. Pittsburgh. Univ. of Pittsburgh press. 1968; Idem. Tocqueville′s two democraties // Journal of the History of ideas. 1964. Apr.-juin. Vol. 25. № 2; Idem. American Historians and Tocqueville′ s Democracy // Journal of American History. 1968. Déc. Vol. 55. № 3; Gargan E.T. Tocqueville and the problem of historical Prognosis // American historical Review. 1963. Janv. Vol. 68. № 3; Idem. De Tocqueville. N.-Y., 1965.

[33] Исаев С.А. Алексис Токвиль и Америка его времени. Р. 55.

CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION THROUGH A LITERARY TEXT

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Cross-cultural communication takes place not only in a real dialogue (in the so called on-line regime) of representatives of different linguistic cultural traditions, but also in an "author-reader" dialogue through a literary text. In other words, communication happens in the process of literary communication.

During the process of renaissance of language, culture and traditions of the Kazakh people there is a great amount of literature pieces books being published. They include contemporary Kazakh prose, poetry, previously unknown to a wide range of readers works of rehabilitated Kazakh writers, Kazakh historical epos, children's book, magazines like "We study Kazakh" and others. Many of the new editions are published in two (Russian and Kazakh) languages or three (also in English) languages. Under conditions of an ever-expanding cross-cultural dialogue the problem of effectiveness of author-reader dialogue is inevitable, so is the problem of this effectiveness increase.

The universal technique of increasing the effectiveness of an "author-reader" communication is using a metatext. We understand "metatext" in a conventional way – as the "text about text" [1]. Let us consider situations where metatext is used for communication between an author and a reader, representing different linguistic cultural traditions – in our case Kazakh and Russian traditions. We need to mention that the following conflicts can happen here. For example, in the original text we come across such a sentence: *Ұл бала күтіп жүрген эке-шешесі кезекті қызына "Ұлбосын (ұл болсын)" деп ат қояды. (R.Nurtazina, L.Ackar "Дүниеге сәби келді!").* In the same book, translated into Russian, this sentence looks like:

Parents, who look forward to a son to be born, give their another born daughter the name "Ұл болсын"... – and there is no explanation given to this phrase. We can explain that the phrase is translated as *let it be a boy*. We can also conjecture that a Russian reader (or a Russian who happen to be in such a situation) will not understand the meaning of the name given to a child without some kind of clarification or the meaning a Kazakh puts into the phrase.

We find it interesting to consider cases of using explanatory metatext on a boundary of Russian and Kazakh linguistic cultures, investigate emerging situations and analyze peculiarities of functioning of clarifications in original Kazakh texts (for Kazakh speaking readers) and in translations (mostly for Russian speaking readers). Emergence of other situations is also possible (such as, for example, author's translation or a text written in Russian by a Kazakh writer and other cases).

First of all we need to mention that explanatory metatext can be both *inside-the-text* and *below-the-text*. Metatext inside the main text is represented by a certain *explanatory* syntactical structure [3]. Below-the-text metatext is presenting the same explanatory construction in the form of comments, footnotes, endnotes and etc. – that means in the form of some elements of the so called "literary escort". Let us consider both cases.

The use of explanatory inside-the-text metatext in linguistic cultural context mainly comes to two cases; Russian-Kazakh linguistic cultural tradition is not an exception in this case. Thus, we speak about the following:

1) when the objects of the discourse are certain realias of another culture the explanation is made following the model

of real logical explanation (through "class + specific difference"), which means the definition is included into sentences. For example: *Nostrils of the animal were still intact – not touched by the drover, and the hump had no signs of khom – a special attachment for load packs (I. Yesenberlin "Nomads"); ... For this purpose they made a wooden atamaiyer – a special saddle for children. (Z.Seitzhanov "Kazakh rituals"); On the way home he happened to be at shildek-hanu – a party in honor of a happy event – and got dead drunk. (A. Tarazi "Two poplar trees in my aul"); Since I sang a zhoktau – lamentation at father's funerals, I can't listen to music (T. Alimkulov "Music soul");*

2) presence in the text of foreign names calls for the use of a metalinguistic construction built according to a model of *nominal* logic definition. In other words, there is a simple "recoding" (a foreign word is given a Russian equivalent[1] or vice versa): *The next morning Akh-bura – "White camel" was at the same place as if waiting for awakening of inconsolable Ab-*

lai. *(I. Yesenberlin "Nomads"). Dozens of thousands of horsemen, having pulled out their swords and sabres-aldaspans, darted towards each other. (I. Yesenberlin "Nomads"); Since the Kazakh custom prohibited giving the mother's name to the youngest child, from their first meeting Zhamal called Aizhan Tulkigozem – Foxy Eyes. (Z. Akishev "Widows").*

However, the necessity to use metatext sometimes arises not only in the context of cross-cultural communication, but during communication within our own culture "if changes in the life of society reach the level when following generations do not remember, do not know and do not understand culture and mentality of their ancestors" [4, 89], i.e. for some kind of "cross-generation" communication. In this case, metatext, according to figure-of-speech used by Ter-Minassova, "performs the function of the bridge over the gap which separates "this time" and "that time", or the function of spectacles, which can help the reader to make out details of the past epochs" [4, 89]. The same situation can be observed when a Kazakh speaking author writes for his Kazakh speaking compatriots. For example: *Айт-тан бір күн бұрын "Арафа (апапа)" күні болады. Сол күні мерекеге арналған бауырсақ, шелпек пісіріледі. (R. Nurtazina, A. Seissenova "Ораза айт").* It is interesting to mention that the authors didn't think it fit to include into the Russian translation any explanations for the Russian-speaking readers: The day before the holiday is called the arafa day during which people usually bake flat cakes and bauyrsaks, and cook a lot of national food. *(«Ораза айт». Authors' translation).* Here are more examples: *Соның ең алғашқысы, әрі ең қатерлісі – көне эллада елінен атқа қонған Алек-сандр Македонский (Ескендір) еді.... Қос тігін қонған алғашқы түні-ақ тұс-тұстан атты ғаскер (әскер) шауып кірді. (D. Doszhan "Отырар").* There is

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[1] We speak about equivalents with certain acceptability, since we agree with the point of view of S.G. Ter-Minassova: "Much-talked-about equivalence, especially full equivalence, can exist only at the level of real life. The conception of the same, i.e. equivalent, objects and phenomena of the real life are different in different languages, because they are built upon different ideas of different national awareness…" But even in those rare cases when all these linguistic notions (semantics, use in speech, stylistic connotation, lexical combinability – L.K.) coincide in different languages, we shouldn't forget about non-linguistic differences, i.e. about the fact that not only objects and phenomena are different but also the way they are perceived, … since our way of life, world outlooks, habits, traditions, multiple various conditionalities, which determine national culture in a broad sense"– Ter-MinassovaS.G. Language and cross-cultural communication. M., 2000. pp.63-64.

no need to include any explanations into the Russian translation of this text, but the author thought it fit to explain different names used in the previous years in the original text. The similar examples are: *Тымақтың төбесі төрт немесе алты сай (бөлек) үшкіл (үш бұрышты) киізден құралып, шошақ болып келеді. (К. Matyzhan "Ұлттық киімдер").* Here is the translation of the words: *алты сай (бөлек) – separately; үшкіл (үш бұрышты) – triangular.*

Киімдердің, белдіктер мен ат әбзелдерінің (саймандарының) әшекейлері және басқа да зергерлік алтын бұйымдардың жалпы саны алты жүзген асады. (К. Matyzhan "Тарихи ғажайыптар"– "Wonders of Kazakhstan").

In the Russian translation: *әбзелдері (саймандар) – adornments.* Words *алты сай, үшкіл, әбзелдері* have become obsolete and the present day readers are not familiar with them. Considering that and probably trying to revive these old long-forgotten words, the author uses them in the text and explains their meaning.

Let us now consider the example with a diferent situation: *Шежіре бойынша Қорқыт ерекше болып туылған екен. Шешесі құланның жаясына жерік болып, әр жылда бір рет толғатып, үш жыл тоғыз күн көтереді. (N.Bazylkhan "Шежірелі жерлер").* Here is the translation of the text as it appears in Russian: *The legend speaks about an unusual birth of Korkyt. Being pregnant with Korkyt, his mother developed a liking for onager (wild horse) meat. She had annual labor pains and carried Korkyt in her womb for three years and nine days. («Қорқыт ата». Translation by S. Uyukbayev).* The translator is not sure whether a Russian speaking reader understands the word onager and provides an explanation – wild horse, while the author provides no explanation since there is no need in doing so: he

writes for people speaking the same language.

A similar example is: *Киіз үйдің негізгі қаңқасын – киіз үйдің сүйегі деп атайди. Олар: кереге, уық, шанырақ, есік немесе сықырлауық. (К. Baigabylova "Киіз үй").* The translation into Russian is something like: *The major part of the yurt structure is called suyektery (frame). It consists of kerege (lattice walls), uyk (special curved sticks which hold the upper circle of the uyrt), shanyrak (the yurt upper part) and sykyrlauk (doors). ("Yurt". Translation by Zh. Mamenov).* In the Kazakh text the author just enumerated the component parts of the yurt. In the Russian it would be impossible for the reader to understand what these component parts look like without an explanation.

Now let us examine the use of metatext outside the main text. Extensive explanations to the text here can be given in the form of comments and footnotes. This could be a socio-cultural metatext given with the purpose of filling the deficiency of background knowledge, without which there would be no effective author-reader communication. For example: ... *If you don't want to resolve an argument in the way relatives do, declare me "an enemy" and define a meeting place [1]. I'll bring myself to anything. (S. Mukanov "Botagoz").* Footnote: [1]*The phrase means 'challenge to fight'.*

About two hundred years ago when the Kazakhs became subjects of Russia, seventy five aksakals[1] headed for Orenburg to see a Russian general... (same resource). Footnote: [1]*Aksakal – in literal translation: a white beard, a respectable man, the head of a clan.* This, as we have already mentioned, can be a time-related comment: the present generation is not closely familiar with their ancestors' culture, thus, there arises the necessity in explanatory metatext in communication within one, our own, culture. For example:

Қазақ-қалмақ соғысқан
Шапқыншылық заманда
Жоңғар* келіп, оқыстан
Тағы да лаң салғанда, -
Бүкіл қазақ даласы
Дүр сілкінді, оянды.
Әрбір қарты, баласы
Бейне жігіт ноян-ды*.
(Y. Otetileuyly «Абылай және қазақ батырлары»)

Footnote: **Жоңғар – қалмақ; *ноян – зор, үлкен.*

Translated into Russian:

Седые преданья хранят времена – Джунгарских набегов несметны лавины.

В казахской степи полыхает война

И стонет земля, и пустеют долины.

Но час наступил, и рассеялся мрак,

И новое солнце взошло над степями-

Восстал для возмездия гордый казах

И поднял своё окрылённое знамя!

(«Аблай хан и батыры». Translation by N. Chernova) (Old legends recall the time – when Dzhungars' attacks were innumerable. The war came to the Kazak steppe, the land moaned and the valleys got abandoned. But the time came, and shadows lifted, and a new sun rose above the steppe, and a proud Kazakh stood up and raised the banner).

As it can be seen from the example there is a necessity to include an explanation into the Kazakh text, while there are other ways of a dialogue harmonization in the Russian text.

Now let us consider the examples of the editorial comments below the text. For example:

Қынарда* тілсіз тұрған тоғайлары

Шуылдап желмен бірге бас ұрады... (Y. Altynsarin "Өзен")

The footnote: **Қынарда – жағасында.* Translation from Kazakh: *ashore.*

Кентті* жерді жайлаған
Үзілмейді базары,
Қайда қалмас жігіттің
Өлгеннен соң мазары,
Бурылды көзі көрген соң,
Қобыландыдай батырдың
Құртқадан қайтты азары**,
Бурылға түсті назары. (Батырлар жыры).

Footnote: **Кент – қала. **Азар (парсы) – ыза, ашу.* Translation from Kazakh: *кент – city; азар – anger.*

Қынары, шолпы, мелдегі, кент, азар – are obsolete words which are rarely used nowadays; that is why it is necessary to explain their meaning for them to be understood by the contemporary reader. It is interesting to mention that a lot of long-forgotten words have been recently getting current again. For example the Russian word "*settlement*" was used to denote a settlement in the Kazakh language during the Soviet times. These days the former Kazakh word "*кент*", which denotes 'a town', 'a settlement', gets back into the language, and seems unfamiliar for many people. For example: a phrase *поселок Первомайский (Pervomaiskiy settlement)* in Russian would sound as *Первомай кенті* in Kazakh.

Sometimes an explanation is needed when the author tries to show that the story characters speak in a language which is not their native, i.e. they speak with an accent as in the following example:

– They say this Ketrampor* is located at the ends of the earth, - said one on the bais.

– Our murza is not going to Ketrampor, he is going to Orymbor* – interrupted an elderly aul foreman. (S. Mukanov "Botagoz")

Footnotes: **Ketrampor – mispronounced Peterburg; *Orymbor – mispronounced Orenburg.*

Such "adjustment" to difficult foreign words often takes place in everyday life; in literature it adds some national coloring, focuses reader's attention on familiar but unusually sounding words.

As it has been already mentioned, comments might be made not only by the author, but also by the translator (or publisher, editor): being in most cases a representative of another linguistic cultural traditions, the translator knows better which words, notions, names, that have specific national coloring will not be understood without a comment. For example: *She saw them cover her son with a white shroud and take him silently to the right wall* (A. Nurpeissov "Blood and Sweat")*. At the bottom of the page there is a comment made by translator Y. Kazakov: **Muslims put their deed at the right wall of the house,* since he supposes that a Russian-speaking reader will not understand the information in corpora without an explanation. Other examples include:

– *Erkebulan, despite his excess weight, walked quickly, lightly, waving a kuruk*. (Akim Tarazi "Two poplar trees of my aul")*. Translator's comment runs: **Kuruk is a long wooden pole with a rope loop at its end, meant for catching horses;*

– *You seem to have been walking under the scorching sun for three hours, he went on talking, having cast a glance at a big watch with a chain, hanging on one of the racks of a decorated with silver bakan*. (S. Mukanov "Botagoz").* Translator's comment: **Bakan is a type of a rack shaped as a column with spurs placed at the head of the bed;*

Угоняйте на новое место табун,

Не поспав, не умрешь, надо быть посмелей!

Все же лучше, чем волк Кондыбай и Конай[1].

Деду мы не дадим пировать средь степей. (Drive your herd to another place/ If you had no sleep – that's fine; you should be brave/ It's better than to be

Kondybai and Konai/ We won't have the old-timers to have a feast in the steppes) (Abai "Winter"). Translator's comment: [1]*Kondybai, Konai – neighboring auls, with which Abai's family clan – tobykty - rivaled. (Translation by Vs. Rozhdenstvenskiy)*. It is quite possible that without a comment the reader would understand the text not in a way the author intended.

To provide a complete understanding of the text, a simple footnote at the bottom of the page is used. The footnotes give definitions, or, which is quite often, translation of the elements, "barbarisms" in other words. For example:

– *He broke the law of Great Genghis Khan. He argued with glorious Karabatyr because of a zhesreika*... (I. Yessenberlin "Nomads")*. Footnote: **Zhesreika – female prisoner.*

– *Send best regards to my zhenge*! (T. Alimkulov "Musical soul")*. Footnote: **Zhenge – a wife of an elder relative.*

The office of volost steward was located in Itbai's otau*. (S. Mukanov "Botagoz"). Footnote: **Otau – the concubine's yurt.*

It is interesting to note that sometimes not only the author but also the editor (or translator) provide no comments counting on erudite reader, for example: *Inspired with his thoughts he filled two glasses with Champaign and said:...- Here's to Assem, who is more beautiful than Bayan! Here's to Assem, who is more beautiful than Abai's Togzhan! (K. Naimanbayev "Family matters" Translated by A.Konchitsa)*. Neither the author nor the translator give any comments on who is Bayan and how is Togzhan related to Abai thinking that the reader is familiar with folk epic about Bayan and the biography of great Abai. Sometimes we come across the opposite situation, for eample: *Well, who of you? Zhibek or Tulegen?* – asked he in a drunk thick voice. (K. Naimanbayev "I don't want to say good bye")* Footnote: **Zhibek and Tulegen – charac-

ters of Kazakh epos. In this case the fact of presence (or absence) of explanatory metatext is a sort of peculiar qualifier of the reader.

Thus, linguistic material shows that the process of cross-cultural communication can be successfully realized through the literary text. The traditional universal means of increasing "author-reader" dialogue effectiveness is an explanatory metatext, realized either within the sentence or in the form of out-of-the-text comments of different types.

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THE DOOR AS A COMMUNICATIVE SYMBOL IN THE DREAMS OF LITERARY CHARACTERS

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The studies of dreams in fictional literature form a special area of the literary theory, which is called "literary hypnology" or "oineropoetics." Scholars try to define the specifics of literary dreams and distinguish them from the reality of life. "The purposes of such studies are not to use the psychological methods for the literary analysis, but to use the literary methods in order to analyze the psychological phenomenon, which is described in the literary text") (20, с. 9). These studies are interdisciplinary, for they are situated on the boundaries of different academic fields, such as physiology, medicine, philosophy, psychology, literary and cultural studies, and semiotics.

V.M. Kovalzon, The Doctor of Biology and a member of the International Association for the Study of Dreams, defines the process of sleeping as "… особое генетически детерминированное состояние организма человека и других теплокровных животных (т.е. млекопитающих и птиц), характеризующееся закономерной последовательной сме-ной определенных полиграфических картин в виде циклов, фаз и стадий» ("… a special, genetically determined state of the human body and the body of other warm-blooded animals (mammals and birds), which is characterized by the logical succession of certain multi-graphic pictures in the form of cycles, phases, and stages") (6, с. 311). The process of sleeping is inevitably accompanied by the phases of dreams, which some scholars describe as the period of paradoxical sleeping. According to J.M. Lotman, a dream is «семиотическое зеркало, и каждый видит в нем отражение своего языка» ("…a semiotic mirror, and everyone beholds in it the reflection of his or her own language") (9, с.124).

V. N. Toporov, while chronologically cataloguing literary dreams from the texts of I. S. Turgenev, proposed to classify them according to their themes and to distinguish their repeating motifs and archetypes (21). But the recurrence of similar images and situations of literary dreams might be found in the literary texts

not only of the same, but of different authors. This fact cannot be explained in a single way, and, probably, is connected to the phenomena of inter-textual genesis, and the formation of the literary meta-text within the boundaries of one national culture. The appearance of the same image in different texts hardly proves the influence of one author on another, but, rather, the close connection of the literary creativity and the collective unconscious – or, to put it in another way, the link to the irrational forms of our consciousness from which the literary creativity derives experience and inspiration.

This article discusses one literary space image - a "topos" (any space image in semiotics is called "topos" from Greek "a place") – in the world of the literary hypnology of the Russian fiction. In the literary dreams, 'the door" topos and situations connected to it undoubtedly possess both everyday life and metaphysical senses, thus growing to the level of archetypal "chronotop" (the term of M. Bakhtin, from Greek "chronos"-"time" and "topos" –"a place").

The door is a spatial image, a real material thing, and, at the same time, it is-together with the motif of the plot- an important detail of the plot development. This image takes a special place in oineropoetics; in a literary text it is also connected with the other, non-oineropoetic episodes. AnanalysisAn analysis of the literary dreams from the works of V. Zhukovsky, A. Pushkin, F. Dostoyevsky, L. Tolstoy, A. Chekhov, V. Nabokov allows to see the literary objectification of this archetype and the poetics of its literary incarnation.

