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MODERN APPROACHES IN THE SYSTEM OF CONTEMPORARY HIGHER EDUCATION IN KAZAKHSTAN: CASE STUDY OF KAZAKH AMERICAN FREE UNIVERSITY

Novitskaya Yuliya

Kazakh American Free University, Kazakhstan

Higher education in Kazakhstan undergoes constant change since the country gained independence in 1991. Multiple radical reforms have changed management principles, structure, and contents of education, methods and approaches to teaching. The reforms affected all constituents of the educational process and included the following:

- democratization of higher education and decentralization of the management system;
- diversification of higher education institutions network and structure;
- establishment of new legislation and normative base;
- introduction of new state standards of higher education;
- increase in enrolments of contract students [1].

Another important stage in higher education development is the design and implementation of new modern education technologies. One of the most effective and promising technologies is the technology of consistent criteria-oriented education. The major elements of this technology are as follows:

- Goal setting;
- Careful selection of study material;
- Careful selection of teaching methods;
- Careful selection of teaching means;
- Careful selection of education organization forms;
- Developing education tracks/schemes [2].

Every institution of higher education develops its own understanding and approach to implementing new technologies.

In this article we would like to provide some examples of how Kazakh American Free University puts into practice some of the elements of a criteria-oriented education model *videlicet* education organization forms, goal setting and teaching methods.

Kazakh American Free University is a higher education institution which, despite being a non-public university, operates in accordance with the standard requirements of the Ministry and Education and Science of the Republic of Kazakhstan. And following the requirements the University offers bachelor, master's and doctoral degrees in compliance with the rules and norms of a non-linear system of education. This system, called credit system, suggests that students can plan their learning trajectory and sequence of taking academic disciplines in accordance with their individual needs and interests. This possibility improves students' motivation and makes a great contribution of the development of students' self-development and self-realization.

Kazakh American Free University has a very distinctive mission – training leaders of the 21st century *pro bono* independent Kazakhstan. Here it is necessary to explain how we understand the notion of leadership. Leadership is the ability to influence the behavior of other people. To be able to do that it is not enough for a person to be knowledgeable and demonstrate good high professional level, it is important to be capable of constant self-improvement and self-development. Only a person who never stops working on improvement of his personal and professional qualities can become a role model for other people. Credit system of educa-

tion is designed to maximize the opportunities for development of a personality capable of self-improvement. For this purpose the old system of education where the emphasis was made on transmission of knowledge is modified in such a way that studying is focused on generation of new knowledge.

The role of the teacher at the university has also changed greatly from being the main resource and merely a transmitter of knowledge to being a facilitator who conducts the students' cognitive activity encouraging their self-improvement and self-development. Before the credit system was implemented in Kazakhstan students were mostly taught with the help of passive methods of education characterized by one-way communication from the teacher to a student. Credit system of education encourages using active methods of teaching in which students not only interact with the teacher, but also communicate with each other, thus exchanging ideas and sharing experiences and learning from each other. At the same time teachers shape the students' ability to think critically and creatively, search for alternative ways of solving problems and empirically get new knowledge.

Contemporary teaching techniques that were developed under credit system of education include the following approaches that help to increase the effectiveness of students' self-development: shaping skills of independent cognitive activity, stimulation of independent students' work through demonstration of necessity to master the material for further academic and professional activity, differentiation and individualization of tasks for independent students' work, shaping of positive attitude towards learning, development of guides and recommendations for independent students' work, diversification of tasks for independent learning of students, individual approach to grading independent students' work, using infor-

mation and communication technologies, implementing pair and group work in the classroom, and other methods stimulating students' self-development.

Another opportunity for students' self-improvement, self-development and self-realization lies in the fact that Kazakh American Free University is an institution of international partnership. The university has quite an extensive network of partner business and educational organizations in the USA, Canada, Germany, Russia and other countries. These relations provide multiple opportunities for students' development. Intercultural communication always gives opportunities for learning about other ways of living and working, teaches students that people belonging to different cultures have different values and the students learn to appreciate those values. Besides, KAFU students have opportunities to participate in various international programs, both educational and cultural.

One of such programs is the program of international leadership which is organized in three steps. The first step includes leadership training where the students attend additional classes taught by our international partners. During this training a lot of attention is paid to development of students' personal qualities. The second step is a mentor program, in which each student is coupled with a personal mentor, who is an admitted leader in his sphere of professional activity – business or academia world. They communicate for an extended period of time, and students learn how to maximize learning experiences and outcomes and used them in their future professional activity. The third step is practical training. The students go to the US to get hand-on practical experience in the Academy of Leadership in Portland, Oregon. They visit local businesses and learn from their leaders how to run a successful company, what professional knowledge is necessary for effec-

tive management, what personal qualities are required to cope with this task and how important it is to work on their personal qualities, how important it is to self-develop, self-improve and self-realize. This is one of the best programs the university offers, but there are also other international programs that contribute to students' self-realization and self-improvement.

In classroom teaching KAFU faculty actively use Kolb's Experiential Learning Cycle, which, not being an absolutely new approach gets a greater degree of prominence with the emphasis currently placed on self-education and independent study. For example, the students are introduced the concept of culture in their Cultural Studies classroom they are first asked to think about their practical experience, which is the concrete experience in the Kolb's Cycle and is opposed to theoretical knowledge the students might have. This stage is followed by reflection and abstract conceptualization when students make attempts to conceptualize their experience and develop a model of culture. At the last stage of active experimentation the students work with the knowledge and experience they have at the moment and talk about how they might use it in their future studies, in their profession and in communicating to others, especially to representatives of other cultures [3].

Reflection is an important factor in teaching and learning. Without reflection teaching would be meaningless, it would just occupy time, and learning would be inefficient. Without reflection we can only speak of surface learning, not deep learning. In my Cultural Studies class I use different ways of making the student reflect on their past experience and acquired knowledge; they do it individually, in pairs and as a group. I also use both supervised and unsupervised forms of reflection. An example of unsupervised individual reflection is writing an essay on how

culture may influence behavior. In this type of unsupervised individual task the reflection is tied to personal experience and has only one perspective. The students may be asked to discuss the same question in pairs. In this case the issue can be viewed from different perspectives and provide a more objective consideration of the experience. When the students then discuss the influence of culture on behavior as a group under teacher's supervision, the students learn from the experience of each other and also take an advantage from the teacher's experience.

What concerns learning mediated by context, the discipline fits perfectly using role plays, discussing real life and fictitious situations which allows learning through practical experience, not from using mere theory. Also, in the course of teaching the discipline I try to use learning through natural and planned socialization. I invite guest speakers – representatives of other cultures, thus, providing the students with the possibility to socialize and learn some cultural elements from them. Also, in their independent study, the students are asked to communicate with representatives of other cultures in social networks and then share their experiences and findings in the classroom.

Kolb's model seems to be very effective, but it can turn to be an educational failure if before using it in the classroom the teacher doesn't define study goals. Lack of clear understanding of a goal seems to be the main reason for unfavorable outcomes of many experiments in education.

Contemporary approach to goal setting consists in describing goals through the projected final product. Unfortunately in most documents the goals are described with the use of verbs like "develop", "improve", "form", or "learn", which makes the goal too abstract. This, in its turn, makes the results difficult to assess.

Learning how to frame education

goals as SMART goals is an important skill that might help students improve their performance, aid teachers in assessing learning outcomes and assist administrators in evaluating quality of teaching [4].

The acronym SMART has a number of slightly different variations, which can be used to provide a more comprehensive definition for goal setting:

S - specific, significant, stretching

M - measurable, meaningful, motivational

A - agreed upon, attainable, achievable, acceptable, action-oriented

R - realistic, relevant, reasonable, rewarding, results-oriented

T - time-based, timely, tangible, trackable.

Here, we would like to analyze a syllabus for the course of Academic Writing. The course is designed for graduate students majoring in Foreign Languages. It is a practical course, which is aimed at developing major academic writing skills and forming basis for writing master's thesis. The course of Academic Writing requires students to plan, draft, revise, edit and properly cite expository essays in response to readings on significant issues.

Students who successfully complete this class will be able:

1) to effectively use the writing process to produce clear, competent, and coherent writing that is appropriate in tone and style to the writer's audience and purpose;

2) to organize writing with specific points logically ordered, well-developed, and unified around a clear thesis;

3) to choose an appropriate method to advance, develop, and communicate an idea in writing;

4) to analyze, evaluate, paraphrase, summarize, critique, quote, organize, and integrate appropriate research and/ or material from sources;

5) to write papers that integrate research and appropriate documentation

format.

Let us now make an attempt to rephrase the goals so that they became SMART-er.

First, the course goals should be *specific*.

Some of the objectives in the course syllabus are quite ambiguous and lack details. For example, instead of saying "students will be able to produce clear, competent, and coherent writing that is appropriate in tone and style to the writer's audience and purpose" we should have said "students will be able to write an academic essay, a research article and a research paper". And instead of saying "students will be able to choose an appropriate method to advance, develop, and communicate an idea in writing" we should have said "students will be able to write topic sentences and develop topic sentence ideas by using supporting arguments".

Second, the course goals should be *measurable*.

We find this quite difficult to implement, since the course is designed for the first year student who have no prior record of writing academic essays, so we cannot claim that, for example, "students' failure to perform academic writing tasks should reduce from 30 to 10 percent". But we can think of adding some measurability through claiming that "the students will be able to describe graphs by writing a 200-word essay within 20 minutes" or "by writing a 5-paragraph essay within 40 minutes".

Third, the course goals should be *attainable*.

Having analyzed the objectives outlined for this course, we came to a conclusion that it is appropriate to concentrate efforts on writing essays and research articles only, and do not aim at developing skills of writing a thesis, since that would be unattainable within a 15-week 3-credit discipline.

Forth, the course goals should be *re-*

sult-oriented.

In this aspect, the course objectives that were outlined could remain unchanged since they are in line with the objectives of the state standard of tertiary education in general and the graduate course in foreign languages in particular. The objectives also meet the expectations of graduate students, future employers and the authorities that administer the program.

Finally, the course goals should be **time-bound**.

Since time-bound goals should indicate a specific date or duration in time that is necessary for its attainment, it could be appropriate to state that “Students who successfully complete this 15-week class (or 135-hour class) will be able to do this and that”.

These were some examples of what Kazakh American Free University does in terms of improving the quality of education it offers. Some of the approaches are not that new, but under the circumstances, when the whole educational system is being reformed and remodeled, they have acquired a new meaning and a new inter-

pretation.

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EDUCATION QUALITY MANAGEMENT BASED ON EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS WITH DATA MINING METHODS

Bogorodskaya Oxana¹, Smailova Saule², Uvalieva Indira²

¹Kazakh American Free University, Kazakhstan

²D. Serikbaev East Kazakhstan state technical university, Kazakhstan

INTRODUCTION

The analysis of up-to-date education has revealed the necessity to have reliable information about real education processes and education quality for the implementation of effective policy in the sphere of education, decision making, the implementation of education reforms. The unique base of education statistics on the ground of original data has been created for it. According to the Government Pro-

gram of Education Development in the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2011 -2020 “The Base of Education Statistics Data” has been created on the Republic level. This unique base consists of 1659 indices and 1227 indicators for all levels of education [1].

EDUCATION QUALITY MANAGEMENT ON THE BASE OF EDUCATION STATISTICS

Up-to-date approach

Today in the Republic of Kazakhstan the Rating of regions is conducted. It is necessary for the analysis and estimation of the education systems. It is conducted according to the indicators of education quality on the region level.

Each of these indices are determined by more significant indicators influencing the Rating of regions. The Rating scale is divided by the expert estimation method into 44 grades according to the weight coefficients of indices significance.

More than 100 representatives of the education system in different regions of the Republic of Kazakhstan took part in the poll concerning the determination of the weight coefficient and its significance. The weight coefficient of each index is determined by a two-grade scale. As a result the average weight coefficients of significance of all indices and indicators are determined. The Rating grade was calculated according to the following formula (1):

$$R_{result} = R_{ea} + R_{rq} + R_{pq} + R_{ar} \quad (1)$$

where R_{result} is the Rating result grade of the region; R_{ea} is the Rating grade by education availability; R_{rq} is the quality of financial as well as material and technical resources; R_{pq} is the personnel quality; R_{ar} is the results of education institutions activities [2].

The proposed approach

The effective education process management sets the problems of development and usage of informational and analytical system. These problems are set before the education system of the Republic of Kazakhstan. They include the problems of modern technologies of various data gathering, data organization, data processing for analysis, modern analysis

and modeling methods, forecasting methods, and decision-making methods. [3] Above-mentioned problems should be solved by Knowledge Discovery in Databases (KDD). KDD is a process of data transmission into knowledge. KDD includes data processing, Data Mining (DM) methods, the interpretations of the law by an expert.

The application of data mining methods for data processing gives the following opportunity:

- to determine objective laws and trends in the system of education data;
- to reflect such objective laws in diagrams and interactive visual means;
- to create reports for presentations and business-analytics;
- to analyze correlations and to form forecasting for the data of education statistics.

The realization of data mining of education statistics by the methods of the factor and cluster analyses

The scientists offer the following algorithm consisting of two steps. The first step is the step of generation of general variants. The second step is the step of their comparison and division into groups. Let's examine the algorithm in details.

For these purposes the factor analysis method of main components is used. Let's develop the model.

$$x_i = \sum_{j=1}^m a_{ij} f_j + e_i, i = \overline{1, k}; j = \overline{1, m}, \quad (2)$$

Here x_i – observable variables (original features); f_j – unobservable factors $m \leq k$; a_{ij} – factor loadings; e_i – accidental error.

Here f_j and e_i uncorrelated, besides e_i connected only with x_i , zero mean and variance l_{ii}^2 .

$M(ee^T) = E$, $M(ef) = 0$, and f_j - uncorrelated random variable with zero mean and uncorrelated random variable with zero mean and unit variance: $M(f) = 0$, $M(ff^T) = E$, (E - unit matrix).

Then

$$s_{xi}^2 = s_{ii}^2 = \sum_{j=1}^m a_{ij}^2 + l_{iii}^2, \quad (3)$$

Here $\sum_{j=1}^m a_{ij}^2$ - i -entity, which is the part of variance x_i , determined by factors; l_{ii}^2 - the part of variance x_i , determined by an error.

In matrix formulation the model is (4):

$$X = AF + e, \quad (4)$$

The factor equation must be done by method of the main components. The method of the main component analysis is used for reduced correlated matrix R^+ with entities on the main diagonal. The coefficient of multiple correlations between adequate variable and a number of other variables is used to determine entities.

The factor analysis is conducted according to the following equation (5):

$$|R^+ - IE| = 0. \quad (5)$$

As a result the characteristic number I_i and the characteristic matrix of vectors V must be obtained, and then matrix of factor pattern should be determined: $A = V\Lambda^{-1/2}$.

For entities and factor loadings determination the empiric repeated algorithm is used. It is reduced to the real estimation of parameters. The algorithm is reduced to the following: the original estimation of the factor loadings is determined by the

method of the main factors. On the base of the matrix R correlation the estimation of the main components and unique factors is conducted:

$$f_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^j a_{ij}x_i}{\sqrt{I_j}}, \quad (6)$$

Here f_j - the main components (column-vectors); a_{ij} - coefficient of common factors; x_i - basic data (column-vectors); I_j - correspondent proper value of matrix R .

The estimations of entities are considered as (7).

$$h_i^2 = \sum_{j=1}^k l_{ij}^2. \quad (7)$$

To determine the number of common factors the following criteria are used: the number of current factors can be estimated by content. As common factors m the number of proper values are considered. They are larger or equal to one. The number of factors is chosen. They determine the definite part of total variance or total capacity [4].

Education statistics data were processed and analyzed. They concerned general secondary education in East Kazakhstan (17 regions except Ust-Kamenogorsk and Semey) in 2012 [5]. These variables can be called original because they show the original data. Generally there are 22 variables. Then it is necessary to introduce standards of obtained data which don't depend on quantitative indices. They are called the secondary data. So 17 variables were obtained. In the result of factorization (data reduction) 6 main factors were determined. They explain 80,5% of total variance as in Table 1.

Table 1. The analysis of the main components. The total variance

Component	Original Proper Values	Sums of Mining Loading Squares	
	% Cumulative	Result	% Variance
1	21,070	3,582	21,070
2	38,864	3,025	17,794
3	53,305	2,455	14,441
4	65,507	2,074	12,202
5	73,993	1,443	8,486
6	80,531	1,111	6,538

Let's explain the data using displaced component matrix (table 2).

Table 2. Displaced Component Matrix.

Indices	Component					
The share of schools in accident conditions	-,342	,177	,063	,847	,071	-,272
The share of schools conducting classes afternoon	,171	,462	-,076	,762	-,077	-,007
The share of teachers having higher education	,332	,572	,512	-,053	,218	-,241
The share of teachers of the 1 st , 2 ^d and higher categories and their correlation	-,544	,300	-,097	,133	,123	-,458
The share of teachers over 60	,479	,767	-,087	-,132	-,086	-,103
The number of students per each computer	,086	-,521	,221	,327	,648	,154
The number of students getting additional education	,276	-,132	,142	-,169	,163	,573
The number of students performing after classes work	-,122	,140	-,273	-,074	,117	,808
The share of local budgets expenditures per the wage of educator	-,007	,013	,929	,023	-,044	-,039
The correlation of students and teachers	,908	,082	,037	,120	-,209	,027
The average size of school	,854	,391	,072	-,062	,046	,137
The number of students in each class	,719	-,066	-,026	,072	,501	-,199
The share of schools in typical buildings	-,026	-,175	-,110	,867	,142	-,056
The share of schools using Internet traffic totally	-,287	-,210	,125	-,319	,544	,447
The share of schools with language and multimedia laboratories	,021	,165	,099	,076	,839	,220
The share of expenditures for purchasing and delivery of books	,221	-,412	,699	,148	,173	,107

The share of administrative managers having finished refresher courses	,065	-,086	-,895	,120	-,025	,047
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Factor 1 is connected with such indices as correlation between students and teachers; the average size of school; the number of students in each class. It can be characterized as a network factor. **Factor 2** is connected with such indices as the share of teachers having higher education; the share of teachers of the 1st, 2^d and higher categories; the share of teachers over 60. It is the factor of resources. **Factor 3** includes the following indices: the share of local budgets expenditures per the wage of educator; the share of expenditures for purchasing and delivery of books; the share of administrative managers of general secondary education who have finished refresher courses. It can be called as the factor of management. **Factor 4** includes the following indices: the share of schools in accident conditions; the share of schools in typical buildings; the share of schools conducting classes afternoon. It is the factor of conditions. **Factor 5** includes the following indices: the share of schools using Internet traffic totally; the share of schools with language and multimedia laboratories; the number of students per each computer. It is the factor of informatization. **Factor 6** is connected with such indices as the number of students getting

additional education; the number of students performing after classes work. It can be called the factor of conditions for students' individual requirements (The factor of additional education).

The important characteristic feature of factor analysis is the fact, that the result factors in contrast to base values are independent. The regression equation in the condition of multicollinearity is more rational with the main components. The components are linear functions of all base values. They are not correlated.

The second step is classification by some general indices (the main components) obtained with the method of factor analysis.

The methods of cluster analysis were used for classification as well. The advantage of cluster analysis is that classification can be done not by one variable but by a number of variables. It gives the opportunity not only to determine the groups of similar entities. It gives the opportunity to divide into clusters and it gives the opportunity to explain it.

As the result the regions were divided into 4 clusters which you can find in table 3. You can find the average value by the cluster of appropriate factors.

Table 3. The clusters composition

Cluster	Regions	The network factor	The resources factors	The management factor	The conditions factor	The informatization factor	The additional education factor
1	Abay, Katon-Karagay, Beskaragay, Borodulikha, Ridder, Ayagoz, Ulanka, Zharma, Zaysan	-0,52	-0,07	0,36	-0,54	0,16	-0,11
2	Ziryanovsk, Kurchatov	0,88	0,26	0,72	0,16	-1,96	0,21
3	Kokpekty, Tarbaga-	0,36	-0,46	-1,45	0,2	-0,02	0,24

	tay, Glubokoye, Shemonaikha						
4	Urzhar, Kurchum	-0,77	0,48	0,58	2,02	0,18	-0,54

The average indices for 4 clusters are presented in picture 1

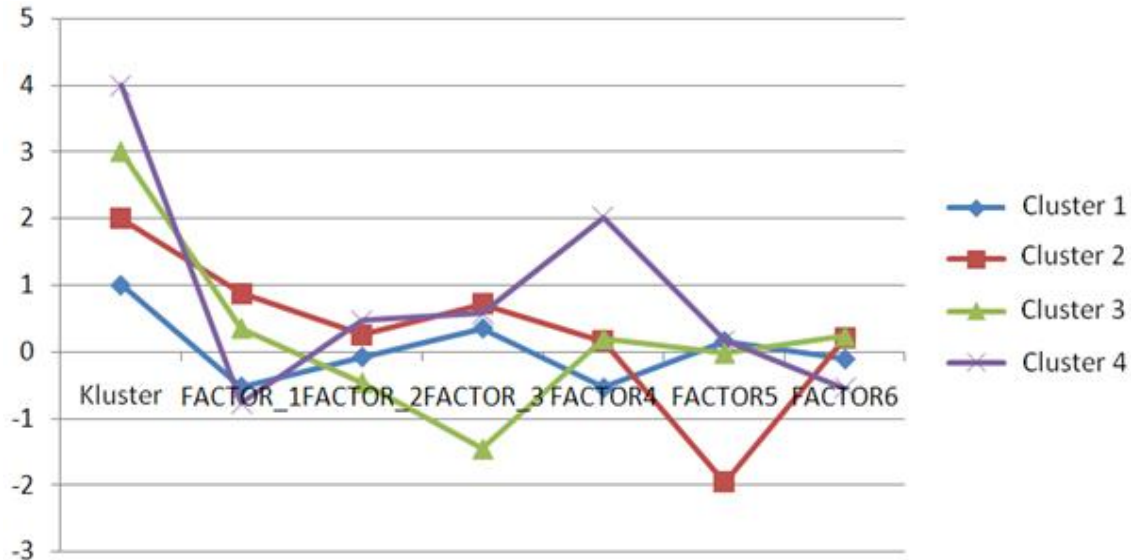


Figure 1. The average indices or each cluster (figures of graphs are the numbers of clusters)

You should pay attention to the distance between centers of four clusters (Table 4).

Table 4. The distance between centers of four clusters

Cluster	1	2	3	4
1		2,698	2,207	2,676
2	2,698		3,045	3,373
3	2,207	3,045		3,195
4	2,676	3,373	3,195	

As you see clusters 2, 3 and 4 are approximately remote from each other. Euclidean distance between them is equal to 3,045; 3,195 and 3,373. Cluster S1 is the more significant for living standards. The distance between S1 and S2, S3, and S4 is equal to 2,98; 2,207; 2,676.

The first cluster is characterized by the high level “The management factor”. “The conditions factor” and “The network factor” are negative. The second cluster is characterized by the highest levels of all indices besides “The informatization factor”. It consists of two industrially devel-

oped regions (Ziryanovsk and Kurchatov). The third cluster consists of four regions. It has high levels of “The network factor”, “The additional education factor”. The rest two regions of the fourth cluster have high levels of “The resources factors”, “The conditions factor”, “The management factor”. The rest factors are negative.

Conclusion

Finally, the up-to-date approach in the education quality management of the Republic of Kazakhstan has a number of disadvantages such as engaging of more

than 100 educators from different regions of the Republic. The rank approach is the regulation of a number of entities. It doesn't determine the degree of disbalance between entities. So the new approach of the education quality management based on education statistics with data mining methods was developed. The developed information and analytic system of the education quality management includes information and reference system, monitoring facilities of education processes, analysis and estimation instruments of education quality, decision-making means for improvement activities in the sphere of education and planning of caution and correct activities.

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PECULIARITIES OF PROJECT-BASED LEARNING AS A FORM OF INDEPENDENT STUDENTS' LEARNING

Yezhitskaya Svetlana

Kazakh-American Free University, Kazakhstan

The person who gives us new knowledge
Grants us new eyes.

H. Heine

Heinrich Heine's words delineate contemporary education system. Modern standards can be called "new eyes" of education. We live in one and indivisible world, in which borders are less clear,

boundaries are more blurred. In this unified world stream of people and cash flow easily move in different directions, partners from different countries collaborate on finding solutions in business. Having

developed the main competencies, students gain additional opportunities in mastering their prospective trade, tapping to rich social and cultural experience and the sound guarantees of the future professional employability in their country and worldwide.

Our society creates a demand for qualified, pragmatic, and sociable people who are able to get and impart information, effectively express their opinions, come up with constructive ideas and find solutions to different problems. A great emphasis in different spheres of life is placed on the importance of communication. Therefore, contemporary education should meet the societal requirements and aim at raising a well-rounded, communicative generation. Having a good command of English becomes one of the most important key competencies of a modern person and future specialist.

According to the Ministry of Education of Kazakhstan, the main goal of teaching a foreign language nowadays is to develop students' communicative competence, that is, the ability to express thoughts and reasonably prove their opinions in a variety of everyday situations. Today in the center of attention is a student, his/ her personality and inner world. However, teachers and methodologists encounter some challenges to choose methods and forms of learning process organization in the framework of credit system of education which puts a great emphasis on both students' independent work and creative skills.

The method that enables students to develop their communicative competence through independent work is project work. The aim of project work is developing students' independent thinking, making them use acquired knowledge in practice. It enables teachers to involve students into real communication, which is based on research and collaborative work, and see the results of their cooperative labour.

Real-world problems capture students' interest and provoke analytic and critical thinking as students apply new knowledge in a problem-solving context.

Project work is characterized as one of the most effective methods of teaching and learning a language through research and communication.

The researches in the given field were carried out by a lot of methodologists and educators such as H. Thomas, M. Legutke, S. Heines, T. Hutchinson, Brumfit and others.

In the book "Process and Experience in the Language Classroom", Legutke and Thomas describe three types of projects: encounter projects, which allow students to contact and communicate with native speakers; text projects which enforce students to use English language texts; class correspondence projects which involve letters, photographs, audio or video performances or other exchanges between learners in different countries (1).

The book called "Project Work" by Fried-Booth suggests examples of teacher directed projects focused on junior learners at elementary level, in which they are asked to collect food labels or wrappings from tins, cartoons, packets, etc. for some period of time. As a result, they display their product in the form of map of the world illustrated with the labels, which are attached to the relevant countries of origin. The map is then used for oral presentation or written work (2).

T. Hutchinson in his book "Introduction to Project work" gives examples of topics focused on the use of interdisciplinary aspects in the form of students' prospects, posters, or other research outcomes (3).