Scholars that tried to interpret the dream from the novel "Eugene Onegin" («Евгений Онегин»), point out at its folklore, mythological and literary sources. Summarizing these multiple observations, J. M. Lotman writes: "Tatiana's dream is a living amalgam of literary fairy-tale and folklore song images, with concepts coming from Christmas and Russian national marriage ceremonies" (8, с. 266). Scholars designate different literary works of Russian and European Romanticism that are mirrored in the poetics of Tatiana's dream. Among these dreams two- from the ballade "Svetlana" («Светлана») and from the comedy "Woe from Wit" («Горе от ума») - take a special place, for the direct borrowings from them are found in the Pushkin's text.

S.M. Kozlova in her article «Миф о похищении Персефоны в сюжетных схемах русской литературы» ("Myth of the abduction of Persephone in the plot structures of the Russian literature") demonstrates that she found in Tatyana's dream multiple mythological situations: abduction, getting into the world of the dead, sacrificial murder, and resurrection-return. This scholar thinks that «поток», «шумящая пучина», «гибельный мосток» ("the stream, "the boisterous abyss," "the pernicious gangway") correspond to the picture of the pagan realm of Hades: the Styx river, the crossing of the Styx, the helper of the abductor-«косматый лакей» ("the shaggy footman") - at the same time performs the function of Charon. «Tatiana попадает в «хижину» на шабаш («как на больших похоронах») «адских привидений», где оказывается в роли «хозяйки» - Персефоны, участницы черной мессы – убийства Ленского» ("Tatiana gets into "the hut" to the sabbath ("as at the big funeral") of "hell apparitions"), where she finds herself to be a hostess – Persephone, the partaker of the black mass-of the murder of Lensky") (7, с. 52-53).

The word-image "door" repeats in Tatiana's dream 5 times. First Tatiana notes that «behind the door are cries and glass clink as if at some big funeral» and that «she stealthily looks through the chink». She sees that «Onegin at the table sits and through the door furtively gazes»

(15, p.211). In the next stanza Tatiana, «being curious …opened the door a little».The actions of Onegin are also directed to the door: «doorward he goes», and later «Eugene has pushed the door» (15, p. 212). Thus the heroine finds herself in Onegin's room. In the moment of her awakening Tatiana sees that «thedoorhasopened" and that "to her, Olga, rosier than Northern Aurora and lighter than a swallow, flits in» (15, p. 213).

In the images and pictures of this dream both the preceding and the following episodes of the novel are reflected; the dream is filled with reminiscences and allusions from the text of the novel. «Сон есть травестия и прошлого, и будущего» ("The dream is a travesty of the past and the future") – writes V. Nabokov (14, с.404). In the studies of J.N. Chumakov these phenomena of the novel poetics are termed like «перебросы смыслов», «рифмы ситуаций», «ассонансы ситуаций» и, наконец, «смысловой телекинез» ("gybing of the meanings," "rhyming of the situations," "assonances of the situations" and, finally, "the connotative telekinesis") (27). In the scene of the names day party in Chapter 5 «The door leaves suddenly fly open: Lenski enters, and with him Onegin» (15, p.217). The forest hut forestalls the image of the Onegin's country estate house, into which Tatiana will enter in Chapter 7: «Anisia came forth to her promptly, and the door opened before them, and Tanya stepped into the empty house» (15, p.258). When Onegin visits Tatiana's manor in Saint Petersburg the last time, «… heentersareceptionroom. Oh! No one. A door he opens… The princess before him, alone, sits…» (15, p.303). This repeating image of the opening door both in the dream and in the real lifetime of the novel sequentially connects and disconnects the main characters.

It is possible to see that the archetypal image of a door appears already in the ballade of V. Zhukovsky "Svetlana," ("Светлана") where the dream of a heroine is described. Svetlana, as well as later on Tatiana, is afraid to open the door and to cross the threshold. Both these characters go through a special rite of initiation in their dreams. Before writing his famous novel in verse, A. Pushkin had already tried to use the motifs of a ritual woman's dream in the fairy-tale "The Groom" («Жених») (1825).In the fairy-tale the desperate heroine, Natalia, invents a dream in order to punish the murderer. Scholars traditionally compare her imaginary dream to the dream of Tatiana. Both heroines get lost in the forest in a moonlit night and "suddenly" find themselves in front of a cottage/a hut of the highwaymen/the forest evil spirits. Fear and curiosity accompany the actions of the girls: they secretly observe the running feasts. In both dreams the image of the opening and closing door- a dangerous border of the two worlds- appears: «Дверь отворила я. / Вхожу…»; «Я поскорее дверью хлоп / И спряталась…» ("I opened the door. /I entered…"; "I quickly slammed the door/ And hid myself…") (17, с. 284-285). The heroines of the two nightmares become the witnesses of the murder, and the tool of the murder in both cases is a knife.

In the dreams of I. S. Turgenev's characters, who are in love with each other, the motifs of Tatiana's dream revive again. While preparing "The Song of Triumphant love" ("Песнь торжествующей любви") (1881) for the publication, I. S. Turgenev in his letter to M.M. Stasyulevich (from the 1(13) of March 1881) called it «фантастическим рассказом» ("a fantasy story"). V.N. Toporov defines the two dreams that are introduced in this story as the situation «одного общего сна, видимого двумя людьми одновременно» ("of a single shared dream, seen by two persons at the same time") (21, с. 166). If we take into consideration that this shared dream first is voiced by the author

as if by Valeria herself, and later told aloud by Muzio to his guests, we will clearly perceive the shift in the points of view of the dreamers. This shift, first of all, has something to do with the image of the door. There is Valeria's recollection of the space: «Ей почудилось, что вступает она в просторную комнату с низким сводом <…>; окон нет нигде; дверь, завешанная бархатным пологом, безмолвно чернеет во впадине стены. И вдруг этот полог тихонько скользит, отодвигается… и входит Муций». Compare this with the dream of Muzio: «Я видел, будто я вступаю в просторную комнату со сводом, убранную по-восточному. <…> Я вошел через дверь, завешенную пологом, а из другой двери, прямо напротив – появилась женщина, которую я любил когда-то» (24, с.54-55).

In front of us is a mirrored hypnotic dream, into which there are two ways: the woman enters through one of the doors, the man through another one. The second door is from the outside, the first one –is a secret door, covered with a drapery. The outside door leads from the real life to the world of the magic; the inner door is the passage from the darkness of the black magic to the «полупрозрачную» ("translucent") rendezvous chamber, saturated with «бледно-розовым светом» ("the pale-pinkish light") and balm scent. The symmetry of the doors underlines their reflectivity and ambivalent symbolism. Valeria's door - is the border between the world of reality and the world of a dream, between consciousness and the curiosity of the hidden wish. The door covered with drapery – is the border between the world of the realized wish and the darkness of the unconscious.

The doors are in the way to the world of the dark Eros and Valeria's unconscious. In order to release these wishes in Valeria-Cecilia, Muzio uses the magic of a pearl necklace. Fragrant and thick

«ширазское вино» ("Shiraz wine") and the melody that «полилась, красиво изгибаясь, как та змея, что покрывала своей кожей скрипичный верх» ("Started to flow, bending wondrously as the snake that covered by its skin the violin's surface") (24, с.53) – complete the enchantment.

The doors in the dreams correspond with the real topography of Fabia's house and the pavilion, where Muzio settled down. When Muzio leaves after the evening talk, Valeria looks at the door through which he has gone (24, с.54). Fabio, trying to interrupt the hypnotic influence, locks the door from the house to the orchard, and feels that somebody strains to open it from the inside. Later Fabio, tracing the path of Valeria, with the stopping heart, opens the outer door, but the Malaysian «повелительно указал» ("peremptorily pointed him…") at the door. Fabio remembers about «потаённой двери» ("the secret door") to the pavilion, and gets through it into the room with the corpse of Muzio. Persistently repeated image-"topos" allows to coordinate the worlds of reality and dream and to multiply the symbolical meanings of the door. Fabio witnesses the dreadful scene of resuscitation of the corpse. In three hours «дверь павильона растворилась» ("the door of the pavilion flung open") and the revived cadaver, strangely stepping and supported by the Malaysian, left Ferrara forever. The door becomes a symbol of the border between the two worlds-the world of the alive and the world of the dead, and the mute Malaysian is one who possesses a secret ability to go through this border.

In another I.S. Turgenev's tale "Clara Milich (After Death)" ("Клара Милич (После смерти»") (1882) the image of a door appears in the dream-vision of Aratov, when he is concentrated on the will to conjure Clara from the World of no-existence. «Раза два глаза его слипались… Он тотчас открывал их… по

крайней мере, ему казалось, что он их открывал. Понемногу они устремились на дверь и остановились на ней. Свеча нагорела – и в комнате стало опять темно… но дверь белела длинным пятном среди полумрака. И вот это пятно шевельнулось, уменьшилось, исчезло… и на его месте, на пороге двери, показалась женская фигура. Аратов всматривается… Клара! <…> На голове у неё венок из красных роз…». The image of a door is doubled again: it is an unreal door –the border between the world of the alive and the world of the dead, from which the spirit of Clara comes; but it is also the door of his room, into which his aunt steps in «в ночном чепце с большим красным бантом и в белой кофте» ("in a night cap with a huge red bow and in a white blouse") (24, с.107). As in another Turgenev's story, discussed above, the dream is "stronger" than reality and appears to be a certain super reality, primaryto the reality of everyday life, in spite of everything that actually took place.

The novel of F. M. Dostoyevsky "Crime and Punishment" ("Преступление и наказание") is saturated with dreams. One can talk not only about the dreams-novellas, but about the cycles of dreams in the context of the novel: these are the cycle of Raskolnikov's dreams and the triplet cycle of the tripled dream of Svidrigailov. In the previous years these dreams became the object of the attentive studies and commenting. M.M. Bakhtin, V.J. Kirpotin, L.P. Grossman, V.J. Kozhinov, J. Karyakin, R.G. Nazyrov, A.M. Rumyanzeva, N.M. Chirkov, G.K. Szhennikov, S.V. Belov and others devoted special articles, chapters and pages of their books to the analysis of each of these dreams. Studying the aspects of the comparative oineropoetics, we are mostly interested in the forth dream of Raskolnikov

In the third dream Raskolnikov, in despair, pronounces: «Что это, свет перевернулся, что ли? » ("What is it?

Has the world turned around?") (3, с.91) This phrase will fatally define the particular qualities of the forth dream, in which all events, as M.M. Bakhtin precisely noted, develop according to the rules of the carnival. «В сне Раскольникова смеется не только убитая старуха (во сне, правда, ее убить оказывается невозможным), но смеются люди <...>, смеются все слышнее и слышнее. Далее появляется толпа, множество людей и на лестнице и внизу... Перед нами образ развенчивающего всенародного осмеяния на площади карнавального короля-самозванца» ("In Raskolnikov's dream not only the killed old woman laughs-in a dream, though, it is not possible to kill her-but also multitude of people laugh <…>, laugh louder and louder. Next, this multitude, this crowd appears on the stairs and below…In front of us is an image of dethroning folk derision of the king-imposter on the square") (1, с.290).

The forth dream is the dream about the repeated murder of the old woman. Action seems to be reversed and go backward, but now the tragedy of the murder becomes a comedy. The dream is an answer to Raskolnikov's words: «О, как я ненавижу теперь старушонку! Кажется, бы другой раз убил, если б очнулась!» ("Oh, hownow I hate the old hag! It seems I would kill her another time if she by chance had recovered!") (3, с.212) Compositionally this dream is situated strictly in the middle of the novel. It ends the third part of the book and divides the whole novel into two triads. In the full collection of the works of F.M. Dostoevsky "Crime and Punishment" takes 422 pages, and the forth dream is on the pages 212-213. In the topography of the dream the two doors are mentioned: one led into the bedroom: «вдруг ему показалось, что дверь из спальни чуть-чуть приотворилась и что там тоже как будто засмеялись и шепчутся» ("suddenly it seemed to him as if the door from the bedroom opened

slightly, and people there suddenly laughed and continued whispering"); another door conducted to the stairs outside the apartment: «двери на лестнице отворены настежь» ("The outside door to the stairs was open wide"). While awakening, Raskolnikov sees the opened door, and a stranger, standing on the threshold. This stranger «бережно притворил за собой дверь» ("carefully closed the door behind himself") (3, с.213-214), and then introduced himself as Svidrigailov. Two doors in the dream are correlated with the real ones in the apartment of the old woman. In the bedroom, Raskolnikov stole the things, which he did not make use of. The door to the stairs is the outside door from the apartment, where the murder was committed. The opened door in his dream is the symbol of his denunciation and despair. And real Svidrigailov, entering through the opened door to the Raskolnikov`s poor tiny dwelling, seems to be emerging from Raskolnikov`s dream; closing the door behind himself, Svidrigailov moves away for some time the torturing for Raskolnikov revelation of his crime.

In the novel "Idiot" ("Идиот") Hippolytus describes his «хорошенький сон» ("pretty dream") and especially emphasizes that he saw it right before the arrival of Prince Myshkin. In this dream «ужасное животное», «чудовище», «вроде скорпиона, но не скорпион, а гораздо гаже и гораздо ужаснее» ("an awful creature", "a monster", "like a scorpio, but much more abominable and dreadful") (4, с. 323) appears in Hippolytus's bedroom. Neither Hippolytus's mother, nor his acquaintance can catch the insect, and then the mother opens the door and lets the dog inside the room. Later the following fight between the dog and the scorpion is described. In the moment when Norma kills the vile creature, Hippolytus wakes up, and Prince Myshkin enters.

The door is mentioned in this dream twice and symbolizes the border between the room of horrors and the outside world, from where the help arrives. The appearance of the dog (in the dream it gets the bite of the scorpio that was intended for its master) and of the Prince (in reality) in the room of Hippolytus functionally unifies these images. The dog Norma and the Prince are the rescuers and the door is the entrance and exit from the room of horrors, which symbolizes the inner "I" of Hippolytus.

The history of hypnology records dreams, in which a person is transitioned into certain states and parts of the world unknown to him in his lifetime. Examples include the dreams about death and different travels and transitions that precede or follow the moment of death. In such visions the images of the future overtake the present. One of the main characters of the novel "War and Peace" ("Война и мир") Andrey Balkonsky, approaching the moment of his real death, has exactly this type of a dream: «Он видел во сне, что он лежит в той же комнате, в которой он лежал в действительности, но что он не ранен, а здоров. Много разных лиц, ничтожных, равнодушных, являются перед князем Андреем. <…> Понемногу, незаметно все эти лица начинают исчезать, и все заменяется одним вопросом о затворенной двери. Он встает и идет к двери, чтобы задвинуть задвижку и запереть ее. Оттого, что он успеет или не успеет запереть ее, зависит всё.<...> Что-то не человеческое – смерть – ломится в дверь, и надо удержать ее. Он ухватывается за дверь, напрягает последние усилия – запереть уже нельзя – хоть удержать ее; но силы его слабы, неловки, и, надавливаемая ужасным, дверь отворяется и опять затворяется. Еще раз оно надавило оттуда. Последние, сверхъестественные усилия тщетны, и обе половинки отворились беззвучно. Оно вошло и оно есть смерть. И князь Андрей умер. Но в

то же мгновение, как он умер, князь Андрей вспомнил, что он спит, и в то же мгновение, как он умер, он, сделав над собою усилие, проснулся. «Да, это была смерть. Я умер – я проснулся. Да, смерть – пробуждение! » (22, р. 69-70).

D. S.Merezhkovsky wrote that the philosophy of this dream is supported by the experience of the physical senses, when the helplessness of the body both in reality and in a dream frees the soul: «И здесь, как везде, как всегда у Л. Толстого, не тело следует за душою, а, наоборот, душа за телом: что сначала в теле, то потом в душе. <...> Тело уходит из жизни вне - жизнь, опускается в «черную дыру» – и душа влечется за телом; тело тянет душу» ("And here, as everywhere, as always in L. Tolotoy`s texts, not the body is following the soul, but, on the contrary, the soul is going after the body: what at the beginning is in the body, later on will be reflected in the soul'…The body leaves the life for non-existence, descending into the "black whole"- the soul is dragged after the body, the body pools the soul") (10, с. 222).

V.I. Porudominsky points out that the dream of Tolstoy himself became the source of the dream of Balkonsky (16). This dream Tolstoy recorded in his Note-book and dated it by April 11 1858: «Я видел во сне, что в моей темной комнате вдруг страшно отворилась дверь и потом снова неслышно закрылась. Мне было страшно, но я старался верить, что это ветер. Кто-то сказал мне: «Поди, притвори», я пошел и хотел отворить сначала, кто-то упорно держал сзади. Я хотел бежать, но ноги не шли, и меня обуял неописуемый ужас. Я проснулся и был счастлив пробуждением» ("I saw in my dream that in my dark room the door suddenly and terrifyingly opened, and then closed again silently. I was afraid, but tried to believe that that was the wind. A voice told me "Go, close it", and I went and wanted to open first, but somebody firmly hold it from the outside. I wanted to run, but my feet did not move, and I was horrified. I woke up and was so relieved with my awakening") (23, р.75).

In many books of dream interpretations to see one dead is supposed to be a lucky omen. From the point of view of the folklore beliefs, the door is the analog of the gates: a big and tall door foretells a fortune and the high position in the society; if it opens- there will be a good luck, if it suddenly flies wide open one should expect happiness and profit.

An absolutely different interpretation of the door is given in the works of Z. Freud and his followers (18, с. 51-52). Psychoanalysts interpret all dreams with the door images from the point of view of self-feelings of a person and a degree of richness of the experience, not only of the erotic wishes, but emotions in general.

As we see, the great variety of the existing interpretations (often mutually excluding) does not eliminate the possibility of the new ones. The dream of Andrey should be understood as a prophetic vision, but simultaneously it contains space allegories. A door is the archetypal image of the border of the two worlds, Andrey`s struggle with it – it is his resistance to the unknown. «Дверь – черта, рубеж, на котором как бы сфокусировано ожидание, и дверь – заслон. Или точнее так: дверь – привычный предмет, который можно предложить зрению взамен нечеловеческого «оно» ("The door is a line, a frontier on which the anticipationis focused, and it is also a barrier. Or, more accurately: the door is a familiar object, which might be offered to our vision instead of surreal "it") (5, с. 53).

In the Yung`s analysis of dreams, the opening of the door symbolizes the way through the consciousness: «Дверь понимается как амбивалентный символ, связанный с конкретным действием. Дверь разделяет два пространства, ко-

торые связаны в свою очередь со временем (из прошлого в настоящее и будущее), – поэтому важно направление движения через дверь, ее местонахождение и степень усилий» ("The door is understood asana bivalent symbol, connected with a specification. The door divides the two spaces, which are, in their turn, connected with the time - from the past- to the present and to the future-therefore, the direction of the movement through the door, as well as its location and the amount of the efforts spent on its trespassing, are very important") (19, c.290). The crisis dream of Andrey facilitates his transition from life to death: the chronotop of the door is the border between the world of the dead and the world of the alive. In Scandinavian mythology Valhalla (the feast hall of the dead) has 540 doors, through which the valiant warriors that fell in battle get inside (2, c.27). Let`s not forget that Andrey also passes away from the wound that he received on the battle field.

In the following parts of the novel there is one scene, in which the image of the door as the border space is as articulate and symbolic as in Bolkonsky`s dream. This scene belongs to the fourth volume of the novel. Pierre Bezukhov, who had passed through the imprisonment, is returning back to Moskow, and visits Mary Bolkonsky, in whose house he suddenly meets Natasha Rostova. These three spiritually connected friends had suffered much and understood each other very well. While they talk, Natasha for the first time tells about the last hours of Andrey Bolkonski's life. This «мучительный и радостный рассказ» ("torturing and comforting tale") is necessary for Natasha in order to free herself from the burden of the past sufferings. Pierre listens and does not stop looking at her, cultivating in himself the sense of love to Rostova. At the final moment of this story Bolkonsky's son enters the room, and Natasha, taking this

chance, stands up in order to leave the room: «Она <…> почти побежала к двери, стукнулась головой о дверь, прикрытую портьерой, и с стоном не то боли, не то печали вырвалась из комнаты. Пьер смотрел на дверь, в которую она вышла, и не понимал, отчего он вдруг один остался во всем мире» (22, с. 234). Natasha does not know anything about the dream of Balkonsky, but the reader remembers that dream, and the connection of the real door with the allegorical image from the dream is present. (The tautological triple repetition of this word in the same passage is not accidental).The real door is perceived here as a terrible border, that separated for some time Natasha from Pierre. To bring these images together is the task of that "ideal" reader, who, according to Tolstoy`s thought, knows how to "conjugate" images.

In A.P. Chekhov 's story "Three Years" ("Тригода") Julia, who came temporarily to her native city, sees the funeral that is later transferred into her dream: «Легла она в постель рано, а уснула поздно. Снились ей всё какие-то портреты и похоронная процессия, которую она видела утром; открытый гроб с мертвецом внесли во двор и остановились у двери, потом долго раскачивали гроб на полотенцах и со всего размаха ударили им в дверь. Юлия проснулась и вскочила в ужасе. В самом деле, внизу стучали в дверь…» (26, р. 64). The mournful symbolism of the dream in reality becomes life-asserting: the smash of the coffin at the door forestalls a message - a joyous telegram. The door in the dream becomes a symbol of connection of a dreamer with the outer, real world.

V. Nabokov's novels contain in themselves elements of both practice and the theory of dreams. In the novel "Despair" («Отчаяние») the nightmares accompany all actions of Hermann, and all dreams in the novel compositionally form

an independent cycle of stories within a story. The first dream that disturbs Hermann for several years he sees again before his meeting with Felix: "For several years I was haunted by a very singular and a very nasty dream: I dreamed I was standing in the middle of a long passage with a door at the bottom, and passionately waiting, but not daring to go and open it, and then deciding at last to go, which I accordingly did; but at once awoke with a groan, for what I saw there was unimaginably terrible; to wit: A perfectly empty, newly white-washed room. That was all, but it was so terrible that I never could hold out; than one night a chair and its slender shadow appeared in the middle of the bare room – not as a first item of furniture but as though somebody had brought it to climb upon it and fix a bit of drapery, and since I knew whom I would find there next time stretching up with a hammer and a mouthful of nails, I spat them out and never opened that door again" (11, p. 46-47). The corridor and the door are the symbols of perinatal horror and inner self of Hermann. Forcing to stop the closed-spaced nightmare of the first dream, Hermann is imposed with the second, also repeating, but an opposite to the first - open-spaced nightmare –a delirious dream about his own counterpart-Felix, who is coming towards him along an empty road and is passing through Hermann's own body. The events of the third novella-dream take place in the hotel's room, where Hermann and Felix spend the night together. The third dream is multi-layered and consists of three interconnected dreams: Hermann awakens into another dream, from the second dream he awakens into the third one, and only the fourth time he wakes up "really". Finally, the last dream is the story of betrayal and deceit, committed by the wife, who breaks up the agreement and marries another man. The finale of the novel strangely includes all the events into the frame of a long-lasting

dream: "Maybe it is all mock existence, an evil dream". Hermann is thinking in this way, while being in a room, where the gendarme visits him. "As he was leaving, he turned in the doorway and asked me to remain indoors" (11, p. 211). Differentiating himself first in his dream (by closing the door into the room that symbolizes the depth of the consciousness), and then in real life from his own "self", and taking the place of his own counterpart, Hermann becomes imprisoned in the room and loses the sense of reality.

The double world that determines the relationship between the dream and the reality in the literary works of romanticism and modernism is not always estimated by V. Nabokov in favour of the dream. For instance, in the novel "Gift" ("Дар") love in reality is a miracle that drives a way them ar vel sof the dreams: «По-настоящему же она никогда ему не снилась, довольствуясь присылкой каких-то своих представительниц и наперсниц, которые бывали вовсе на нее непохожи, а возбуждали в нем ощущение, оставлявшее его в дураках, чему был свидетелем синеватый рассвет. А потом, совсем проснувшись, уже при звуках утра, он сразу попадал в самую гущу счастья, засасывающую сердце, и было весело жить" (12, p. 161). But as if in a contrast, the novel "Gift" concludes with a glaringly happy dream about the return of the father. In this dream the main character gets into a room, «в которую он думал, что никогда в жизни больше не войдет» ("into which he thought he would never enter again"). He is told to wait, and the door into the room is slammed after him. He is listening, while staring at that door. «Вдруг за вздрогнувшей дверью (где-то далеко отворилась другая), послышалась знакомая поступь, домашний сафьяновый шаг, дверь бесшумно, но со страшной силой открылась, и на пороге остановился отец» (12, p. 319).In this dream a strong wish of the main char-

acter to meet again the lost father comes true, though it is only a dream, and the door lets this dream in.

Anti-freudian image of a father in a dream of the main character – is the cryptic archetype of Animus. The room with a door (this word-image is repeated 4 times) is a symbol of a carefully hidden loss and, simultaneously, of an ardent wish to encounter the lost past (the father, the motherland, the parent's house). A door is a space of connection of the past to the present, and the present to the future. It is not by chance that the double-faced Janus in Ancient Rome was the god not only of time, but «богом дверей», «входа и выхода вообще, в том числе начинания какого-то дела и окончания его» ("the god of doors," "of entrance and exit in general, of the beginning and ending of any project") (25, c. 120).

The analysis of ten dreams from the works of Russian classical writers allows us to assert that the semantics of the neurolinguistic sign "the door" in literary dreams unifies the archetypal and contextual meanings that reflect the substantial qualities of Russian mentality. The tragic and dramatic pathos that accompanies the symbolism of the "door" topos in the works of Russian authors to the certain extent opposes other different interpretations of this symbol (for example, in the short stories of O' Henry "The Green Door" and of Herbert Wells "The Door in the Wall").

"The door" topos in the dreams – is a communicative symbol of the border between the dream and the reality, the world of the dead and the alive, material and spiritual, the conscious and unconscious of the dreamer, his or her obvious and hidden wishes, exterior and interior world, rational and erotic; it is the symbol of connection and disconnection, of mystery and transition to the sphere of unknown, a chronotop-image, which is fusing the space of the past and the present, the space of the present and the future.

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RUSSIAN LITERATURE OF EAST KAZAKHSTAN: AN INTERCULTURAL DIALOGUE

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Russian literature in Kazakhstan reflects the unique historical example of the state: for hundreds of years the people living here have accumulated an enormous socio-political and cultural experience, an aesthetic interpretation of which should be a top priority of our common cultural future. According to N.A. Nazarbayev, "The Kazakhstan's geography itself creates the image of the borderline country, the destiny born to live in two dimensions: Europe and Asia – and framed by dozens of cultures, distinctive traditions and customs" (1, 4). Among the strategic inter-state and inter-ethnic development trends of the twenty-first century the preservation of multicultural dialogue, of course, remains the priority. The Russian language through its best pieces of art is intended to illustrate the unifying ideas of Eurasianism. Eurasianism is primarily a cultural background, geopolitically formed by Russia and Kazakhstan, including the East Kazakhstan region.

East Kazakhstan is a special area of self-contained energy, formed by the ancient and modern marginalia, pristine nature and industrial (close to ecological disaster) development. The situation in the region at the junction of cultures is a place for the origin of the unique artistic and moral experience. The writer feels the connection with this geospace, organically becoming a part of the fiction and acquiring a psychological, mental character.

The main objective of linguists, scientists and teacher-practitioners is understanding literary process of Rudny Altai in its historical, ideological and thematic coordinates. The literary history of our region is rich in examples of the active development of the "Cultural Nest": Ust-Kamenogorsk, marked by the cultural and educational activities of G.D. Grebenshi-

kov, A.M. Volkov, P.P. Bazhov; organization of the literary association "Zveno Altaya" (1921). Following periods can be distinguished: 1960-70s - a time of vigorous flourishing clubs, associations, amateur poets, 1990s - creation of the journals "Vostok" and "Irtysh", literary associations "Fenix", "Gorniy ruchei".

The study of literary life in close connection with the symbolic representation of the territory allocated to the number of cultural priorities of the Republic of Kazakhstan at the turn of the twenty-first century. Text options illustrate the significance of the "marginal" factor in shaping the artistic vision of the author; broaden understanding of the breadth of literary development and the contribution of the author's fellow writers. Literary and cultural realities of the native land as a model of the art world convey individual vision of the world and allow to build its own, based on the art, world. The world, reflected repeatedly in specific artistic texts, is a unified literary text culture. "Belovodye" as the chronotope of the East Kazakhstan cultural text, in terms of geographical and historical characteristics has a very specific timing, built largely on the basis of the legend.

The first information about Belovodye as the Promised Land with "milk rivers and honey-banks" refers to the reign of Vladimir I Svyatoslavich. The ancient chronicle runs: "«Страна Беловодье не сказка, но явь. В сказаниях народов она зовется всюду по-иному. В дивных обителях пребывают лучезарные, кроткие, смиренные, долготерпеливые, сострадательные, милосердные и прозорливые Великие Мудрецы – Сотрудники Мiра Высшего, в котором Дух Божий живет, как в Храме Своем… Там Царство Духа Чистого, красоты, чудных огней, возвышенных чарующих тайн, радости, света, любви, своего рода покоя и непостижимых величий...» (1).

In the essay of A.G. Luhtanova "Bukhtarma Belovodye" these spatial-temporal characteristics turn into a specific mythical country: «Сверкающим яхонтом и серебром водная гладь реки [Бухтармы] несется из края в край, пересекая горы, укрытые изумрудными коврами лесов, извиваясь, спешит передать привет от двуглавой царицы снегов Белухи седому Иртышу. Ласковая, умиротворяющая, вспыхивающая блестками искр на гребнях волн в разгар лета, в июле, до краев переполненная мутной полой водой в мае, грозная, несущая лавину грязных ноздреватых льдин в ледоход. И не потому ли Беловодье, что в августе, в разгар таяния ледников, вода в Бухтарме становится белой, будто подпустили туда струю молока» (2). The East-Kazakhstan writer-naturalist describes mountains, forests, two-top Belukha mountain, the Irtysh river, and finally, he explains why the waters of Bukhtarma are called "white".

The country of Belovodye is the land in which every person can live in prosperity and happiness, the sacred land of Zion and the righteous in the East, which is the storage of truth and spiritual knowledge. From the point of view of folklore, the legend of Belovodye belongs to the type of socio-utopian legends of distant lands and secret shelters of faith that unites it with the traditions of the "kingdom of John" in the East, or the City of Kitezh. The Legend of Belovodye takes its place in the global utopia of a happy land among several other legends of the "promised land" like "El Dorado", "Blessed Islands", "Jer-Uyuk", etc. The variety of concepts about the wonderful country explains the existence of a large number of synonyms defining "Belovodye": Promised Land, land of milk and honey, Kitezh-grad, Shambala, Jer-Uyuk, the Kingdom of White Waters, the Forbidden Country, Country of White Waters and High Mountains, Country of Light Spirits, Wonderland, Country of Living Gods, Country of

Living Fire.

In his ballad "Chud" E. Kurdakov`s explains the title of the ballad with an epigraph: «Чудь белоглазая в землю ушла…» (Altai belief) whole the text of the ballad contains familiar to the reader name code:

…Нет имени, что б не озвучила Чудь:

Алтай, Светозар, Златогор, Беловодье, –

Андроновской бронзы начало и путь (3, 56).

The Chronotope Belovodye in the art world of Michael Nemtsev, representative of the older generation of poets of the East Kazakhstan province, is filled with "voices and colors of blessed east Kazakhstan land surrounded by whie-blue tops of Rudniy Altai mountains". To the Legendary Belovodye Nemtsev dedicates his collection of poems "Voices of Belovodye" (1996). The collections contains a cycle of poems of the same name, the jenre of which is defined by the poet as "Voices of Belovodye: Altai menology" («Голоса Беловодья»: Алтайский месяцеслов»):

В обрамлении рассвета,
На предгорьях и низинах,
Растирает краски лета
Осень гибким мастихином.

The famous Russian writer, the author of "literary geography" borderlands of Russia and Asia, G. D. Grebenshchikov (1884-1964), who made a great contribution to the preservation of ethnic culture of the ancient Altai, was among the first researchers who studied the unique culture of the "Old Believers", who lived along the rivers Uba and Bukhtarma. The poetic style of the artist-chronicler is similar to the newsreel authenticity essays writing. In his essay "Altai Russia" Grebenshchikov notes that a beautiful legend about the existence of the rich and the free land – Belovodye – attracted them to faraway Siberia. Rare ethnographic material about the culture and the ethics of the "Old Believers" interlaces with the poetic culture of the people who inhabited our region and formed the ground for East Kazakhstan cultural text.

Synchronous and typological approach to the study of the literary-historical process lets us consider works of G.D. Grebenshchikov, M.I. Chistyakov, A.M. Volkov, P.N. Vassiliev, E.V. Kurdakov and others in the context of spiritual and aesthetic pursuit of their time, determine the scale of creative personality - "classics" of regional literature, their creative initiatives, the significance of "marginal" factor in shaping the artistic vision of the author. Culturological potential of the "East-Kazakhstan text" is most clearly manifested in the context of history, geography, philosophy, relationships of Russian and Kazakh cultures. Artistic individuality, difference in creative opinion, ideological views of the authors make it possible to trace what was the situation of those years, what were the spiritual and historical conditions under which the regional literature was developed, how a national literary process modified in our region.

The literature of East Kazakhstan as an integral part of a unified literary-historical process reflecting the social reality, and is based on general cultural traditions, creating and storing the aesthetic, spiritual and moral values. The literary heritage of writers and poets of the East Kazakhstan region directly reflects the very literary movement time in the history of plots, built on the vital documents. Features of general literature and the historical movement development on the basis of comparative analysis, encompassing not only artistic contours of the "immediate homeland", but the vast horizons of great literature, have helped to overcome the boundaries of a terminological concept of «regionalism». The unifying internal impulse was the fate of writers and poets,

who, as a rule, entered the world of great literature through journalism under the influence of objective laws of creative development. This takes into account the objective nature of existence and literature of the twentieth century, especially of its second half, the protagonist of which is the document.

The Russian literature in Kazakhstan, considered as subject and object of the multicultural dialogue, helps to solve problems of holistic analysis of a literary text as a cultural text, the output of the level of comprehension of key problems of general historical nature.

"Eurasianism" is a dialogue, access to the global cultural space with its own vision of the world as a cultural text. A Eurasian component of poetry is brought in primarily by the particular location of our region between Europe and Asia. The Poetic perception of the geographical space of the native land is perceived by the authors as a symbol that embodies an organic combination of object-sensory and spiritual constituents, of historical past and modern present. The Topic of the East and West, "an epic of Altai" is interpreted as a Eurasian theme of the indissoluble unity of the artistic world of Pavel Nikolayevich Vassilyev. He was born in 1910 in the heart of Eurasia, in Zaissan, located on a large caravan route, and introduced Kazakhstan into the world of big Russian poetry, brought along unique, yet unknown to the Russian poetry colors, smells, sounds of the Great Steppe. His first publication "The Priirtyshsk village", later known as "Where Irtysh is flowing", became geographical and, more broadly – the spiritual guidance of artistic individuality of the poet.

In the E.V. Kurdakov's poems we can sense the dialogue at the level of culture: the great Russian classical poets Tyutchev, Fet, Blok sound organic and self-sufficient. In the world of art the image of the East-Kazakhstan land is represented in a unique interweaving of the real life and the mythic, folkloric elements, the historical fate of the region and the modern city life. The poet repeatedly proclaimed that the true poetry "can not be tied to a certain historical region" primarily because "poetry can only exist in the language" [1, 110]. However, there is no doubt, and all his works demonstrated that the very roots of the East-Kazakhstan cultural text provided a life-giving sap to his unique "metaworld" – the art world of the poet with the geographical "location". In the anthropology of the Kurdakov's text the image of Belovodye acquires features of a mythological space and time, becomes an eternity chronotope: «Как будто мы сами по свету блуждали, /Плутали, кружили в кругу вековом, /И дом свой забытый едва узнаем…» [2, 58]. In the passage from the Kurdakov's ballade "Kara-buran" a lyrical hero gives a poetic description of the miraculous Belovodye:

Там птицы – несметно, не считано зверя,

Там в вечном цветении сказочный лес,

Там старая вера, там истинно верят,

И всем благодать ниспадает с небес…

Belovodye in the context of the Kurdakov's work is perceived as a synonym to faith: «Откроется взорам страна Беловодье, / Куда эти годы нас вера вела…». Finding Belovodye for a man is equal to finding perfection, harmony and balance, getting secret keys to the mysteries of life. Another ballade of E.V. Kurdakov "Chud" is preceded by an epigraph – "Altai belief" - «Чудь белоглазая в землю ушла…». During the development of plot it is clear for the reader that this is another name of Belovodye: «сон Беловодья», «память судьбы», «…Нет имени, что б не озвучила Чудь: / Алтай, Светозар, Златогор, Беловодье, – / Андроновской бронзы начало и путь»

[2, 56].

For Sergey Komov, representing a younger generation of poets of Kazakhstan (by the beginning of a professional career rather than by age), the image and the theme are embodied in a specific country, in sometimes deliberately mundane characters and everyday situations. "An aching and overwhelming sense of common roots with his people" forced him to put pen to paper one day. The poet feels an integral part of everything that surrounded him since his childhood and his soul is in everything what appears to the eyes of the poet "raised in Bukhtarma" [3]. Komov sees his homeland as the surrounding "camel-steppe", and at the same time "as a felt mat" and as "a dome of the huge temple". Having learned "hard love to Russia" at his mother's knee, by his own admission, in a lyrical hero's feelings for the motherland the poet inextricably links the two different and at the same time close cultures: Asian and European. "The eternal yearning of an Asian for the sun and bright moonlight" creates whimsical images of "a man, riding a zealous horse", "Batu warrior" - "Nomad from the darkness of centuries", "a song of distant princely warriors" and "calling namaz", "willow song" of Russia and "the smoke of the dry dung".

Вспомню степь, где был я трижды русский…

Ковыли туманные звенят,
Что в России буду я кочевник,
И по нраву – трижды азиат…
(«Прощание с Бико», 1, с 34)

The artistic world of Boris Anikin reveals to the reader mainly an urban version of the native land. [4] "Walking the city at night" shows the unfamiliar poetic image of the city: «В окно гляжу, как в продолженье строк...». In the poetic collection "The Wanderer" (2010), the traditional character (eg, Lermontov's hero-wanderer) and the motif do not interfere with the individual features of a lyrical person. The Anikin's muse, the poet-wanderer, his heart is in the eternal search – "heart is on the road". As a synonym for the "wanderer" the author uses the word "traveler" in which clearly there is the image and the theme of "Road", the way of life of a man, the poet's career. The image of the troubled souls both of a lyrical hero and the author corresponds to the absence of strict chronology in the book. In the preface the author points out the creative period of life, in which the poems were written. The Wanderer by Boris Anikin has a geographic address. This is the place where he can come back and where there always are the Ulba, the Irtysh, "my little town". The poet-urbanist finds a unique lyrical imagery to convey his "territorial" part of consciousness. In the "Ulba" poem poetic meanings sound devoid of pathos: «Но сердцем я всегда с тобой, Ульба, / Моей отчизны скорбная улыбка!» [4, 38].