In the book "Communicative Methodology in Language Teaching", Brumfit provides an analysis of projects focused on advanced adult learners who work in groups and fulfill a project in the form of creating a radio programme about any of

the suggested topics for research (4).

Another scientist, Haines, in "Projects for the EFL Classroom" describes such types of project work as:

- Information and research projects which result in writing and presenting reports, displays;

- Survey projects which comprise interviews, summaries, findings;

- Production projects which require the work with radio, television, video, wall papers;

- Performance and organizational projects are connected with performances such as plays, parties, concerts, drama, etc. (5, p. 65).

We can see that all types of projects have much in common: they are learner-oriented; they put a great emphasis on student's involvement, collaboration, responsibility and personal commitment to the mutually-prepared work. Different types of this method allow teachers to use it in various spheres of educational process.

Project-based learning involves multiskill activities which focus on a theme of interest rather than of specific language tasks and helps the students to develop their imagination, creativity, and independence.

Project work is work which focuses on completing a task. It provides many opportunities to meet a variety of learning aims but it requires strong classroom management skills. Learners need independence in planning and realizing the work but they also need the teacher to act as a driver in ensuring it is carried out in a way that meets learning aims.

However, teachers may face some difficulties when using project work at the lessons. It normally involves a lot of resources - time, people and materials - and learners practise a range of skills and language systems.

Project work emphasizes learning activities as long-term, interdisciplinary, situation – and – student – centered.

Unlike conventional teacher-guided activities, students must organize their own work and manage their time in project-based learning. Project-based instruction differs from traditional teaching by its emphasis on students' collaborative or individual work to represent what is being learned (6).

Project work gives students an opportunity to solve problems, face challenges, and explore new perspectives that have real-world applications, increasing the possibility of long-term retention of concepts, skills and competences.

The main characteristics of Project-based learning are the following:

- It demands students essential needs and expectations;

- It is based on open-ended and challenging questions;

- It requires inquiry to learn and explore something new;

- It allows some degree of student voice and choice;

- It requires critical thinking skills, problem solving, interaction, collaborative work;

- It involves feedback and revision.

- It results in presentation or performance.

Project-based learning is based on teaching students through research activities and stimulating students' personal interest and autonomy when completing tasks.

The teacher's role is of great importance in project-based learning. He/ she defines objectives of the lesson, provides students with interesting topics for research, develops materials, directs the student's learning toward content-based materials, and facilitates students' work and performance. Moreover, the teacher works with students to frame worthwhile questions, structures meaningful tasks, coaches both knowledge development and social skills, and carefully assesses what students have learned from the experience.

The teacher's role in Project Based Learning is of an instructor and facilitator. They create conditions for learning, develop an atmosphere of shared responsibility, and take control of the classroom. He also expects ongoing feedback and gives assessments. The ongoing assessment and feedback are essential to ensure the student stays within the required standards and scope of the question.

Student's role is to inquire, ask questions, explore new things, build knowledge, and determine a real-world solution to the question given. Students must cooperate and engage other students in reasonable focused communication, allowing each other to think rationally on how to solve problems. Project-Based Learning makes students take responsibility and ownership of their success.

When preparing the project, each student should be engaged in accomplishing the task, understand, he/she should know his share of work. Group success depends on each student commitment. It's very important for the teacher to divide students into mixed groups with good and backward students taking into account their psychological compatibility.

With Project-Based Learning students learn skills that are essential in higher education. The students learn more than just finding answers. Project work allows them to expand their minds and think beyond what they normally would. Students have to find answers to questions and combine those using critically thinking skills to come up with answers.

The use of project work is significant to the study of conceptions and misconceptions. It encourages students to find out unknown truths, resolve their understandings of phenomena with their own knowledge building, and even make them replace their assumptions with newly discovered ideas and facts.

Project work differs from traditional teaching methods and, therefore, requires

a different form of control. When teachers introduce project work they should encourage and guide the learners towards working quietly and sensibly.

There are not any commonly used criteria for what project should look like and what constitutes an acceptable presentation because projects vary greatly in the depth of the questions explored, the clarity of the learning goals, the content and structure of the activity, and guidance from the teacher. They might be interdisciplinary or single-subject. Some projects involve the whole class, while others are done in small groups or individually.

Students are usually assessed in two ways:

1. Individual assessments for each student. They may include research notes, teaching preparation notes and teacher observation.

2. Group assessments. In such type of assessment each group creates and presents their product, preferably to an audience other than the teacher or their class (7).

Performances can be carried out in different ways such as sketches, dioramas, parodies, plays, debates, a student-organized conferences, exhibitions, web sites, forums, student-produced documentaries, games, presentations to focus audience, student-produced radio or television programs, fairy-tales, film festivals and other ways of activities. The student is constantly making choices on how to obtain, display, or manipulate information. Technology makes it possible for students to think actively about the choices they make and execute. Every student has the opportunity to get involved either individually or as a group.

Technology allows them to search in more useful ways, along with getting more rapid results. When students use technology as a tool to communicate with others, they take on an active role vs. a passive role of transmitting the information by a

teacher, a book, or broadcast.

Having worked at KAFU for 9 years, it can be noted that some students are demotivated in learning languages due to some reasons, such as poor command of language, gap in knowledge, lack of communication skills, or other psychological and linguistic factors. Moreover, they find it difficult to work autonomously on the task. To solve this problem, a special incentive for learning is required. I've tried to use project work and come to conclusion that it can create conditions for independent and creative work, in which the students are able to express their ideas in ingenious ways to cope with the task. Learners decide by themselves the content of their project, and the way it will be presented.

I can give different examples of the way project work was used in the classroom. Once the students were given a project "Cultural peculiarities of American and Kazakhstani people". To accomplish the task, each group chose a topic (e.g. family traditions, national holidays, idioms and colloquialisms, cultural values, national houses, etc.), and was holding a correspondence with native speakers to inquire about the topic of their choice. Then after two weeks of communication, they gathered enough information for their project, made analysis of the given information and came up with great contrastive analysis which was presented to other groups. Moreover, the students often create presentations on various topics, produce brochures (travel brochure, a cookery book, book leaflets for fair, etc.), and perform plays and dramas. When designing their projects, they take into account the intended audience, decide on an appropriate length of presentation, review for comparable ideas, and try to meet the requirements for the projects. Student groups determine their projects by themselves. They take full responsibility for their individual work and also count on

other learners' voices, and encourage them to accomplish specific goals.

It should be noted that each project is the result of a lot of hard work. Students don't just receive or produce words they collect information, choose appropriate pictures, diagrams, maps or other visual aids, arrange texts and visuals, carry out interviews, surveys, make recordings to present good evidence to support their topic and it is usually creative in terms of both content and language.

Project work gives a clear sense of achievement and enables students to produce a worthwhile product.

Student-centered characteristic of project work is vital in the learning process. Students do not feel that English is a chore, but it is a means of communication and enjoyment. They can experiment with the language as a means of communication and enjoyment. They can experiment with the language as something real.

Therefore, project work can give considerable benefits to our classes, like:

- Increasing motivation: learners become personally involved in the project.
- Integration of all four skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking.
- Promotion of autonomous learning: students become more responsible and self-reliant for their learning;
- Better learning outcomes;
- The use of authentic tasks and, therefore, the language input are more authentic;
- Development of interpersonal relations;
- The use of learner-centered methods;
- Involvement of other people (parents, teachers, peers, authorities or other respondents) to present accurate and relevant information in the project.
- Replacing traditional classes by creative Project-based learning (5, p. 40).

It would be wrong to say that project work has not got any disadvantages.

It is time-and-energy-consuming. Moreover, teachers are often afraid that the project classroom will be more difficult to organize, control, and assess. They should rely on students' consciousness. Another problem that teachers may encounter is discipline. While working on the project, students may have arguments, dwell on discussing the issues, they may be moving around in the classroom to get some materials or interview each other on some questions, and thereby disturb other classes. However, it can be considered to be a good excuse for making a lot of noise as such kind of noise is a natural part of any productive activity. The noise of the well-managed project classroom activity is the sound of creativity.

It is important for the teachers to take into account the peculiarities of Project-based learning described in this article, and follow specific strategies and assessments, they will overcome difficulties and get succeeded as effective instructors and good facilitators of project work activities.

TEACHING SPEAKING SKILLS TO ADULT EFL LEARNERS

Assylbayeva Assel

Kazakh American Free University, Kazakhstan

Learning to speak a foreign language requires more than knowing its grammatical and semantic rules. Learners must also acquire the knowledge of how native speakers use the language in the context of structured interpersonal exchange, in which many factors interact. Therefore, it is difficult for EFL learners, especially adults, to speak the target language fluently and appropriately. In order to provide effective guidance in developing competent speakers of English, it is necessary to examine the factors affecting adult learners' oral communication, components

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underlying speaking proficiency, and specific skills or strategies used in communication. The paragraph explores these aspects so that teachers can more effectively help adult learners develop their abilities to communicate in the target language.

Speaking a language is especially difficult for foreign language learners because effective oral communication requires the ability to use the language appropriately in social interactions. Diversity in interaction involves not only verbal communication but also paralinguistic elements of speech such as pitch, stress,

and intonation. In addition, non-linguistic elements such as gestures and body language/posture, facial expression, and so on may accompany speech or convey messages directly without any accompanying speech. In addition, "there is tremendous variation cross- culturally and cross- linguistically in the specific interpretations of gestures and body language" (Nunan, D., 1991). Furthermore, different cultural assumptions about the purposes of particular interactions and expected outcomes of encounters also affect communication. Consequently, due to minimal exposure to the target language and contact with native speakers, adult EFL learners in general are relatively poor at spoken English, especially regarding fluency, control of idiomatic expressions, and understanding of cultural pragmatics. Few can achieve native-like proficiency in oral communication.

EFL learners need explicit instruction in speaking, which as any language skill generally has to be learned and practiced. However, in practice, it is too often assumed that spoken- language skills can be developed simply by assigning students general topics to discuss or by getting them to talk on certain subjects. Evidently, not enough attention is given to the factors that inhibit or facilitate the production of spoken language. Therefore, in order to provide guidance in developing competent speakers of English, instructors of EFL should keep these questions in mind: What affects adult EFL learners' oral communication? What are the components underlying speaking effectiveness? How can adult EFL learners' speaking abilities be improved?

The oral communication of adult EFL learners, their interactive behavior is influenced by a number of factors. They are age or maturational constraints, aural medium, sociocultural factors, affective factors.

Perhaps age is one of the most

commonly cited determinant factors of success or failure in foreign language learning. Krashen, Long, and Scarcella (Cross, K.P., 1981) argue that acquirers who begin learning a foreign language in early childhood through natural exposure achieve higher proficiency than those beginning as adults. Oyama's study also shows that many adults fail to reach native-like proficiency in a foreign language. Their progress seems to level off at a certain stage, a phenomenon which is usually called "fossilization"-the permanent cessation of foreign language development. This shows that the aging process itself may affect or limit adult learners' ability to pronounce the target language fluently with native- like pronunciation (Richards, Jack C., 1998). Even if they can utter words and sentences with perfect pronunciation, problems with prosodic features such as intonation, stress, and other phonological nuances still cause misunderstandings or lead to communication breakdown. Adult learners do not seem to have the same innate language-specific endowment or propensity as children for acquiring fluency and naturalness in spoken language.

The central role of listening comprehension in the foreign language acquisition process is now largely accepted. There is little doubt that listening plays an extremely important role in the development of speaking abilities. Speaking feeds on listening, which precedes it? Usually, one person speaks, and the other responds through attending by means of the listening process. In fact, during interaction, every speaker plays a double role-both as a listener and a speaker. "While listening, learners must comprehend the text by retaining information in memory, integrate it with what follows, and continually adjust their understanding of what they hear in the light of prior knowledge and of incoming information" (Shumin, K., 2002). If one cannot understand what is said, one is

certainly unable to respond. That is why, speaking is closely related or interwoven with listening, which is the basic mechanism through which the rules of language are internalized. The fleetingness of speech, together with the features of spoken English—loosely organized syntax, incomplete forms, false starts, and the use of fillers, undoubtedly hinders EFL learners' comprehension and affects the development of their speaking abilities, as well.

Many cultural characteristics of a language also affect foreign language learning. From a pragmatic perspective, language is a form of social action because linguistic communication occurs in the context of structured interpersonal exchange, and meaning is thus socially regulated (Riggenbach, H., & Lazaraton, A., 1995). In other words, "shared values and beliefs create the traditions and social structures that bind a community together and are expressed in their language" (Riggenbach, H., & Lazaraton, A., 1995). Thus, to speak a language, one must know how the language is used in a social context. It is well known that each language has its own rules of usage as to when, how, and to what degree a speaker may impose a given verbal behavior on his/her conversational partner (Riggenbach, H., & Lazaraton, A., 1995). Due to the influence or interference of their own cultural norms, it is hard for non-native speakers to choose the forms appropriate to certain situations. For instance, in Chinese culture, paying a compliment to someone obligates that person to give a negative answer such as "No. It is not so good," and so on in order to show "modesty," whereas in North American culture such a response might be both inappropriate and embarrassing.

In addition, oral communication, as mentioned above, involves a very powerful nonverbal communication system, which sometimes contradicts the messages provided through the verbal listening

channel. Due to a lack of familiarity with the nonverbal communication system of the target language, EFL learners usually do not know how to pick up nonverbal cues. As a result, ignorance of the nonverbal message often leads to misunderstanding. The following example is a case in point. One day, when a Chinese student heard, "Let's get together for lunch sometime," he immediately responded to fix a specific date without noticing the native speaker's indifferent facial expression. Undoubtedly, he was puzzled when his interlocutor left without giving him an expected answer. It is evident that the student had not understood the nonverbal message, which illustrates that the sociocultural factor is another aspect that affects oral communication greatly.

"The affective side of the learner is probably one of the most important influences on language learning success or failure" (Savignon, S. J., 1991). The affective factors related to foreign language learning are emotions, self-esteem, empathy, anxiety, attitude, and motivation. Foreign language learning is a complex task that is susceptible to human anxiety (Savignon, S. J., 1991), which is associated with feelings of uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt, and apprehension. Speaking a foreign language in public is often anxiety-provoking. Sometimes, extreme anxiety occurs when EFL learners become tongue-tied or lost for words in an unexpected situation, which often leads to discouragement and a general sense of failure. Adults, unlike children, are concerned with how they are judged by others. They are very cautious about making errors in what they say. Clearly, the sensitivity of adult learners to making mistakes, or fear of "losing face," has been the explanation for their inability to speak English without hesitation.

As has been mentioned earlier, the functions of spoken language are interactional and transactional. The primary in-

tion of the former is to maintain social relationships, while that of the latter is to convey information and ideas. In fact, much of our daily communication remains interactional. Being able to interact in a language is essential. Therefore, language instructors should provide learners with opportunities for meaningful communicative behavior about relevant topics by using learner-learner interaction as the key to teaching language for communication because "communication derives essentially from interaction" (Shank, C., & Terrill, L., 1995).

Communication in the classroom is embedded in meaning-focused activity. This requires teachers to tailor their instruction carefully to the needs of adult EFL learners and teach them how to listen to others, how to talk with others, and how to negotiate meaning in a shared context. Out of interaction, learners will learn how to communicate verbally and nonverbally as their language store and language skills develop. Consequently, the give-and-take exchanges of messages will enable them to create discourse that conveys their intentions in real-life communication.

Small talk. The ability to get along with people in society may correlate with how well a person can engage in brief, casual conversation with others or an exchange of pleasantries. Talk of weather, rush hour traffic, vocations, and sports events etc., may seem "meaningless," but it functions to create a sense of social communion among peers or other people. So, at the initial stage, adult EFL learners should develop skills in short, interactional exchanges in which they are required to make only one or two utterances at a time, such as:

1. A: I hate rush hour traffic. B: Me too.

2. A: Boy, the weather is lousy today. B: Yeah. I hope it'll stop raining.

As the adult EFL learners get more experience, they will be able to use some

of the simple exchanges and know how to open conversations.

Interactive activities. Since most EFL learners learn the target language in their own culture, practice is available only in the classroom. That is why, a key factor in foreign language development is the opportunity given to learners to speak in the language-promoting interaction. Teachers must arouse in the learners a willingness and need or reason to speak.

A possible way of stimulating learners to talk might be to provide them with extensive exposure to authentic language through audio-visual stimuli and with opportunities to use the language. Likewise, teachers should integrate strategy instruction into interactive activities, providing a wealth of information about communicative strategies to raise learners' awareness about their own learning styles so that learners can tailor their strategies to the requirements of learning tasks.

In designing activities, teachers should consider all the skills conjointly as they interact with each other in natural behavior, for in real life as in the classroom, most tasks of any complexity involve more than one macro skill (Green, M.L., 1989). Effective interactive activities should be manipulative, meaningful, and communicative, involving learners in using English for a variety of communicative purposes. Specifically, they should (1) be based on authentic or naturalistic source materials; (2) enable learners to manipulate and practice specific features of language; (3) allow learners to rehearse, in class, communicative skills they need in the real world; and (4) activate psycholinguistic processes of learning.

Based on these criteria, the following activities appear to be particularly relevant to eliciting spoken language production. They provide learners with opportunities to learn from auditory and visual experiences, which enable them to develop flexibility in their learning styles and also

demonstrate the optimal use of different learning strategies and behaviors for different tasks.

1. *Aural: oral activities.* With careful selection and preparation, aural materials such as news reports on the radio will be fine-tuned to a level accessible to particular groups of learners. These materials can be used in some productive activities as background or as input for interaction. In practice, students are directed to listen to taped dialogues or short passages and afterwards to act them out in different ways.

2. *Visual: oral activities.* Because of the lack of opportunity in foreign language settings to interact with native speakers, the need for exposure to many kinds of scenes, situations, and accents as well as voices is particularly critical. This need can be met by audiovisual materials such as appropriate films, videotapes, and soap operas. They can provide (a) "the motivation achieved by basing lessons on attractively informative content material; (b) the exposure to a varied range of authentic speech, with different registers, accents, intonation, rhythms, and stresses; and (c) language used in the context of real situations, which adds relevance and interest to the learning process" (Knowles, M.S., 1968). While watching, students can observe what levels of formality are appropriate or inappropriate on given occasions. Similarly, they can notice the nonverbal behavior and types of exclamations and fill-in expressions that are used. Also, they can pay attention to how people initiate and sustain a conversational exchange and how they terminate an interactive episode. Subsequent practice of dialogues, role-playing, and dramatizations will lead to deeper learning. Visual stimuli can be utilized in several ways as starter material for interaction. Short pieces of films can be used to give "eyewitness" accounts. An anecdote from a movie can be used to elicit opinion-expressing activity. Like-

wise, nonverbal videos can be played to have students describe what they have viewed. While watching, students can focus on the content and imitate the "model's" body language. In this way students will be placed in a variety of experiences with accompanying language. Gradually, they will assimilate the verbal and nonverbal messages and communicate naturally.

3. *Material-aided: oral activities.* Appropriate reading materials facilitated by the teacher and structured with comprehension questions can lead to creative production in speech. Story-telling can be prompted with cartoon-strips and sequences of pictures. Oral reports or summaries can be produced from articles in newspapers or from some well-designed textbooks. Similar material input such as hotel brochures can be used for making reservations; menus can be used for making purchases in the supermarket or for ordering in a restaurant. In fact, language input for oral activities can be derived from a wide range of sources that form the basis for communicative tasks of one sort or another, which will help learners deal with real situations that they are likely to encounter in the future.

4. *Culture-awareness: oral activities.* Culture plays an instrumental role in shaping speakers' communicative competence, which is related to the appropriate use of language (e.g., how native speakers make an apology and what kind of form the apology is to take). Generally, appropriateness is determined by each speech community. In other words, it is defined by the shared social and cultural conventions of a particular group of speakers. Therefore, it is essential to recognize different sets of culturally determined rules in communication. Just as Brown and Yule (Knowles, M.S., 1968) say, "a great number of cultural assumptions which would be normally presupposed, and not made explicit by native speakers, may need to be

drawn explicitly to the attention of speakers from other cultures." Cultural learning illustrated by activities and strengthened through physical enactment will motivate students.

Teachers can present situations in which there are cultural misunderstandings that cause people to become offended, angry, and confused. Then, thought-provoking information and questions can follow each description or anecdote for in-class discussion. Students can be asked to analyze and determine what went wrong and why, which will force students to think about how people in the target culture act and perceive things, and which will inevitably provide a deeper insight into that culture. This kind of exercise can strike a healthy balance between the necessity of teaching the target culture and validating the students' native culture, which will gradually sharpen students' culture awareness.

By and large, using audiovisual stimuli brings sight, hearing, and kinesthetic participation into interplay, which gets students across the gulf of imagination into the "real experience" in the first place. Meanwhile, the task-oriented activities give students a purpose to talk. Ideally, the flexibility and adaptability of these activities are essential if the communicative needs of learners are to be met. With the limited time available in class, it is necessary to follow open language experiences with more intensive structured situations, dialogues, and role-playing activities. These will give students both the chance and confidence actually to use the language.

In conclusion, speaking is one of the central elements of communication. In EFL teaching, it is an aspect that needs

special attention and instruction. In order to provide effective instruction, it is necessary for teachers of foreign languages to carefully examine the factors, conditions, and components that underlie speaking effectiveness. Effective instruction derived from the careful analysis of this area, together with sufficient language input and speech-promotion activities, will gradually help adult EFL learners speak English fluently and appropriately.

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LEADERSHIP IN THE MANUAL IS A REALITY

Matyuchshenko Axinya

Kazakh-American Free University, Kazakhstan

In the context of the transformation of Kazakh society and the country in the period of administrative reform inevitably enhanced attention to the management, organization of human activity, which is the subject of the manager as a leader of the market type. Today, demand specialists in the field of socio-economic and socio-cultural management, capable to reveal sharp contradictions and professionally and effectively resolve them.

The relationship of socio-economic life of the culture in all its manifestations is fully consistent with modern realities. The important role played by managers, executives in the life of people actualizes the need for comprehensive scientific study of this professional group, its place in the social structure of society, as well as the problem of building a culture of management. On the one hand, economic growth is largely dependent on the intellectual "potential" of society, the level of development of its educational system, from historical cultural traditions and stereotypes of social behavior and value orientations. In other words, culture is integrated into the economic space. On the other; hand, the main concern of the economic entity is the question of how to achieve profit. These two aspects of the problem is fixed complementarities of two components, which must be maintained between the kind of balance. His breaking accompanies diverse dysfunction that causes danger crisis condition not only for the economy, but also for society as a whole. In this regard, management culture as an integrative quality manager performs a real factor in the optimization and further development of social relations.

With the development of market relations, with a change in the socio-economic structure of life occurred repeat-

edly changing the type of management. Since that time, management innovations have become regular. Ultimately, originated the modern form of ownership capital, which has caused a change management functions. There is a new term in the management - "manager" - manager.

The human factor has become central in the theory of management - management. Among the priorities of today is determined to achieve the current level of public management and development of human resources in order to create a highly progressive housing managers.

Identity of the head, its culture are included in the complex system not only professional, but also socio-cultural phenomena, which are reflected in the mind, which determine professional behavior. Socio-cultural environment is considered in the study on several levels: mega, macro, meso and micro environment. They are one in the context of specific social relations. Each of these levels indirectly affects the identity of the modern manager - manager.

Management - is an effective management, quality criteria which vary depending on the type of organization, the industry in which it operates, its social significance, and many other parameters. Especially important in the art of managing cases where the main problems are related to the behavior of the organization and relationships of people - the most difficult challenges of organizational life. Intuition, will, tact, leadership - in these and similar concepts shown good management in relation to people and groups both within the organization and outside it, but to which the organization is related to its activities [1].

For the effective functioning of the labor collective requires leaders who can

direct the efforts of groups and individuals to perform common tasks. The basic mechanisms of this process - management, power and personal influence. Under the influence refers to the process in which one of the parties changes the behavior of others. Methods of influence may be different.

The specific means by which one person can influence others in the organization are very diverse: from the request made in a whisper, to the threat of dismissal.

The ability of managers to influence subordinates can be defined as personal as a manager, and situational factors, as well as the amount of power head.

Manual is an essential component of good governance, but effective leaders are not always at the same time and effectively manage.

Analysis of these differences between "leaders" and "manager" led to the following conclusions:

1) between these concepts, there is a certain similarity, which manifests itself in the fact that the two categories: "Leadership" and "Manual" - subjects of management, implement the processes of social influence, determine the subordination relations;

2) the main difference between these concepts is that the leadership - it is a social phenomenon, the head is designed to regulate formal relations. Head becomes the head of the organization as a result of a deliberate act of formal organization - delegation of authority, its competence includes formal relations group. Leadership has a psychological phenomenon, that is the leader regulates interpersonal relationships (informal) in the group.

Leaders are not at the behest of the organization, and spontaneously, depending on the mood of the group [2].

Both managers and leaders have influence on subordinates, motivate employees to perform tasks, motivate for the

faithful performance of their duties. However, between the leader and the leader there are differences. Manual - is for the most part social relations characteristic of control and subordination in the organization associated with the person's position in the official hierarchy, often independent of his personal qualities. The supervisor may be appointed by higher authorities to give powers to the use of positive and negative sanctions. Leadership is also a psychological characteristic of human behavior. The influence of the leader comes from the recognition of the superiority of other people's personal and professional qualities.

Head, thus realizes the regulation of formal relations in the team, the leader, in turn, affects interpersonal relationships. Leadership - is effective, not necessarily related to the administrative authority influence on the team, forcing the employees to act in a certain way [3].

Considering the lead in the manual, it should be clearly understood that not every director can use leadership skills in their work. The reasons can be many:

- knowledge;
- emotions;
- thinking;
- time;
- practice.

All this may affect the statement of the head, as a leader.

Vikhansky and Naumov in his textbook "Fundamentals of Management" as compared to the differences between managers and leaders:

There are several theoretical constructs systematically describe leadership as a phenomenon.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt consider leadership as a continuum from authoritarian leadership styles (policy-based task) to democratic (delegating oriented relations). Each point of this continuum is characterized by a certain ratio of the freedom of action of followers and use of power

leader. Accordingly, they are seven basic types of leadership behaviors (with increasing latitude followers):

- Leader decides and announces it.
- The leader of the "For Sale" solution.
- Leader puts ideas and initiate questions.
- Leader is a preliminary ruling, which can be changed.
- The leader of a problem, listens to suggestions and make decisions.
- The leader sets the framework and asks the group to make a decision.
- Leader allows followers to act within the framework defined by the head [4].

In the model, Hersey-Blanchard basis for measuring the orientation taken

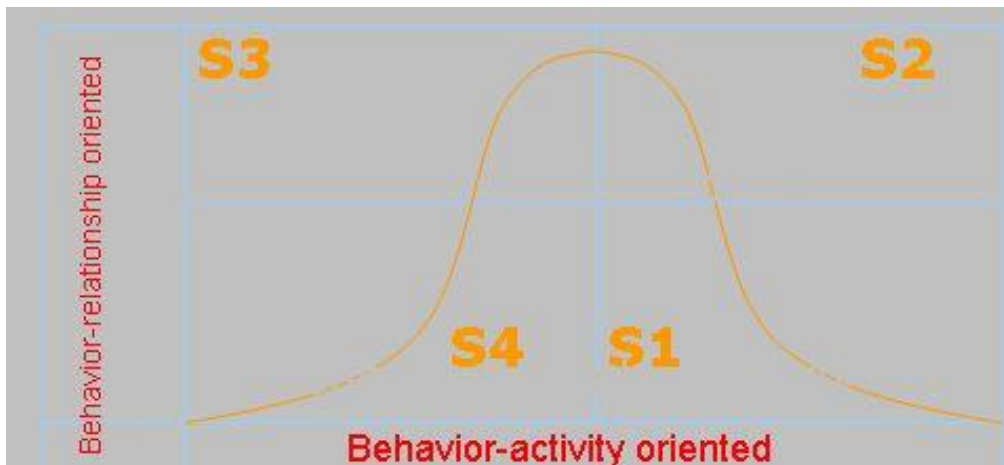
leadership behavior: the relationship or job. Thus, there are four basic model type lead:

(S1) Telling - Coaching. A typical situation of policy leadership, when the leader makes a decision, gives specific instructions and provide tight control over the work.

(S2) Selling - "Sale of ideas." Head explains the decision and an opportunity for clarification.

(S3) Participating - Close cooperation. Leaders share ideas and act as facilitators in making group decisions.

(S4) Delegating - Delegate. The leader of the authority to refer a friend to make and implement decisions, followers assume responsibility.



Hersey-Blanchard model

An important element of the model Hersey-Blanchard is the maturity of the followers, which is defined as quasi-product of their willingness to follow the leader (the sum of knowledge and skills), desire (motivation) to perform the task and self-confidence. Accordingly, researchers have identified four types of followers:

- R1 - are not able and do not want to do the work or not self-confident.
- R2 - are not able, but unwilling or confidence.
- R3 - able, but unwilling or unable confidence.

R4 - able and willing or confident.

In the first two cases, according to the authors of the model, the activity should be directed leader, in the second two - governed by the followers.

Vaisbord believes that the main dilemma of leadership - how to get others to share the risk. They do not go for it, if they think that the leader suffers lack of vision as normative behavior tends to be stronger from top to bottom, and few people dare to risk before it will make the head.

Therefore, the lead requires besides behavioral skills, understanding the envi-

ronment and will focus on the purpose, in particular when an alarm is issued. It is important to be able to understand their formal role by the leaders and the extent to which this is reflected in the mechanisms designed to maintain a balance of formal and informal systems.

Nobody does this action, balancing on a high wire stretched to perfection. But if the work is not carried out, in practice it may be a formal organization (informally) without a leader [5].

In an ideal situation, the head of the company and is recognized as an official team leader, and as a leader. He gets the opportunity to work on a team, not only administrative methods, but also informally, relying approval and trust the team. But in fact, this situation is not always achievable. The company appears the so-called informal leader of the staff, who begins to use its capacity of suggestion and persuasion to influence the team.

At discrepancy of opinions and strategies of formal and informal leader of a team leader may arise dissatisfaction with work and the increasing number of conflicts. The most frequent reason for the conflict is a situation in which the formal leader rejects intelligent and thoughtful proposal informal leader and change it for the worse, but his own. The Head uses his position and formal law, suppressing all opposition, and not willing to listen to comments disgruntled employees.

Often dismiss the head of the informal leader, trying to get rid of his influence on the team. However, this is not recommended. Team will long survive such a caring person, and the head just to prove all its inconsistency. In this situation, for decision-making should use the discussion: should first give an opportunity to express their proposals to members of the team, including the informal leader, and then summarize the proposals and choose the best. Even if the proposal is selected informal leader, the final decision

will be the formal head of the company. Team will be satisfied, and the head does not lose credibility and respect.

Keep in mind that the informal leader can greatly help a manager, successfully completing his work, so you need to try to establish a relationship with him. Informal leader will link manager and staff, to carry out the ideas and reinforce the order of the chief, weakening the negative aspects in the relationship and maintaining positive. Acting on the informal leader, manager will be able to manage the whole team. The question arises, why not head to build a relationship with the team, based on the close friendship, and thus be aware of all cases occurring? The situation is bad that this convergence will break the chain of command, will lead to familiarity. Be sure to start trying to take advantage of this favorable friendship, for example to take time off early or get a raise. Refusal by a "friendly" request will entail resentment and discontent leadership.

Summarizing the written above, it is possible to reveal that the leader should possess qualities such as flexibility and ability to adapt to change leadership style. In addition, it must distinguish between the ability to give clear guidance to delegate authority, provide feedback to subordinates, encourage and motivate, to establish and maintain discipline. Officially appointed leader certainly has advantages in capturing the leading position in the group, so it is more likely than anyone else, becomes the leader. However, we must remember that to be a leader does not automatically be considered a leader.

That is why it is very important to identify as early as possible in the collective informal leader and build a good relationship with him. Then informal leader will be your support, will help guide individual team members striving to create a common result, help implement solutions leader in life, promote them in the team,

will support corporate values, help to create a favorable psychological climate, encourage the pursuit of innovation and, of course, to maintain trust and respect to the management [6].

Despite the complexity of the issue, the reality of leadership in the successful implementation of the manual brings significant benefits. Intel is one of the first American companies applied the principles of leadership in all spheres of its existence. Intel has shown some success can be achieved with the right considering the strengths and weaknesses of the company and the constant hard work. Since the beginning of the 80s. annually announces its new and far-reaching strategic initiatives and technology programs. Such names new technologies such as USB, MDI (Mobile Data Initiative), Bluetooth, P2P, and many others have become symbols of global computer networks of the new generation. Top managers of Intel created over the past 15-20 years, harmonious and at the same time an extensive system of business venture, which is recognized worldwide as a model "factory production

innovation." The business colleges and universities in the US, Europe and Japan performed numerous research papers and these are protected by dozens on "Industrial policy Intel", "Mechanisms of innovation Intel" and the like.

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ANTI-SMOKING ADVERTISEMENT: WHICH MESSAGE THEMES ARE EFFECTIVE AMONG YOUNG KAZAKHSTANI?

Kim-Choy Chung

KIMEP University, Kazakhstan

Introduction

Kazakhstan has a large smoker population among its youth and is one of the first Commonwealth of Independent State countries to accede to Article 6 of the Framework Convention of the World Health Organization on tobacco control. To reduce the number of smokers among its youth, the government of Kazakhstan initiated anti-smoking campaign on the public health agenda in the past three years and plans to increase excise tax on tobacco products by 25% in 2011. Several laws, including “On advertising” and “On public health and the health care system,” have brought Kazakhstan to international norms. This includes protecting against second-hand smoke, restriction of tobacco sales to minors, and regulation of cigarette advertising, promotion and sponsorship. The anti-smoking campaign in Kazakhstan includes stickers, posters and emblems containing slogan like “We do not sell tobacco products to people under 18” and other themes which are displayed in shops around the country. However, not everyone perceives the impact of the excise (tax) increase and anti-smoking campaign positively. Politicians and businesses argue that the increase in excise taxes will have no significant impact on a decrease of Kazakhstani smokers as smokers could easily access the illegal market (contraband cigarettes) or would opt for cheap ‘makhorka’. In literature, there is argument that anti-smoking campaign should start young as consumption experiences at early years affect patterns of adult consumer behavior (Stipek, Sota & Weishaupt 1999); and that relevant and effective anti-smoking theme or message appeal are important to influence cigarette consumption behavior (Andrews et al. 2004).

Despite the numerous studies that explored the efficacy of anti-smoking advertisements (eg. Flay, Ditecco & Schlegel 1980; Harris, Connolly & Davis 1996; Goldman & Glantz 1998), the results on the impact of its message theme on anti-smoking habits remained variables. For example, studies by Flay et al. (1980) and Goldman and Glantz (1998) found anti-smoking advertisements are effective in reducing cigarette consumption. However, evidence from Wallack and Corbett (1987) and Harris et al. (1996) suggested anti-smoking advertisement messages are not an effective mean to decrease smoking.

In Kazakhstan, there is a gap of knowledge on the effectiveness of message theme in anti-smoking advertisement, a gap addressed in this study. In particular, this study examines:

- i) The perceived effectiveness of fear-related (disease and death) and social disapproval themes in reducing smoking behavior among non-smoking youth in Kazakhstan;
- ii) The perceived effectiveness of fear-related (disease and death) and social disapproval theme in reducing smoking behavior among smoking youth in Kazakhstan.

Relevant literature and hypothesis development

Teenagers learn about consumption stereotypes mostly from peers, media, family, and schools (John 1999). This is similar with regards to smoking habit. Youth initiate smoking because of influence by peers, marketing activities (advertisement, celebrity endorsement) and hedonic usage or out of curiosity. A study by Chassin et al. (1990) indicates that the younger the age of smoking trial, the

greater the likelihood of regular smoking as adults. Despite development in cultural and social norms that smoking is an unacceptable behavior in public and private places, leading to negative stereotypes of smokers (Kim & Shanahan 2003), the numbers of smokers among the youth has increased worldwide. Existing demand for cigarettes increases is a result of advertising and other promotional activities like product placement in movies, retail display advertising, free product sampling, sports sponsorship, packaging graphics, filter design and product attributes (Pechmann & Knight 2002; Andrews et al. 2004; Netemeyer, Andrews, Burton 2005). Pechmann and Shin (1999) argue that smoking scenes positively aroused young viewers, enhanced their perceptions of smokers' stature, and increased their intent to smoke.

Anti-smoking message themes

Stipek et al. (1999) emphasize the value of early intervention and everyday classroom activities to prevent high-risk behaviors, such as smoking. However, most interventions to reduce smoking are directed toward reducing demand for tobacco (Lemieux 2001). Andrews et al. (2004) suggests that adolescents' anti-smoking beliefs are affected by advertising attitudes, prior trial behavior, and social influence affect; and concludes that well-designed anti-smoking advertisement can decrease smoking-related behaviors among adolescents. In general, message themes in anti-smoking campaigns or advertisements can be classified as either fear-related (disease and death) or social disapproval-related (Uusitalo & Niemela-Nyrhinen 2008). Thus, most anti-smoking campaigns portray smokers as people at risk, either physically or socially (i.e. how they influence not only the smoker but those around them).

Fear appeal has been a popular approach in anti-smoking campaigns in most

developed countries, especially those related to health messages such disease and death (Beaudoin 2002). Disease and death themes describe how smokers suffer from diseases caused by smoking. The intent is to raise the perceived health risk severity ranging from serious diseases to eventual death as a result of smoking. This approach conformed to Witte's (1994) Extended Parallel Process Model which suggest that when individual is exposed to fear, he/she is highly motivated to control the danger by lessening their at-risk behavior or control the fear through denial when they feel that the threat is severe (that smoking leads to disease or death); feel vulnerable to the threat (the consequences of smoking will affect them personally); feel capable of changing their at-risk behavior (quit smoking); and perceive the behavior change is effective in averting the threat (quitting smoking effectively eliminates the risk). However there are mixed findings about the effectiveness of the health-related messages (disease and death) for adolescents in anti-smoking campaign. It is argued that youths exposed to anti-smoking health messages generated by tobacco companies were more likely to be open to smoking (Farrelly et al. 2002), thus, immune them to the anti-smoking health related (disease and death) theme. Further, young people do not appreciate the risk from smoking, as they believe that they can quit any time and are over-optimistic about health-related consequences of smoking (Weinstein 1998). Rogers's (1983) revised Theory of Protection Motivation explains the lack of effectiveness in fear-aroused messages by relating rewards to perceived severity and susceptibility when analyzing a particular course of action. For instance, if the reward (e.g. pleasure, social pleasure or hedonic effect) of an action is greater than the perceived consequences, susceptibility and severity of the danger of the action (e.g. smoking cause cancer), individuals

will continue to practice maladaptive behavior (eg. continue to smoke). Nevertheless, fear-related themes continued to found favor among anti-smoking proponents in the last few decades (Prevention First 2008). Consequently, this study proposed:

H1: Messages related to fear-related (disease and death) theme is effective in reducing smoking behavior among the non-smoking youth in Kazakhstan.

H2: Messages related to fear-related (death) theme is effective in reducing smoking behavior among the smoking youth in Kazakhstan.

Netemeyer et al. (2005) indicate that advertisements that target specific anti-smoking beliefs, such as addictiveness of smoking, dangers of environmental tobacco smoke to children, and tobacco industry's use of unethical or deceptive advertising practices enhance consideration of quitting among adult smokers, especially if they live with their children at home. Several other studies (Pechmann et al 2003; Pechmann & Ratneshwar 1994; Uusitalo, Niemela-Nyrhinen 2008) also argue that social disapproval theme is more effective in anti-smoking campaign. Pechmann and Knight (2002) reveal that cigarette advertising shown in conjunction with anti-smoking advertising evoked unfavorable impressions about smoking. Similarly, Pechmann and Ratneshwar (1994) indicate anti-smoking campaigns affect non-smoking teenagers' perceptions of peers who smoke, reinforcing preexisting beliefs that smokers foolishly endanger their health and are relatively immature or unglamorous, a perception absent among smokers. As such, this study proposed:

H3: Messages related to social disapproval theme is effective in reducing smoking behavior among the non-smoking youth in Kazakhstan.

H4: Messages related to social disapproval theme is effective in reducing

smoking behavior among the smoking youth in Kazakhstan.

Methodology

A total of 239 university students from two major cities (Almaty = 189, Astana = 150) in Kazakhstan were interviewed to study the effectiveness of message theme in anti-smoking advertisement. The respondents comprised of 54.8% female and 45.2% male with age ranging from 17 to 24 years old. Each respondent was presented with two anti-smoking advertisements (posters), namely: disease and death theme with graphic depicting the formation of tumors in the lung airways and arteriosclerosis in the aorta; and social disapproval theme with picture of lighted cigarette and coughing children in the playground (to emphasize that other people may suffer from second-hand smoke), before being asked to respond to a semi-structured questionnaire which comprised of 6 sets of scales: The first two scales asked respondent about the perceived effectiveness of the respective presented anti-smoking advertisements in reducing smoking behavior, namely: i) "I think the 'disease and death' anti-smoking advertisement (poster A) is effective in reducing smoking behavior" (1- strongly disagree to 5 – strongly agree); ii) "I think the 'social disapproval' anti-smoking advertisement (poster B) is effective in reducing smoking behavior" (1- strongly disagree to 5 – strongly agree). The third asked respondent to indicate whether they are smokers or non-smokers while fourth and fifth question asked their reasons for smoking and non-smoking respectively. The sixth scale relates to demographic variable (age, gender, number of cigarette smoked per day).

Findings

The study found that 43.9% (n=105) of the samples identified themselves as smokers (more than three cigarettes daily),

41.0% (n=98) identified themselves as non-smokers while 15% (n=36) are not sure of their status (Table 1). The main reasons for smoking were habit (23.8%), for relieving stress (21.9%), peer influence (17.1%) and inability to quit smoking (15.2%). The main reasons for non-smoking include: dislike cigarette smell (24.5% of respondents), thinks that smoking is bad for health (34.7%), does not think it is cool to smoke (13.2%) and are dissuaded by parents (9.2%). The Analysis

of Variance indicated significant within group difference in terms of the perceived effectiveness of fear-related (F=21.31, sig=0.0) and social-disapproval themes (F=11.25, sig=0.0) in reducing smoking behavior among the respondents in Kazakhstan at the 5% significant level. The Post-Hoc test (Bonferroni) revealed significant difference between smokers and non-smokers; and between smokers and 'not sure' status with regards to both anti-smoking message themes (Table 2).

Table 1: Main reasons for smoking and non-smoking

Category	N=239	Top 4 reasons (%)
Smoker	105	Habits =25 (23.3%) For relieving stress=23 (21.9%) Peer influence=18 (17.1%) Inability to quit=16 (15.2%)
Non-smoker	98	Thinks that smoking is bad for health = 34 (34.7%) Dislike cigarette smells=24 (24.5%) Does not think it is cool to smoke =13 (13.2%) Dissuaded by parents=9 (9.2%)
Not-sure	36	

Table 2: Post-Hoc statistics

Multiple Comparisons					
Bonferroni					
Dependent Value	(I) Q3	(J) Q3	Mean Difference (I-J)	STD.Error	Sig.
disease & death theme	smokers	non-smokers	-1.500*	0.199	0.000
		not sure	-1.010*	0.345	0.016
	non-smokers	smokers	1.500*	0.199	0.000
		not sure	0.490	0.316	1.000
	not sure	smokers	1.010*	0.345	0.160
social-disapproval theme		non-smokers	-0.490	0.316	1.000
	smokers	non-smokers	-1.650*	0.202	0.000
		not sure	-1.130*	0.348	0.008
	non-smokers	smokers	1.650*	0.202	0.000
		not sure	.520	0.320	1.000
	not sure	smokers	1.130*	0.348	0.008
		non-smokers	-.520	0.320	1.000

*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Compared to smokers (mean=2.49 out of max 5), non-smokers are more likely to find disease and death theme (mean= 3.99) effective in reducing smoking behavior (Table 3). Similarly, the social-disapproval theme are perceived more

effective in reducing smoking behaviour among the non-smokers (mean=3.95) than smokers (mean=2.30). Thus, both hypotheses *H1: Messages related to fear-related (disease and death) theme is effective in reducing smoking behavior among*

the non-smoking youth in Kazakhstan, and H3: Messages related to social disapproval theme is effective in reducing smoking behavior among the non-smoking youth in Kazakhstan were supported in this study. This also implied that there is insufficient evidence to support both hypotheses H2: Messages related to fear-related (death) theme is effective in reducing smoking behavior among the smoking youth in Kazakhstan, and H4: Messages related to social disapproval theme is effective in reducing smoking behavior among the smoking youth in Kazakhstan.

In other words, there is inconclusive evidence to indicate both fear-related (disease and death) and social-disapproval themes are perceived effective in reducing smoking behavior among the smoking youth in Kazakhstan. A possible explanation for this observation may be the denial effect as indicated in Witte's (1994) Extended Parallel Process Model which suggested that when individual is exposed to fear, he/she is highly motivated to control the danger by lessening their at-risk behavior (not observed in this study) or control the fear through denial.

Table 3: Descriptive statistics

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Disease & death theme	Smokers	105	2.49	1.119	.193
	Non-smokers	98	3.99	1.031	.100
	Not sure	36	3.50	.828	.214
	Total	239	3.36	1.261	.092
Social disapproval theme	Smokers	105	2.30	1.201	.177
	Non-smokers	98	3.95	1.010	.099
	Not sure	36	3.43	1.047	.270
	Total	239	3.29	1.232	.090

Conclusions and limitations of study

This study revealed fear-related (disease and death) and social-disapproval themes are perceived effective in reducing smoking behavior among the non-smoking youth in Kazakhstan, but insufficient evidence to suggest similar conclusion among the smoking youth. Given that this study's samples are collected only at two cities in Kazakhstan, further research is needed to revalidate this research finding. Future research should examines the boomerang or denial effects of anti-smoking advertising (including promotion of nicotine replacements as quit smoking tool) and other social marketing campaigns (asking people not to smoke in public areas) among smokers in Kazakhstan.

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BANK COST MANAGEMENT AS A FACTOR OF ITS FINANCIAL STABILITY

Klimova Natalia

Moscow State University of Economics, Statistics and Informatics, Russian

Achievement of a certain economic growth by a bank, improvement of its efficiency cannot be imagined without the analysis of bank costs, cost planning, determining the most effective structure, without searching for ways to reduce bank costs. Cost management goal is to achieve the intended bank performance in the most economical way. The task of bank managers concerning cost management are always specified depending on the overall bank development objectives, the timing and scope of projected transactions, and, finally, on external factors. In this case, management process tasks are specified depending on goals, timing and scope of current or future bank costs. Thus, the objective of long-term cost planning is to prepare information on the expected costs for the development of new services, banking products, and new markets. This may be market research or capital investment costs (4, p.49). Current plans elaborate the implementation of long-term objectives of the bank. If the accuracy of long-term planning costs is low and is influenced by the inflation process, depends on the behavior of competitors, the state policy in the field of financial management, international factors, and sometimes force majeure, the short-term planning costs are more accurate, as they are reasoned by the annual and quarterly estimates.

The need for constant matching of costs and revenues, tightening of control over the costs due to lowering profitability of active operations, the low level of interest margin on interbank transactions and commercial loans determine the allocation of bank costs as an independent object of management in the bank and as an object of management accounting.

There are traditional and non-traditional approaches to determining costs as management objects (5, p. 86). According to traditional approach, stipulated by law and based on the accounting system, there are operational and non-operational, interest and non-interest expenses of the bank. This approach is necessary for the analysis of the overall economic condition of the bank and characterizes the overall level of bank management and financial management quality.

Unconventional approach, in its turn, is divided into two approaches to the allocation of costs as a management object. The first approach - "product-oriented" - involves the allocation of costs in accordance with development of various banking products and services. For example, a bank may allocate expenses for settlement services, lending, deposit and other operations.

The second approach, "customer-oriented", involves allocation of a part of the total costs for rendering services to legal bodies and individuals, interbank transactions, "development" of new markets, etc.

Both "product-oriented" and "customer-oriented" approaches, in fact, describe the costs, not only as an object of management, but also as an object of management accounting. Goals and objectives of management accounting, as it is known, are a lot broader than those of accounting. They are more adequate to the objectives of cost management as they provide bank management with all information necessary for the implementation of its development strategy. The advantage of management accounting is that it is developed based on the principles of expediency, on the rules and methods determined by each

individual bank (3, p. 149):

- a) bank cost calculating for each bank service and product;
- b) conformity with goals and objectives of bank management;
- c) feasibility and cost-effectiveness;
- g) irrelevance to norms and legal requirements of overhead organizations.

Based on practical experience of Kazakh banks, we can distinguish two main levels in the bank cost management. The first level is bank cost management by the National Bank. The second level - commercial bank cost management as its traditional internal operation. The need to implement such kind of management is explained by the desire of bank managers and owners to increase the quality of the capital base, which will be used for further investments related to the expansion of the bank activity in the markets, territorial interests (opening of additional offices, branches) and ultimately for increasing profits.

On the one hand, in accordance with banking legislation, the National Bank creates for the banking system conditions of the free market, in which each bank develops independently on an equal footing with other banks. This also applies to the bank costing. In an effort to limit the risk of bankruptcy, the National Bank introduced a mechanism for the implementation of mandatory standards and the accumulation of reserves for possible losses. The first regulations governing the activities of banks, is, as we know, the capital adequacy ratio, which is designed to maintain a ratio of capital to risk weighted assets of the bank. In order to maintain a sufficient level there are options of intensive capital increase through generating profit through a policy aimed at optimization and increase in effectiveness of bank operations, and extensive options of attracting additional capital from external sources that do not require significant qualitative improvement of bank internal processes.

The introduction in 2008 of six forward liquidity ratios and forward foreign exchange liquidity ratios certainly affects bank costing in an indirect way (1). The indirect bank cost control measures include a number of requirements of the National Bank needed for reduction of credit institutions bankruptcy risk, in particular the presence of:

1) internal control services for monitoring compliance with the regulations of the National Bank, mainly related to accounting and reporting requirements;

2) bank-compliance controller in the bank staffing table, whose task is to monitor the riskiness of investments and establish mechanisms of minimizing current operation losses (this applies mainly to forward deals exposed to high risks associated with changes in external factors).

In recent years one can notice certain interest of the National Bank to the process of bank costing, which is expressed, in particular, in tightening the requirements to assessment of assets riskiness and creation of provisions (2). It's a reasonable measure, but not sufficient enough. As long as there is methodological and regulatory vacuum in the practice of cost management, banks are forced to exercise self-development, building on existing experience and knowledge. And it's not so much the desire of bank management to achieve a high degree of detailed elaboration and accuracy in cost accounting but rather the ability to optimize bank costs while ensuring quality and profitability of products and services offered by the bank.

Organization of cost management involves not only cost allocation as a control object, but also the definition of the subjects of cost management. Managers and bank department specialist act as subjects of cost control.

Thus, the process of cost management is a system that consists of two subsystems: managing - management subject

and managed - management object, which is completely in line with the overall management system (5, p.70).

Adequate cost management goals are to achieve the intended performance of the bank in the most economical way and they can be defined as important challenges faced by the bank cost management:

a) providing a qualitative analysis of the bank costs, which will allow a better assessment of the efficiency of the resources allocation, identification of costs reduction reserves, obtaining information for the development of plans and rational cost management decisions;

b) coordination and regulation of costs (planning) involve comparing actual costs with the planned costs, rapid detection of deviations and, as a result, taking prompt measures to eliminate them. Timely cost coordination and regulation allows the bank to avoid a serious disruption in the implementation of planned operations and reduction in overall bank performance;

c) creation of a cost accounting management system, which is essential for preparing information for the bank management in order to make the right decisions to reduce or optimize current and future bank costs;

d) organization of control (monitoring) system of cost management provides feedback, comparison of planned and actual costs. The effectiveness of control stems from corrective management actions aimed at bringing the actual costs in line with planned costs or plan updates if the latter cannot be implemented due to the objective change in conditions;

d) adoption of the most efficient ways and methods to optimize costs;

e) development of techniques of bank costs management.

Solving these management tasks is possible only in the bank cost management process.

The process of bank cost management consists of two components:

1) cost management at the stage of making investment decisions concerning bank establishment and subsequent development;

2) management of current costs at the stage of its operation.

It is known that investment decisions are decisions on current expenditure carried out in order to generate revenue in the future. Of course, all bank expenditures are carried out in order to gain profit in the future, however, current costs of the operating bank and investments at the stage of bank creation and development differ considerably, especially in terms of payback. Short-term solutions concerning current expenses are taken for a relatively short period of time - up to one year, which spans from investment of funds to obtaining profit. Decisions concerning capital investments are intended for a longer period - from bank investment to making profit. Investments of this kind include interest costs that must be considered when making an investment decision in the banking business. With short-term investments interest on invested capital is so small that, in practice, it is usually neglected.

It should be noted that of all the decisions made by the owners and management of the bank, investment decisions are the most difficult, because the process of involving significant financial resources is often irreversible. In this regard, the owners of the bank should have clearly defined investment objectives, such as profit maximization, maximizing the growth of the bank, ensuring its competitiveness, achieving the desired level of profit or obtaining the highest possible market share. In this case, the owners of the bank should be aware that investments in risky projects may turn into partial losses or into a significant loss of capital.