The regional authors are trying to find a unique lyrical tone that could reflect their inner world. The autobiographical character of the art world in the works of the local artists, reliability, and reliance on real events give rise to trust relationships between the author and the reader. This is also a dialogue with time and space. Appeal of the poets to the biographical prose can naturally be regarded as an awareness of responsibility for the voice that you have. So, E.V. Kurdakov creates a special "metaworld" in which the author initiates a dialogue not only with the reader, but also with himself. Late essays of E.V. Kurdakov's represent serious reflection of the poet about literature, about writing.

In our view, the typological dominants of the East Kazakhstan literary text are the territorial self-awareness, the Eurasian perception of the world and the autobiographical memory.

The analysis of the unique nature of the East Kazakhstan literary text, its natural landscape, historical and anthropological data in the works of the regional poets

and writers, the study of the history of the literary associations in the region define the context of the unified field of the world culture. The cultural problems of the end of the second millennium AD are of strategic importance. Cultural immunodeficiency defined the extension of the notion 'text' and clarification of its meaning, including the global need for dialogue. Literature as a universal art form has never wavered from its purpose – to represent the literary text and the art world as a dialogue of cultures and times. The East Kazakhstan literary and wider cultural text, preserving the territorial uniqueness and individuality of the creative writers, reflects the vastness of the text as a unified field of the world culture.

Russian literature of East Kazakhstan as subject and object of the multicultural dialogue contributes to the holistic perception of a literary text as a cultural text, of its general historical nature.

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SPEECH DISCOURSE OF CHARACTERS IN MILITARY PROSE OF THE SECOND HALF OF XX-TH CENTURY

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The concept of "discourse" is widely used in speech behavior and is studied not only in linguistics, but also in literary criticism. In literary work the speech portrait of the character is defined not only by the individuality of the image, but also by the subject of the work. In military plots, the speech of the character depends on current events and it is mainly informative and emotional.

A speech event is a basic unit of speech communication which is completed with its own form, structure and borders. A speech event is developed from what is

told, informed (verbal speech), and what it is accompanied by (mimicry, gestures), and also conditions in which a dialogue takes place.

A speech event is revealed through a dialogue. A dialogue transfers live speech in the military prose. It is formed upon exchange of statements and remarks. An important role is played by the length of dialogues. There can be dialogues-remarks consisting of one-two phrases, minidialogues including five-six remarks, and extended dialogues. Dialogues can be informal and ritually strict. Remarks having both sense and emotional shades are important. Therefore in the military prose a great attention is given to how interlocutors speak, how the author specifies lamprophony, pitch, tone, tempo of voice the speech of characters.

Any speech is accompanied by gestures and mimicry (7). Therefore a verbal dialogue includes «a paraverbal dialogue» which «besides words equally and actively involves gestures, mimicry, intonation continually challenging their direct meanings, involving them in inconsistent contexts or polemizing with them» (3, p. 20). Hence, speech discourse includes verbal and paraverbal dialogues.

The purpose of this article is to study speech discourse of the characters in three literary works devoted to Battle of Moscow of 1941: B. Momyshuly's story (Б. Момышулы) «Moscow's behind us. The officer's diary» («За нами Москва. Записки офицера») (published in 1958), A. Bek's (А. Бек) book «Volokolamsk Highway» («Волоколамское шоссе») (1960) and K. Vorobyov's (К. Воробьев) story «Killed at Moscow» («Убиты под Москвой») (published in 1963).

We will give some brief information about the authors. A Russian writer Alexander Bek (1902-1972) became a war correspondent when the Great Patriotic War started. He spent first several months in the army which defended Moscow and Moscow outskirts. The book «Volokolamsk Highway» was planned to be written in 1942 as a series of four novelettes. The main protagonist telling the story is Baurzhan Momyshuly. Baurzhan Momyshuly (1910-1982) is an officer of the Second World War, the Hero of the Soviet Union, soldier of Panfilov's Rifle Division, participant of the Battle of Moscow and a Kazakh writer. For bravery and heroism in the Battle of Moscow captain Baurzhan Momyshuly was nominated for the Hero of the Soviet Union award, but the decoration was awarded posthumously (in 1990). Baurzhan Momyshuly is a founder of military fiction genre in Kazakh literature. Konstantin Dmitrievich Vorobyov (1919-1975) is a Russian prose writer, the author of novelettes and stories about war. In December 1941 contused lieutenant Vorobyov fell prisoner and was in Klinsky, Rzhev, Smolensk,Kaunas, Salaspilssky, Shaulyask prisoner-of-war camps from 1941 to 1943. He escaped from a prisoner-of-war camp twice. In 1943-1944 he was the commander of a guerrilla group. He was awarded with a «Guerrilla of Patriotic War» medal of the 1st degree.

A. Bek's and B. Momyshuly's books tell about the legendary Panfilov division which battled in Volokolamsk direction near Moscow in 1941, stopped fascists and went onto the counter offensive. Bauyrzhan Momyshuly participated in battles since September, 1941 and was a member of a division commanded by major general I. Panfilov. During the second major attack of Wehrmacht at Moscow from November, 16th till November 18th, 1941 the battalion directed by B. Momyshuly separately from the division heroically battled on Volokolamsk highway at village Matronino near Moscow. The skillful management of the battalion commander allowed detaining fascists for three days on the given boundary. Then the senior lieutenant B. Momyshuly and his troops broke

out of encirclement.

As B. Momyshuly is the character of two literary works we will consider how his image in a speech discourse of the novel and notes of the officer are revealed. In B. Momyshuly's story «Moscow's behind us» there are three types of dialogues: dialogues with general Panfilov, dialogues with fellow soldiers and dialogues with juniors. These dialogues can be issued as direct speech or indirect speech with reflection elements.

Let's examine a scene of Momyshuly's meeting with Panfilov in the city of Volokolamsk. This fragment is in the beginning of the work and becomes a rising action of the subsequent plot and relations of two main characters. The sent aide-de-camp reports that general Panfilov wants to see the senior lieutenant B. Momyshuly. «Пройдя через сени, я открыл указанную адъютантом низкую дверь. Переступив порог, я было вытянулся, чтобы по форме доложить, но генерал Панфилов не дал и рта раскрыть. Он быстрым движением шагнул мне навстречу, взял мою руку обеими руками и, тепло, по-отечески пожимая ее, знакомым тихим голосом сказал» (4, p.211-212).

Further there is Panfilov's direct speech the meaning of which can be understood from the following remarks «- Садитесь, товарищ Момышулы. Чаю не хотите?» (« - Sit down, companion Momyshuly. Would you like some tea?»); «- Много людей потеряли?» («- Have you lost many people?»). Bauyrzhan Momyshuly answers questions of the general, reports about losses. The general gives encouraging remarks «- Ну, рассказывайте, рассказывайте» («- Well, go on, go on») and thus makes a junior soldier have a confidential, frank dialogue about a role of « commander's authority» and responsibility of the commander to his subordinates.

The dialogue is four pages long, separate fragments are presented in the form of indirect speech «я кратко доложил ему» («I have reported briefly»), «я рассказал ему» («I have told him»), «я устыдился своих резких слов» («I was ashamed of the sharp words»). The storyteller keeps remarks of the general, and makes his own speech partly indirect. The speech portrait of the general is supplemented with nonverbal components «his lips were spread in a sly smile», «the general answered in a sad voice», «the general frowned discontentedly». The paralinguistic comment promotes the image of general Panfilov as a wise instructor, "aksakal", «the father of his soldiers».

There are no single dialogues-remarks in «Volokolamsk highway». Practically, the words said by the main character are always heard and have answers. In each chapter there are dialogues of average length, often the dialogues between the battalion commander and the soldiers finishing with monologue-lecture or edification. The longest dialogues are the ones between Momyshul and general Panfilov where the senior lieutenant acts in a role of the listening interlocutor. In dialogues with soldiers Momyshuly takes a position of the commander, the leader and the instructor who communicates Panfilov's tactics.

The speech intention and subjects of dialogues between the characters in the works «Moscow's behind us» and «Volokolamsk highway» represent classical rhetorical scheme and allow to distinguishdistinguishing five types of a discourse. The paramount problem is to inform the interlocutor, hence an informing type of a discourse, further to state and prove an opinion, to convince – a reasoning discourse. One of the major problems of military rhetoric is to rouse to action which is an agitating discourse. And Momyshuly's favorite speech reception is to discuss a problem with the interlocutor, to find right tactics together which is a heuristic type of a discourse. For example, in

the first story, in the first chapter «Не умирать, а жить» («Live, not die») B. Momyshuly participates in an educational conversation a political leader Dordiya has with the first company. Dordiya tells the truth that the enemy threatens Moscow, the motherland demands from soldiers not to let the enemy occupy the place and to die if it is necessary. But soldiers do not listen to him. Then the battalion commander starts to talk to soldiers about motherland. Putting elaborative questions, he gradually brings them to the idea that «Родина – это ты! Убей того, кто хочет убить тебя!» («Motherland is you! Kill the one who wants to kill you!»), «Я, ваш командир, хочу исполнить веление наших жен и матерей, веление нашего народа. Хочу вести в бой не умирать, а жить!» («I am your commander and I want to execute command of our wives and mothers, command of our people. I want to commit to battle not to die, but to live!») (1, p.14-15).

Momyshuly is said to be a brave, but severe commander punishing on a place of crime. His speech often includes words which do not suppose any further discussions, contain certain estimation (praise or censure). This speech behavior is defined as an epideictic discourse. Here is a sample of such discourse: «Я показал за реку. Голова Брудного дернулась, словно он хотел посмотреть назад, куда указывала моя рука. Но он сдержал это движение, он продолжал стоять передо мною "смирно".

- Но там, товарищ комбат... - хрипловато выговорил он.

- Да, там немцы! Иди к ним! Служи им, если хочешь! Или убивай их! Я не приказывал тебе явиться сюда. Мне не нужен беглец! Иди!

- Со взводом? - неуверенно спросил Брудный.

- Нет. У взвода будет другой командир! Иди один!» (1, p.65).

In the text of the book there is a conditional dialogue of story-teller Momyshuly with the reader. Usually such form of dialogue appears during the moments of internal doubts, reflections. Momyshuly addresses the reader and at the same time has a dialogue with himself, i.e. a dialogue of bilateral action «Быть может, и вам представляется, что командир батальона - особенно в такой момент, накануне боя, - обязан что-то делать: разговаривать по телефону, вызывать подчиненных, ходить по рубежу, отдавать распоряжения» (1, p. 45); «Можете не сомневаться: я, наверное, не менее остро, чем вы, чувствую, что такое социалистическая Родина, что такое страна, которую мы защищаем, в которой мы живем» (1, p. 46).

Forms of the main character's speech introduction in the text are traditional enough: the story-teller says about himself «я сказал» («I have said »), «я доложил» («I have reported»), «я спросил» («I have asked»), «я проговорил» («I have spoken»). But speech of interlocutors is often accompanied by mentioning voice force, timbre, tone of speech, gestures and mimicry.

«Вскочив, он (Заев) вытянулся, отдал честь и неожиданно гаркнул:

- Встать! Смирно! Господа офицеры!

Я проговорил:

- Ну, Заев, отмочил... Хоть стой, хоть падай...» (1, p.133).

The speech of general Panfilov abounds with such characteristics: «раздумчиво сказал Панфилов» («Panfilov has said meditatively»); «как это было ему свойственно, он говорил, будто размышляя вслух» («as it was peculiar to him, he spoke, as if reflecting aloud»); «вновь поглядев на карту, помолчав, он продолжал»; («again having a look at the map, making a pause, he continued»); «Панфилов побарабанил по столу пальцами («Panfilov has beaten a tattoo on the table»); «Панфилов с улыбкой вынул

часы, продемонстрировал» («With a smile Panfilov took out clock to show it»).

In the works «Moscow's behind us» and «Volokolamsk highway» dynamics of occurring events is transferred through a speech behavior of the character. Often the subjects of the dialogues of the main character have heuristic and agitating functions. For Momyshuly it is important not just to inform fighters, but to find right tactics together and to inspire them before the battle.

The speech discourse of the character in K. Vorobyov's story « Killed at Moscow» is different. The action in the story takes place in 1941. The events of five days are described in it. During this time two hundred forty soldiers of not fired cadets make their way to the front line, take defensive positions, appear witnesses of chaotic deviation of some parts of the army, endure a shock from collision with the enemy. Their death is predetermined by circumstances, but the commander of a company Ryumin takes the blame upon himself. In the final chapter Ryumin's funeral is interrupted by tank attacks. Six cadets engage; lieutenant Alexey Yastrebov is the only one of the company who stays alive. He is the main character.

The action takes place in the front line: in the rear area and band in the field of fight. There are dialogues including about 80 remarks in the text. Dialogues can be divided into three groups. The first group includes verbal and paraverbal dialogues. They consist of the single remarks of authorized character which do not imply any verbal answer, but only implementation (action). For example, «По местам! Бегом! И без моего приказа ни шагу» («Stand by! Run! And do not make any movements without my command») (2, p. 428). The second large group are the mini-dialogues consisting of 2-6 remarks: «Алексей спросил капитана: - Он ранен? – Нет, - сквозь зубы сказал капи-

тан. – А что же? – Ну… не может… Не видите, что ли?» (2, p. 416). the last group includes big dialogues (more than 6 remarks), there are only two such dialogues in the text.

The themes of the dialogues are limited to a military situation: heroes do not speak on abstract themes; their speech is a response to armed hostilities. Three out of six functions of speech defined by R.O. Yakobson (8, p. 280) are involved in speech behavior of the character: communicative – transferring information, messages; expressional (emotive) – a direct expression of feelings of the sender; appellative – influence on the addressee, encouraging it to action. The communicative function is shown in the following remark: «Убитых шестеро курсантов и политрук, - вызывающе ответил Алексей. - Раненных нет» (2, p. 431). The second function can often be observed in the text: «Алексей пронзительно, но никому не слышно крикнул: - Я тебя, матери твоей черт! Я тебя зараз…» (2, p. 462). As an example of appellative function we can take Alexey's order: «- Вставай! – крикнул Алексей. – Там… Там все гибнут, а ты… Вставай! Пошли! Ну?!» (2, p. 452).

It is possible to consider appellative function to be determinant in Alexey's dynamical speech behavior (the most frequently observed), followed by expressional function, and, finally, communicative function. Such parity speaks about the character of the temporal plot organization limited by five days during which the "dedication" of cadets in soldiers takes place.

The interlocutor is important in realization of speech functions. Alexey talking to Ryumin says 9 remarks, to classmate Gulyaev – 5 remarks, to the captain – 3 remarks, to the general – 3, the assistant of platoon commander – 7 remarks, to platoon, soldiers – 36 remarks, in the ending to the tank – 5 remarks. Accordingly,

the character communicates with the interlocutor in a role of the subordinate saying 15 remarks (Ryumin, the captain, the general), in a role of the commander – 43 and as equals – 10 remarks (Gulyaev, the tank).

According to the content all the retorts can be divided into several types:

Types of remarks	Examples
Remark-appeal:	«Разрешите обратиться…Чем рыть?» (2, p.409)
Remark-order:	«Рассредоточиться, черт возьми! Всем по своим местам!!» (2, p.421)
Remark-report:	«Задымил один, товарищ политрук» (2, p.424)
Remark-question :	«Это шрапнель?» (2, p.425), «Дойти до КП могут? Где они?» (2, p.428)
Remark-exclamation :	«Ты знаешь, о чем я говорю!» (2, p.454), «Ничего, товарищ капитан! Мы их, гадов, всех потом, как вчера ночью!...» (2, p.457)

From lapidary remarks of the main character the role portrait of the young officer-lieutenant who wants to show that he is handling the situation corresponds to the image of the skilled commander. The story-teller neutrally makes comments in the whole text only six times: Alexey asked, repeated, told, shouted. In all other cases author's comments and their expression include expressive and emotional characteristics of voice (tone, timbre, rate), nonverbal details (emotions, gestures and mimic) and general impression from the speech. The storyteller's comments don't confirm Alexey's mission, they represent his inner world: lost, uncomprehending, doubting in tactics of military operations. The amount of storyteller's comments considerably exceeds the amount of direct speech. This disproportion shows motivations of speech behavior of the character.

Comments are differently correlated with direct speech of Yastrebov, but in all cases they explain the character's speech behavior and also his image. The story-teller often fixes voice force, timbre, Alexey's tempo of speech and connects them with his emotional and mental condition: «он громко и весело крикнул» («he shouted loudly and cheerfully»), «задохнувшись, визгливо выкрикнул за два приема» («having choked, he cried out in two shrills») «он крикнул исступленно, с непонятной обидой и злостью ко всему тому, над чем только что чуть не плакал» («he shouted frenziedly, with sadness and rage toward everything that had nearly made him cry»).

There are notes in which the storyteller specifies the imitating character of speech of the young lieutenant who imitates his teachers and seniors. For example, dialogue with the friend begins with such a remark: «- И пуля попэ-эрла по каналу ствола! - остановившись у порога, сказал Алексей, подражая преподавателю внутренней баллистики в училище майору Сучку. Они несколько минут хохотали, не сходясь еще, мимикой и жестами копируя движения и походку чудаковатого майора» (2, p. 412). It is, of course, inappropriate in an approaching tragically fighting situation, but young lieutenants are still full of memoirs about their studies in peacetime.

It is possible to name other notes complex or combined. They include all elements connected with a speech situation: voice coloring, comparative constructions, special epithets and pantomimes. The paramount role is played by the voice characteristic, and after nonverbal components join . In the article «Language of emotions of M.A. Sholokhov's

and F.D. Krukov's characters » A.A. Fomushkin writes about a role of nonverbal elements in a speech portrait: «Completed psychological criterion of characters behavior are expressive movements (mimicry, bearing, gestures, gait)» (5, p. 58). Then these notes-comments strengthen impression of the speech. We will result examples of correlation of a voice with paraverbal comments.

Voice and nonverbal components	Examples
Voice and gestures	«Алексей никак не мог ухватить сплюснутый мундштук папиросы, и тогда капитан спросил еще: - Курсанты все слышали? - Все, - сказал Алексей. - Генерал-майор...» (2, р.419)
Voice and mimicry	«негромко сказал Алексей, с какой-то обновленной преданностью глядя в глаза Рюмина» (2, р.419), «морщась, сказал Алексей» (2, р.421)
Voice and pantomimes	«Не сходя с места, Алексей, крикнул через плечо» (2, р.418), «строго сказал Алексей и зачем-то загородил собой нишу» (2, р.422), «Алексей пропустил пленных, пытаясь заглянуть в лицо каждому, и, пристроясь к курсантам, спросил на бегу у того, что отсчитывал шаг: - Куда вы их?» (2, р.443).

In the tragical story of Vorobyov the important role is played by a psychological function of a speech discourse. The speech behavior of the character shows his inner world, thoughts and feelings. Alexey's feelings combine inconsistent conditions: fear, despair and call of duty.

The esthetics of Vorobyov's style is shown in selection of special characteristics for the description of Alexey's speech in the culminating moments. The first example is connected with an outcome, a final episode. After the battle, bombardment from all company of the Kremlin cadets there is only one person who stays alive - Alexey. He stands near a tomb and the tank moves towards him. The lieutenant manages to blast the tank, and it by miracle remains live. «Подавленный всем этим, он шел и то и дело *всхлипывающее шептал*: - Стерва…Худая… Так было легче идти» (2, р. 464) and before«- Стерва, - вяло, *всхлипывающее сказал* Алексей. – Худая» (2, р. 463). This repeating comment accompanies two-

forked dialogue with the tank and with himself. These remarks include abusive lexicon, vernacular, consisting of the truncated syntactic constructions. The word «всхлипывающе» (sobbing) is a characteristic of children's speech testifying psychological slackness of the person, who survived the horrors of the fight. (2, p. 404).

The final episode of the novelette is based on a mythological, matrix plot, all stages of the rite of a passage are visible in it. G. Fraser distinguishes three phases of the rite of a passage: the first phase – a phase of leaving, breaking off all the family relations, the second phase – a symbolical death of the devoted, the third phase – returning, revival in a new capacity (6, p.124).

Vorobyov's story «Killed at Moscow» however as the majority of stories of military prose, represents initiation text which contains all the phases. The first phase - leaving is described with one phrase with which the story begins:

«Учебная рота кремлевских курсантов шла на фронт» («The training company of the Kremlin cadets was heading for the front») (2, p. 404). The basic text of the novelette is a test which the entire company (240 cadets) and captain Ryumin passed there. Two hundred forty people with their captain Ryumin die. And only Alexey Yastrebov survives after all attacks, bombardments and a deadly duel with the tank. This phase of the test is accompanied by additional archetypical images: mentioning a tomb, Alexey's curse words «матери твоей черт» and complicated breath. Alexey falls into the bottom of the tomb, closes his head with hands, tries to take an embryo pose – «lying on one side, having turned knees to a stomach», breathing with deep-chest howl, loses memory and orientation – «he has forgotten everything that has occurred, and doesn't know where he is». He passes all the stages of death, returning to the womb of the earth what is highlighted by repeating curse words: «пронзительно, но никому не слышно крикнул: - Я тебя, матери твоей черт! Я тебя зараз…», «- Ага, матери твоей черт! Ага!». Using abusive lexicon during such moment is not a casualty: it is something that comes from subconsciousnesssub consciousness, uncontrollable will of the speaking. Such remarks are unexpected, but rather significant, R. Yakobson after V. Hlebnikovym names them «free self-twisted speech» (8, 251).

The phase following death is a phase of revival, transformation: «А затем пришло все сразу - память, ощущение неподатливой тяжести, взрыв испуга, и он с такой силой рванулся из завала, что услышал, как надломленно хрумкнул позвоночник…». Alexey is reborn: jerks from a tomb, howls and sits for a long time being very weakened, his nose is bleeding. After dedication, the character comes back to life in a new status, for Alexey it is shown in fighting armament:

«он отрыл бутылку с бензином, СВТ, рюминский пистолет и подолом шинели протер оружие. Винтовки он повесил на плечи - по две на каждом, пистолет спрятал в карман брюк, а бутылку взял в руки». Here the detailed description of the weapon depicts man's phallic symbolics speaking about a successful rite of the passage.

The speech discourse of the main character of the story «Killed at Moscow» consists basically of single remarks or minidialogues. Terms and speech cliches prevail in the lexicon. The main characteristic of syntax is the use of simple sentences which are requests. Interrogative sentences are very common as well. The basic function of Alexey's speech is emotional which galvanizes into action. External speech is developed through the story. It is connected with the peculiar subject organization which is constructed on a principle of gradual narrowing of a circle of operating characters. Only one person stays alive in the end of the story - Yastrebov. In connection with this fact the character of dialogues changes, they become less authorized, professionalism disappears while vernacular speech becomes common. The final dialogue is a dialogue with an inanimate object – the tank.

The speech discourse studying of the character allows to get an idea about speech portrait which is the compound characteristic of a literary image. When formulating a speech discourse concept of the character we have emphasized both individual, and typological components of the discourse. In A. Bek's and B. Momyshuly's works in speech discourse presence of authorized dialogues of a great length are prepotent. The paralinguistic comment has an accompanying value. In K. Vorobyov's work a paralinguistic dialogue dominates over the linguistic one in the speech of the character. The role of an authorized dialogue decreases by the end while dialogues-remarks prevail. The ex-

ternal speech of the character, nonverbal dialogues and author's comments-notes have a special value in the story. Alternation of authorized and unauthorized dialogues, division of dialogues by size and addressee, prevalence of terms and speech clichés in the lexicon, presence of undeveloped syntactic constructions in imperative and interrogative forms are characteristic for all three works. The supervision and the allocated criteria can be used in speech behavior studying of characters of other products on the military theme.

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ON THE COMMUNICATIVE NATURE OF «FEMALE PROSE»

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"Female prose" is a socio-cultural phenomenon, which appears in the process of women mastering the public space, and as such it has a communicative nature. Appearance of literary texts which describe the global and social experience of women, from their point of view, is nothing else but an attempt to join the dialogue. In their works the authoresses propose to society not only new themes, but also new models of behavior, defending the right of women to have independent choices and an independent fate.

One of the productive schemes of studying "female literature" is the analysis of the literary authorship of a woman-writer in the aspect of "author-work" relations. The biographical personality of the authoress, her psychological appearance are correlated with a social status, position of women in society. The specific character of female creative works is caused by special features of a female world-view, female type of consciousness, by its social and psychophysical parameters. The uniqueness of appearance of the author with a female face is manifested in the frankly personal tone of works. In this case the one of a kind woman's world is represented as an art object. The first professional Russian writers of Pushkin's time declared about their right to creation as the possibility of a valuable dialogue "on equal terms" with the male writers.

In the 19th century a woman used to be the mistress of the fashionable literary salon, who wrote poems for her own home album. That is why it was very difficult

for a woman to become a professional authoress. The problem of literary fortune was directly connected with women's self-affirmation because of their long social isolation in Russia. The works of the first authoresses such as Durova N., Gan E., Rostopchina E. touched their contemporaries on the raw first of all because they portrayed a woman.

Biography, autobiography sometimes self-portrait in the narratives of the literary women reproduced the specificity of women's thinking and psyche without reference to her social status. Authoresses studied the nature of inward life of their heroines and through the specific author's position. "Poetics of woman mind", concentration on personal experience, compassion, family life – all this helped the authoresses to elaborate a new type of a heroine.

N.A. Durova took part in the Patriotic war of 1812 and she ruled the destiny in her life and literature. The figure of a woman citizen in the memoirs of Durova became a literary prototype for the subsequent prose of Turgenev, Tolstoy.

Works of E.A. Gan correspond to the "anthology" of a woman mind, woman heart. In the story "Ideal" the heroine stand against the public, shows her own will and derives her strength from "the inner sources". Confession of the heroine and a psychological description of her image make the portrait of the contemporary look quite true.

The novel "A Happy Woman" by E.P. Rostopchina – a poetess with an outstanding manner of writing – is in many respects autobiographical. In the form of prose she wrote about a woman who had self-realized against the background of high life.

The image of a woman in the works of the first Russian authoresses takes on a "double effect": this is both a heroine and an author. So we may conclude that a professional literary woman is of great interest as an exponent of literary heritage.

Female belles-lettres of the 19th century did not pretend to the global artistic comprehension of reality. The center of attention was the unknown sphere of this reality – "dual existence of a woman". A woman in Russia was "condemned" by secular conditionalities to the silence, perceived the sharp need to be expressed on paper, she stated about her independent right to be an authoress. In the prose of women the very carrier of the text, the method of narration and the manner of contact with the reader became the main motive power of the subject. Russian woman-writers were looking for specific ways of drawing their author's line.

Communicative chain "author-narrator-listener-reader" is represented in the female prose in different modifications. The image of a reader is divided into component parts, and these parts interact with each other in a specific way in accordance with the individual stylistic manner of each writer.

"Female prose" as an archetype, its communicative nature is manifested with the analysis of the literary creation of the contemporary Kazakhstan woman- prosaists at the turn of the twentieth century. Contemporary Kazakhstan female literature is at the stage of formation and active development. Archetype as "through model" [2] passes from generation to generation, in the new temporary paradigm on the material of another national cultural tradition.

The works of three Kazakhstan women-writers – Umit Tazhikenova, Svetlana Nazarova and Liliya Kalaus – in our opinion help to draw preliminary conclusions in the comprehension of typology and poetics of the female prose of Kazakhstan [3,4,5]. The works of the writers, from our point of view, present the contemporary Kazakhstan female prose of the period of independence. The personal everyday experience of the woman- author

appears as a material for the artistic creation of writers. Author's ideological concept reflects a specific character of the female type of consciousness.

Woman-writers of the twenty first century, each in a recognizable artistic manner, as before , defend the existence of a special woman space, which absorbs into itself the entire multifaceted, deeply heartfelt and experienced reality. Thus, for instance, the subject of the Umit Tazhikenova's novel "Rod of tamarisk" is based on the writer's experience of establishing a business, and in the work "On the Ararat mountain" Svetlana Nazarova's experience in Armenia is reflected.

N. Fateyeva notes the "increased dialoguing" of female literature, "there is always a dialogue in it, either in the form of direct or indirect speech" [6].

The communicative message in the works of U. Tazhikenova is frequently declared at the level of titles. For example: "The word, which is the one of the Creator's names", "And here is the end of the wandering… it was short, too short", "Women's thoughts and men's rules of the game", "Eternally young Muse of a mature woman", "Day like any other, one after another". The grammatical structure of such titles in the form of a remark or a thought aloud transfers the intonation of a conversation or a fragment of a conversation. This construction fulfills the function of invitation to the dialogue, or even more – invitation "to touch upon" the unique artistic world of the author.

U. Tazhikenova brings into the literature her experience of a woman with man's nature and man's profession. She is forced to make vital decisions on her own. In the female images of U. Tazhikenova the different sides of the manifestation of a female archetype are represented, through the understanding of her inner self she goes into the internal space of her heroines – women of different age and different vital power. And vice versa: trying to under-

stand her contemporaries, the authoress discovers yet unknown facets of herself. The story "Diluting of the image" is quite representative: "In the morning – inquisitive view, directed toward the mirror. Counter sullen and lost . A tired face – as if it's not mine… the home mirror, which stands in the customary and smoothing out perspective, it spares. But you randomly shoot a glance at the unknown public mirror, br-r- r – is this really my unique "inner self"? [3, 41].

The dialogue with herself is doubled and multiplied, it is superimposed on other dialogues, participants of which are her different heroines. Thus, in the stories "Women of the city" and "Dignity of sameness" the author artistically convincingly expresses the female protest against the Soviet stereotype of a "woman-toiler".

The motive of genetic memory is presented in the stories "The Radiant", "The prayer", "About the female soul". The feminine archetype shows itself in the non-interrupted contacts with the departed close ones, and also with fauna and flora. Indeed a woman – the keeper of ancestral memory – is capable of joining this type of a dialogue, timeless and intercultural.

In the prose of U. Tazhikenova there are many acknowledgements and statements in the address of trees, plants, heavenly bodies, wind, sand and other phenomena of nature. Through this contact with the prehuman world the author appeals to the reader (stories "The miracle", "A small bouquet", "Each to his own").

The author's position and the author's presence in the artistic prose of U. Tazhikenova can be seen in too conversational intonation and stylistics of the narration. Stories, travelling notes in the first person, on behalf of a woman-narrator or a teller – these are the complex, hybrid varieties of the genre of the story: story-parable, story-miniature, sketch, philosophical story, story- description, diary records. The author speaks toh someone,

shares thoughts with someone –vital topics and life problems of a woman in a modern developing city of Kazakhstan being revealed in the dialogue.

The stylistic manner of U. Tazhikenova's prose is characterized by the inclusion in the Russian stories of the set of Kazakh words and expressions, which impart to works quite realistic authenticity and national coloring. The use of specific expressions emphasizes the connection and relationship of the author with people, life and history of her nation. Addressing to the reader the typical etiquette phrases of the Kazakh language are often used: «айналайын», «уважаемые кудалар», «торде».

In the prose of S. Nazarova the female characters personify in themselves the different phases of a woman archetype. The writer combines the subjective emotionally agitated enthusiasm of the author's narration with the moral analysis of the modern world. The main heroines of S. Nazarova's stories "Green-eyed Aruakh" and "A free bird – the woman Arisha" are women at the old age, who have rich life experience [4]. They are the embodiment of two different traditions, two different nationalities and different cultures. In spite of such differences, these two characters must be viewed together, because of the unifying common ground – the archetype of the Mother-Earth.

In the narrative of L. Kalaus "Dark sail" the elements of dramatic, tragicomic and ironic discourse are combined [5]. Individual characteristics of the author as the speaking subject and the engaging in a dialogue about their own life present the aspects of female existence and the way of life in the urban world. L. Kalaus describes her heroine as an unhappy woman, an abandoned wife, an unmarried woman, a drinking woman, a lonely mother etc. Under the most humiliating circumstances the woman in the prose of L. Kalaus in no way looks small, oppressed or humbled.

The passive position of the author-chronicler, who only transfers events, dialogues, visual pictures makes it possible for the writer not to judge, not to evaluate her heroes, but to represent a woman as the entire peace, to which a man relates as a part to the whole.

The contemporary "female prose" reveals the woman "strangeness" as "the special feature of her own model of the world – different from the man's, but equally significant". Through the heroines the authoress established herself. First of all, the writer's inner "Me", that enters in the relations with her own (in the "female prose", naturally, female) ego [7, 152].

At the archetypal level of cultural, aesthetical unconscious the nerve of the contemporary female prose is manifested: it tends to identify itself with the world. T. Rovenskaya, in our opinion, is right to consider that in the "female prose" there is the phenomenon of a speaking, or, a "talking out" woman [8,]. The female author in the formation of a communicative strategy of writing sees the method of self-identification.

The creative biography of the woman-writer composes the internal auto-biography of the plot lines: her life, designed as work, becomes the literary reality. In the image of the authoress the concept, the final idea of the work is personified. In her text the woman-writer composes a dialogue as she needs. The system of the characters' speech, their relationship with the author-narrator or alter-ego – all this is a deliberate communicative act.

The study of typology and poetics of the female prose in the contemporary literature of Kazakhstan is at the stage of initiation. The represented material is an attempt of conceptualization of the specific character of the Kazakhstan female literary works in the communicative aspect.

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BILINGUALISM IN UKRAINE: ENGLISH LEARNING IMPLICATIONS

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As Ukraine is becoming a member of Western organizations such as the Council of Europe, the European Union, OSCE, WTO, and preparing to become the host of world sports' events (e.g. "Euro-cup" 2012), awareness of the need for multicultural policies in this post-Soviet country is rising fast. The issue of foreign language learning (English in particular, as lingua franca for international communication) is gradually receiving greater attention as an essential factor for becoming a member of the European and the world community.

A Eurobarometer survey demonstrated that "47% of EU citizens spoke English well enough to hold a casual conversation" (European Commission 2001). No data is available to asses the extent of knowledge of English in Ukraine. However, very rough figures gathered by means of a street-poll, show that approximately only 1 Ukrainian out of 5 speaks English at a level sufficient for general communication. The street-poll was carried out by a Portuguese ex-patriot on one of the central streets of Kyiv. Twenty-eight randomly chosen individuals were asked in English to give directions to different places. Only 4 respondents showed an excellent knowledge of English, and 2 persons demonstrated the ability to communicate in English sufficiently well. It is reasonable to assume that if the street-poll had been carried out in any other Ukrainian city, the figures would have definitely been much lower.

Such wide discrepancy between the knowledge of English in Western European countries and the knowledge of English in the Ukraine raises the question of what factors might be accountable for the lack of the English language knowledge among the Ukrainian population.

In the results of the Eurobarometer survey revealed the factors mentioned by the European respondents as discouraging them from language learning: lack of time (34%), motivation (30%), and expense of language classes (22%) (European Commission 2006, p. 5).

Our analysis of the factors accountable for the lack of knowledge of English among the Ukrainian population, revealed the following factors:

1) educational;
2) motivational;
3) economic;
4) geopolitical;
5) emotional.

Educational Factor

In the Ukraine, English language learning starts at primary school and continues through higher education. The Ukrainian system of education, however, is rather new. Only a small percentage of the population has graduated from the system, while the majority learned foreign languages in the Soviet educational system. Thus, the Soviet system of foreign languages education should also be taken into consideration. During the Soviet times, learning English as a foreign language usually started in the secondary school and continued at higher educational institutions. Without evaluating the present Soviet system of English language instruction, one may expect that more than 10 years of even poor language instruction should result in a level of English language proficiency that is sufficient for communication. This level is not achieved as apparent from the data presented above.

Motivational Factor

One other possible explanation for the data on the English language skills among Ukrainians is the lack of incentives, material ones in particular. A study of the motivation for learning foreign languages in the European Union showed that the reasons for foreign language learning are becoming more and more tied to practical benefits, such as using the skills at work (32%), working abroad (27%), and getting a better job inside the country (23%) (Special Eurobarometer 2006, p. 5).

An analysis of 50 randomly chosen employment ads (taken from www.alljob.com.ua), all offering a salary higher than $1,000, however, shows that 32 of them (about 65%) require a "good knowledge of English". The examination of 50 randomly chosen resumes from the same Internet source demonstrated that only 14 (fewer than 30%) job-seekers meet this requirement, indicating "fluent English" under "foreign languages" in their CVs. Given that the offered salary is much higher that the average wage in the Ukraine, UAH 2,233 (about $ 279), a question arises: Why is such salary not a sufficient motivation for learning English? This question is especially intriguing taking into account the data obtained by the Ukrainian Institute of Social Studies and the Social Monitoring Center. According to the data, 92% of Ukrainian youth give a high priority to "a high level of payment" in their system of values (Levkovska 2006).

Economic Factor

While money may be a potential motivation for language learning, it may also serve as an obstacle to learning a language if learning English comes with a cost. To test whether cost is an obstacle we gathered information about tuition fees for different language courses in Kyiv. We found that the average monthly cost per person varies from $90 to $130, the cost per hour being $5. Such a cost is relatively low, given the fact that a 1.5-hour lesson of English in Kyiv costs less than a cinema ticket, priced $8. This data gives us the grounds to claim that the economic factor brings only a limited contribution to the lack of the English language knowledge among the Ukrainians.

Geopolitical Factor

Although geographically Ukraine may be considered the center of Europe, politically this is by far not the case. Only sixteen years ago when the Soviet Union collapsed, the borders of Ukraine, as well as the borders of all the other Soviet Republics, were closed to Western influence. This resulted in the absence of an English language environment necessary for language learning. Hence, lack of language environment might be more accountable for the fact that many Ukrainians do not know English than the educational system or lack of motivation are. Interestingly, however, there does not seem to be an improvement in English skills among the Ukrainian population at this point despite the fact that the cultural influence of Western civilization (the United States in particular) on Ukraine has sky-rocketed since 1991. It is very likely that the last one, the emotional factor can be responsible for the lack of knowledge of the English language among Ukrainians.

Emotional Factor

Much research over the last decades has concentrated on the role of emotion in learning (Christianson 1992). Researchers have different, often quite contradictory, opinions on this issue about the role of emotions in foreign language learning. Some of them claim that "the memory advantage for highly affective material was the same for negative as for positive reactions to the material" (Bower 1992, p. 15); while others state that it is only positive affect that has a powerful and facilitating

effect on memory and learning (Isen 1999).