When making investment decisions

(investments in the building, banking equipment, software, advertising, etc.), banks make an analysis of volumes of investments and investments payback periods.

Management of current costs can be performed through budgeting.

Economic literature and modern bank management practitioners actively discuss various models of the organization of the bank budgeting process as a "closed loop of organizational and managerial activities aimed at designing and implementing control over the major budget items in order to improve the manageability and reliability of a commercial bank."

Budgeting is of particular interest, since its introduction into bank management keeps bank costing and revenue generation up to date. At the same time paying tribute to development of the theory of bank budgeting, we should note that during the implementation of the budgeting model cost management is generally considered in the context of transfer pricing - the price of funds transfer between departments of the bank. In this case, the goal of transfer pricing is "revealing the value of risk-adjusted net interest income for each business unit, product or customer." The analysis of budgeting model offered in the economic literature proves that bank costs in terms of selection and subsequent implementation of these models are presented in the most general form, which allows a greater degree of effectiveness in establishing the transfer price, but does not tell much about the best possible way of bank costing and about the organization of the effective cost management process.

In this regard, the budgeting model, focused on the set of the responsibility centers determined with consideration of the nature of their activity, is of a greater interest. This model of budgeting is in line with "product-oriented" and "client-oriented" approaches to determining costs

as management and accounting management objects (5, p.98).

In economic theory, there is a dual definition of responsibility centers as structural units (a combination of units) offering homogeneous products and services, or as management units with specific objectives, budgets and reporting requirements. In our opinion, the second definition reflects the purpose and objectives of cost management more accurately.

Bank units are assigned to certain responsibility centers with consideration of the following:

- a) information flows between bank structural units;
- b) products and services produced and consumed by bank structural units;
- c) cash flows passing through the bank structural units;
- g) relationships with other units;
- d) consumers of products and services produced by the bank structural units.

An example of cost distribution by structural units of the commercial bank is presented in Table 1.

At the same time banks develop a hierarchical system of linear and functional relationships between managers and professionals involved in cost management, which must be compatible with the organizational structure of the bank.

The table shows that the distribution of the costs among the respective centers truly reflects the economic nature of the activities of units, but does not explain the process of bank costing and cost management. It should be emphasized once again that in the banking practice and theory there is no single distinct model of bank cost management, although some elements of this process are mandatory and long-proven in the overall bank management process, the analysis of bank costs, the estimation of current and future costs, cost estimation planning, control and execution in particular.

Table 1. Cost distribution by bank centers

#	Bank structural unit	Cost center type
		Cost center (business support)
1	Risk management department	All costs are distributed among revenue centers
2	Exchange risk management department	All costs refer to exchange management department
3	Marketing department	All costs are distributed among corresponding revenue centers
		Cost center (provision and service)
4	Administration and maintenance department	All costs are allocated to other centers based on specially designed internal criteria
5	Transport department	-
6	Advertising and public relation department	-
7	Security department	-
8	Electronic data processing department	All costs are allocated to other centers in proportion to the number of transactions processed. The amount of time spent or the cost of processing the transaction can also serve as a criterion for cost distribution.
9	Legal department	-
10	Information and technical support department	-
11	Human resource department	-

It should be noted that banks usually develop documents that regulate processes associated with the procedure of development, approval and control over the estimation of costs, mainly describing the budgeting process, but not revealing bank cost management mechanisms as a whole. Methodological processes, practical recommendations and conclusions discussed in this article can be used by Kazakhstan commercial bank managers, whose goal is to effectively manage costs within the framework strategy aimed at developing a sustainable competitive advantage.

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**IMPROVEMENT OF MAJOR PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT
TECHNIQUES BASED ON THE USE OF MOTIVATION MODELS**

Sembinova Tatyana

Kazakh American Free University, Kazakhstan

Motivation is one of the most important categories of management science. The concept of motivation in management was described in management and economics literature in sufficient detail. Meanwhile the scientific views on motivation and its role in management system were transformed over the past two centuries.

The problem of motivating people to work has always been important. Attempts to find ways to improve the productivity of people through their motivation were undertaken since the ancient times. As early as about 2000 B.C. Hammurabi, King of Babylon, legally introduced wages for some categories of his subjects. The possibility of using wages as an incentive for workers was proved a thousand years later by Nebuchadnezzar II, another King of Babylon. In 400 B.C. Cyrus the Great, King of Persia, put forward the idea of the need to study the reasons for people motivation.

The scientific approaches to the problem of motivation were further developed in motivation theories authored by A. Maslow, F. Herzberg, D. McGregor, D. McClelland, V. Vroom and others.

In this article we shall briefly analyze major approaches to the definition of "motivation". Motivation takes origin from the French word «motiv» and is, from the perspective of O.S. Vikhansky and A.I. Naumov, "a set of internal and external driving forces that encourage people to work, set boundaries and determine types of activity, making this activity purposeful and focused on the achievement of certain goals" (Vikhansky, Naumov, 2003).

This view is also shared by A.A. Lobanov, who argues that the motivation of workers is the set of reasons inducing a

person to act in a certain way. This is an internal state, which encourages, directs and sustains a human desire to achieve a certain goal (Ivantsevich, Lobanov, 1993).

V.V. Travin and V.A. Dyatlov define motivation as an employee desire to meet their needs (to receive certain benefits) through work (Travin, Dyatlov, 1995). It is closely related to the approach in psychology, which defines motivation as a felt need of a person to achieve certain benefits and desired conditions (Gvishiani, Lapina, 2000).

From the psychologists point of view motivation is also a totality of external and internal conditions that encourage a person to act (Petrovskiy, Yaroshevskiy, 2000).

There is no common understanding of the notion "motivation" among foreign researches. According to G.J. Bolt motivation is a way of receiving the most from the employees through understanding their behavior, motives and reason for good or bad work, and using this information and a set of certain techniques to reach the highest production rate (Bolt, 1991).

M. Mescon, M. Albert and F. Chedouri (1992) define motivation as the process of encouraging oneself and others to reach personal and organizational goals.

Foreign and domestic researches use different approaches to define motivation that consider specific aspects of motivation looking at the subject from the point of view of their area of research.

This testifies to a large scale of a problem and about different approaches to solving it.

It should be noted that motivation is not only the management tool, but also a management process with a clearly defined activity approach and reflecting

the potency of managerial influence on shaping employees' motivation. Employees are understood as a collection of individuals with their own parameters of motivation.

Multiple theories and approaches with some similar features can be integrated into a single conceptual framework through modeling an entity common for all theories and approaches. For this purpose we suggest using Maslow's pyramid as the most comprehensive model of human needs.

Personnel motivation methods are the ways to encourage employees to

achieve organizational goals. These methods, based on the type of influence, fall into material (monetary and non-monetary) and non-material (organizational, psychological methods), but they are all closely related, interdependent and often interchangeable.

Motivation methods can be classified according the object of motivation, incentives used, types of needs, direction, etc. (Table 1). In their work managers should use them not as separate and independent ways of motivation but as a comprehensive whole.

Table 1 – Classification of motivation tools

Feature	Motivation tool
Motivation object	Work team Certain employees Entry-level employees Experienced employees
Incentives	Material incentives: – wages; – bonuses; – monetary rewards; – financial aid, loans; – retirement programs; – health and life insurance programs; – reimbursement for medicine. Non-material incentives: a) organizational: – participation in organization operation; – motivation through promotion prospective; – delegation of responsibilities; – motivation through enrichment of the labor processes. b) moral and psychological: – praise; – approval; – support; – coercion; – recognition of achievements; – respect and trust.
Note: based on the textbook material (Vesmina, 2006)	

To achieve high results managers should set clear and precise goals, use certain well-thought incentives. This system of incentives should be public, i.e. known to all organization employees, while every incentive should be deserved, not causing co-workers' envy or negative attitude to-

wards work (Vachugovi, 2005).

Most managers at domestic plants view the system of motivation as an instrument based on personal payments to the employer. At most enterprises motivation system is closely connected with the wage fund.

This kind of motivation system is quite effective due to rather low living standards and is relevant for the majority of organizations. However, this scheme is gradually losing its effectiveness due to the following reasons:

1) Regular payment of bonuses and payoffs decreases their value and motivating effects – employees get used to these payoffs and treat them as a form of wages, and every cut or decrease is viewed as infringement of rights of the employee by the employer.

2) A variable part of the wage initially has a motivating effect and stimulates employee’s creativity. But as a matter of fact the employers don’t need this creativity. From their point of view it interferes with regular job and high quality of operations.

3) Under similar conditions of material incentives employees choose the organization where they can have a greater choice of actions, where the work requirements are not so rigorous (scope of work to be performed, coercion system,

etc.).

Decrease in existing motivation system effectiveness forces managers and enterprise owners to look for new approaches to personnel motivation. Non-material motivation in this case is not taken into account, though use of some non-material (moral) methods of motivation of employees takes place.

To achieve the goal of our investigation we suggest merging motivation theories and approaches into one conceptual framework through modeling a single common entity. For this purpose we suggest using Maslow’s hierarchy of needs but in a slightly changes format (Figure 1). This transformation provides us an opportunity to compare the amount of needs satisfied with the existing system of labor remuneration.

In the process of motivation management the organization should consider all types of motivational factors – material and non-material (according to Maslow from the lowest to the highest).

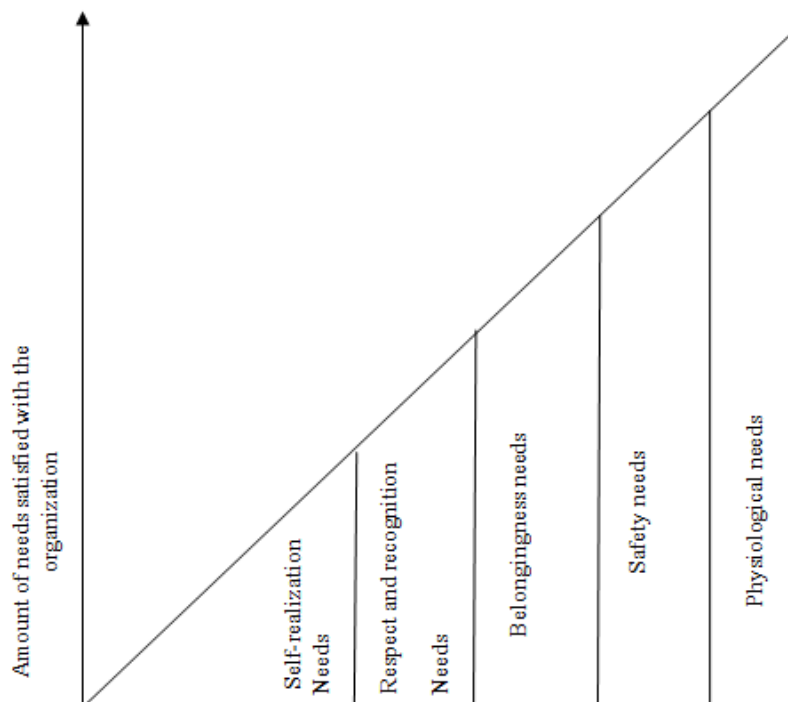


Figure 1 – Changed variant of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs

Emphasis on just several factors can lead to dissatisfaction of needs of the personnel and, as a result, to decrease in operation effectiveness. No doubt, each employee has his own distinct system of values, which determines the unique set and correlation of motivators. That is why motivation system in the organization should be very diverse and provide the employees with a wide and flexible choice of motivators that represent certain value for them.

Motivation system goals should correspond to the organization goals and should provide functions, processes and procedures of the organization with necessary and sufficient competencies. Thus, the main direction of organization motivation system improvement should be associated with turning an overturned Maslow's triangle into a rectangle, which means assigning equal stimulating coefficient to all factors motivating an employee (Figure 2).

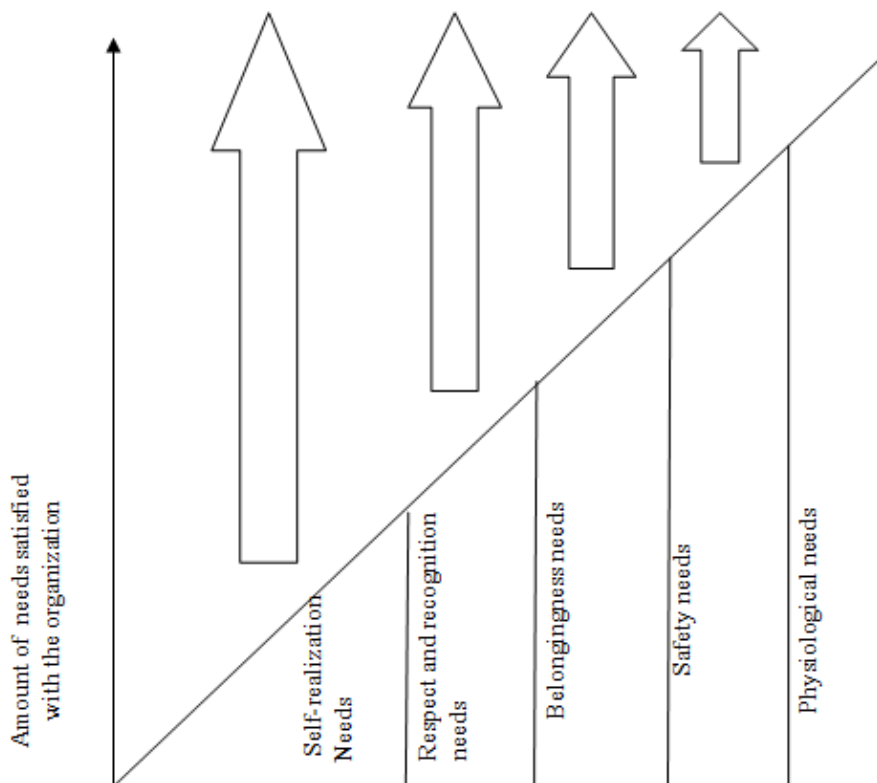


Figure 2 – Graphic representation of main directions in organization motivation system improvement

Close examination of the proposed model (Figures 1 and 2) determines the tasks for motivation system and labor incentive management. Moreover, the role and place of organizational, moral and material incentives can also be represented graphically (Figure 3).

Certain type of needs can and should be satisfied through material rewards, other needs can and should be satisfied only using moral incentives, but the ma-

ajority of needs should be satisfied through a combination of moral (including organizational, i.e. provided for by the management system) and material factors. It is important to mention that different employee categories should be motivating in a different way. Moral to material incentive ratio is to be determined though setting precise goals for each department or each employee with the reference to the common organizational goals.

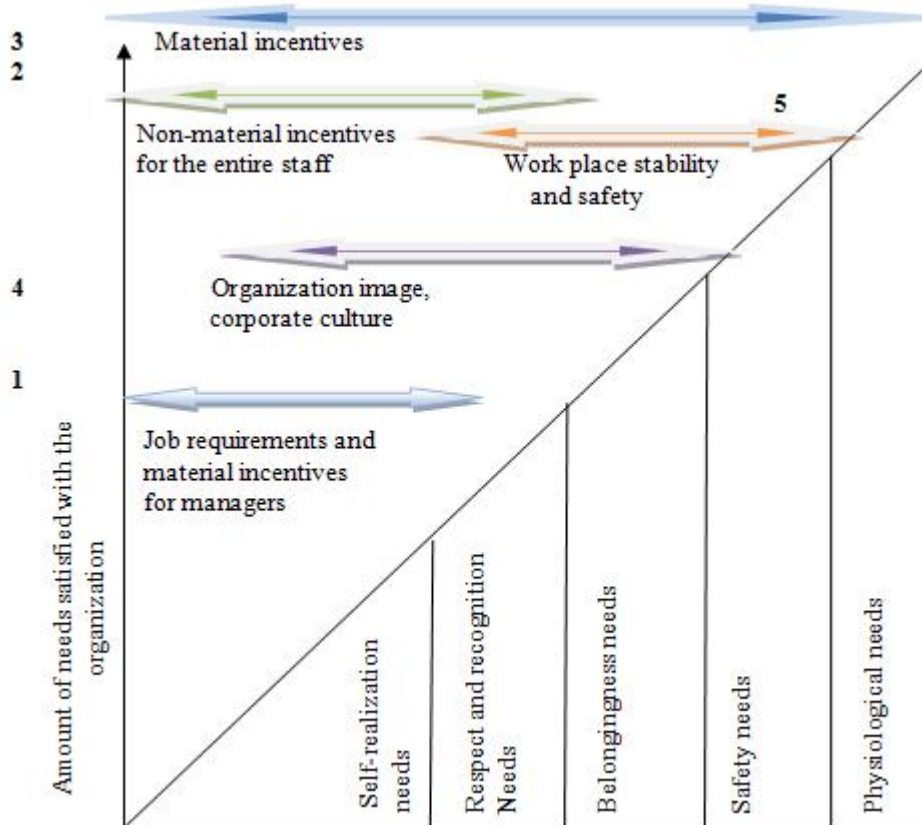


Figure 3 – Place and role of labor incentive factors

Since there are many employees in the organization but their goals should be aligned with the organization goal it logically follows that there should exist a common motivation system applicable to each employee. Factors of labor motivation and incentive can be classified by type of needs according to Maslow (Khlebnikov):

1) Self-realization needs. To manage these needs the following methods should be used:

- organizational methods (arrow 1), compulsory participation of managers and creative specialists in boards, commissions, councils and task groups;

- non-material methods (arrow 2) of stimulating employees by creating clubs, interest groups, teams, amateur theaters, etc. Developing shared goals (sports, creative, constructive, etc.) makes a significant impact on corporate culture, consolidates and motivates the work team;

- material methods (arrow 3) - stimulating of rationalization and inventive activity through creating quality groups and providing support on important for the employee occasion, making presents, etc. Fair evaluation of the employee contribution their loyalty and desire to work for the company increases significantly.

2) Respect and recognition needs. This is a major need for management personnel for whom status is a driving force. It is quite remarkable that the main motivator (or demotivator) is the comparison with the employees at the same position of the other organization in they same field of activity. To manage this need it is recommended to use the following:

- organizational methods (arrow 1), demonstrating the managers possibilities for professional growth and achievement of a higher social status which is the major motivating factor for managers;

- non-material methods (arrow 2), such as job titles (status), asking to represent the company at exhibitions, awarding best employee title, diplomas and letters of recognition, a place in a tourist group, health and retirement programs, etc.

- material methods (arrow 3) - competitive level of labor remuneration, support on significant life events, presents, etc.

- PR - methods (arrow 4) - company general image, accessories with company logos, status of the employee of a modern successful organization, prestige.

3) Group belongingness needs. This factor is important for all categories of employees, though the employees may associate themselves with different target social groups they want to belong. To manage this need the following should be used:

- non-material methods (arrow 2), such as participation in management, meetings with the organization administering, participation in trade union, representing the organization on exhibitions, best employee titles, letters of recognition, etc.;

- material methods (arrow 3) - a competitive level of labor remuneration, support on important life occasions, financial aid, health and life insurance, reimbursement for medicine, etc.

- PR - methods (arrow 4) - general organization image, status of an employee of a successful organization, job prestige, corporate events and holidays.

- organizational methods (arrow 5) - providing employees with the information about long-term perspectives of an organization operation through a corporate newspaper or information boards, company web site, personnel training, stability and safety of jobs, perspectives of professional growth.

4) Safety needs. It's an important factor significantly influencing the loyalty of the employee, his devotion to the or-

ganization especially in the crisis times. To manage this need it is recommended to use the following:

- material methods (arrow 3) - a competitive level of labor remuneration, providing loans at a low interest, support on significant life events, presents, financial aid based on need, providing insurance, reimbursement for medicine, etc.

- PR - methods (arrow 4) - generally recognized by the society image of a strong and dynamic company, lifetime honorary social status of an employee of a successful company and its support, corporate events and holidays.

- organizational methods (arrow 5) - providing the personnel with information about organization long-term perspectives through a corporate newspaper or information boards; personnel training, secure jobs and opportunities for professional growth.

5) Physiological needs. This is the basis for a collective bargaining. It is necessary to note that with consideration of contemporary level of development of the society psychological needs differ from the needs described by Maslow as "physiological". Managing this type of needs requires the following:

- setting material stimulation (arrow 3) of the employee at a level not lower than that of a specialist of the same qualification working in the same area.

It is clear that in this system of motivation organizational, PR-methods, moral and material methods often overlap, which makes it difficult to single out as separate methods. Nevertheless, defining their meaning is of crucial importance for combination of moral and material incentive methods.

There is no ideal motivation model, no single motivation theory; the choice of the model is made by the organization, its owners and top managers. That is why the choice of the best suitable motivation model should be made based on the following conditions:

The choice of the motivation model to be used in personnel management should be made with consideration of organization goals, functions, type of operation, size and other peculiarities.

For the motivation model to be used effectively it should be a dynamic and developing system capable of responding adequately to the changes in the competitive environment. It is necessary to consider the phases of the economic cycle of the organization (growth, maturity and decline). Methods suitable for one period of time may turn ineffective during the other.

The model should consider all personnel categories (top managers, middle managers and employees), that require different approaches to their motivation.

Different approaches to personnel management and motivation should be based on effective material and financial expenses and achievement of organizational goals. This is essential for an organization operating under market conditions. That is why it is necessary to pay close attention to the assessment of management effectiveness while designing methods of personnel motivation.

There are many employee motivation theories (models). Meanwhile most of the managers mistakenly believe that people work exclusively for money. The problem of motivation should be viewed as a broader phenomenon since in the period of instable economy the role of human capital increases, and it is viewed as the most important strategic resource of many organizations.

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BAD CREDITS: THEIR ORIGIN AND CAUSES OF OCCURRENCE

Trofimova Yuliya

Kazakh American Free University, Kazakhstan

As the banks carry out credit operations, dealing with bad credits becomes extremely important for securing credit recovery.

By saying ‘bad credit’ we mean loans that the borrower has difficulties paying back in full concordance with bank agreements and contracts which brings about a potential threat of partial or total loss of money to be repaid to the bank by a borrower in accordance with a lending commitment (Sorokin, 2006).

The term is translated into Russian as a “problem loan” which means a doubtful loan causing distrust, suspicion, or anxiety (Dal, 1980). In banking practices it is quite often associated with overdue loan, which is not the same and the two notions should not be confused. An overdue loan cannot be treated as a bad loan, since short-term payment delay does not affirm a threat of a loan default. On the other hand, absence of overdue payments does not guarantee loan reliability.

American specialist in the field of bank management P.S. Rose thinks that the loan is to be treated as a bad credit if a borrower failed to settle one or more payment obligations or if a credit collateral value decreased (Rose, 2004).

British specialists of the Civil Council believe that a bad credit appears when a borrower cannot clear a bill or settle an obligation without cutting other expenses.

According to S. Collard and E. Campson inability to clear the bills over a three-month period indicates a bad credit. The longer it takes to admit that the loan has turned to be a bad one and start working with it, the smaller is a chance to have the credit repaid.

Rating agency Standard & Poor’s defines bad credits as follows:

- all overdue loans;

- all loans to people associated with troubled borrowers;

- renegotiated loans;

However, this list defines a risk zone rather than describes bad credits (Kari-mova, 1012).

In the research works of some economists the notion “bad debt on a loan” is often substituted with the notion “bad credit”. A loan differs from a credit in the fact that the loan can be non-repayable while the credit must be repaid (Kazakov, 2008). Here the notions “loan” and “debt” are considered with the financial and economic point of view and within the given context there is no dramatic difference between these notions.

Sometimes the English term “bad credit” is translated into Russian quite literary. This translation, in our opinion, is not very accurate. At the same time these phrase occur in most of the works devoted to the problem of lending borrowers as maintenance of credit portfolio. However, only few authors explain the notion. In her works, K.R. Tagirbekova defines a credit as “a loan on which the borrower doesn’t commit obligations on time and to the fullest extent or the value of collateral significantly decreased” (Tagirbekova, 2001).

Having considered the definitions of a “bad credit” we can conclude that this is a credit that is characterized by a set of features that raise reasonable fears among loan inspectors concerning repayment of a principal debt an interests on debt (bank fee).

To illustrate the object, subjects and the subject matter of the overdue loan we need to draw parallels with the notion of the credit, as well as its object, the subject and the subject matter.

A loan is the provision of money or goods on credit, usually with interest

payments (Bukato, Golovin, Lvov, 2001).

The Brockhaus and Efron Encyclopedic Dictionary defines credit or loan as a relationship originating from a lending transaction according to which one party passes certain valuables (usually money) over to another party that is obliged to return them in a certain period of time with a bonus (interests) (Brockhaus, Efron, 2002).

The essence of the loan is defined by the nature of the economic processes that occur only in the event of credit relations.

By analogy, it can be assumed that the essence of an overdue loan is determined by the content of the economic processes that occur only in the event of default or failure to repay the debt in a timely manner.

The most widely spread subject of an overdue debt or a loan is money, but it may also be certain valuables; its main difference from a subject of a loan is that these are valuables or money that were in part or in the whole unpaid to date.

The object of the loan is cash or goods provided as a loan (debt), expressed in value. Hence, the object of a credit is credit and economic relations connected with the movement of the cost subject to the starting point on terms of collectability (the lender).

The object of an overdue loan in general is a partial or complete failure to return the money or goods that have been borrowed (debt).

The subjects of an overdue loan are the lender and the borrower, same as the subjects of a loan.

Special credit institutions, primarily

banks, non-banking credit organizations, grants and the state may act as creditors. Individuals and legal entities like, businesses, organizations, including banks and the state can act as borrowers.

V.D. Zharikov classifies bad debts into irrecoverable debts and "gray" debts.

A group of irrecoverable borrowers impedes conducting business because they do not meet the conditions of the loan agreements and, as a rule, they themselves need financial recovery.

A group borrowers referred to as "gray" is considered as the most problematic for the following reasons. This is an understudied category of clients which requires special attention during a period of financial recovery (Zharikov, 2009).

Operations of any bank occur within the system of life-sustaining activity in the country and the world, i.e. within the variety of relations with the community, with other banks, businesses, public authorities of the country, and also abroad. In other words, operations of banks are affected by a wide variety of external factors, such as macro-, meso - and micro-economics of the country, the level of development of legislation, foreign and domestic policy of the country, the standard of living and the level of education of the population, social and demographic situation in the country, climatic conditions, and many others. Consequences of the influence of these factors on the bank operations can be both positive and negative.

M.Y. Sorokin writes about four factors that aggravate the problem as shown in Figure 1.