Given the fact that prior research has revealed that emotions might affect foreign language acquisition, it is reasonable to hypothesize that emotions associated with language learning might be responsible for the lack of English skills in Ukrainians. Can emotions enhance or hinder the process of English language learning? Is it the case that positive emotions account for success in acquiring skills in English, and negative ones might account for the failure to do so? Is there such a notion as "language allergy"? Is it "language allergy" that prevents Ukrainians from learning English? These questions cannot be answered without some awareness of the linguistic situation in Ukraine and its language policies during the 20th century.

In the Soviet Union, the primary language of communication in Ukraine was Russian, Since Ukraine became an independent state in 1991, Ukrainian has been proclaimed the only official state language and have been actively introduced in the country. This introduction has occurred not without resistance from a large part of the population. The issue of bilingualism in Ukrainian and Russian has always been on the political agenda (Kolesnikov 2003). One of the key slogans of a leading political party was the idea of introducing Russian as a second state language, which raised numerous discussions both during the last presidential and parliamentary elections (Preobrazhenskaya 2006). The opinion shared by the majority of the Western Ukraine population is that bilingualism would lead to another Russification of Ukraine, thus restricting the rights of the Ukrainian-speaking population in their own country (Slezko 2000, Shaizhin 2006, Podobed 2007). Another view ascribed mostly to the population of the Eastern Ukraine is that bilingualism is essential for preserving the rights of those who consider Russian as their native language (Kotsina 2007).

The introduction of the Ukrainian language has occurred as rapidly as the process of Russification, or the introduction of the Russian language during the Soviet past. We argue that the rapid interchange of Ukrainization and Russification processes has resulted not only in the rejection of the governmental language policy by the population of Ukraine, but also in the development of the general negative attitude to learning foreign languages ("language allergy").

The process of Russification that occurred in the Soviet Union has been relatively fast. In 1958 only 21% of children studied in Ukrainian schools compared to 1926, when over 97% of high school students were obtaining their education in Ukrainian (Dzyuba 2005, p. 175). It is worth noting that, before 1920s, there were hardly any Ukrainian schools at all after the Ems Ukaz of 1876, which banned the Ukrainian language.

Similarly, the processes of Ukrainization, which replaced Russification, was also rapid. In 1990-1991 the number of students using Ukrainian in higher educational institutions of Ukraine constituted only 7% (Ivanishin and Radevych-Vynnizkiy 1992, p. 128). This situation has changed dramatically, however, after 1991 when the independence of Ukraine was proclaimed and Ukrainian was recognized as the only official state language. During the first years of independence, the share students attending classes with the Ukrainian language of instruction at the secondary level was as follows: 1991-92 – 45%, 1995-96 – 58%, 2004-05 – 77%. In higher educational institutions at the I and II level of accreditation 7% of students studied in Ukrainian in 1990-91. In 1995-96 these numbers soared to 55% and in 2005-06, they increased to 85% (Statistical Yearbook of Ukraine 2004, p. 477; Statistical Yearbook of Ukraine 2007, p. 484).

These figures somewhat illustrate

the fact that over the first decade of independence the government transformed the system of secondary and higher education from overwhelmingly Russian to overwhelmingly Ukrainian. These essential, though abrupt, changes led to the charges of Ukrainization, put forward mostly by the Russian-speaking population and to the general dissatisfaction of the public with the language policy, and, possibly, language aversion towards either Ukrainian or Russian. .

What remains to be seen, however, is whether this opposition, or "language allergy", hinders learning other foreign languages, English in particular

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INTERNET TECHNOLOGY AS A MEANS OF DEVELOPING INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE IN ESL STUDENTS

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The tendency toward integration in the sphere of education is the brightest one in modern society. It implies the necessity of joining the world education space. All over the world it arouses interest to computer communication, and in particular, to the possibilities of the Internet. Its usage is getting the necessary condition of receiving and transferring information on any specialization.

Modern means of communicating with partners, access to net information resources imply good knowledge of not only computer technologies and foreign language but also knowledge of communication culture.

One of the tasks in teaching a foreign language as a major at university language departments is developing communicative competence in students. However because of active introduction of information technologies into the educational process at Kazakhstan universities, and the necessity to widen aims of foreign language teaching it has become really important to develop intercultural competence in students. This competence provides developing abilities to cultural interaction.

Possibilities of Internet technologies for students' intercultural education are quite significant. Representatives of various cultures participate in virtual foreign dialogue and they have a chance to compare and analyze their own and "someone else's" world perception, match miscellaneous points of view, and overrun their cultural standards [1].

G.D. Tomahin [2] distinguishes two approaches to teaching culture in foreign language class – social-scientific and philological, and points out that the first approach is based on country studies. This subject is traditionally connected with foreign language study. Under the philological approach it is possible to differentiate two problems:

1) extracting culture studies information from language units;

2) teaching perception or presenting a language unit on the image background similar to that which is in the mind of a language and culture bearer.

Under such an approach to work at semantics and national-cultural component, language but not culture is brought forth for study, and country realia knowledge of the target language is to provide communicative aspect of intercultural competence.

Taking into consideration language faculty students' major, philological approach seems the most suitable one for developing intercultural competence. In this case it develops simultaneously with language and speech material assimilation in the process of mastering a foreign language.

Having analyzed professional requirements, curriculums and programs of language majors we have defined the list of requirements to intercultural competence (for language faculty students). The requirements include keeping to communication culture in the intercultural dialogue, skill to master and deepen language and cultural knowledge, skill to search for necessary information in a foreign language while working at an intercultural project and etc.). So it is necessary to find out corresponding services, provided by Internet, to satisfy the requirements which can arise in ESL students in the process of mastering intercultural competence:

1) need for intercultural communication in a foreign language;

2) need for deepening language and cultural knowledge;

3) need for searching information in the course of foreign intercultural communication

Following E.S. Polat [1] we have grouped all the educational services provided by the global network into *broadcasting*, *interactive* and *searching* (Picture 1).

Picture 1

№	Services	Content
1	Broadcasting	- advertising pedagogical product (demos of educational foreign language software); - electronic newspaper in a foreign language; - electronic journal in a foreign language; - electronic library of literature in a foreign language; - electronic information collection
2	Interactive	- e-mail; - electronic foreign language conference; - remotely teaching a foreign language; - specialized systems oriented on free dialogue in a foreign language
3	Searching	-electronic catalogue; -Internet Explorer; -search systems

We will look into interactive services as the most efficient means of developing intercultural competence in ESL students [3]. E-mail includes the following facilities:

1) mailing (sending and receiving electronic letters in a foreign language);

2) receiving and sending conference materials in which debates take place. Electronic conferences can be subdivided into on-line and with postponed access to materials. All the materials of "postponed access" conferences are saved automatically. So such a conference remains to be open for connection to debates for a long time after questions have been already given;

3) specialized systems oriented on intercultural foreign communication on line (e.g. Internet Relay Chat) that is a powerful stimulus for students;

4) remote teaching a foreign language which provides possibility of "online teaching" conducted by language bearers;

5) worldwide network (World Wide Web) giving a chance of developing motivation to study a language and culture in students by creating their own Web-pages and free publication of their work (projects and so on).

The following possibilities [1] are referred to as important particularities of the services given above:

- developing *communication culture* in partners. Communication culture implies the skill to state one's thoughts briefly and plainly, to treat a partner's opinion with tolerance, ability to lead the debate and prove one's standpoint with some reasons, as well as to respect a partner's opinion;

- quick exchange of information, ideas and plans on the questions participants of the dialogue are interested in, increasing one's cultural level;

- cultural development of students on the basis of the joining various cultural and ethical information;

- creating authentic language and cultural ambience;

- developing in students the skill to gain information from various sources;

- orienting foreign language teaching on communication. It wipes the borders between separate members of society and allows people to share some experience.

To use all the above possibilities in practice it is necessary to develop in language faculty student readiness to cultural interaction via Internet. Taking into consideration the requirements to intercultural competence level we have defined needs that student can get in the process of its mastering as *communicative*, *lingual-cognitive* and *instrumental*.

We have defined the composition of the readiness under study as complex of communicative, *lingual-cognitive* and *instrumental* elements (picture 2).

Picture 2

Structure (components) Composition (elements)	motive-personal component	cognitive component	technological component
Communicative element	- positive attitude to communication, contacts with culture and experience of other people; - ESL students' striving for speaking, reading and writing in a foreign language for contacts, receiving or sending information using Internet technologies as means of providing authentic communication and cultural ambience.	- idea of communication culture which is brought about via e-mail (organizing private correspondence in FL, sending and receiving materials of electronic conferences in FL) on-line and with delayed access to materials; - knowledge of systems' possibilities oriented on free intercultural communication in a foreign language.	- skill to state one's thoughts briefly and plainly in the process of communication in virtual language and cultural ambience, - treat partner's opinion with tolerance -ability to lead the debate and prove one's standpoint with some reasons, as well as to respect a partner's opinion; - skill to use interactive services of network for intercultural communication.
lingual-cognitive element	- positive attitude to foreign stuff existing in virtual educational ambience, to studying characteristic of language signs.	- idea of remote language teaching service in network; - knowledge of main types of ESL software and communication exercises; - idea of lingua-	- skill to work with educational software for remote foreign language teaching provided in the network; - skill to use various types of foreign language software (demonstration, drilling, testing, modeling, requesting, language games)

		cognitive activity structure when working with educational software provided in the global network;	and exercises (gap-filling, multiple choice, matching, simulations); - skill to reproduce the structure of cognitive activity (demonstration, drill, practice) within each new portion of language material.
instrumental element	- students' positive attitude to mastering ways of gaining cultural and language knowledge nature via global network; - striving for cultural development on the basis of joining various cultural and ethical information.	- idea of ways of receiving information with the help of Internet broadcasting and search services (electronic libraries, electronic catalogues, database, search systems giving information in a FL);	- skill to search for necessary information via network; - skill to make a request with key words, to know how to use reference devices of electronic textbooks, in the text of electronic vocabulary or encyclopedic articles; - skill to fix the information on flexible and hard disks; - skill to integrate information into various attachments and use it within intercultural projects.

The *communicative element* implies readiness to speaking, reading and writing in a foreign language using Internet for intercultural communication, receiving or sending to personally significant information. The *lingual-cognitive element* is connected with readiness to mastering foreign culture existing in virtual communication ambience, to studying language signs characteristic. The *instrumental element* includes readiness to using the ways of gaining language and cultural knowledge and methods of assimilating definite language constructions via Internet.

Having defined readiness to cultural interaction in language faculty students as *integrative personal quality developed in training process* we have presented its structure as complex of motive-personal (motives, interests, attitudes), cognitive (knowledge) and technological (skills)

components (picture 2). So each element includes complex of definite motive-personal attitudes, corresponding skills and knowledge.

The results of the analysis of all the components of the readiness of ESL students to cultural interaction has allowed us to define qualitative, quantitative and structured characteristic of intercultural competence and reveal possible ways of its development via global network Internet "opening window to the world" and allowing to bring students together on the basis of cooperation and get acquainted with culture, tradition, interests of other nations' representatives.

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THE IMPORTANCE OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF STUDENTS' SOCIOCULTURAL COMPETENCE AT THE KAZAKH-AMERICAN FREE UNIVERSITY

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The beginning of the 21st century is characterized by the impetuous development of economic, political, and cultural relations and perspectives. Globalization creates a world in which an increasing number of people are moving all over the world for overseas work or studies.

A major challenge that expatriate workers and students face in the increasingly globalized world is how to function successfully in a new cultural environment, in a country with different values, sociocultural rules, and norms of behavior Hence, one of the main features of a successful person nowadays is the skills in intercultural communication.

Culture learning is more than getting over culture shock or getting used to life in a new country. It is the process of personal growth and transformation. I should emphasize the role of sociocultural competence for achieving proficiency in a foreign language. Defective knowledge of the target culture, especially of the cultural implications embedded in the target language, very frequently causes breakdowns in communication. Just as there are strategies for being a good language learner, there are also characteristics that promote successful culture learning. Generally speaking, a good learner of culture believes that he/she is beginning a journey from a "monocultural point to a larger world view in which he/she develops new perspectives, learns new mental, emotional, and behavioral responses. In short, that person learns to build intercultural bridges and in the end becomes a new cultural person.

Sociocultural competence helps not only to survive but achieve success in an increasingly interdependent global society.

Below we provide a review of literature on approaches that have been used for socio-cultural competence development and draw conclusions for KAFU.

What is Sociocultural Competence?

Sociocultural competence has become a significant part of foreign language teaching. There are a number of different theories of sociocultural competence, which mostly reveal the interdependence of culture and language and draw some implications for language teaching. Each of these theories has provided professionals in the field with valuable tools and paved the way towards a culture-based pedagogy.

Sociocultural competence can be defined as the students' ability to accomplish proper cross-cultural communication (Sut, 2003). Juan C (2006) describes a person with some degree of sociocultural competence as someone, who is able to see relationships between different cultures - and

is able to mediate, that is interpret each in terms of the other, either for themselves or for other people. It is also someone who has a critical or analytical understanding of their own and other cultures, someone who is conscious of their own perspective, of the way in which their thinking is culturally determined, rather than believing that their understanding and perspective is natural. In the approach of Z.I. Nikitenko and O.M. Osianova (2005) sociocultural competence is represented in knowledge of the language (non-equivalent and normal vocabulary), knowledge of national culture, and the norms of behavior.

We will define sociocultural competence as the ability to behave appropriately in the specific situations, to choose the appropriate form of social etiquette, to decode the social code of the partner, to use different vocabulary, to understand the meanings of the words in the definite context, etc.

According to the Common European Framework (2005), sociocultural competence involves five elements:

- Attitudes: curiosity and openness, readiness to suspend disbelief about other cultures and belief about one's own.

- Knowledge: of social groups and their products and practices in one's own and in one's interlocutor's country, and of the general processes of societal and individual interaction.

- Skills of interpreting and relating: ability to interpret a document or event from another culture, to explain it and to relate it to documents from one's own.

- Skills of discovery and interaction: ability to acquire new knowledge of culture and cultural practices and the ability to operate knowledge, attitudes, and skills under the constraints of real-time communication and interaction.

- Critical cultural awareness/political education: an ability to evaluate critically and on the basis of explicit criteria perspectives, practices and products in one's

own and other cultures and countries.

Sociocultural competence is comprised of the following attitudes and skills:

- observing, identifying and recognizing

- comparing and contrasting

- negotiating meaning

- dealing with or tolerating ambiguity

- effectively interpreting messages

- limiting the possibility of misinterpretation

- defending one's own point of view while acknowledging the legitimacy of others

- accepting difference

Achieving sociocultural competence requires that one lowers his/her defenses, takes risks, and practices behaviors that may feel unfamiliar and uncomfortable. It requires a flexible mind, an open heart, and a willingness to accept alternative perspectives.

How to develop students' sociocultural competence?

Nowadays a great attention is given to sociocultural component in teaching a foreign language which is a requirement for the appropriate use of a foreign language in specific cultural situations. Marianne Celce Murcia (2008) points that culture should be taught as a process. She describes in detail an interactive process that relates target and native languages, cultures, and perceptions. The process incorporates the following eight basic stages, the first five of which are primarily teacher-associated and the final three are student-associated:

1. Identification of a cultural theme

2. Presentation of cultural phenomena

3. Dialogue (target/native cultures)

4. Transition to language learning

5. Language learning

6. Verification of perceptions (target/native culture)

7. Cultural awareness

8. Evaluation of language and cultural proficiency.

She proposes organizing instruction around four basic categories:

- Convention, which provides students with information about the common everyday behavior of people;

- Connotation, which helps students develop their skills to recognize that the meaning of a word is determined by each individual's frame of reference;

- Conditioning, which helps students develop observational and interpretive skills and understand that the actions of individuals reflect an already established cultural frame of reference;

- Comprehension, which helps students develop the skills of analysis and hypothesis formation, thereby recognizing that the behavior of one person does not necessarily reflect the behavior of society as a whole.

Chen & Starosta (1998) suggests the following models of intercultural trainings: cognitive (intellectual, classroom) model, self-awareness and cultural awareness models, simulation model, and interactional model.

The cognitive (intellectual, classroom) training promotes understanding of cultural differences and similarities. It helps participants to get more information about a culture. As the emphasis is laid on cognitive understanding of customs, values, people, geography, and habits of a specific culture, the normally applied methods of teaching are lectures, films, readings, and different kinds of presentations.

This model, however, has its limitations. It only teaches participants "what to learn" but not "how to learn", teaches them to gain knowledge of a culture without knowing how to perform and to adapt behaviorally to it. Overall, this model cannot guarantee success at living or working in a new culture.

The self-awareness training helps participants identify attitudes, opinions and biases embedded in their own culture that influence the way they communicate. The emphasis in this model is laid on understanding oneself as a cultural being. Working in groups the participants learn how their own behaviors influence others and what psychological forces operate in groups.

The limitation of this model is its ethnocentric orientation. Although self-awareness is important for being effective in intercultural communication, its focus on the internalized processes of an individual cannot adequately teach participants about factors involved in cultural interaction.

The cultural awareness training requires participants to understand the aspects of culture that are universal and specific. It assumes that in order to successfully interact with people of other cultures we have to understand our own and others" cultural norms, customs and social systems. The cultural awareness model aims to teach participants to overcome ethnocentrism, to help them understand that our own cultural identity is only one possibility among numerous others. This training model is very popular among Russian educators as it is built on a strong theoretical base. Another strong point of this model is that the participants can reach not only intellectual understanding but also an affective tolerance of cultural differences in the process of intercultural communication. This training model also has its limitations. First, it may be difficult for the trainees to apply general knowledge in dealing with a specific cultural task; second, in comparing their own culture to others the participants may neglect similarities and exaggerate differences; third, to become thoroughly aware of one's own culture as the base for understanding others is a complex process and may take a long time.

The simulation training focuses on the affective and experiential processes of training participants by involving them in an environment that closely resembles a specific culture. The basic assumption of this model is that it is very important for trainees to gain personal experience in living in a place resembling the host culture, to develop a set of new behaviors and attitudes that will enable them to better adjust to the foreign culture. The main advantage of this model is a strong focus on the participant rather than on the trainer. It is a trial-and-error process, through which participants acquire intercultural communication skills.

However, there are also some limitations. First, it is difficult to simulate overseas environment. Second, it is impossible to gain extensive cultural knowledge through personal experience in a limited time. Most frequently, the simulation model is used as a complementary part of the classroom (cognitive) model.

The interactional training presupposes face-to-face interaction with the host/ foreign nationals. Through the experiential learning process participants are supposed to figure out the value systems and appropriate behavioral patterns of the host culture. The model is commonly applied to the intercultural workshop programs held on college campuses. As any other model, interactional model also has its advantages (real life communication with foreigners, authentic source of information) and disadvantages (encountering cultural differences that may cause cultural misunderstanding or culture clash).

According to Zhanna Korotkikh an effective intercultural training can increase the learner's capacity for intercultural awareness, intercultural sensitivity, and intercultural competence, thus enabling him or her to function effectively in intercultural context.

Applying a single model of intercultural training may not sufficiently prepare participants to function properly and effectively in a new cultural environment. Better results may be achieved through a combination of several training models. A more effective outcome may be achieved by devising specific training techniques: case studies, critical-incident case studies based on real-life experience of the learners, simulations, role playing, team projects, experiential learning, etc.