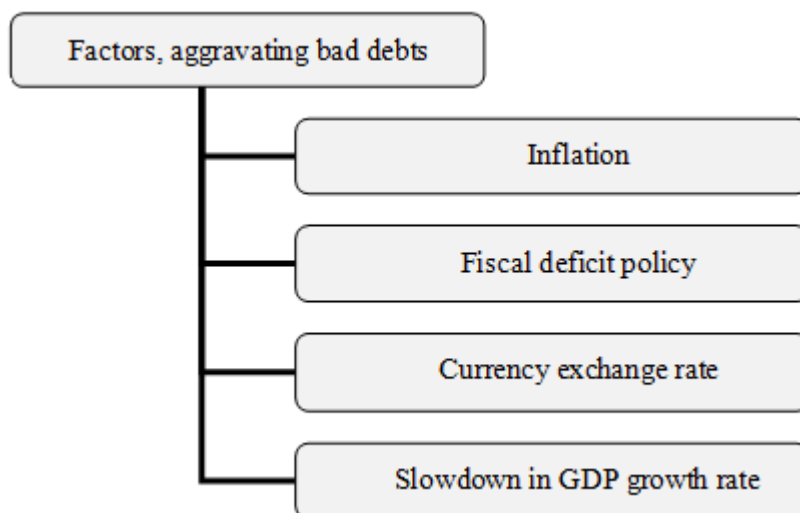


Figure 1. Factors, aggravating bad debts

If we consider each group of factors separately then we shall find the following:

- Inflation factor: a high inflation level is characteristic for developing countries and countries with transition economies. Inflation rate has a direct correlation with the level of interest rates in the economy. If the average level of profitability is lower than the inflation, the demand for bank loans implies negative interest rates. Under the influence of external or internal factors negative changes in the industry may lead to a serious deterioration in the financial condition of borrowers which will place in jeopardy the fulfillment of credit obligations;

- Fiscal deficit policy: existence of a large fiscal deficit means that the government was forced to apply for external and internal borrowings, thus increasing the amount of public debt. It is characterized by accelerated pace of lending to the public sector and vice versa inconsiderable lending to a private sector. This results in the increased interest rates and, therefore,

in the increased risk of a bad debt crisis;

- Currency exchange rate: fixing and overvaluation of the currency exchange rate make a negative effect on the pricing mechanisms. This situation is characterized by the increased risks of banks and their customers. When an exchange rate changes suddenly some of the borrowers appear to be unable to meet their credit obligations;

- Slowdown in GDP growth rate: the biggest danger is the situation where there is a significant decline in GDP growth or general economy growth rates become negative. This results in a reduction in income and leads to development of problems in debt payments (Sorokin, 2006).

E.P. Shustova provides a matrix of indicators of bad debts: the signs of emerging problems are be found among the indicators characterizing the primary and secondary guarantees of the credit recovery. In order to systematize these signs Table 1 provides a matrix of bad debt indicators.

Table 1. Signs of emerging bad debts

1	Real loss indicators	Potential loss indicators
1	2	3
Primary resources loss indicators	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - existence of overdue payments on primary loan and interest; - borrower bankruptcy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - untimely or incomplete provision of information by the borrower for routine monitoring; - significant deterioration in the financial condition of the borrower leading to failure to discharge; - availability of information about the facts of material default;
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The availability of information about the deterioration of financial condition of the subjects closely related to the borrower
Secondary source loss indicators	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - deterioration of the degree of loan protectability by secondary sources of credit support; - insolvency of the borrower or borrower guarantor 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - deterioration of collateral value; - Physical loss of loan collateral value source; - The deterioration of the financial situation of the guarantors or insurers

Losses caused by bad loans are not limited only to direct losses from non-repayment of loans and non-payment of loan interest. The loss may be more noticeable if you consider that bad loans:

- "freeze" the bank funds in unproductive assets;
- undermine the reputation of the credit institution, the confidence of depositors and investors;
- increase bank administrative costs;
- increases the risk of outflow of qualified personnel from the bank due to the reduction in their material incentives caused by decrease in credit transactions profitability (Shustova, 2011).

We can refer to a debt as a bad one only in respect of loans already issued. The reasons for their existence can be varied. Some may be related to the client, others to the bank operations; some of them are of an objective nature, others dependent on the subject.

Borrower-related bad loans are most often connected with the borrower's job.

Reasons out of the borrower's control that cause bad debts most often include unforeseen political and economic events and changes in the legislation. The debt reason is external to the borrower.

Reasons that are not related to the bank operations are diverse. They include a sharp deterioration in the economic situation, when the non-payment of bank loans has become a common phenomenon. Also, they may include natural disasters that affect bank operations.

Bank-related reasons are connected with different violations of the loan process.

This may include:

- provision of a loan based not on economic rationale but on friendship relations with the borrower;
- poor or unprofessional analysis of a loan application;
- poor loan structuring from the risk perspective;
- insufficient loan collateral;
- improper loan registration;

- poor control over the borrower's work during the loan disbursement period. Table 2 provides information about the main causes of deterioration of banks' loan portfolio and their classification according to the origin.

Table 2. Classification of bad debt causes according to their origin

Bank	borrower	External environment
1	2	3
Economic and analytical causes:		Macro-level causes:
- Incorrect distribution of assets , poor liquidity (wrong credit policy of the bank);	- An incorrect analysis of the cost of projects;	- deterioration of political environment;
- An incorrect analysis of the risks in the loan portfolio;		- deterioration of economic conditions;
- An incorrect analysis of the lending projects;	- Impairment of assets pledged;	- industry deterioration;
- Low-quality loan portfolio monitoring;	- Deterioration of financial and operating activity;	- Deterioration of the socio-demographic situation;
- Erroneous prediction of possible credit risks (no prediction);		
- Underestimation of credit status , which causes Bad debts that could have been avoided;	- Deterioration of the liquidity of the borrower;	- Changes in legislation , worsening conditions of the borrower / bank operation;
- Unsuitable loan conditions for the borrower;	- Low profitability	
Administrative-organizational causes:		Meso- level causes:
- Incorrect organization of lending at the bank;	- Unprofessional management	- the behavior of other banks;
- The borrower , distributed in space (in different regions, cities)		- failure to repay obligations by the borrower's partners
Psychological causes:		
- Lack of good will to meet the needs of the borrower to resolve the problem of bad debt;	- Lack of good will to repay the debt;	- lack of good will of any of the third parties to have a positive influence on the resolution of the crisis situation with the borrower's bad debt
- Negligence of loan department employees;	- The desire to get a loan on any terms;	
- dishonesty , fraudulent behavior of bank employees;	- Malice , fraudulent behavior to gain profit;	
- "Imposed" to the borrower loan	- "imposed " by the lender loan;	

All of these reasons, one way or another, lead to a breach of the lending process, undermining the stability of both the borrower and the creditor bank. Of course, the consequences do not occur immediately. "Getting mature", they

gradually affect the lend money, and, one way or another, demonstrate signs of their negative impact. These may be indications reflecting the financial condition of the borrower, testifying to:

- The existence of overdue payments to the budget;
- The violation of terms of providing financial and source documents to the bank;
- Poor quality of loan collateral;
- Short-time delay in loan repayments and loan charges;
- Frequent requests for loan rollover (Lavrushin, 2009).

One of the most significant factors leading to the increase in the number of bad debts is loan tightening. Obviously, the difference between the floatation and attraction of financial resources is a fee to the bank for providing financial intermediation services, and banks are interested in selling their resources at higher prices. However, tight loans lead to the inability and even unwillingness of the borrowers to service excessively tight loans, as a result, increase the risk of delay or non-repayment of loans. It is obvious that the brunt of expensive loans ultimately lies with the borrower.

A tight loan is a kind of trap for borrowers, which turns a prompt payer into a non-payer due to a paradoxical situation when the borrower agrees to any terms of the loan agreement to get the money, knowing that he could not meet them. Then, a bank turns to be in a critical situation (Smulov, Nurzat, 2009).

Thus, there is no generally accepted notion of a bad debt; each author treats it in a different way. The same can be said about the factors and causes of emergence of bad debts, which can be varied but,

anyway, each of them has a direct impact on the emergence of problems in the repayment of the debt.

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CUSTOMER SATISFACTION OF PRICED-BASED SALES PROMOTION TECHNIQUES: A CENTRAL ASIAN PERSPECTIVE

Kim-Choy Chung

KIMEP University, Kazakhstan

1. Introduction

Customer satisfaction is seen as a key differentiator of product/service quality, or value offerings (Thaler 1985) and is known to be the key driver of good customer-brand relationship. Despite the volume of literatures on customer satisfaction and sales promotion techniques, few studies have been initiated within the central Asian perspective. This study addresses this void by investigating customer satisfaction of price-based sales promotion techniques in Kazakhstan. Three hypotheses are proposed and tested in this study. Results from 187 surveys (questionnaire) in this study revealed that there were higher levels of customer satisfaction with percentage discount and membership discount than rebates and coupons discount for specific product in Kazakhstan. Women are more satisfied with membership discount than men while the latter are more satisfied with percentage discount for specific product. Implications for businesses are presented.

2. Literature review

Sales promotions can be considered as 'special offers' to stimulate demand during the period in which they are set (Lehman & Winer 2002). Sales promotions can be priced-based (dollar discount, percentage discount, refund/rebate, coupon) or non-priced based (buy two get one free, special orders, free gifts). The potential benefits of using sales promotion can range from attracting new customers from competitors, to persuading customers to switch to brands with higher profit margins or simply inducing existing customers to purchase more. Customer satisfaction refers to an individual's perception of the performance of the purchased prod-

uct/service in relation to his/her expectation (Kotler & Philips 2010). If a product or service performance met users' expectation, then there is customer satisfaction. Satisfaction with a promotion can not only be linked to repurchase, but may in fact be able to be linked to a transfer of satisfaction to the brand or company offering the promotion (Tat & Schepker 1998). When consumers are satisfied, this generates positive word of mouth and purchase recommendations (Wirtz & Chew 2002) and thus the sales promotion achieves its target by directly impacting consumer purchases (Alvarez & Caselles 2004).

From a sales promotion perspective, the transaction utility theory Thaler (1985) tells us that consumers will make overall satisfaction or dissatisfaction judgments about a price-based promotion after the purchase experience, driving their intention to repeat/ discontinue the process in the future. Overall judgments about price promotion are formed through consideration of the acquisition utility of the deal (satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the intrinsic utility of the item purchased less its price) and transaction utility. Customer satisfaction with particular sales promotions may be moderated by factors such as price sensitivity and perceived value (Rajagopal 2007), driven by the purchasing power (income) of the consumer. This suggests that higher priced items are capable of achieving greater levels of satisfaction with the promotional deal than lower value items purchases (Tat & Schepker 1998). Thus,

H1: Satisfaction with price-based sales promotion techniques is likely to be greater when related to a high-value purchase than a low value purchase.

In addition, there are gender differences with respect to shopping habits. According to the Wharton Research (2007) conducted in the USA, women are happy to meander through sprawling clothing and accessory collections or detour through the shoe department while shopping is a mission for men and they are more likely to respond to more utilitarian aspects of the experience – availability of stocks and parking space (sale context). Similar research in the UK (Jenno 2007) suggest that men are being much happier to go for the kill, whereas women are still far more inclined to value shopping as a social and therapeutic activity. It suggests that men are easier to satisfy on acquisition utilities with specific products and that women are more prone to attraction from storewide discounts. Thus,

H2: Satisfaction with percentage discount on specific products is more likely to be greater when related to men than to women.

H3: Satisfaction with membership discount for storewide purchases is more likely to be greater when related to women than to men.

3. Methodology

3.1 Samples and measurement scales

Data are collected in two cities of Kazakhstan (Almaty and Astana) using a multi-item questionnaire which required respondents to answer rating scaled questions in relation to their attitudes towards sales promotion techniques. Scale items were drawn from existing, pre-tested marketing scales relating to consumption satisfaction and sales promotion (Bearden & Netemeyer 1999). High value items are referred in this study as product costing more than USD350 (half of the average monthly salary in Kazakhstan). Respondents were drawn from a wide range of occupations and lifestyles. Overall 220 questionnaires were randomly collected

and only 187 (Almaty n= 98, Astana n=89) were valid for further analysis because of incomplete fillings. Females constitute 57.7% of the valid data sample (n=108). About 20% of respondents identified themselves as office workers, 12% as management professionals, 16% as technical/engineering staff and 40% as university/college students.

3.2 Analysis

Analysis of data was completed using SPSS 17. Test of normality of data, homogeneity of variances and post-hoc test were conducted.

4. Findings

The descriptive statistics revealed that that percentage discount (mean: 5.89 out max 7) and membership discount (mean=5.54) are the top two highest scored variables (Table 1). Rebates (mean=1.75) and coupons discount (mean=1.27) for specific product generated the lowest scores for satisfaction. Gender has significant impact on customer satisfaction with priced-based sale promotion techniques (Wilks' lambda=0.977, F=3.100, p=0.047) in Kazakhstan. The Tests of between-subject effects revealed that the 'membership discount' recorded significant value (F=6.223, p=0.013), with female scoring higher (mean=6.31) than male (mean=5.22) while men scoring higher (mean= 6.24) than female (mean=4.80) on 'percentage discount on specific product'. Thus, the following hypotheses were supported at the 5% significant level:

H2: Satisfaction with a percentage discount on specific products are more likely to be greater when related to men than to women.

H3: Satisfaction with a membership discount for storewide purchases are more likely to be greater when related to women than to men.

However, there was no evidence to support *H1: Satisfaction with price-based sales promotion techniques are likely to be greater when related to a high-value purchase than a low value purchase* (Wilks’

$\lambda=0.837$, $F=.081$, $p=0.965$). This implies that the values of purchases (high or low tickets items) have limited impact on the level of satisfaction on priced-based sales promotion techniques.

Table 1: Satisfaction scores for price-based sales promotion techniques

Discounts type	Mean*	SD
Percentage discount for specific product	5.89	0.85
Membership discount (storewide)	5.54	1.13
Dollar discount for specific product	3.40	1.20
Point accumulations for discount of products	2.72	1.29
Rebates/refund for specific product	1.75	0.96
Coupons discount for specific product	1.27	1.35
<i>n=187</i>		

* mean out of max 7

5. Conclusion and limitations of research

This study revealed that customers are most satisfied with percentage discount of specific product and membership discount for future (storewide) purchases. Coupons for specific product discount generated the less satisfaction. Women are more satisfied than men with membership discount (for future purchases) while men are more satisfied than women with percentage discount for specific product. There is no evidence to suggest that low or high values purchases (>USD350) have on an impact on customer satisfaction with price-based sales promotion techniques. The limitations of this study are, first, the questionnaire survey is dependent on the respondent’s own account of their behavior, attitude or perception. Second, the low samples in this survey may be misrepresentative of the whole Kazakhstan population. Also, variation among the population at the level of interest in the research topic can result in a biased, unrepresentative response.

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INNOVATIONS IN KAZAKHTELECOM JSC

Balykova Marzhan, Kaygorodtsev Alexander
Kazakh-American Free University, Kazakhstan

Production expenses reduction, material resources sustainable use, higher economical performance, and first and utmost labor and production efficiency increase causing cost decrease are of the high importance and current concern issues of production management. It is quite necessary to improve management to solve these issues and therefore increase the efficiency, and master methods of effective production management.

The required condition of company efficiency increase is a scientific research, analysis, experience summary and justification of company management system that assures new services supply to the market providing competitive strengths.

Innovations in modern economical world are one of the key factors affecting company activity efficiency. Nowadays competitive ability at the markets mostly depends on products as based on new know-how. In the past success and development depended on access to natural resources. These days it is impossible to succeed and be developed without innovations.

Currently the whole responsibility for innovations implementation is for management of separate businesses. However right assessment and selection as well as innovative projects implementation allow companies to achieve leading positions in a particular industry sector and assure a strong base for continuous growth.

Scientific and technological advance

achievements are spread within production in a form of innovations. Innovation can be a new order, a new method, new products or a new feature. Innovation is used by means of production, reproduction and sale for the society within innovative process. Innovative processes are created in different scientific spheres and finished in different industrial spheres causing effective and qualitative changes. Innovations may cover technique and technology as well as production organization and management forms. All of them are closely interconnected and represent qualitative steps for production forces development and production efficiency increase.

The following types of innovations can be revealed:

- technique and technology innovations are new products, technologies and production means. They are the base for technological advance and production re-equipment.

- organizational innovations are processes for implementation of new forms of production and labor organization and management as well as innovations to be used for change of correlation between spheres of structural departments, social groups and individuals influence (vertically and horizontally);

- management innovations are purpose-oriented change of functions, organizational structures, technologies and management process organization, management apparatus methods of work as

intended to change management system elements (or the system as a whole) in order to speed up, simplify and implement tasks as established for the company;

- company economical innovations are positive changes in financial, payment, accounting activity spheres as well as in planning, price formation, labor motivation and payment areas and activity results assessment;

- social innovations are revealed in a form of human factor activation via development and implementation of personnel policy improvement system; system of professional training and skills improvement; system of social and vocational adaptation of newly employed personnel; system of reward and assessment of job deliverables. This is also an improvement of social and living conditions of workers, safety and health conditions, cultural activity, spare time management.

Modern state development is based on three models: innovative model, tech-

nological model and raw material model.

The main task of innovative model of state development is production of knowledge, know-how to be based on fundamental scientific research results. Products as manufactured on a base of such model are unique and highly valued on the worldwide market. In the meantime innovative model of development requires high expenses to be invested to fundamental science and a lot of time for scientific personnel training.

Innovation investments are a process of establishment of a technique and technological innovations commercial research.

In general innovations are renovation of main capital (production assets) or products as manufactured by means of introduction of scientific, technique and technological research deliverables within regular fair process of public production improvement (Table 1).

Table 1. Reasons of company innovative strategy development

Company innovative strategy development necessity is based on the following:	- Enforcement of intensive production development factors contributing to scientific and technological progress deliverables introduction to all economical spheres;
	- Core role of science in enhancement of new technology development and introduction efficiency;
	- Necessity of significant reduction of new technique development and mastering term;
	- Production performance level increase;
	- Necessity of inventors and development engineers creativity development;
	- Nature of scientific and technical progress, uncertainty of tasks and results, multi-variation of research, risk and possibility to face negative results;
	- Expenses increase and economical performance decrease when mastering new products;
	- Quick moral ageing of technique and technology;
	- Impartial requirement for accelerated introduction of new technique and technology, etc.

Motivation for innovation development is market competition at first. Producers and consumers when using old technique and technology get differential losses causing necessity to reduce operating costs based on innovations. Business companies that have mastered effective innovations first are in a position to reduce operating costs and commodities (prod-

ucts, services) price resulting in enforcement of such companies position in competition with other companies suggesting similar commodities (products, services) to the market. Therefore innovative activity contributes to company survivability in competition.

Perspective of innovation development and sales significantly depends on a

life cycle stage (origin, growth or completeness) it is going through at the required moment. Significant attention shall also be paid to accelerating of innovative product establishment. Sometimes this process takes several years causing ageing of innovation and decreasing its value with new innovations appearance. The newer the innovation stage is, the higher its perspectives are.

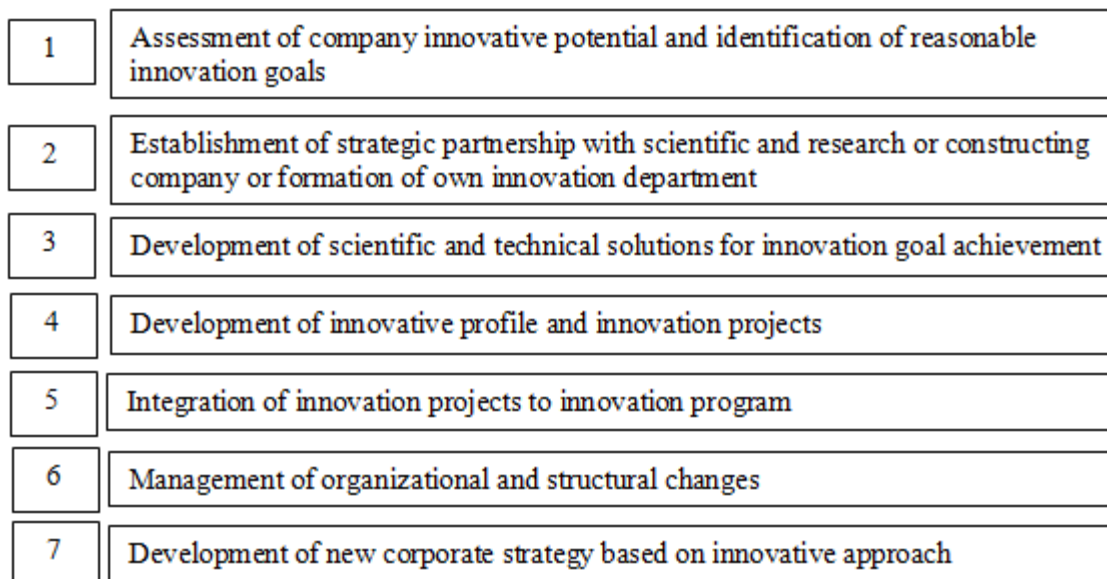
Innovations that are at a completeness stage may be used only for internal market satisfaction with commodities in short supply. Home appliances innovations may be a good example of such a stage. These home appliances are usually produced at defense enterprises within conversion. Should innovations be on a growth stage, internal demand and worldwide market access shall be guaranteed. Should the innovations be on origin stage or in some cases on completeness stage, advance to scientific and technical sphere shall be possible. Air space industry shall be a good example.

Innovative (introducing) activity is aimed at establishment and usage of intellectual product, making new unique ideas implemented into finished commodities

for the market.

Innovation definition is applied to all novelty in operation, organizational, financial, scientific and research spheres, any improvements causing costs saving or conditions for such saving. Innovation cycle covers the process from idea generation to its practical implementation.

Innovation activity is a complicated dynamic system when different methods, factors and management tool interact to make scientific research, new types of products development, equipment and instruments improvement, modification of technological processes and forms of operation based on newest scientific and technological achievements; planning, financing and coordination of scientific and technological advance; economic instrument and incentive improvement; establishment of measures to control interdependent activities to accelerate intensive development of scientific and technological advance and increase of its social and economic efficiency. General scheme of key issues of company innovative activity establishment summarizes information above (Picture 1).



Picture 1. Scheme of key issues of company innovative activity establishment

Kazakhtelecom JSC is a national operator of connection nets in Kazakhstan and one of the most dynamically developing telecommunication companies within post-soviet area. Kazakhtelecom JSC proposes a wide range of information and communication services.

51% of Kazakhtelecom JSC shares are owned by the State represented by Samruk State Assets Management Holding of Kazakhstan JSC. The structure of Kazakhtelecom JSC includes Altel JSC (100%), Mobile Telecom Service Ltd. (51%), GSM Kazakhstan Ltd. (49%), Nursat JSC (95.68%), Signum JSC (100%), Vostok Telecom Ltd. (100%), Kepter Telecom JSC (100%), Radio Tell Ltd. (100%). Today Kazakhtelecom JSC Group of Companies covers all the main target markets of information and communication services consumers.

Central office of the company is situated in Astana, the capital of Kazakhstan. More than 30 thousand people work for the company. Kazakhtelecom JSC have regional branches in each region of the country to assure service rendering within the whole territory of the country. The company services almost 3.2 mln. consumers of fixed connection as of July 1st, 2008. Telephone density in the Republic of Kazakhstan in average is 20.36 telephones per 100 people. Kazakhtelecom JSC is in close connection and interaction with more than 40 operators of neighboring and far-abroad countries.

Kazakhtelecom JSC deals with a number of big infrastructural projects implementation, telecommunication nets modernization and digitalization, new technology introduction and telephone systems installation in villages and broadband internet access development as well.

East-Kazakhstan regional operational and technical communications department was established in December 27th, 1939 in Ust-Kamenogorsk.

During World War II telephone con-

nection development rates decreased. City telephone connection was significantly developed within 50s and 60s. Automatic telephone stations were introduced those times. 24 automatic and 1 manual telephone stations of 48.2 thousand numbers (to be connected to 46790 telephones) capacity had been established within telephone net up to 1970. 546 telephone booths were installed in cities and regional centers.

Intercity connection was developed along with city telephone connection net growth. Number of intercity calls increased with an increase of subscribers number. In 1978-1979 automatic international unit called as АТУ-ДШС was installed and connected to introduce semiautomatic data messaging system in the region. The first automated call office АПП-80 was established in 1988.

90s are the yeas when East-Kazakhstan Telecommunication Department started its new development stage.

There were 92 thousand of subscribers as serviced by 203 stations in Ust-Kamenogorsk in 1991 when number of automated call offices significantly increased. The demand could not be satisfied with the use of old equipment. In this regard the issue of public telephone network modernization got a high importance those days.

Starting with 1995 regional telecommunication center started replacement of the automated call office equipment with modern digital one as produced by German Alkatel company. The capacity of new equipment was 30976 numbers for five automated call offices as located in different regions. Digital automated call office subscribers got the opportunity to use a lot of additional kinds of services making telephone functional capabilities wider.

Kazakhtelecom JSC as a national communication operator started a new project aimed at FTTH (Fiber to the

Home) networks establishment according to G-PON (Gigabit Passive Optical Network) method up to 2015. This project implementation will allow subscribers to have high-speed Internet connection as world information leaders have. Meanwhile a lot of subscribers have already assessed advantages of this kind of innovative service: iD Net innovation became available in big cities year and a half ago; now it is spreading intensively all over the country. It shall be emphasized that the project was noticed at the state level and became a part of a governmental development program.

Kazakhtelecom JSC takes a significant part of a market and defines the country development with regard to information and communication. Nowadays key priorities of the operator activity have been development of broadband Internet connection.

Last years high-speed broadband Internet demand shows dynamic and steady increase among corporate clients as well as private persons.

According to ICT-Marketing number of Internet users was 4.3 mln. people as of the end of the last year, other words 26.5% the country population where 41% are urban citizen of 16 and more years old, and 19% are villagers. Regulars (people who access the Internet at least once a month) are 94% of urban citizens as of 2010.

Please, note despite mobile internet spreading the main point of connection to the network is stationary home computer which constitutes 63% of all the statistics.

According to questionnaire results only 12% of urban citizens who are older than 16 use the network with mobile (GPRS / WAP). Seven of ten mobile Internet users have Megaline installed at home or at a working place.

In November 2010 90% of families preferred broadband Internet access. In general 89.5% subscribers use Kazak-

htelecom JSC services. This time a new service iD Net was introduced: G-PON equipment was brought to Astana, Almaty, Karaganda and Atyrau in 2010. Fiber optic cable is supposed to be laid to a building to be further distribution to blocks switchboards and subscribers.

Company has been using fiber optic for provision of broadband Internet access starting with 2000. All the regional centers and a number of other cities have been using FTTC. Therefore there is a number of subscribers who wish to use interactive television (iD TV), iD Phone telephony and iD Net with one instrument. Furthermore Kazakhtelecom JSC provides its customers with special optical modem. Comparing to Megaline iD Net assures high-speed video, data and voice broadcast.

Kazakhtelecom JSC clients get access to internal resources (IP-addresses are registered in RIPE in favor of Kazakhtelecom JSC) through incoming and outgoing channel with a speed of 100 megabit per second, to external resources – up to 2 megabit. External traffic limit is 40 gigabyte, upon limit expiry the speed decreases down to 128 kilobyte per second through incoming and outgoing channels. Monthly payment is not much higher than one of Megaline. It is 4,600.00 tenge (VAT included).

Customers demand to Internet channels bandwidth is growing. In this regard Kazakhtelecom JSC highly evaluates potential of technology to use fiber optic cable. Internet access network based on FTTH (G-PON) is a part of broadband networks development program for 2011–2014 aimed at wide scale forced introduction of this kind of innovations in Kazakhstan. The Head of the State has mentioned the necessity to spread and popularize broadband Internet. This idea has been being implemented by the Ministry of Connection and Information.

The Ministry of Connection and Information has started a program called

Broadband Internet Access Development Road-map. Implementation of this program shall cover 100% household of the country with qualitative Internet to 2015. Number of subscribers shall be increased up to 45 among 100 citizens (34.1 in 2011), rates shall be reduced for 30% min. up to specified date.

It is expected that wireless Internet access networks will be developed according to 3G, CDMA-450/800, 4G technology within the road-map program. Fixed access to the Internet using FTTH and FTTB technology shall also be provided.

The program identifies that 3G networks shall be established in all the inhabited areas with population of 10 thousand people and more up to the end of 2014. All the regions shall be provided with broadband access as established according to CDMA technology up to the specified time.

Currently Kazakhtelecom JSC is introducing a new service within a general strategy of gradual transferring to more advanced access technology. Today FTTH is the newest and the most progressive technology. It helps to achieve a full range of telephony, Internet and interactive TV services.

– i.e. ADSL technology which is a base for Megaline has significantly depreciated and is going to be gradually depressed;

– ADSL technology has advantages such as rapid arrangement of broadband access services in all the cities and region centers, provision of Triple Play basic set of services – Internet, voice and video, furthermore subscribers access arrangement is done quite cheaply;

Everyone is used to work with standard applications such as Skype, Facebook that do not require high speed of Internet connection however there are other services not available now. For instance, several SD and HD-video channels cannot be provided. Broadband access development

based on copper network does not allow to expand a range of services.

In a long-term perspective copper networks cannot be considered for supply of the high speed Internet due to physical limits of a cable. Main investigations to achieve 100 megabit and more in fixed networks are performed for optical technologies.

With regard to the information mentioned above Kazakhtelecom JSC is going to replace copper cable networks as established according to ADSL technology which is unable to provide higher connection speed (connection is done within 1 and 24 megabit, 12 megabit in average) with fiber optic networks.

However ADSL will not disappear (for instance, 87501010 dialup access still available). Kazakhtelecom JSC experts are completely sure people will continue using Megaline allowing fiber optic and copper networks coexist for a long time.

Nowadays Kazakhstan owns independent and competitive telecommunication network due to several reasons. One of such reasons is development of a big project of state importance. This is construction of a collar bush of the National Information Superhighway. This project implementation afforded the country to make a very important step towards establishment of so called “digital state”, formation of “electronic” government structure as well as “information” society. Furthermore the National Information Superhighway will allow to integrate Kazakhstan to global information space.

Innovation management get higher importance present days as it significantly affects strategy, goals and methods of company management. Innovations create a future image of a company by defining its technologies, services as proposed and potential clients.

Connection networks are a part of information base providing information transfer and distribution as necessary for

all the chain elements functioning in good order. Modern society cannot exist without information receipt and distribution because it reflects all the processes of public work and cooperation between people. Therefore there is a high necessity in communication means as united within different communication networks.

Currently the network as mostly occupied with information flows is telephone network. Subscribers of this kind of connection network are spread all over the country. A significant part of this network is referred to mass information transfer such as television and radio programs transfer from studio to distributors or to units of wire broadcasting network.

Due to introduction of new services Kazakhtelecom JSC will be able to increase and get an additional profit that is one of the most important factors for each company.

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CONCEPTIONS, ROLE AND CHAOS OPPORTUNITIES IN DYNAMICAL SYSTEM THEORY

Akhmetova Dana

Kazakh-American Free University, Kazakhstan

The huge force of science is put into its abilities to establish connection between cause and effect. For example, laws of gravitation allow predicting eclipses on thousands years forward. Other natural phenomena don't give in to so exact prediction. Currents in the atmosphere as strictly submit to physical laws, as well as movements of planets, nevertheless weather forecasts still have probabilistic character. Both weather, and a current of the mountain river, and movement of the thrown playing bone have unpredictable

aspects in the behavior. As in these phenomena it isn't visible to accurate communication between cause and effect, say that at them there is an element of chance. However until recently there were few bases to doubt that in principle it is possible to reach exact predictability. Was considered that for this purpose it is necessary to collect and process information enough only.

Such point of view was changed coolly by amazing opening: the simple determined systems with small number a

component can generate casual behavior, and this accident has basic character - it is impossible to get rid of it, collecting more information. Accident generated in such a way began to call chaos.

The seeming paradox consists that the chaos is determined - is generated by certain rules which in itself don't include any elements of chance. In principle the future is completely defined past, however in practice small uncertainty grow and therefore the behavior allowing the short-term forecast, for long term is unpredictable. Thus, in chaos there is an order: at the heart of chaotic behavior graceful geometrical structures which create accident in the same way as creates its handing over cards lie, shuffling a pack, or a mixer, stirring dough for a cake.

Discovery of chaos generated a new model of scientific modeling. On the one hand, it entered new basic restrictions on possibility of predictions. On the other hand, the determinism put in chaos showed that many casual phenomena are more predictable, than was considered earlier. Information collected in the past seeming casual and sent to shelf as too difficult, now received an explanation by means of simple laws. The chaos allows to find an order in so various systems, as the atmosphere, a leaking water tap or heart. This revolutionary opening mentioned many areas of science.

What sources of casual behavior? Brownian motion is a classical example. The mote considered in a microscope makes the unceasing and chaotic dance under the influence of thermal movement of molecules of water surrounding it. As molecules of water are invisible, and their number is huge, exact movement of a mote is absolutely unpredictable. Thus, the web of causal influences of one parts of system on others can become so confused that the final picture of behavior will be absolutely casual.

The chaos of which it will be a ques-

tion in article, isn't connected neither with a large number a component, nor with their invisible influences. Existence of casual behavior in very simple systems forces to look in a new way and at such big systems, as the atmosphere.

Why to expect currents in the atmosphere it is much more difficult, than movements in Solar system? Both that, and another are made of many parts, and both submit to the second law of Newton of $F = ma$ which can be considered as the simple instruction for a future prediction. If m of force of F operating on mass are known, it is known and acceleration a . So it is happened that as soon as situation and speed of any object are measured at some set moment, they are unambiguously defined forever. The idea was so strong that the French mathematician of the XVIII century Pierre Simon Laplace declared once that if for each particle in the Universe situation and speed was set, it could predict the future on all rest of the time. And though on a way to achievement of this purpose set by Laplace there are the obvious practical difficulties, more than hundred years as though there were no reasons to doubt that at least in principle Laplace is right. Literal distribution of this statement of Laplace on the social phenomena led to a philosophical conclusion about full predefinitions of people's behavior: the free will doesn't exist.

Views of two great scientists of accident and probability are absolutely opposite. The French mathematician Pierre Simon Laplace believed that laws of the nature mean a strict determinism and full predictability though imperfection of supervision and demands probability theory introduction. Poincare's statement anticipates a modern view according to which as much as small uncertainty in a condition of system can amplify over time and predictions of the long-term future can become impossible.

The science of the XX century fin-

ished with a Laplace determinism. The first blow to it was struck by quantum mechanics. One of the main provisions of this theory - the principle of uncertainty opened by Heisenberg who claims that at the same time situation and speed of a particle can't be precisely measured. The principle of uncertainty well explains, why some casual phenomena, such as radioactive decay, don't submit to a Laplace determinism. The kernel so isn't enough that the principle of uncertainty comes into force, and precisely to know processes occurring in a kernel it is essentially impossible, and therefore however many it was collected about it information, it is impossible to predict precisely when it will break up.

However the unpredictability source for large-scale systems should be looked for in other. One large-scale phenomena are predictable, others - No, and quantum mechanics here at anything. For example, the trajectory of a baseball ball in principle is predictable, and each player intuitively uses it every time when catches a ball. On the contrary, the balloon trajectory when from it air escapes, is unpredictable: it heels and randomly spins at any moments and in any places which can't be expected. But after all this balloon submits to the same laws of Newton, as a baseball ball; why to predict his behavior it is more difficult?

The classical example of similar double behavior gives a liquid current. Under one circumstances it is laminar - equal, steady, regular - and is easily predicted by means of the equations. Under other circumstances the current becomes turbulent - rough, unstable, irregular - and difficult predictable. Transition from laminar behavior to the turbulent is familiar to everyone who at least once flied in the plane to quiet weather and then suddenly got to a thunder-storm. Than to explain an essential difference between laminar and turbulent flow?

Better to understand in what here a riddle, let us assume, that we decided to sit at a mountain stream. Water is turned in whirlpools and laps so as if at own will that rushes there, here. But after all stones in line with a stream strongly lie on a place, and inflow of water is almost identical. Than casual nature of its movement is caused?

The Soviet physicist L. D. Landau offered in due time an explanation of casual movement of liquid which many years dominated. It consisted that in turbulent flow there are many various independent fluctuations (whirlwinds). At increase in speed the current becomes even more turbulent and gradually, on one, new frequencies will increase. Though each separate fluctuation can be simple, their complex combination leads to movement which can't be predicted.

However concerning Landau's theory there were doubts. The casual behavior is shown even by the systems not differing neither special complexity, nor uncertainty. At a turn of a century it was realized by the French mathematician Henri Poincare, having noted that the unpredictable phenomena arising "happy-go-lucky" are inherent in rather such systems where little changes in the present lead to noticeable changes in the future. We will imagine a stone at hill top. Having slightly pushed him in this or that party, we will force it to slide down on absolutely different ways. But, if the stone is sensitive to small influences only when it is at hill top, chaotic systems are sensitive to them in each point of the movement.

To show, some physical systems how sensitively react to external influences, we will give a simple example. We will imagine a little idealized billiards in which spheres slide on a table and face among themselves so, that losses of energy can be neglected. The player does one blow, and a long series of collisions begins; naturally, he wants to know that

will follow its blow. For what term the player, in perfection controlling blow can, to predict a trajectory of a sphere which it pushed with the cue? If he neglects even so small influence as a gravitational attraction of an electron on the edge of a galaxy, the forecast will be incorrect in one minute!

To show, some how sensitively react Rapid growth of uncertainty is explained by that spheres aren't ideal, and small deviations from an ideal trajectory in a blow point with each new collision increase. Growth happens exponential just as bacteria in the conditions of unlimited space and a food stock breed. With each new collision of a mistake collect, and any even the smallest influence quickly reaches the macroscopic sizes. This one of the main properties of chaos.

The exponential accumulation of mistakes peculiar to chaotic dynamics, became the second stumbling block for a Laplace determinism. The quantum mechanics established that initial measurements always aren't certain, and the chaos guarantees that these uncertainty will quickly exceed predictability limits. There is no chaos, Laplace could play with hope that mistakes remain limited or at least will grow rather slowly, allowing to do the long-term forecast. In the presence of

chaos reliability of forecasts quickly falls.

The concept of chaos belongs to the so-called theory of dynamic systems. The dynamic system consists of two parts: concepts of a state (essential information on system) and loudspeakers (the rule describing evolution of system in time). Evolution can be observed in space of states, or phase space - abstract space in which as coordinates state components serve. Thus coordinates get out depending on a context. In case of mechanical system it there can be a situation and speed, in case of ecological model - population of various species.

Good example of dynamic system - a simple pendulum. Its movement is set by only two variables: situation and speed. Thus, its state - is a point on the plane, which coordinates - the provision of a pendulum and its speed. Evolution of a state is described by the rule which is output from laws of Newton and expressed mathematically in the form of the differential equation. When the pendulum shakes backwards-forward, its state - a point on the plane - moves on some trajectory ("orbit"). Ideally a pendulum without friction the orbit represents a loop; in the presence of friction the orbit twists on a spiral to some point corresponding to a stop of a pendulum.

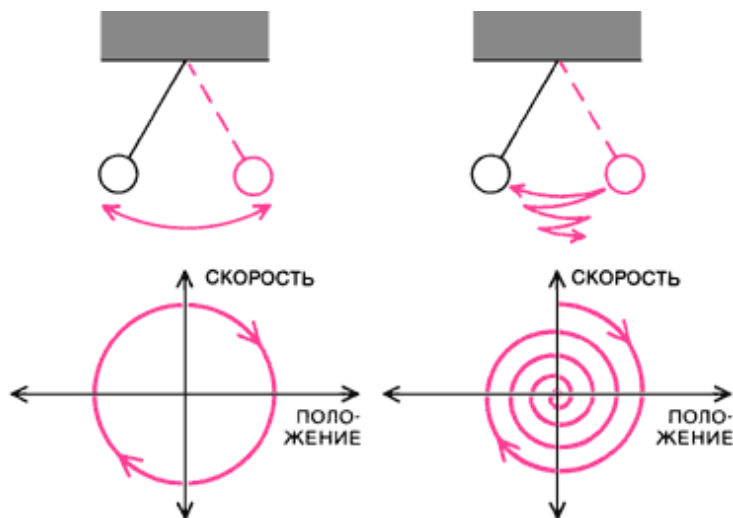


Fig. 1

The phase space gives convenient means for evident representation of behavior of dynamic system this abstract space coordinates in which are degrees of freedom of system. For example, movement of a pendulum is (above) completely defined by its initial speed and situation. Thus, to its state are answered by a point the planes which coordinates are situation and pendulum speed (below). When the pendulum shakes, this point describes some trajectory, or "orbit", in phase space. For an ideal pendulum without friction the orbit represents the closed curve (below at the left), otherwise the orbit meets on a spiral to a point (below on the right).

The dynamic system can develop or in continuous time, or in discrete time. The first is called as the stream, the second - display (sometimes the cascade). The pendulum continuously moves from one situation to another and, therefore, is described by dynamic system with continuous time, i.e. a stream. Between drops from a leaking water tap it is more natural to describe number of the insects born every year in a certain area, or a period system with discrete time, i.e. display.

To learn how the system from the set initial state develops, it is necessary to make infinitesimal advance on an orbit, and for this purpose it is possible to use dynamics (the movement equations). At such method the volume of computing work is proportional to time during which we want to move on an orbit. For simple systems like a pendulum without friction it can appear that the equations of movement allow the decision in the closed form, i.e. there is the formula expressing any future state through an initial state. Such decision gives "a way straight", i.e. simpler algorithm in which for a prediction of the future only the initial state both final time is used and which doesn't demand pass

through all intermediate states. In that case the volume of the work spent for tracing of movement of system, doesn't depend almost on final value of time. So, if the equations of movement of planets and the Moon, and also situation and Earth and Moon speed are set, it is possible, for example, for many years forward to predict eclipses.

Thanks to successful finding of decisions in the closed form for many various simple systems at early stages of development of physics there was a hope that for any mechanical system there is such decision. Now it is known that it, generally speaking, not so. The unpredictable behaviour of chaotic dynamic systems can't be described the decision in the closed form. Means, at establishment of their behaviour we have any "no way straight".

And nevertheless the phase space gives a powerful tool for studying of chaotic systems as it allows to present their behaviour in a geometrical form. So, in our example of a pendulum with friction which eventually stops, its trajectory in phase space comes to some point. It is a motionless point; as it attracts nearby orbits, it call an attracting motionless point, or an attractor. If to report to a pendulum a small push, its orbit will return to a motionless point. To any system which comes eventually to a condition of rest, the motionless point in phase space answers. This phenomenon has very the general character: energy losses because of friction or, for example, viscosity lead to that orbits are attracted to the small set of phase space having smaller dimension. Any such set is called as an attractor. Roughly speaking, the attractor answers the installed behaviour of system - to what it aspires.

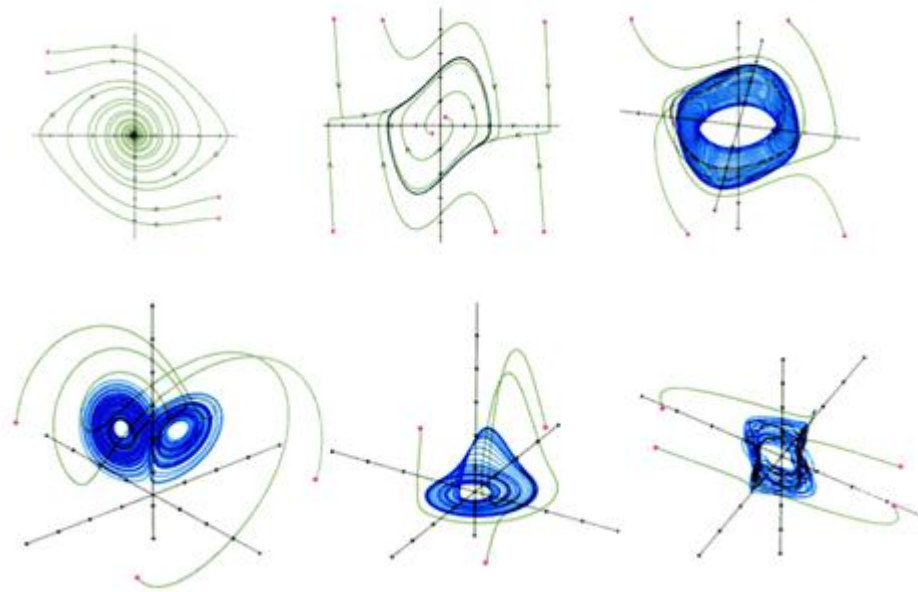


Fig. 2

Attractors - it is the geometrical structures characterizing behavior in phase space after a long time. Roughly speaking, an attractor - it to what the system seeks to come to what it is attracted. Here attractors are shown by blue color, and initial states - red. Trajectories, having left initial states, eventually come nearer to attractors. The simplest type of an attractor - a motionless point (at the upper left). Such attractor corresponds to behavior of a pendulum in the presence of friction; the pendulum always comes to the same position of rest irrespective of the fact how it started fluctuating (see the right half of fig. 2). The following, more difficult attractor - a limit cycle (above in the center) which has a form of the closed loop in phase space.

The limit cycle describes steady fluctuations, such, as pendulum movement in hours or heart beat. To difficult fluctuation, or quasiperiodic movement, there corresponds an attractor in shape a Torus (at the upper right). All three attractors are predictable: their behavior can be predicted with any accuracy. Chaotic attractors correspond to unpredictable movement and have more difficult geometrical form. Three examples of chaotic attractors are represented in the bottom row; they are received (from left to right) by E. Lorentz, O. Ryesler and one of authors (Shaw) respectively a solution of simple systems of the differential equations with three-dimensional phase space.

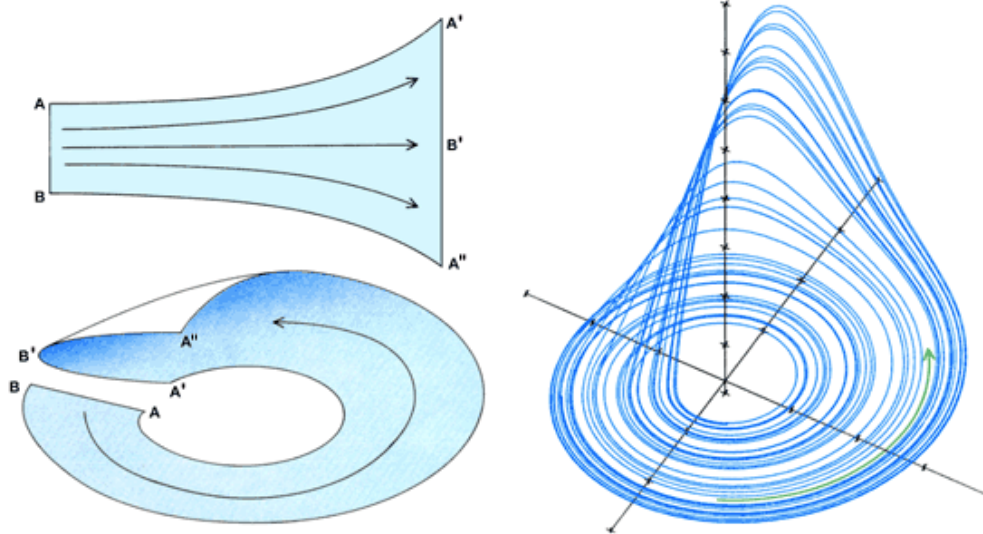


Fig. 3

The chaotic attractor has much more complex structure, than predictable attractors - a point, a limit cycle or Torus. In a vast scale the chaotic attractor is a rough surface with folds. Stages of formation of a chaotic attractor on the example of Ryesler's attractor (on the right) are shown. At first close trajectories on object disperse exponential (at the upper left); the distance between the next trajectories increases approximately twice. To remain in final area, the object develops (below at the left): the surface is bent and its edges connect. Ryesler's attractor was observed in many systems, from liquid streams before chemical reactions; this fact illustrates Einstein's maxim that the nature prefers simple structures.

Some systems don't stop after a long time, and cyclically pass some sequence of states. Example - a pendulum clock which are got by means of a spring or weights. The pendulum again and again repeats the way. In phase space to its movement there corresponds a periodic trajectory, or a cycle. No matter, as the pendulum is started - eventually it will start moving besides to a cycle. Such attractors are called as limit cycles. Other system familiar to all with a limit cycle is heart. The same system can have some attractors. If this is so, different

entry conditions can lead to different attractors. The set of the points leading to some attractor, is called as its area of attraction. The system with a pendulum has two such areas: at small shift of a pendulum from a rest point it comes back to this point, however at a big deviation hours start ticking, and the pendulum makes stable fluctuations.

More difficult attractor the Torus (a reminding surface of a bagel) has a form. Such form answers the movement made of two independent fluctuations - to so-called quasi periodic movement. (Physical examples can be constructed by means of electric oscillator). The trajectory is cast on Torus in the phase space, one frequency is determined by time of a turnover of a small circle a Torah, another - by a big circle. For a combination more than two rotations by attractors there can be multidimensional Torus.

Important distinctive property of quasi periodic movement consists that, despite difficult character, it is predictable. Though the trajectory can precisely repeat never (if frequencies are incommensurable), movement remains regular. The trajectories beginning nearby one from another on a Torah, and remain nearby one from another, and the long-term forecast is

guaranteed.

Existence of chaos mentions a scientific method. The classical way of verification of the theory consists in making a prediction and to verify it with experimental data. But for the chaotic phenomena the long-term forecast in principle is impossible, and it should be taken into account at an assessment of advantages of the theory. Thus, verification of the theory becomes much thinner procedure relying more on statistical and geometrical properties, than on a detailed prediction.

The chaos throws down a new challenge to supporters of a reductionism who consider that for studying of system it is necessary to segment and study it each part. This point of view kept in science thanks to that there are many systems for which the behavior as a whole really consists of behavior of parts. However the chaos shows us that the system can have difficult behavior owing to simple nonlinear interaction only several component.

This problem becomes sharp in the wide range of scientific disciplines, from the description of the microscopic physical phenomena and before modeling of macroscopic behavior of biological organisms. The huge step forward in ability in detail to understand is in recent years taken, what structure of this or that system, however ability to unite collected data in an integral picture reached a deadlock due to the lack of the suitable general concept within which it would be possible to describe behavior qualitatively. For example, having even the full scheme of nervous system of any simple organism like the nematode studied by S. Brenner from Cambridge university, it is impossible to bring behavior of this organism out of it. The point of view is in the same way unreasonable that the physics is settled by clarification of the nature of fundamental physical forces and elementary components. Interaction a component in one scale can cause difficult global behavior in

more vast scale which generally can't be brought out of knowledge of behavior separate a component.

Chaos often consider in the light of restrictions imposed by its existence, such, as lack of predictability. However the nature can use chaos structurally. Through strengthening of small fluctuations it, probably, opens to nature systems access to novelty. Perhaps, the victim which has escaped a predator not to be grabbed, used chaotic adjustment of flight as a surprise element. Biological evolution demands genetic variability, and the chaos generates casual changes of structure, opening thereby opportunity to put variability under evolution control.

Even process of intellectual progress depends on emergence of new ideas and finding of new ways to coordinate old ideas. Congenital creative ability, perhaps, hides for itself chaotic process which selection strengthens small fluctuations and turns them into macroscopic connected conditions of mind which we feel as thought. It can sometimes be any decisions or that is realized as will manifestation. From this point of view the chaos provides us the mechanism for manifestation of free will in the world which copes the determined laws.

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ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE AND FIRM GROWTH

Kossenkova Darya

Kazakh-American Free University, Kazakhstan

In the modern literature on change management, there are different approaches to the definition of "organizational change". Some authors have focused on the process component of organizational change (Barnett, Carroll, 1995), others - focus on the content component (Van de Ven, Poole, 1995; 2005). The terms "organizational change", "change" and "transformation of the company" refers to those institutional reforms, during which achieved a change in values, aspirations and behavior while changing processes, methods, strategies and systems. Organizational change accompanies the learning process, because modern organizations are both extremely important processes of change and learning. Change strategies, structures and systems are not enough if they are not accompanied by a change in the thinking of generating these strategies, structures and systems. According to some authors, organizational change can not be separated from the organization's strategy, and vice versa (Burnes, 2004; Rieley and Clarkson, 2001; Todnem, 2005).

In this study, under the "organizational change" means any "development of new ideas or the introduction of new patterns of behavior in the company» (Daft, 2001). In our view, this definition described as Process and substantive aspects of the process of organizational change and covers almost all types of changes that can occur in an organization.

Analysis of studies on change management shows that scientists have for

quite a long period of time studying the typology of organizational changes and characteristics that underlie the differences in types of changes. Most of them, anyway, based on the distinction between incremental and radical (evolutionary and revolutionary, cumulative and discrete) changes. For the first time such a division was made in the early 1970's. When Vattslavik, Uikland and Firsh (Watzlawick, Weakland, Firsh, 1974) introduced the concept of change of the first and second order. Under the change of the first order were understood Changes- "variation around the main theme", and under the second-order change - crucial breakthrough that has no connection with the past. In our view, this classification is fairly general, allowing to interpret it as the content and the process of change, and both characteristics together. On the one hand, this is its advantage (high degree of generalization), and on the other, has brought some confusion in the work on changes since in each case, you need to understand what the author has in mind, using this classification.