Implications for KAFU

There are many opportunities for the students of KAFU to go global and to get invaluable cultural experience. They participate in different international programs that operate successfully at KAFU. These are International Leadership program, Language and Culture program in the USA, grant programs for Education in the United States, Professional internship program in the USA, American Diploma program, distance education at American Universities, Visiting Foreign faculty program, and Business and Culture program in the United States. Moreover, a lot of students succeed in such international programs as CCUSA, Work and Travel, Global Undergraduate Exchange program in Eurasia and Central Asia, AIESEC, DAAD, and other.I consider that students of all linguistic and non-linguistic majors at KAFU must be culturally armed in order to accomplish the dialogue of cultures and avoid cultural shock when communicating with the representatives of different cultures.

Paying attention to the sociocultural aspect in teaching would-be interpreters is very important because translation is vital means of accomplishing sociocultural communication. To reflect the meaning of the sentence a translator must first decode the message and then convey its sociocultural coloring correctly. The ability to interpret the information in a proper way and to draw conclusions is the attribute of the translators' sociocultural competence.

Developing students' sociocultural competence of non-linguistic majors is of great importance too, because the specific feature of their future work is based on communication with people. They must know the way of life, patterns of behavior of people of different cultures. Being not socioculturally competent, the students may fail in communication with the representatives of another culture.

There are many possibilities that KAFU students may use to increase their sociocultural awareness, sensitivity and competence. Namely, participation in Language Discussion clubs, e-mail correspondence with native speakers, communication with people of different cultures at the lessons, attending special course of Intercultural Communication. They all are means of exploration of another culture.

The objectives of these activities are the following:

1) To manage the students' activity through the use of sociocultural component in the process of study

2) To expand students' linguistic and country study knowledge, and teach them how to apply sociocultural knowledge in practice, in verbal and written communication

3) To develop students sociocultural competence using authentic materials

At the lessons the students take part in guided discussions, role-plays, solving intercultural incidents, doing exercises on critical thinking, presentations of projects. These techniques enable the students to:

- understand the concept of intercultural awareness;
- recognize the origins of their own cultural values, assumptions and attitudes and the way in which their values affect their perception of others;
- identify causes of intercultural misunderstandings;
- explore how their perception of their own character, attitudes and behavior might influence their cultural learning;

- recognize personal skills affecting their ability to adapt to living and working abroad;
- develop attitudes and strategies which will help adapt to life in a foreign country and operate autonomously in that country;
- observe, monitor and report on their own cultural learning;
- transfer their intercultural competence into their employability

Therefore, KAFU students should get sufficient knowledge and skills in cross-cultural communication in order to adjust properly to a new culture or multicultural environment, to be able to establish interpersonal relations within the culturally different community, and to behave adequately in some cross-cultural situations.

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COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE CONCEPT OF BEAUTY IN ENGLISH AND RUSSIAN

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Concept can be understood as a mental formation, which possesses a specific cultural value, and represents elements of the world for people in the course of reflection and communication (Neroznak, 2008). A national-cultural specificity of the concept as a unit of mentality is revealed in the comparative study of concepts in the linguistic consciousness of different peoples. The study of concepts is valuable because it helps us to identify the culturally specific world view of a certain lingual-cultural community. It also allows us to understand the word (as a lexical unit) in the context of culture, cognition, and communication.

Beauty" is one of the key concepts in a culture, which has an existential significance both for an individual person and for a lingual-cultural community. The concept "beauty" can be found in every ethnic culture, its existence is universal. However, the conceptual representation of beauty draws on local, national, cultural, and historical traditions, and the religious beliefs of ethnic groups.

To compare the concept of beauty in English and Russian we identified and described the conceptual, figurative and evaluative aspects of the concept "beauty", and conducted a comparative analysis of the concept on these three selected aspects.

A concept can be viewed as the structure with its core, periphery and far periphery. The core characteristics are most commonly used notions about the concept, and the farther from the core, the more rare they are. To determine the conceptual aspects of the concept of beauty in the Russian language we studied explanatory articles for several entries in the explanatory dictionaries of the Russian language by Ozhegov (two authors), Shvedova (1986), Ushakov (2003), Dahl (1995, 2005).The analysis of the articles dictionaries showed that the main meanings expressed by the concept are:

- a characteristic feature, ornament, delight;

- something that gives pleasure and joy to the senses (vision, hearing) or mind;

- an abstract notion

- attractiveness due to pleasant appearance or inner world

These characteristics are the conceptual core of the concept "beauty" in Russian.

Other features make up the periphery of the conceptual core of the concept "beauty", such as:

- beauty as an interjection expressing feelings;

- beauty referring to a girl;

- beauty as a young female;

- beauty as the braid of a girl.

According to a survey of Russian respondents, most Russian-speakers de-

fined "beauty" as harmony, a kind of feature that causes a person to experience positive emotions, satisfying the aesthetic needs of the person. When asked what might be beautiful respondents often mentioned a person's appearance, nature, or works of art.

In our view, the results of the survey indicate that the conceptual meanings comprising the concept can be divided into 3 groups according to their relation to the core component:

1) those that specify the features contained in the conceptual core, detected by the analysis of dictionary definitions (referring to the nature or works of art that delight the senses and the mind);

2) those that coincide with the nuclear conceptual features - something that satisfies the aesthetic needs of a human, brings delight and pleasure;

3) those that comprise new conceptual features such as harmony, certain perceptions of the world, perfection, or ideal happiness.

It is the third group of meanings that constitutes the far periphery of the conceptual aspects of the concept "beauty".

To identify the conceptual aspects of the concept "beauty" in English, we reviewed entries of four dictionaries: "Chambers's Dictionary" edited by William Geddie (1952); "Webster's Seventh New Collegiate Dictionary" (1966); "Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English" edited by Hornby A.S. (1980); "The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Languages" edited by William Morris (1979).

Our analysis reveals that all these dictionaries determine beauty as

1) the combination of qualities that give pleasure and joy to the senses (vision and hearing) and mind;

2) as a set of qualities glorifying the soul;

3) as an especially good feature;

4) as an elegant, superb quality.

These characteristics are the conceptual core of the concept "beauty" in English.

Such meanings of beauty as proportion, symmetry, beauty spot meaning a mole, beauty shop meaning a beauty salon make up the periphery of the conceptual core of the concept "beauty", as they do not occur that often.

We made a survey of ten British respondents. To the question "Who or what can be beautiful?" they often said nature, flowers, children, women, relationships, architecture in the descending order.

The conceptual meanings revealed by the survey correspond to the conceptual core of the concept being analyzed. Thus, nature, flowers, architecture are classified on the basis of the beautiful - "combination of qualities that give pleasure and joy to the senses (eye, ear), intellect" and the children, women - on the grounds of "an especially good feature" (as both are often objects of love and adoration).

The results of the questionnaire also identified the far periphery of the concept "beauty" in English - "the beauty of relationships." But these signs of the concept are not the only ones in the English language and culture.

Table 1. Comparison of concepts in the conceptual aspect

	BEAUTY (in Russian)	BEAUTY (in English)
Core	- combination of qualities that give pleasure and joy to the senses (vision, hearing) or mind; - luxury, property, jewelry; - attractive or handsome.	- combination of qualities that give pleasure and joy to the senses (vision, hearing), or mind; - set of qualities, glorifying the soul; - especially good feature;

		- elegant, superb quality.
Peripherals	- interjection expressing feelings; - young female; - braid of a girl.	-proportion, symmetry; - beauty spot - a mole; - beauty shop - beauty salon.
The far periphery	- harmony; - distinguishing feature, causing a person to experience positive emotions, satisfying aesthetic needs; - person's certain perception of the world; - perfection, the ideal; - happiness.	- beauty of relationships.

The comparative table of conceptual aspect shows that the conceptual core of the concept "beauty" (Table 1) in Russian and English match on the grounds of the properties and qualities that bring delight to a person. However, it should be noted that the "internal" beauty, representing the inner, spiritual nature of a person is expressed more clearly in the conceptual core of the English concept and is accompanied by ethical evaluation (glorifying the soul).

Also in the conceptual core of the concept expressed in English there is a sign of the intensity of the ethical evaluation of this phenomenon (an especially good feature), which is absent in the conceptual core of the Russian concept. Peripherals and the far periphery of the conceptual aspect of long-range concepts of "beauty" did not match.

The far periphery of the conceptual aspect of the Russian concept is richer than the far periphery of the English concept, indicating a diffuse structure of the conceptual aspect of the Russian concept "beauty".

To describe the figurative aspect of the concept "beauty", we analyzed newspaper, art, and advertising discourses collected by continuous sampling.

Our analysis suggests that in the Russian language there are following types of cognitive metaphors (Lakoff, Johnson, 1980), reflecting the figurative representations of beauty:

1) Beauty = foe, a villain:

Beauty sometimes interferes with life.

Ah, beauty, beauty, but it is outrageous!

In these examples beauty is personified as a foe, causing nuisance, leading people to crime.

2) Beauty = money:

Beauty is in credit.

How true it is that beauty is not measured in currency.

In these examples beauty is personified as a beautiful thing that is bought and sold.

3) Beauty = living being, a flower:

Your beauty must bloom to the delight of us.

The gentle warmth of her quiet beauty sets off a rare property of psychic grace.

Beauty is personified as a living creature that emits gentle heat.

4) Beauty = savior:

Along with the history in photographs the author presents beauty, which really can save the world.

In this example beauty is personified as a living active substance that can save the world.

5) Beauty = deity:

Beauty needs sacrifice: cosmetic

companies often conduct quite cruel experiments to create new products.

Beauty is personified as a deity, which requires certain sacrifices.

6) Beauty = spiritual food:

Truth, goodness, beauty - a necessary and essential food of a man, without it people perish.

In this discourse beauty is regarded as a human spiritual need and it is compared with food, without which man would perish.

7) Beauty = cache, the treasure:

Beauty is a cache that is not open to everyone.

8) Beauty = glare:

Beauty blinds, and from the blind it is easy to steal.

Beauty is regarded as a blinding bright light and means for crime.

9) Beauty = power:

Beauty is also power.

Ah, beauty is a terrible force ...

To describe the figurative aspect of the concept "beauty" in English, we analyzed newspaper, art, and advertising discourse as well.

Our analysis suggests that in English there are the following types of visual images of beauty:

1) Beauty = labor, effort, work:

I think beauty is something you do.

What they are doing is beauty, and it is hard work.

Beauty as we see it is enshrined here as an illusion, and it's a big effort (and a big business) to keep it up.

In these examples beauty is seen as the result of hard careful work, great effort.

2) Beauty = sports:

If beauty is not an innate characteristic, how can there be any competition?

Beauty is identified with the competition, sport.

3) Beauty = political idea:

Beauty is a political idea. It is a set of standards we are told to conform to - even if it takes surgery to do so! It is a set of behaviors to which we are restricted.

Beauty is seen as a political idea and emerging standards of beauty – as being imposed by some power outside the individual.

Table 2 Comparison of concepts in the figurative aspect

Types of metaphors	
BEAUTY (in Russian)	BEAUTY (in English)
- foe, villain; - money; - living thing, a flower; - savior; - deity; - spiritual food; - hiding place, treasure; - bright light; - power; - force.	- labor, effort, work; - sports; - political idea.

By comparing the results of the figurative aspects of the concept (Table 2), "beauty" we singled out the following features:

1) in the Russian language the updated metaphors that represent beauty are used in both negative and positive ways: beauty as the sphere of the living, the sacred - a living creature, flower, savior, god, spiritual food, hiding place,

treasure, bright light and as the sphere of the evil - power, money;

2) the concept "beauty" in English is metaphorically realized without being marked axiologically (not including evaluations) - effort, work, sports.

To identify the aspects of value of the concept under consideration we analyzed proverbs in Russian and English (approximately 200 - 250 units) (Thesaurus, n.d.) as well as sayings and discourses of various types, which allowed us to identify the values associated with the concept in the minds of Russian and English speaking individuals in a given community at the present stage.

To study the associations of individual values within each of the linguistic communities, we used the association experiment, in which we studied verbal associations of the Russian lingual-cultural society with the word "beauty." Respondents were asked to write the very first word (or multiple words) that come to mind as a response to the presentation of a stimulus - the word "beauty." As an associative reaction, a response must follow immediately - the respondent should not think on what

he/she would say. The very notion of an associative process eliminates the idea of selection responses. If there is a selection - there is no associative process in the conventional sense of the history of psychology (Frumkina, 2001: 189-190).

The results of the association experiment among the Russian respondents indicated that the most frequent associations to the word "beauty" are:

1) a group of adjectives, naming the aesthetic qualities that cause a positive emotional reaction of a person;

2) a group of nouns that name the phenomena of nature;

3) a group of nouns that name the person of the opposite sex, as well as adjectives that describe the external quality of sexually attractive people;

4) associations based on the image of the so-called "glossy" beauty.

According to the results of the association experiment, conducted among British informants, the most frequent associations to the word beauty are as follows: harmony, love, music, art, God, life, nature, earth.

Table 3. Comparison in the values aspect

	Groups of values	
	BEAUTY (in Russian)	BEAUTY (in English)
Traditional self-consciousness	- mentality; - happiness; - bride; - health; -a transient property.	- depends only on the human perception; - spiritual and moral areas in people (soul, kindness); - personal and social (nature); - intelligence (stupid); - emotional (happiness).
National con-sciousness	- spiritual and moral sphere (love, human soul); - intellectual sphere (mind); - spiritual and aesthetic areas (harmony); - personal and social spheres (simplicity, naturalness); - gender areas (female);	- emotional (boredom); - sacred-moral (gift from God, truth); - value-normative aspect (perfect, ideal); - global aspect (whole world).

	- age sphere (youth).	
Contemporary society	- simplicity, naturalness - areas of the sacred (God, light); - areas of emotional (boredom); - social and aesthetic areas (style).	- gift from God; - truth; - unique quality
Individual asso-ciations	- preferences- aesthetic qualities that cause a positive, emotional response of a person; - phenomena of nature, sunset, dawn; - sexually attractive; - something connected with the so-called "glossy" beauty.	- the intangible (harmony, love); - aesthetic areas (music, art); - areas of sacred and moral val-ues (God); - areas of vital values (life, na-ture, earth).
Contrasted with	- ugliness; - deformity.	

The table (Table 3) demonstrates that in the Russian language beauty is traditionally compared with values that are not subject to the actual person, but rather are granted emphasizing the notion of beauty as a transient, temporary property, while the linguistic consciousness of English speakers traditionally associates beauty with the group of values that, in general, are "ruled by" a person and cannot be taken away (soul, character).

Further, in general, in the linguistic consciousness of Russian and English speakers, beauty is associated with the assets belonging to the spiritual, moral, personal and social spheres, in English – it is associated more with the values from the emotional sphere; in Russian - with the spiritual, aesthetic, age and gender values.

In today's Russian community it can be noted in addition to the above values the values of the sacred, emotional, social and aesthetic ("glossy beauty") spheres, and in the modern English-speaking community, beauty is also compared with uniqueness. In the sphere of individual views, beauty in the context of Russian and English matched only aesthetic values and vital areas (nature, earth, life). Specifically Russian were associations with the values of society and gender

(something sexy) and socio-aesthetic (i.e. "glamorous"), while associations with the spiritual and sacred values turned out to be specifically British.

Comparative analysis of the concept "beauty" in modern Russian and English, carried out in the conceptual, figurative and evaluative aspects, allows the following conclusions:

1) the concept "beauty" in English has a more clear structure and boundaries than the concept "beauty" in Russian, which is characterized by vagueness and ambiguity of boundaries;

2) the concept "beauty" in the two languages shows the greatest similarity in the conceptual aspect, which indicates the coincidence of the results of a rational understanding of the phenomenon of the world in Russian and English speaking communities;

3) the figurative aspect of the Russian concept is much richer than the same aspect of the English concept, and is organized in two poles - the good and the evil, while in the figurative aspect of the concept "beauty" in English there cannot be observed any evaluation or polarity, but the estimated good pole is well expressed in the conceptual aspect of the English concept (beauty, beautiful - especially

good feature). All this testifies to the fact that in English the estimated characteristics of beauty are streamlined, and subordinated to reason, and in the Russian language, assessment of beauty is manifested only at the level of images and emotions;

4) in Russian perceptions of beauty the image prevails over the concept (10 metaphors were found), and in English - the concept is much broader and more detailed than the image (we identified only 3 metaphors close to each other);

5) the value aspect of the two concepts can be represented as a multilayered structure in which we can identify the following "layers" values:

a) traditionally associated with beauty;

b) associated with the beauty as a whole in the minds of Russian or English speakers;

c) associated with beauty only at the present stage of development of communities;

g) associated with beauty in the individual consciousness of represent-tatives of a community;

6) the dynamics of the value aspect of the traditional, national Russian concept of "beauty" range from inner awareness of the sacredness of the phenomenon of beauty (what is given - and can be taken away again) through the profane, but with the preservation of a "high" ratio of the inner (spiritual, moral, aesthetic values) to the outer and profane understanding of beauty (age and gender-based values). On a modern and individual level, the dynamics ranges from the bizarre external, profane understanding of beauty (sexually attractive, fashionable, "glossy" beauty) to the sacred (God, the light);

7) the dynamics of the value aspect of the English concept is different: from understanding the phenomenon of beauty as a purely human being, and beauty as the focus of spiritual, moral and aesthetic

values, to an understanding of beauty as originality and individuality, but in the individual consciousness, there are cases of referring to sacred values (God);

8) the value aspects of both in Russian and English concepts related to the fields of the spiritual, moral and aesthetic, which indicates that, despite their differences, the most important value orientations in the structures of the concepts are the same.

To summarize what was said above, it is necessary to mention that Gumboldt was right when he stated that different languages are different world views and to add to this – they are different concepts, which reflect this world view in the language.

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EAST KAZAKHSTAN TOPONYMS DEVELOPMENT AND STRATIGRAPHY

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The attempt to determine the ancient border of the peoples' settlement and the language areas has become habitual in science. However, from the diachronical point of view it is impossible to divide toponyms that evolved and exist now into groups by epoch of appearance. In this respect onomastics is close to folklore: there is no data on who and when created proverbs and sayings, epic literary works, and it is even more difficult to find out who and when created toponyms. Even the Chinese chronicles, which registered everything without exception, failed to explain the meaning of many historical onomasticons, to say nothing of the nomads who had no written language. Both the French and the Russians fail to explain the etymology of *Paris* and *Moscow* though they have well-established science and history. Nevertheless, toponymy of each country has its own achievements in determining the periods of language layers development. The accent is made not on determining the age of each geographical name, but on the study of toponyms "which provide information on the history of a certain place, its language and nature" (1, 162).

In the study of ancient language layers an important role is assigned to studying the etymology of appellatives which gave rise to toponyms. Many of them belong to the group of onyms, i.e. words which passed from the group of common names to the group of proper names. They can be traced back to the times when the human language was monosyllabic. Thus, geographical names belonging to the semantic group denoting "salient forms of the Earth relief" indicate their ancient origin, for example: *мө/mo* (hill, upland, height, etc.) means "high", "round", "salient", *чө / шо* – pointed hill, mound, area covered with hummock and etc.

V.A. Nikonov compares topoformants with "labeled atom" and believes that with their help it is possible to trace resettlement of the nations. But he admits that it is difficult to determine the age of the name and that accuracy of ± 100 years is quite rare (2, 98). This method is con-

venient for the Slavonic languages where toponyms are formed with the help of affixes, but it is not always suitable for the Turkic languages where toponyms are mostly formed by composition of two roots.

There is no common opinion in the study and stratigraphy of the Turkic languages. Thus, Y.Koishibayev divides toponyms of Kazakhstan into five groups, A.Abdrakhmanov singles out two big language layers.