Currently, most of the research literature on change management is a critique of the proposed approaches to the classification of organizational change and attempts to highlight an original approach to the classification of types of changes. As a rule, the proposed approaches are diametrically opposed continuum of types of changes, which are based on certain classification features, such as the duration of the changes, the rate of change, a stra-

tegic approach to change, and others. For example, the incremental (incremental) changes contrasted transformational (transformative) changes (Dunphy, Stace, 1993), episodic (episodic) changes - permanent (continuous) change (Huy, 2001), scheduled (planned) changes - sudden (Bamford, Forrester, 2003), evolution (evolutionary) change - revolutionary (revolutionary) (Pettigrew, 1985), changes the first order (first order change) - change of the second order (second order change) (Bartunek, Moch, 1987); Convergence (convergent) change - radical (radical) (Greenwood, Hinings, 1988, 1996; Miller, Friesen, 1982), etc.

The above described approach to the dichotomy of distinguishing different types of organizational changes, of course, has a certain research purposes, but at the same time does not provide a general understanding of this complex phenomenon. Moreover, the traditional use of the term "change", as a rule, is ambiguous and imprecise (Marshak, 2002). Overall, this is

due to the fact that the basis for the classification of types of change is only one classification feature. For example, the main characteristic of the planned changes is the degree to which the change is subject to control by the management. However, another equally important characteristic of the planned changes may be planning style changes - a directive or participative (Maes, 2008). Some authors have attempted to overcome the limitations of using only one feature to highlight changes typologies. They use two or more classification feature, creating a matrix by which to distinguish between different types of change.

One of the most successful attempts to summarize the various typologies of organizational change is the work (Maes, 2008), which presents a systematic approach to organizational change, which is based on the seven attributes of the system. Generally, the attributes of the system are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Types of organizational change

№	Attributes changes	Continuum of changes
1	Scale	From adaptation / transformation to improve / upgrade
2	Control	From planned to sudden changes
3	Frequency	On the state of inertia to episodic change and then to constant changes
4	Pace / Speed	By gradual changes to fast
5	Time	From short-term to long-term changes
6	Aim	Changes from hard to open
7	Style	Of participatory involvement in changes to the compulsory

Source: (Maes, 2008, p. 36).

It should be noted that in addition to the above classifications, organizational change, another, no less popular, is the classification of types of strategic organizational changes proposed R. Daftom: changes in the products and services, changes in strategy and structure, cultural change and changes in technology (Daft, 2001). Furthermore, according to RM

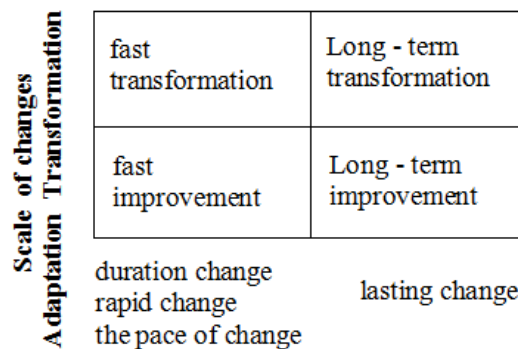
Kanter, changes in the Company may occur at different levels and have different effects on the results of its operations. According to RM Kanter, change management takes place on three levels: the draft changes, program changes and changes in the organization-conductors (Kanter, 1999, p.20). It should be noted that in a recent study (Self et al., 2007) proposed a

classification of organizational change, depending on the impact of these changes - whether they lead to the dismissal of the employee or not. The authors believe that such a classification allows to predict the reaction of the staff for the upcoming changes and, consequently, to develop a program to overcome resistance to change.

Thus, the organization can be implemented different types of organizational changes at different organizational levels. It appears that the different types will have different impacts on the operations of the company, in particular the growth of the firm. At the same time, such an effect may be either short-term or long-

term exposure. We propose to consider the types of organizational change in terms of their impact on the performance of the company in the short-medium and long term. To do this we will use a two-dimensional matrix (see pic. 1).

It seems that all types of organizational change can be divided into two different approaches to change: adaptation / improvement and transformation. At the same time, the proposed approach can have different length (duration) of the time. Thus, we get four different cluster of organizational change depending on the scale and duration of these changes. Consider in more detail the clusters.



Pic. 1. Clusters of organizational change

Adaptation / improvement. This approach to change focused on the individual components of the organization in order to adapt or improve to better match the other components of the organization. Adaptation / improvement occur within the existing organizational strategy and structure (Nadler, Tushman, 1989). This approach to change is the so-called incremental or minor changes, and is aimed at small improvements without radical changes in the organizational structure and hierarchical culture (Hope Hailey, Balogun, 2002). Unlike most types of organizational changes that are considered to be the responsibility of top management, adaptation / improvement is often associated with a key role performers (Choi, 1995). Depending on the duration of this change, we will allocate two clusters changes:

rapid improvement and long-term improvement.

Rapid improvement occurs in a short time and usually has a local character, as executed in the form of draft amendments. According to R.M. Kanter, these actions can be successful in the short term, especially if they are focused, results-oriented and do not violate the traditions of the company.

Long-term improvements are known in the theory and practice of business a long time, and the cluster changes can be attributed to the third level of organizational change on the classification of R.M. Kanter - organization of change. This is the name of the company who are able continuously to innovate, improve and do it before it will require external circumstances. This organization, mobilizing

many people to carry out the changes. Success depends on whether there are conditions necessary for the transformation of the organization capable of such changes that occur continuously and are perceived as natural.

Transformation / update. The term "transformation" is often used in the literature on change management interchangeably with the term "reorganization", "transformation", "update", "radical changes" and others. The total in these terms is that they are all aimed at changing the organization as a whole, rather than its individual parts. In this paper, this word refers to a radical organizational changes, i.e changes that are relevant to the strategy and structure of the organization, i.e, changes "second order» (Bartunek, Moch, 1987). Transformation / update affects not only the changes in strategy and structure, but also a change in organizational culture (Hope Hailey, Balogun, 2002). According to some authors during the transformation / update requires a paradigm shift of thinking, mental models and organizational values.

Rapid transformation refers to the second level of organizational change - "change programs" classification R.M. Kanter. As a rule, - related projects designed to provide a set of organizational impact. Rapid transformation means that changes occur in a short time, and focused on changes in key elements of the organization. Examples of rapid transformation may be some changes in the program, as the development of outsourcing operations or launching of a series of operations that were previously outsourced, the company itself, the introduction / removal of the product line, etc.

Long-term transformation, as well as rapid transformation is a program of organizational change. However, in this case we are dealing with the duration of the program, which can be done within a few months, or even years, depending on the

size of the company. Examples of long-term transformation of these programs are large-scale organizational changes, mergers and acquisitions, joint ventures, changes in strategy and structure of the company and others. All of these programs require not only a significant financial investment for their implementation, but also quite a serious investment of time. According to (Hannan, Freeman, 1984), large-scale changes reduce the reliability of results, due to the fact that fluctuations in the quality and timeliness of collective action are reduced in a period of fundamental change. Strategic changes rarely occur in a short time. Most often company spends some time for such changes in the program, and for a certain period of time burst existing communication with the external environment and to establish new, leading to slower growth firms.

When implementing change programs success often depends not so much on the quality of the program or the methods of its implementation, but on how each element of the program is linked with other activities of the company. According to R.M. Kanter, program changes often fail because they are isolated from continuing operations, contain too many states, cannot be combined with one another, or run an elite group that expects that everyone should drop everything and join the cult preached it.

The practice of the majority of large-scale transformations shows that such changes being made by top management in the first place in order to achieve an immediate effect that usually happens. If we consider the long-term impact on the growth of the transformation of the company, then, in our opinion, this effect will depend on the type of organizational transformation. We can assume that over time the impact of rapid transformation will decrease until it disappears completely as a result of organizational inertia. At the same time, in the case of long-term trans-

formation, long-term impact on the operations of the company can be very significant, because the top management of the company will pay special attention to these programs for a long period of time.

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TECHNICAL ANALYSIS OF THE SECURITIES MARKET. ITS CONCEPT, CHALLENGES AND PERFORMANCE

Urazova Natalya¹, LitvinenkoVictoriya²

¹*Kazakh-American Free University, Kazakhstan*

²*Moscow State University of Economics, Statistics and Informatics (branch), Kazakhstan*

Actuary of theme is determined by the relatively recent emergence of technical analysis as a unified theory of general philosophy, axioms and basic principles. Despite the fact that the basic tenets of the theory of technical analysis and some of its techniques were formed and developed in the early of the 20th century, combining

in a sufficiently comprehensive theory was only in the 70s. Later, in the 80s rethinking and improving the tools and principles of technical analysis applied to the changed conditions of the world's currency and stock markets continued. New techniques were created, which represented a new approach to technical analysis. Sig-

nificant prospects opened up due the constant improvement of computer systems, which make it possible to take full advantage of a solid mathematical basis of technical analysis. However, the accumulated potential of technical analysis has not yet been fully realized, and many essential aspects and methods of technical analysis are not disclosed until the end and require its further development.

Researched topic becomes even more relevant seeing the integration of the stock market of Kazakhstan into the world economy and the extension of all economic processes (both positive and negative) to Kazakhstan that take place in most countries of the world. Confirmation of this thesis were the events of the global financial crisis that began in late 2008. Kazakh investors have had undoubtedly greater access to the world's currency and stock markets, than it was possible 10 years ago. However, it seems unlikely that the ongoing operations in these markets will be successful without the using of technical analysis, as well as his newest techniques adapted to the current economic conditions and used by all well-known international financial institutions.

The title "technical analysis" sounds surprising for a relatively simple approach to stock trading. Simply put, technical analysis is a method of studying the prices, which main instrument is graphics.

The roots of modern technical analysis go to the beginning of the century, to the theory of Charles Dow. Arising out of it, directly or indirectly, it has absorbed such principles and concepts as the directional movement of prices, "prices take into account all known information", confirmation and divergence, "volume as a mirror of the price changes", and support / resistance. A widely spread Dow Jones Industrial Average Index is a direct descendant of the Dow Theory.

Contribution of Charles Dow to the modern technical analysis is truly invaluable.

His focus on learning the basics of price movements created completely new method of market analysis.

The price of a security represents an agreement. This is the price at which the one investor agrees to buy, another to sell. The value, that suits the buyer and seller, is primarily based on their expectations. If an investor expects rising of paper rate, he will buy, and if he counts on its fall, he will sell. These simple conclusions seriously complicate forecasting of prices as they are related to human expectations. Everyone, due to own experience, knows that human nature is difficult to quantify or predict. And this is enough to make any failure to any mechanical trading system [1].

Many investment decisions around the world are made based on irrelevant factors. Solutions, expectations and confidence are affected by relationships with family, neighbors and the chief, the traffic, the amount of income, past successes and failures.

The price of security is determined by fund manager and head of the family, the student, and the carpenter, the doctor and teacher, lawyer and landscape-painter, rich and poor. Such wide range of participants in the exchange inevitably creates an element of unpredictability and excitement.

If prices are based on the expectations of investors, then it is important to know not how much security should cost (fundamental analysis), and how many are willing to pay for it the rest of the investors. This does not imply that the objective value of the paper is not important to know. It is important. But usually the opinion of the overwhelming majority of market participants about future income on the stock is so unanimously and strong that the average investor cannot influence it or change it.

Technical analysis is studying of past price in order to determine the likely

direction of future development. The current trend of prices (i.e. current expectations) is compared with a comparable price movements in the past, thereby a more or less realistic forecast is achieved. Follower of "pure" technical analysis probably would explain the fact that history repeats itself. Others are restricted to the phrase: "the past is our teacher".

How does the technical analysis contribute to successful trading? Comparison with the game of roulette helps to understand this better. But we must immediately make a reservation – gamblers, in contrast to the investors, are entirely at the mercy of emotions (though, if you look at the actions of many investors, compared with gambling is the best).

Casino owners make money on the game of roulette is not because they know what number comes next. They just slightly improve their chances by adding "Zero" and "Double Zero".

Similar to those observed on the stock exchange: buying a security, the investor does not know whether the price of paper will increase. But if he buys a paper on an upward trend, after a short recession and falling interest rates, he increases a chance to make a profit. There is not a passion but calculation.

However, many investors buy the paper, without attempt to influence their chance.

Contrary to the traditional view, investor does not need to know where the price of security will move in order to win. The task is to increase the probability of the conclusion of profitable trades.

Even if the analysis is reduced only to the determination of long-term, medium-term and short-term trends, it is an advantage, which would not exist without technical analysis.

Technical analysis is almost entirely based on the analysis of price and volume. Interpretation of various fields that determine the price of securities and trading

volume is given below.

Open price is a price of the first transaction of current period (for example, the first deal of the day). Open price is especially significant in the analysis of daily data, as it reflects the unanimous opinion, to which all market participants came to the morning. As we know "tomorrow is another day".

High price is the highest price of paper of current period. This is the level at which there are more sellers than buyers (i.e. investors, who want to sell at a higher price, are always, but the maximum is the highest price at which buyers agree).

Low price is the lowest price of paper of current period. This is the level at which there are more buyers than sellers (i.e. investors, who want to buy at a lower price, are always, but the minimum is the lowest price at which sellers agree).

Close price is the last price of paper of current period. This price is more often used in the analysis, thanks to its wide information availability.

Volume is a number of shares (or contracts), which were concluded transactions for the period. The relationship between prices and volume (e.g. price increase on the background of the increasing volume) has a great analytical value.

Open interest is a total unrealized futures or options contracts (i.e. not executed, not closed or unexpired). Open interest is often used as an independent indicator [1].

Bid is the price that the market maker is willing to pay for a security (i.e. the price at which you can sell).

Ask is the price that the market maker is willing to sell a security (i.e. the price at which you can buy).

These simple terms found the hundreds of technical tools used to study price relationships, trends, models, etc.

There are three postulates which technical analysis is based on:

- 1) The market takes into account all.

2) Price movement is obeyed by trends.

3) History repeats itself.

The market takes into account all. This statement, in fact, is the cornerstone of the entire technical analysis.

Technical analysts believe that the reasons that somehow can affect the market value of the commodity futures (the reasons for this may be the most diverse properties: economic, political, psychological - any), will certainly be reflected in the price of this commodity. Therefore all that is required is careful study of price movements [1].

Any changes in the dynamics of supply and demand are affected into the price movement. If demand exceeds supply, prices rise. If supply exceeds demand, prices go down. This is, in fact, lies at the heart of any economic forecasting.

A technical analyst approaches the problem from the other end, and argues as follows: if market prices have gone up regardless of what the cause may be, therefore, demand exceeds supply. Consequently, the market is favorable for the bulls on macroeconomic indicators. If prices fall, the market is favorable for bears.

As a rule, experts in the analysis of graphs do not prefer to go into the root causes that led to the rise or fall in prices. Very often in the early stages, when the tendency to change prices has only just emerged, or, on the contrary, in some crucial moments the reasons for such changes may be no one knows.

It may seem that technical approach excessively simplifies and coarsens the problem, but the logic that stands behind the first initial postulate - "the market takes into account all" - becomes more obvious than technical analyst acquires more experience of real work in the market.

Price movement is obeyed by trends.

The concept of trend is one of the

basic technical analysis. It is necessary to understand that, in fact, everything that happens in the market, is obeyed by one or another trend.

The main purpose of scheduling dynamics of prices in the futures markets is to identify these trends at an early stage of their development and trade according to their direction. Most methods of technical analysis are trend-following in nature, that is, their function is to help the analyst to recognize the trend and follow it throughout the period of its existence.

Two consequences derive from the position that the price movement is obeyed by trends. The first consequence – the current trend, in all probability, will continue and will not reverse itself. This consequence is not nothing but a paraphrase of the first Newton's law of motion. The second consequence – the current trend develops until the reverse movement will not start.

History repeats itself. Technical analysis and studies of market dynamics are closely connected with the study of human psychology. For example, the price patterns, that have been identified and classified within the last hundred years, reflect important characteristics of the psychological state of the market. First of all, they indicate what kind of mood, bullish or bearish, currently prevail in the market. And if in the past, these models worked, there is every reason to believe that they will work in the future, because they are based on human psychology, which does not change with age. Last postulate can be formulated in a slightly different way: the key for understanding the future lies in the study of the past. And it is possible quite differently: the future is just a repetition of the past.

If technical analysis is mainly engaged in the study of the dynamics of the market, the subject of research of fundamental analysis is economic forces of supply and demand that cause price fluctua-

tions, i.e., make them go up, down or maintained at the current level. All factors are analyzed during fundamental approach, which somehow affect the price of the goods. This is done in order to determine the internal or the actual value of the goods. According to the results of fundamental analysis, this real value reflects how a particular product is actually worth. If the actual value is below the market price, then you need to sell the goods, as for people give more than it is actually worth. If the actual value is higher than the market price, then you need to buy, because the good is cheaper than it is actually worth. In this case, investors base their decisions solely on the laws of supply and demand [2].

Both of these approaches of forecasting market dynamics are trying to solve the same problem: determine in which direction prices will move. But they solve this problem in different ways. If the fundamental analyst tries to understand the reason of market movements, the technical analyst is only interested in the fact that movement. All he needs to know is that this motion or dynamics of the market takes place, and what caused it is not so important. Fundamental analyst will try to find out why it happened.

One of the strengths of technical analysis is that it can be used for almost any means of trade and in any time interval. There is no area in the operations on the stock and commodity exchange, wherever technical analysis techniques have not been applied.

When it comes to commodity markets, the technical analyst, thanks to their schedules, can monitor the situation on any number of markets, which is not for the fundamentalists. The last one usually uses that amount of data for its various projections that are simply forced to specialize in any single market or markets group: for example, cereals, on metals, etc. The advantages of multi-specialty is obvi-

ous.

First of all, there are periods of burst of activity and periods of lethargy, periods of pronounced price trends and periods of uncertainty in any market. Technical analyst can focus all attention and energy on those markets where price trends clearly traced, and all other long neglected. In other words, he makes the most of the advantages of the rotational nature of the market, but in practice this is reflected in the rotation of attention and money. In different periods of time, different markets suddenly start to "boil", their prices constitute a clear trend, and then the activity fades, the market becomes sluggish, price trends is uncertain. But flurry of activity suddenly begins at some other market at this moment.

"Extensive review" is another advantage of technical analysts. And in fact, they have a clear picture of what is happening in general in the commodity markets immediately following all markets. This allows them to avoid the kind of "tunnel vision" that may be the result of specialization in any group of markets. In addition, most futures markets are closely linked to one another, they are exposed by the same economic factors. Consequently, the dynamics of prices in one market or group of markets may be clue to where entirely different market or group of markets will go in the future.

The graph is the basis of technical analysis. And in this case, as technical analysts say, it is really better to see once than hear a hundred times (or read). Analysts use several types of graphs in the stock market [5].

KASE is the only representative of the stock market in Kazakhstan.

KASE is an active member of the Federation of Euro-Asian Stock Exchanges (FEAS). In 2011, KASE hosted the 17th General Assembly of FEAS in Almaty.

The recent history of KASE is re-

markable expansion of international activities, active implementation of corporate governance standards, work on a comprehensive risk minimization with access to a fundamentally different level of reliability of trading and settlement, so in 2012, KASE has successfully coped with the first stage of the government program "People's IPO".

Today, the Exchange is a universal financial market, which can be divided into five major sectors: the foreign exchange market, the government securities market, stock market and corporate bond market, repo transactions, derivatives market.

Exchange, that is one of the key elements of the infrastructure of financial market in Kazakhstan, seeks to meet the needs of participants in the national capital market, contribute to sustainable development of the financial system, including taking an active part in the implementation of the strategic objectives of the government in this direction [6].

Exchange should become an attractive trading platform for domestic and foreign investors and issuers, professional participants of the securities market, constantly expanding the range of services and ensuring their compliance with international standards.

Exchange must become modern infrastructural institutions of the national market of financial instruments by 2020, meeting international standards organization of trading, competitive and attractive to domestic and foreign investors, issuers, professional participants of the securities market, effective trading platform for the funding of the national economy.

The main strategic directions of development:

1) Increasing of the capitalization of the exchange market and liquidity traded on the Stock Exchange, expanding the list of services offered by the Exchange and traded financial instruments.

2) Implementation of international standards in all areas of the Stock Exchange in order to strengthen its brand, increase the value of its shares and to achieve international recognition of the Exchange.

Talking about the current situation in the stock market of Kazakhstan means, first of all, talk about problems. The first and foremost of these problems is a very low level of liquidity (the ability of assets to be sold quickly at a price close to the market price). So there are conditions for directly control the market by raising or lowering prices by a few investors. This discourages local and foreign investors.

The usual situation on the stock exchange should be: stock prices fall and people start to buy them, after all the price rises again. In case of low liquidity opposite is true - the lower the level of liquidity, the less people are taking part in the operation. This can lead to the collapse of the stock market at the most negative scenario. The government of Kazakhstan can artificially increase the liquidity through the pension fund, but it does not lead to tangible results, because such operations are restricted.

The second problem is the problem of transparency and lack of access to the company's report for previous periods. All of this information is in the public domain abroad. For example, you can go to the website of the New York Stock Exchange "nyse.org" or Yahoo Finance and see all the data. You can get access to information by paying a few thousand dollars in Kazakhstan. Of course, individual investors will not pay such kind of money, not to mention ordinary people.

The third problem is the lack of derivative financial instruments that reduce the level of risk, which is very important for investors. As a result, this has a negative effect on the level of liquidity.

The Exchange has set the following main tasks in order to implement these

strategic directions of its development.

- Expansion of the list of listed companies;
- Expansion of the investor base;
- Expansion of the list of traded instruments and increasing their liquidity;
- Improving the transparency of the exchange market;
- Increased protection of investors;
- Technological development;
- International cooperation;
- Improving corporate structure and management.

Currently, technical analysis, along with fundamental, is the most important method for analyzing exchange markets. The vast majority of players use it in Kazakhstan. One could even argue that the knowledge of at least the basics of technical analysis is a kind of a pass on the market: there is, alas, nothing to do without it there.

Technical analysis, being one of the methods of forecasting price movements of the exchange markets, has many shortcomings that call into question its usefulness.

Fans of technical analysis explained this as follows: "Technical analysis requires highly skilled analyst. Very good result can be achieved due to proper use of it. Therefore, we cannot talk about the problems in the technical analysis. The problem is in its proper use" [8].

The root of the problem is not this case, but the technical analysis as a method of analysis and forecast market price dynamics has organic defects that occur in its basic postulates and generally in most of its ideology.

The root of all errors is a desire of the technical analysts to analyze not market, but schedule.

Quite dissimilar markets are analyzed by the same indicators: stock market and bond market, currency and commodity

markets. In some cases, this approach is justified: "double bottom" is "double bottom". But there is not in many cases. The result is an error.

It is necessary to develop a theory that would describe markets (stock, commodity, foreign exchange) as they are, with all their specific features that cannot be reduced to a purely natural, purely financial or purely psychological law. It must be admitted, any organized (exchange) market is a complex system that exists and develops according to its own laws.

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SINEGORSKAYA FIR GROVE - THE UNIQUE NATURAL MONUMENT OF EAST KAZAKHSTAN

Ussikov Victor

Kazakh American Free University, Kazakhstan

Sinegorskaya fir grove occupies a special place among the monuments of nature in East Kazakhstan. Only it has the republican status. But it there is no detailed its detailed characteristics in literature yet. The research that we conducted in 1982-2013 allows to fill this gap.

Isolated relict fir forest grove, located outside the main range of Siberian fir (*Abies sibirica*), was taken under state protection in 1968. In 1986, in accordance with our recommendations it was assigned the status of a public monument of national importance. The reserve covers an area of 137 hectares and is located in Ulan district of East Kazakhstan Region on the territory of forestry Sinegorskiy Asubulak state forestry agency (forest block 278).

The nature monument is organized in the north-eastern part of the granite massif Kok-Tau (Kalba Altai or Kalba) on the northern slope of Mount Medvedka. The letter stretches from south-east to north-west and it is the watershed between the left tributaries of the Urunhay and right tributaries of the Sibinka. The central shallows, which is broad and deeply embedded, separates two south-eastern peaks with an altitude of 1417.1 and 1414.1 meters from below hypsometrically located north-west one (1398.9 m). Relative excess over the river valleys reach 700-800 metres.

Mount Medvedka is well moistened. Annual rainfall (800-1000 mm) is twice-2.5 times higher than in the surrounding areas. [1] July daytime temperatures reach +23 ...+25°C. The winters are severe. It is indicated by freezing fir tops. A flag-like limb of firs occurring in the watershed and in the lower slopes indicate strong westerly and south-westerly winds. The snow-pack is unevenly spread. It is almost ab-

sent in open rocky areas. On turf-covered surfaces of the watershed its power does not exceed 20 cm. At the foot of the slopes and at the bottom of the shallows the layer of snow can reach 2-3 m. In the spring snow lies until mid-May. On the steep northwestern slopes avalanches take place frequently.

Fractured groundwater on flat areas of the upper part of the slope forms wetlands. Below and at the foot of the mountain they poured in the form of three sources, which hydraulic discharge is 0.2-0.5 l/s, and the water temperature is 4.7°C.

Soil cover is noted for contrast and mosaic structure. Under woody vegetation mountain-forest dark gray weakly podzolized soils dominate. Under scrubs of different kinds and steppe phytocoenoses mountain-steppe xeromorphic leached soils dominate. At the foot of the watershed a small piece of mountain meadow subalpine sod soils, formed under meadow communities with significant participation subalpine elements, preserves.

Woody vegetation covers 38% of the reserve. It is timed to ravines, slopes of different exposures and foot granite outcrops. Trees can be found in the entire altitude range, forming a formation of Siberian fir (*Abies sibirica*), aspen (*Populus tremula*) and European birch (*Betula pendula*). Bushes as independent coenosis cover 37% of the natural monument and grow everywhere. At the bottom of the slopes and hollows along the rocky outcrops they have the character of impassable thickets. Wider than other common tree formation of pea tree (*Caragana arborescens*), pea shrub (*Caragana frutex*), ipecac (*Spiraea hypericifolia*), meadow-sweet (*S. chamaedrifolia*) and prickly hips (*Rosa spinosissima*). These plants often

form polydominant community of different kinds (*Caragana arborescens* + *Rosa spinosissima* + *Spiraea chamaedryfolia*). At the upper boundary of the reserve juniper *Juniperus sibirica* (solntsepechnye slopes) and *J. sibirica* (northern slope) develop. Along the borders of the monument there are fragmentary steppe cenoses containing relics of the Pleistocene (*Allium rubens*, *A. altaicum*, *Tulipa uniflora*, *T. altaica*, *Veronica pinnata*, *Paeonia hybrida*, *Rheum altaicum*) and forb-grass meadow steppes. Forest clearing and edge busy meadow vegetation formed tall (1.5-2 m), Altai type (*dudnikovaya*, *borschevnikovaya* and grass-forb associations), as well as formations cuff Siberian (*Alchemilla sibirica*) and Russian iris (*Iris ruthenica*). In the water-divide part of the northern slope the meadows acquire subalpine look through participation of alpines *Aster alpinus*, *Polygonum alpinum*, *P. bistorta*, *Trollius altaicus*, *Pedicularis elata*, *Iris ruthenica* and *Dianthus superbus*.