In research works there are several groups mentioned: 1. Ancient Turkic; 2. Ogyz-kipchak; 3. Foreign; 4. New. The groups vary depending on peculiarities of toponyms of each region of the republic. In the general Turkic toponymy, including the Kazakh toponymy, it is reasonable to distinguish three groups: 1. Of undetermined origin; 2. Ancient Turkic; 3. Foreign (3, 197).

K.M. Mussayev's classification can be modified in the following way: 1. The ancient group; 2. The foreign group; 3. The new group. This is convenient for studying common language groups by subgroups, taking into consideration peculiarities of each region. For example, the group of ancient toponyms can be divided into: a) ancient Turkic; б) a group of languages of Altaic origin and etc.; the group of foreign words can be divided into subgroups by the historical peculiarities of the region. Thus, it is not necessary to divide language groups of East Kazakhstan into Ural-Altaic and Arabian-Persian. Toponymy of this region is comprised by Mongolian and Russian language layers; among closely related languages there are elements of the East Kipchak languages.

South Altai is the region on the borders of Kazakhstan, Russia, China, and Mongolia. This is a sacred place where all Turkic speaking peoples with a very rich history came from. Such historical and geographical conditions could not but leave the mark in the toponymy of the region.

Dialectologist Z. Bolatov believed that in East Kazakhstan, which is separated from other places by the Irtysh River, people speak Kazakh which is quite different from the Kazakh language spoken in other places. But the result of a research showed that it is not actually so, because Kazakhs started returning to East Kazakhstan after downfall of Dzungaria, i.e. in 1755-1788. Naimans and Kereys who were deprived of their historical homeland due to expansionist policy of Genghis Khan and dzungars, returned to their homelands after the laps of five centuries. During all this time they lived among Kazakhs in Ulytau, Syr Darya, Saryarka. Thus, if certain language peculiarities did exist, they smoothed away during these five centuries. The fact that Mongols and Mongolian speaking tribes of Dzungaria translated toponymical names of the region into their language is a natural phenomenon. For example Lake Beyneteniz (see-like) or just teniz turned into Zayssannor, and Barkytbel Mountain turned into Tarbagatay.

Kazakhs returning to their lands changed the geographic names, but some of the Mongolian toponyms were assimilated. It is at that time when, following Kazakhs, Russian people started arriving at Altai which previously was not possible due to presence of Dzungars in the region.

The Kazakhs settled at nice pastures located on the windy territories with little snow south of the Bukhtarma River. At the right bank of the Bukhtarma River which had been deserted due its worthlessness as a pasture, there started to appear Russian villages and khutors; Russian migrants were given a name of "masons" or "Poles". A. Printtsa, who studied their life, mentions that among those Russians there were old believers, soldiers, people who were trying to escape hard work at a factory, criminals, exiles, schismatics, who were persecuted due to their religious

views. /4.9/. N.V. Alekseyenko, the researcher of the demography of East Kazakhstan, wrote: "…these fugitives started to arrive since 1760" /5.31/. mostly Russian migrants started to arrive in large quantities in 1870s.

Such migration of the population in XVII-XIX centuries could not but influence the toponymy of South Altai.

1. Ancient layer (substratum)

Toponyms of any region are developed on the basis of one or several languages and undergo historical and linguistic changes. For correct determination of linguistic stratigraphy in a diachronic analysis of the regional toponymy it is necessary to ground the research, first of all, on the history and then on the etymology of the toponym.

Substratum toponyms include in most cases names of unclear semantics and unproved etymology. Thorough research may prove them to belong to the Turkic language, to the Turkic-Mongolian language community, to the Altai epoch, and in some cases to the group of Nostratic languages.

A. Abdrakhmanov ascribes one of such disputable groups of toponyms to the Altai period, but warns about the conditionality of such classification /6.14/. this group of geographical names of East Kazakhstan includes *Altai, Arkat, Burkat, Bakanas, Yertis, Zerendi, Katonkaragai, Kokidaba, Kalba, Karagem, Taraty*.

Even if we take into account the fact that all abovementioned names refer to the Altai period because they have ancient roots or relict affixes, multiple proofs are still needed, since the very notion of "the Altai period" is yet a hypothesis. Scientists G. Ramstedt, N. Poppe, V. Kotvich and others who offered "the Altai hypothesis" based on the commonality of vocabulary, phonetic and morphological peculiarities (vocalic harmony, agglutination) of the words of Turkic, Mongolian, Tungus lan-

guages. Some specialists in Turkic philology (A. Shcherbak, O. Sunik and other) deny the Altai hypothesis, saying that these languages do not have common important words and related names. In their opinion Altai languages are not related; they blended as a result of coexistence on the same territory for many centuries.

As a result of many years of research of Turkic and Tungus languages using the method of comparative historical analysis G. Ramstedt laid the foundations of Altaistics (the science studying Altai). Later he proved that the Korean language is also genetically related to these languages.

E.V. Sevortyan proves that Turkic-Mongolian languages are related and 10% of word stems in Tungus languages coincide with Turkic words /7.97/.

V.I. Tsintsius who used comparative historical analysis in his study of Tungus languages, B. Bazylkhan, who compared grammar structures of Kazakh-Mongolian languages, and other scientists have no doubts about Altai languages being related. For example, V.I. Tsintsius, analyzing a Tungus word *kalzanu* meaning "badger", compared Tungus *kalzanu*, Mongolian *khalzan,* ancient Turkic *kalga/kaska* and found out that the three words are used in the meaning of "naked", "bare", "bare ground" or "marked head". The reason for that is a white band on the badger's head. In Kazakh the word for badger – "borsykh" – is connected with its unpleasant smell. In such a way V.I. Tsintsius compared many similar words in Tungus, Mongolian and Turkic languages /8.82/.

Following the scientists who stick to the Altai hypothesis we decided to start the analysis of gathered material with the Turkic layer. The main reason for that is the difficulty of determining the age of the names and the fact that the Altai period dates back to quite an ancient time (8-6 millenniums back). Use of retrospective analysis (from new to old) in revealing the

etymology of a toponym is proved to be effective. It is very interesting when a name referred to the Turkic period gets a wider interpretation from the point of view of Turkic-Mongolian languages, the Altai period or foreign languages. However, it is a difficult process and requires profound versatile evidence. For example, from the etymological point of view some geographical names get a new meaning when considered in comparison with related Altai languages and foreign languages. Thus, a geographical term *bas* meaning "head", i.e.e. "mountain top", "uplands of the river" and so on can be found in all Turkic languages. In Ramstedt's opinion Evenki *bastan* - "the first", "introduction"; Nanai *balsa* – "face", "head" (TMC.I.76), and also *mari* – "head" in Korean are close to Turkic *bas* – "head". V.M. Illich-Svitych writes that many Indo-European and Dravidian languages have the variant of the word *bas*: *mel* «mountain», *mas* «mountain», *mare* «hill», *mash* «hill, mound» (9, 51).

Despite of the fact that toponyms with the elements of the Mongolian language are referred to as belonging to the foreign layer, toponyms of Turkic-Mongolian languages are treated as "common names" or the names of "Turkic-Mongolian community". We do not have enough linguistic evidence to single them out into a separate group (of the Altai period, of the Turkic-Mongolian community period). We can only approximately define the language the words came from and the period when they were coined. A.P. Dulzon considering the Ket variants of formants *ses, sas, sys, ash*, occurring in names of many rivers, believes that such hydronyms came from the Ket language to the Turkic and then to the Russian languages (10, 3-9). Reminding that names of the rivers with formants *ses, sash, ash* are common for all Turkic-speaking territories, K.M. Mussayev gives an opposite opinion: "In this case Turkic

languages do not perform the function of a mediator (from Ket to Russian), but that of a source for a geographical name" (3, 197).

It is a proved fact in linguistics that a special role in the spreading of a language is played by the size of the territory and the number of people speaking this language. Among the Altai languages the leading position belongs to the Turkic people. Consequently we can assume that Turkic made a huge impact on Ket, Mongolian and Samoyedic languages.

The Kazakh language belongs to the central Kipchak group of Turkic languages, that is why speaking about Kazakh toponyms it is justified to refer to them as *Turkic toponyms* or *Turkic names*. It is true to say that, if we do not take into account phonetic distinctions, a certain part of the vocabulary of the Turkic languages including the geographical names shows certain similarities. Comparing Turkic languages is of great significance for revealing the semantics of substratum toponyms. For example, O.T. Molchanova, who studied toponymy of Gorno-Altai region of Russia bordering on the South Altai, mentions that toponyms of that region cannot always reveal their meaning with the help of the Altai language, some of them can be studied with the help of ancient Turkic language, the other is connected with Kirghis, Kazakh, Khakass, Shor, Tuvinian languages /11.5/.

Rock inscriptions in ancient Turkic and M. Kashgary dictionary give enough information about the linguistic system of that period and indicate the way of analysis of ancient geographical names. They provide us with the information that the first ancient roots were in the form of an open syllable, followed by syncretic (homonym) roots in the form of verbal names, and finally by affixation word building. For example, orographical term *tau* "mountain" which is considered to be the root originates in the ancient roots

ma/mө (*ta/toe*) which means "height". It formed the derivative appellatives *tau, tobe, tompeshik, dones* (mountain, hill, elevation, mound respectively).

Analysis of some ancient names such as *Muztag, Khantag, Baitag* makes it possible to assume that the term *tau* "mountain" sounded as *tag*. Studying ancient Turkic literary texts, for example M. Kashgari dictionary, confirms the idea of root alteration: *йайлағ-жайлағ-жайлау (yaylag – zhaylag - zhaylau)*; *кышлағ – кыстағ - қыстау (kyshlag – kystag - khystau)* "winter cabin". Such examples are numerous (12, 19).

The reason that this article does not consider a group of "Kazakh oronyms" is in the fact that Kazakh toponyms belong to the Turkic layer of the language an there is no necessity to analyze Kazakh geographical names with clear semantics from the point of view of their etymology. That is why we attribute geographical names with unclear semantics or having ancient formants to this layer.

Altybaity is a zhailau (pasture) in Markakol region. To determine the etymology of the word we need to single out the formant *–ty* in its structure. G. Konkashbayev believes that formant *ty/ti* in the structure of such geographical names as *Almaty* "rich in apples", *Arshaty* "rich in juniper" and others is nothing else as the suffix of relative adjectives *ly/li* which does not conform to the law of vocalic harmony (13, 15). This opinion is supported by S. Amanzholov, T. Nomikhanov, A. Abdrakhmanov. Y. Koishibayev believes that *ty* is a modifiedform of the geographical term *tu/ty* "tau - mountain": *Almaty = alma + tau; Arshaty + arsha + tau* and other (14, 90-91).

Both of these contradicting opinions deserve attention. According to the first opinion, if *Almaty < Almaly, Arshaty < Arshaly*, then to which of them we should refer oronyms of the South Altai *Akty, Altybaity, Kosnarty?* Following the first opinion *Акты* – «ағы мол» (*Akty* – "aghy mol"), meaning "having much white color", *Altybaity* – "rich in Altybai", *Kosnarty* – "rich in Kosnar". In the second case formant *–ty* means "tau-mountain" then *Ақты/ Ақтау (Akty/ Aktau)* (white mountain), *Алтыбайты/ Алтабайтау (Altybaity/ Altybaitau)*, *Коснарты/ Коснартау (Kosnarty/ kosnartau)* become synonyms. Similar geographic names can be found in the Altai language: *Baitu (Baity)* – *Baitau* (rich mountain), *Tuuratu (turaty)* – Ken tau (wide mountain) (11, 146, 139). In Turkic languages there is a possible shortening *tau> tuu> tu> ty*, Altaic *tu* in the Kazakh language sounds as – *ty: Baitau > Baity*. The geographical term of the modern Yakut language *tya* "forest covered mountain" proves the existence of the appellative *–ty* with the meaning of "mountain".

In the Kazakh toponymy we often find names with the affix *–ty* which means existence or abundance. In the South Altai we simultaneously come across the names *Karagandy* (winter cabin, Katonkaragai region) and *Karaganty* (mountain, uplands of the Black Irtysh River).

Thus, if a word-forming suffix *–ty* means existence or abundance in something *(Kairakty, Sharbakty, Sogeti, Temirti* and others)*, performs the function of a suffix of an adjective, describes appearance or relief of an object, then it is an ancient Turkic variant of the appellative *"tau - mountain" (Akty, Altybaity, Kosnarty* and others)*.

2. Foreign layer

In linguistics there is a term "a loan word". Dictionaries give the following definition for this term: "words, word combinations, and word-building affixes that come from other languages" (15, 124).

Foreign layer of the Kazakh language includes Arabic, Iranian, Mongolian and Russian words (16, 88). The Kazakh

toponymy is one of the structural parts of vocabulary, that is why it also contains foreign words. the fact that these four language layers are unequally spread in the toponymy can be seen in each region. For example in the toponymy of East Kazakhstan Arabian and Iranian words cannot be singled out in a separate layer. An orographic term *dara* which some linguists consider to be of Iranian-Tajik origin, can be viewed as a Kazakh word meaning a solitary mountain or the vicinity of a mountain where a solitary man resides. For example: *Мәкиле дарасы (Moekile darassy), Бапы дарасы (Bapy darassy), Шолақдара (Sholakhdara), Қарабие дарасы (Kharabiye darassy)* – are the names of the mountains located separately, outside the mountain ranges. Even if the word *dara* is of Iranian origin together with its variants *derel, darby* cannot form a separate language layer. There is no evidence that Iranian-Persian people ever lived in the Altai region. Some names could be brought by Naiman people, who migrated back from Ulytau and Sir Darya to their historical homeland 250-300 years ago.

K. Konkabayev, who studied the toponymy of South Kirghizia, points out that the Iranian language layer can be found in the vicinity of Osh, and becomes sparse farther to the North (17, 10). In the South of Kazakhstan there prevail toponyms of Arabian, Persian, Sogdian and Tajik languages; in the North there are many Russian toponyms, in the East – Mongolian.

Among the world languages which are directly or indirectly connected with Turkic languages a significant role is played by Mongolian and Russian languages. There are many research works devoted to Turkic-Slavic and Turkic-Mongolian language relations. These works include studies of Turkic-Mongolian languages from the point of view of the Altai theory. Speaking about inter-language relations, which, first of all, are reflected in the vocabulary we need to mention that they are found in onomastics as an integral part of vocabulary. The most dynamic among all onomastic groups is anthroponymy, while toponymy is characterized by endurance and stability. That is why toponyms are often used as examples in the research of a foreign language layer.

In the course of time, functioning in the dominant language, foreign names go through the process of assimilation and undergo phonetic changes. Thus, the Kazakh language has a power to "digest" words, and, like other languages of Altai origin, it subordinates words belonging to other type languages to its norms. For example: Kazakh *Сөгір (Soegir)* – Russian *Согра (Sogra)*, Kazakh *Мақсым (Makhsym)* – Russian *Максим (Maksim)*, Kazakh *Матабай (Matabai)* – Russian *Матвей (Matvei)*, Kazakh *Боласа (Bolassa)* – Russian *Полоса (Polossa)*, Kazakh *Бекет (Beket)* – Russian *Пикет (Piket)* and others. This fact indicates the following peculiarities of the system of the Kazakh language:

- The effect of vocalic harmony (Russian *Согра (Sogra)* – Kazakh *Сөгүр (Soegir))*;

- Alteration of vowels and consonants (Russian *Матвей (Matvei)* – Kazakh *Матабай (Matabai))*;

- Occurrence of voiced consonants in the beginning of the word частота (Russian *Полоса (Polossa)* – Kazakh *Боласа (Bolassa)*, Russian *Пикет (Piket)* – Kazakh *Беккет (Bitet))* and others.

Identification of such peculiarities in the structure of toponyms is realized on the basis of etymological research. B.A. Serebrennikov believes that etymology of toponyms should be studied in isolation from common names or any words at all. He says that "toponyms, although they comprise quite a big layer in the language, are created and developed in their own way" (18, 29).

The main peculiarity of toponyms as opposed to anthroponyms and appellatives is a direct connection of signification and denotation. Some toponyms directly describe the object they name. That is why when performing the etymological analysis we have to consider physical-geographical characteristics of the names, i.e. ethnic-linguistic conditions or motivation of a geographical name.

A.P. Dulzon who studied etymology of Siberian toponyms says that most of the Turkic geographical names are of the Ket origin (10, 4). For example, he believes that the second part of the hydronym *Yertis (Irtysh) tsis (Irtsis)* appeared in the language in the ancient times, and is an appellative "river" of the Ket language. This proposition of A.P. Dulzon lacks two pieces of information:

1. Did the Ket tribes live on the territory of Kazakhstan?

2. What was the meaning of the first part of the toponym *er/ ir* in the Ket language?

We cannot treat the hydronym *Irtysh* as of the Ket origin without answering these two questions.

Many researchers do not pay enough attention to these questions and believe that the etymology is connected with the popular opinion of M. Kashgari: *Irtysh* (Ertishmak) – "let's see who will cross it faster", but this is almost the only evidence which can be used in determining etymology of the word. Let us consider this opinion from the extra-linguistic and linguistic points of view:

1) from the extra-linguistic (motivational) point of view the first problem of the river which heads in the mountains and flows across the continent is the ford *(oetkel)*. It was very difficult to cross a high water river of a considerable width (120-150 m) riding a horse. It is no accident that "The Mongols Chronicles" says that defeated by Genghis Khan troops of Kushilik sultan drowned in the Irtysh river (19, 68).

2) when performing etymological analysis it is important to take into consideration the explanation given in M. Kashgari's dictionary: *Ertishti* – crossed competing each other, crossed on a bet; *Yertushir* – yertushmek – a place which can be crossed on a bet; wanted to cross on a bet (12, 273). *Yertti* – crossed; swam across. *Yerter – yertmek:* will go (lead) – will not go (lead) (12, 565).

This examples demonstrate that in the 11th century the Turkic verb "yert" ("lead") was used in the meaning of "oet" ("cross"). *Irtysh* in the old Renat's map and in the Schmid's dictionary is spelt as Erzizch, in the encyclopedia of Brockhaus and Efron as *Erchis /Irtsis,* in the Mongolian language - *Irtsis,* in Chinese – *Ertszis* (20, 53). In all names the second part of the word has an affix *tsysh/chis/tsis/czis,* which corresponds to and is pronounced as the suffix of a relative adjective -*syz, -siz.* If we accept the explanation that the verb *өm (oet),* which is given in M. Kashgari as * epm (yert)* has a meaning "crossing, cross by swimming", then the form *Yert + siz – "oetkelsiz"* ("without crossing") means a river which is difficult to cross.

In the ancient Turkic written works suffix –*syz/ -siz* is quite productive: *тонсыз (tonsyz)* "without a fur coat"; *йолсыз (yolsyz)* "trackless"; *білігсіз (biligsiz)* "having no education, knowledge" and others (21, 80).

Thus proper name *Yertsiz > Yertis* underwent phonetic changes in the course of history which proves that this hydronym was created on a basis of the Turkic language, not Ket, Mongolian or Chinese.

Study of the South Altai oronyms allows to single out two foreign layers in the language – **Mongolian** and **Russian**. The fact that despite Kazakhstan and China are neighboring countries but there are no Chinese toponyms in the Kazakh language testifies to the following: first, that Chinese and Turkic languages are not related; second, Chinese people never lived on the

Altai territories. Chinese names seldom occur on territories in the basin of the Black Irtysh river up to the Great Chinese Wall, to say nothing of Kazakhstan.

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