Unique community settles on the rocks, stony and rocky slopes, macrofragmental placers. They are based on 10-12 species of shrubs (*Juniperus sibirica*, *J. sibirica*, *Spiraea trilobata*, *S. hypericifolia*, *Rosa spinosissima* and others) and about 40 species of herbaceous plants (*Allium nutans*, *A. rubens*, *Sedum hybridum*, *S. eversii*, *Adenophora lilifolia*, *Carex supina*, *Fritillaria verticillata*, *Orostachys spinosa*, *Dianthus versicolor* and others).

The main object of protection of the reserve is cenopopulation of Siberian fir of Koktaus massif. At the moment it is practically the only in Kalba Altai (two small groups of trees grow on the watershed between the Chalobaybulak and the Butebulak and in the upper reaches of the Aktasty in 13 km and 32 km to south-east of Mount Medvedka respectively) and is located on the southwestern edge of its dispersal in Kazakhstan, outside its main area of species. The border of the latter passes 45 km to the northeast.

On Mount Medvedka fir grows at altitudes of 800-1400 m. The lower boundary of its distribution in Kalba 300-400 m higher than in the Western Altai. The high-altitude range of the lowest-growing trees indicates that this boundary for the observable time has risen by more than 100 m. This indicates cruelty of environmental conditions in which the Medvedka cenopopulation exists. They cause the emergence of the fur specific features of morphological and reproductive character. These should include, above all, the formation of atypical tree limb form, multi-bodies of trees, icing up of treetops, vegetative growth which fir trees do not have in Western Altai.

Fir forest covers 25 hectares and is confined to the sloping and moderately steep (20-25°) slopes of the north-west, north-east and particularly the northern exposures (75% of the total fir trees). The fir forms pure and mixed with birch and aspen (up to 10-40% of the total number of trees) forest crop of IV-V age classes (average age 88 years) with cover density of 0.3-0.9 (average 0.58) and height of 8-17 meters.

Single fir trees and small groups (2-5 trees) first appear at the height of 800 meters. The largest ones reach 10-12 m in height. Their predominantly pyramidal crowns, at the lower end are one-sided and curved. A "skirted" form is often found. The middle part of such trees is bare. Only lower branches remain, they outspread on the ground as a "skirt" with a diameter of 2-3 meters. On a contact with the soil they take root easily, forming peculiar clonal groups. Seeds are not formed, the natural seed regeneration is absent. A common phenomenon is drying of the tree tops and multi-stem. Treed slope are covered with *Betula pendula* and *Populus tremula*. In the middle part of the slope the crown density of firs increases to 0.5. Shrubby undergrowth of firs is well developed and presented by *Spiraea chamaedryfolia*,

Caragana arborescens, Rosa spinosissima, Sorbus sibirica. Of herbaceous plants Saussurea latifolia, Paeonie anomala and Trollius altaica dominate. They are accompanied by Anthriscus sylvestris, Lamium album, Atragea sibirica, Festuca gigantea, Geranium albiflorum, Polygonum alpinum, Peucedanum ruthenicum, Primula macrocalyx, Lathyrus vernus, Adenophora lilifolium, Orobus luteus, Aconitum septentrionale, Bupleurum longifolium, Viola disyncta, Crepis sibirica, Iris ruthenica, Thalictrum collinum, Lilium martagon, Carex marcourea, Artemisia sericea and other plants dominate of herbaceous plants.

At the upper boundary of the forest (1330-1400 meters) the fir forms large separated forest stands. The fir often settles on rocks. It is characterized, as in the previous section, twisted trees and multi-bodies of trees. The treetops often freeze around, and the lower branches are "crawling" down the hill, and they take roots and vertically extending tree stems are formed on them. Such forms - "prostrate" and "multi-stem-outspread" are noticed also among non-injured species. Bearing and renewal by seed are absent. The treetops are often one-sided, flag-shaped. Branches are from the north-eastern side, which indicates the presence of strong southwesterly winds. In the fir woods the moss carpet intensively develop. The species composition of herbaceous plants is poor. It is presented by kseropetrofits Allium nutans, A. rubens, Sedum hybridum, S. eversii, Orostachys spinosa, Carex supina, C. turkistanica, Fritillaria verticillata, Dianthus versicolor and some other plants. Of the shrubs on the periphery of the clumps common Juniperus sibirica and Spiraea trilobata.

In the eastern part of the massif (1130 - 1330 m) there are more firs, but they are strictly confined to the south-west foot of the granite ridge running parallel to the slope from the top to the bottom. The

condition of the plants is satisfactory. Frost-crack in the trees and multi body character is absent.

Treetops are lush, of correct pyramidal form. Individual specimens reach 15-17 meters in height and 30-35 cm in diameter. Natural revegetation is predominantly vegetative. On a 100 m long transect there are from 7 to 15 seedlings of different ages and from 40 to 80 vegetative shoots peeled. Of other tree species sporadically Betula pendula occurs. Shrub layer is very sparse and is formed by Spiraea trilobata, Ribus atropurpurea, Sorbus sibirica, Lonicera altaica.

Grassy cover is intensively developed. In its structure mesophilic herbs prevail such as Saussurea latifolia, Festuca gigantea, Alfredia cernua, Dactylis glomerata, Milleum effusum, Stachys sylvaticus, Trollius altaicus, Cortusa altaica, Heracleum dissectum, H. sibiricum, Archangelica decurrens, Polygonum alpinum, Aconitum septentrionale, Paeonia anomala, Geranium albiflorum, Lilium martagon, Crepis sibirica, Bupleurum longifolium. The common brackens are Driopteris filix-mas and Athyrium filix femina.

On the western slope (1100-1300 m) the treetops are of correct form without anomalies. Fir lost the ability for vegetative reproduction. Renewal by seed is the most intense throughout coenopopulations. The number of seedlings of different ages on registration plots (10 × 10 m) varies from 15 to 40 copies. Plantings are dense, crown cover is 0.7-0.8. Separated forest stands are not infrequently interleaved with clearings in the wood. Along the perimeter of forest stands in cenoses forest grasses of Saussurea latifolia, Trollius altaica, Orobus luteus and Lilium martagon dominate.

Foresters point to one type of Sinegorskiy grove of fir forests - herb-widely fir forest [2]. In fact, depending on the altitude position, climate, exposure conditions

and the substrate 4 Associations of fir are distinguished clearly.

Fir association (ass. *Abies sibirica*) is represented in large dense clumps in the middle part of the forestland. Trees density reaches 0.7-0.9. Shrubby undergrowth, grass and moss cover are absent. The soil is covered with a dense and continuous thick layer of fallen fir-needle.

Sedge grass-stonecrop-fir association (ass. *Abies sibirica* + *Carex supina* + *Sedum hybridum*) is typical for stony rocky habitat on the edges of the grove. Stand of trees is thin, shrub layer is poorly formed. Projective cover of herbaceous plants is 10-20% (total 52 species).

The following two types of fir forests occupy the middle part of the slope. In pea tree-spiraea-fir association (ass. *Abies sibirica* + *Spiraea chamaedryfolia* + *Caragana arborescens*) stands are rare, but firs grow in groups (2-5 copies). The undergrowth is rich and varied. Grassy cover is well defined. It is composed of 78 species of plants. Relics of nemoral complex which are characteristic of black boreal forest are absent.

Herb-miscellaneous forbs-fir association (ass. *Abies sibirica* + *Dacrylis glomerata* + herbs) is characterized by alternating clumps of fir and meadow clearings. Shrubby undergrowth is rare and poor in composition. Grassy cover is thick and multi-tiered. There is some depletion of the total species composition (about 130 species) and the association of the complex deciduous forests relicts of Pliocene. Of the 17 species nemoral relicts fir forests of Western Altai [3] in Kalba population only 6 - *Dryopteris filix-mas*, *Stachys sylvatica*, *Festuca gigantea*, *F. sylvatica*, *Brachypodium silvaticum* and *Alfredia cernua* can be found. These include, in addition, ferns *Athyrium filix femina*, *Gymnocarpium dryopteris* and herbaceous flowering plants - *Oxalis acetosella*, *Carex arnellii* and *Milleum effusum*.

Another very interesting plant of Si-

negorskiy groves is bilberry (*Vaccinium myrtillus*). Besides Medvedka this typical boreal stenotopic species occurs in two places of Kalba Altai - near Sibinskie Lakes (Kyzylkayyn area) and near Lake Shybyndykol (Mamyrtaldybulak area).

On Mount Medvedka (800 m) association of blueberry preserved near the upper boundary of firs (1330-1340 m) on the lawn of the subalpine type. On its edges young aspen and birch trees isolated goat willow (*Salix caprea*) and Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris*), and Siberian juniper grow. Projective cover of blueberry in the community is 50%. It is accompanied by *Carex melananthiformis*, *Polygonum alpinum*, *Veratrum lobelianum*, *Rubus saxatilis*, *Saussurea latifolia*, *Dianthus versicolor*, *Solidago virgaurea*, *Fragaria vesca*, *Alchimilla sibirica*, *Brachypodium silvaticum*. Cenopopulation is in a satisfactory condition and it is characterized by small berries (3.5-4.5 mm in diameter), weak and irregular data fruiting.

Sinegorskaya fir grove as a natural monument has great scientific and cultural significance. It is known for its unique flora and vegetation. It is a kind of unique geobotanical unique, clearly remarkable in the system of botanical-geographical zoning of Kalba uplands. It is characterized by a very high species richness of flora. On an area less than 1.5 km² o 400 species of vascular plants and spore (35% of the flora Kalba) are concentrated.

About 40 species are classified as rare or endangered, and 7 of them are listed in the Red Book of Kazakhstan. Three species - Siberian adder's-tongue (*Erythronium sibiricum*), Altaian rhubarb (*Rheum altaicum*) and Altaian gymnospermium (*Gymnospermium altaicum*) - grow on the nature monument. 4 more species - Altaian daphne (*Daphne altaica*), Ledeburovsky almonds (*Amygdalus ledebouriana*), Ludwig iris (*Iris ludwigii*) and steppe peony (*Paeonia hybrida*) - are found in the north- eastern foot of Mount

Medvedka.

In the grove and its immediate surroundings a large group of relicts belonging to different complexes are revealed. So, *Dryopteris filix-mas*, *Stachys sylvatica*, *Festuca gigantea*, *F. sylvatica*, *Alfredia cernua*, *Athyrium filix femina*, *Gymnocarpium dryopteris*, *Oxalis acetosella*, *Carex arnellii* and *Milleum effusum* inhabited Pliocene deciduous forests. Tertiary relicts of forest and bushland formations are also Altaian daphne, almonds Ledeburovsky and common pine - the main forest-forming species of Kalba. Complex of glacial relicts are *Abies sibirica*, *Allium altaicum*, *Tulipa uniflora*, *T. altaica*, *Paeonia hybrida*, *Rheum altaicum* and *Iris ludwigii*. The firs composed Pleistocene dark conifer fir-pine and probably mixed forests and other types composed herbal and shrub steppe.

Most likely, during glacial periods Medvedsky massif was part of a refugium, where tertiary relicts experienced repeated climatic cooling. During interglacial times their settlement on the territory of the region took place from this refugium.

In the past, the fir formation of Eastern Kalba was more widespread and was associated with fir forests of Western Al-

tai. However, in the Holocene, resulting in arid climate, the area of distribution of fir tree species declined rapidly and probably 8-10 thousand years ago reached a state close to the modern one. Currently, reduction of area of Sinegorskaya coenopopulation of fir trees causes mainly strong competition from shrub vegetation formation.

Natural monument, due to unique beauty has great aesthetic value. In addition, it is valuable for recreation, primarily as an object of ecological tourism.

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REDUCTIONISM IN MODERN PHILOSOPHY AS A PROBLEM

Gusseva Nina

*The "Kazakhstan Philosophy Congress" Association of Philosophers,
D. Serikbayev East-Kazakhstan State Technical University, Kazakhstan*

The interest in the vision of the prospects for the development of philosophy is not at all random. It focuses, first, on ensuring development of *Weltanschauung* which is not situational and, second, on the proof of the capability of the intellect to detect the logic of processes that occur in real life, thus, being the subject of philosophical reflection. Third, it is aimed at enhancement of modeling the upcoming future and an opportunity to timely correct it.

In this respect, development of modern philosophy should be considered not only on the basis of the analysis of the reality under study but on the thorough study of the approaches and methods either used or to be used in this analysis.

Prospects for the development of philosophy are determined by the available development of thought which is represented by already existing philosophical concepts. They project different forms of world perception on *Weltanschauung* of modern people. Interrelation of world perception with existing types of *Weltanschauung* is significant as it expresses a particular aspect of recognition or denial of the identity of being and thinking. Any philosophical concepts express the attitude of the person (or the humanity) to the world. This issue can be considered in different ways.

Philosophical understanding of the world at different times reflected different types of established attitudes toward the world. Thus, philosophy of ancient Greece

was based on the cosmocentric concept that best expressed particular attitudes toward the world of the ancient Greeks. Various interpretations of the first entities focused on the world as a whole - cosmos that determined the existence of policies and each individual, as a microcosm.

Medieval philosophy expressed theocentric attitude toward the world as the basis for its understanding. This reflected beginning of the specialized cognition of the spiritual aspect of human existence. The concept of the spiritual Absolute – God, predetermining any possible acceptable and unacceptable existence, structurally defined ideological and philosophical postulates.

In modern times, the main structural postulate was focus on notions of power tools, which were used by man in his relation to the world. The development of mechanisms, that altered the level of abilities of the human being in his relation to the world, became the main issue of the philosophy of that period, i.e. considering the processes of cognition and its methods, which could improve the results and thereby increase potential in the relation of the human being to the world.

Enlightenment emphasized the role of knowledge which became the absolute and was then considered responsible for everything that needed correction in the life of the society and the individual, thus, leading it to perfection.

In the philosophy of the Modern time and the Enlightenment the "person - world" relation was mainly understood without isolating the qualitative difference between the person as an individual and the person as a social being. It took place even when the person was defined as a social being. The "person - world" rela-

The text was the First Kazakhstan Philosophy Congress Plenary report. See: *Философия в современном мире: стратегии развития. Materials of the first Kazakhstan Philosophy - Almaty, 2013, pp. 56-64.*

tionship was seen as a model of an individual human approach to the world which in this form is common to all other human beings. The person-oriented understanding of the "person-world" relationship was to a great extent abstract. The *Weltanschauung* based on such understanding was to be abstract as well. The abstract character in this aspect was primarily in considering personal qualities as attributes of a person. They originally were considered to be attributive, so were the major issues of cognition and knowledge. Cognition was identified as a process based on the physical abilities of an individual including his feelings and intellectual abilities.

Knowledge was considered to be not only a tool (as the condition and means of achieving the desirable), but also got some axiological features. In this context axiological problems also acquired the necessary features of "instrumentality". During this period some features of reductionism became apparent. These features have retained their value and circulation in the modern period as well.

In modern time an attempt to overcome the person-oriented understanding of the "person - world" relationship was made in the concepts of such philosophers as B. Spinoza and G. Leibniz. Their concepts returned the philosophical thought to the need of considering the "person - world" relationship in a broad context, with studying both the human being and cognitive problems with all the consequences.

Thus, the idea of understanding nature as a cause of itself made it necessary to understand the place and status of the person and his abilities. This, in its turn, led to understanding that interpretation of the person and all his attributes and capabilities cannot be reduced to his material form (body) as the basis. G. Leibniz's idea of the interrelation of monads and pre-established harmony also focuses on going

beyond the physical body of the human being when considering his essence and attributes.

The images of Nature and Pre-established harmony made the philosophical understanding of the "person - world" relationship irreducible to the status of the person as an individual. This opened up new horizon of understanding of the world, a new horizon of person's philosophical comprehension of the world and himself.

German classical philosophy completely overcame the reduction of understanding the human being only as a set of physical characteristics. Kant, Hegel and Feuerbach specified the type of connection of the transcendental and individual in the "person-world" relationship. Philosophical thinking acquired a new "vector". Since that period philosophical thought has been focused on understanding the integrity of the existing world in which development both the individual and the society is possible and is carried out as the unfolding of the parameters of its *unity* and *integrity*.

In the philosophy of Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels the thesis of the unity and integrity of the existing world was developed on the basis of the dialectical materialist methodology. In particular, Marx, developing the doctrine of the social and economic structure, characterized the "person - world" relationship, referring to the activity concept of development of the individual and the society.

We are talking about laws of the development of the society as an integrated social system which is characterized by processes generating contradictions, causing their growth and solution. Concretization of the principle of the material unity of the world in the further development of philosophy provided for understanding of the laws in the development of nature as well. This point was brilliantly characterized by Engels in his famous work "The Dialectics of Nature". This dialectics ma-

terialistic philosophy is still evolving.

At the same time, in the middle of the nineteenth century such trends in philosophy which did not focus on understanding the integrity of the world, the recognition of its unity and of its inherent laws appeared and got several modifications. Rejection of the positive experience of the classical philosophy was explained by the desire to upgrade and “open new horizons” in the development of philosophy. The orientation toward update is very diverse. It ranges from, on the one hand, a complete denial to recognize the need for philosophy as such, with its gradual reduction to an identity with a set of empirical procedures, to, on the other hand, focus on the reduction of philosophical studies to the characteristics of the mental states of the individual, which are, in fact, the sphere of his personal experience.

In modern philosophy there are trends, schools, directions, etc., whose research has specific characteristics that define their basic approaches to reality as well as characteristics that define the image of the reality itself which they, comprehending, model and modeling, comprehend. These specific characteristics, defining the entire course of philosophical research and its conclusions, include reduction techniques used in the comprehension mechanism. Today, it makes sense to talk about the phenomenon of reductionism as some global problem of modern philosophy¹.

¹ See: Делез Ж., Гваттари Ф. Что такое философия? – St. Petersburg, 1998. – pp. 40-47; Sartre J. - P. Critiquedelaraison Dialectique. – Gallimard., 1985; Гуревич П.С. Экзистенциализм Бубера. Квинтэссенция. – 1992. р. 371; Поппер К. Предположения и опровержения. Рост научного знания. М.: Ермак, 2004. –С. 104-112, ch.12, etc.; Гадамер Х.-Г. Истина и метод: основы философской герменевтики. - М., 1988; Гроф С., Ласло Э., Рассел П. Революция сознания: трансатлантический диалог. - М., 2004; Философия

The global crisis has demonstrated disintegration of all the things that before it were perceived as integral, orderly and logical. This cannot but lead to the conclusion that in the world there are no forces that enhance its unity and integrity. The "person- world" relationship in this context is perceived as farfetched, devoid of real relevance. Human being is not only the subject of history, but also the subject of his own life. The image of the world becomes not integral but eclectic.

Modern Western philosophy, for defining real prospects for its further development and overcoming problems requires clarification of its basics. Admission that modern Western philosophy needs to define its basics is already a step taken against its obsession with eclecticism.

However, a great number of reductions are characteristic of the domination of the eclectic in judgment as the eclectic approach does not solve the problem of achieving understanding of the connection between related phenomena or objects. For it, it is sufficient if there is an indication of the presence of heterogeneous, regardless of the presence or absence of links between them.

At the same time eclectic descriptions cannot avoid the designation of certain interfaces between those phenomena or objects that appeared to be in proximity.

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It is the attempts to explain connections, not laws that cause a great number of reduction variants. In this situation universalization of reduction takes place. In this case reduction is a technique the status of which is transferred (sublimated) from the position of a private method to the universal method of thinking.

The most typical manifestations of reductions are:

- The philosophical level of cognition becomes identical to the psychological one;
- Integrity is substituted by a sum;
- Connections are substituted by contacts and interrelations;
- Purely cultural phenomena are substituted by those of civilization;
- Activity is substituted by a system of actions;
- The philosophical is substituted by the empirical;
- Rational is substituted by the irrational;
- The universal is substituted by the common;
- Objective characteristics of the reality are substituted by their random sets;
- Cognition of objectively existing phenomena is substituted by the denial of such an opportunity;
- Consideration of people's real motives that shape their attitudes are substituted by studying declaration aimed at concealing real motives;
- Consideration of the world as a unity is substituted by treating the world as chaos (chaosmos);
- Treating methodology as a sphere of universal philosophical knowledge, implemented in special scientific research is replaced by the idea that methodology is a method of broad spectrum of application;
- The notion "to be" is substituted by the notion "to have";
- The social "space-temporal" is substituted by the mechanical, physical,

biological, etc.;

- Connections of objective structures of reality are substituted by structures of consciousness;
- Weltanschauung is substituted by perception of the world;
- Consideration of the essence is substituted by consideration of causes;
- Consideration of the essence is substituted by consideration of meaning;
- Consideration of the entity is substituted by consideration of statements;
- Consideration of the basic is substituted by consideration of superficial;
- Consideration of the higher is substituted by consideration of the lower;
- Consideration of the basis is substituted by consideration of its attributes at best;
- The reasonable is substituted by the rational;
- The dynamic is replaced by the static;
- Integral is substituted by a sum of its parts;
- The philosophical level of thinking is substituted by the empirical or theoretical ones;
- The essential is substituted by the situational;
- Weltanschauung and reality do not coincide but they are treated as identical;
- Necessary objective knowledge is substituted by subjective experience;
- The "reality" structure is substituted by that of the "world outlook";
- The adjustability to the world replaces developing, transformational attitude;
- Lack of adequate understanding of reality is substituted by speculations "about...";
- The image of the exact reality (here and now) replaces understanding reality as a process with logics of its own that can only be comprehended using with the holistic approach;
- Understanding that reality has its

own internal structure is substituted by the denial of this statement;

- The philosophical understanding of reality is replaced by the situational one;

- The holistic approach is replaced by the systemic one, etc.

Of the entire range of frequent reductions we can illustrate, for example, the meaning of reductions arising when considering reality basis which philosophy is to reflect. Reduction in this sense lies in interpreting real bases not as the links of the really existing, but rather to recognize that only some objects and events are considered to really exist. In this example reduction is based on identification of a meaning manifestation form with the meaning itself.

Spheres and issues where reductions have taken place can be considered a large-scale "map", a "guidebook" to the fundamental problems of human existence, science, art and philosophy. Consideration and "demythologizing" harmful reductions, distorting philosophical thought and human knowledge, is an already identified "way" in which we may expect the development of philosophy.

Without identifying reductions present in one form or another in philosophical thinking, it is impossible to adequately understand the essence of problems people, science and the society are facing, since any reduction always distorts basic meanings. Even a cursory glance at the

current situation in philosophy indicates the presence of a great number of reduction variants in a wide range of philosophical trends, from positivism to structuralism and postmodernist concepts.

Identification of reductions is a way of philosophy self-purification, a way of self-adjustment to the possibility to align the image of the world, created by philosophy, with the world itself, and the philosophical image of a human being with a real person. The solution to this problem applies both to the roots and the prospects for philosophy development. [See: 1; 2].

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WHY DOES THE UNIVERSE NEED MIND?

Mareyev Sergey

Modern Academy for Humanities, Moscow, Russia

"Cosmology of mind" is an attempt to outline the objective role of thinking matter in the system of world interaction (philosophical-poetic phantasmagoria, based on the principles of dialectical materialism)" [1]. The title is typical of

Ilyenkov's self-irony, which does not mean that it was just a mystification. Actually, it was a result of meditations concerning an important problem: if and why the Universe is in need of mind. Every genuine philosopher frames the question

in a certain way; if he or she fails to ask this question, this is evidence of the deficiency of his or her philosophy.

Ilyenkov's statement was inspired by some considerations in the late writings of Engels concerning the so-called "main forms of motion" as attributes of matter. In Engels' classification of the forms of motion, the highest and the most complicated form is the social form or, in other words, the mind. Engels was convinced that matter does not develop beyond this form. At least in the space to human perception there is no form more complex than mind.

According to Engels, this highest form of matter's motion continues the line of development that runs from mechanical physical, chemical, and biological forms. Each occupies its particular place in the world interaction. No higher form can exist without the lower, e.g. the physical form is impossible without the mechanical, the chemical without the physical, the biological without the chemical, and without biology human beings, possessing our social organization and mind, could not exist. Each of these forms, as we see, performs its purpose. However, in this line of thinking, the highest form is as it were "suspended" since it is just the consequence and the aim of the preceding forms. But what is the aim of mind? What is its purpose?

If there exists no higher form for which we should be a necessary condition as a "building block," then the only solution is to join "the end" to "the beginning," and then the aim of the mind appears to be to maintain the entire line, thus consolidating the whole system of interaction in the world. This is what Ilyenkov claimed in his "Cosmology of mind." He thought that by understanding the mind's role, the mind becomes a necessary and not an accidental phenomenon in the Universe.

Ilyenkov proceeded from the idea that something can have its purpose within

some whole or system only. Correspondingly, the life of a human being has sense only so long as he or she is striving for something. Schopenhauer was right to think that the Universe is meaningless if it is but a congestion of mechanical bodies. However, if the Universe is not a mechanical aggregation only, then each main form of its being must have its purpose, an aim.

Why the Universe needs mind and why in turn it needs life – these two problems are similar in some ways. After all, living matter must have a purpose. First of all, it cannot be simply that without life there is no thought, but that life must repay a "debt" to those forms which generated it – to the chemical and physical ones. Herein lies the crux of the matter where the question of life connects to the concept of the Universe's "Thermal Death." Life is the sole form of matter preceding the social form which possesses anti-entropic properties, since living organisms are capable of accumulating the wasted energy of solar radiation and converting it to the active form of their own functioning. Animals provide the best example. They lead an active life, but the energy of their activity is, in the long run, the radiant energy of the Sun.

Concerning the essence of life, Soviet science mostly adhered to Engels's definition: life is the mode of being of protein bodies. But there still remains a crucial question: for what purpose did life originate? This teleological statement of the question was provoked by the entire cosmological tradition of the 20th century, first introduced by Vernadsky's idea of "noosphere" [2] and by the space biology of Chizhevsky – a disciple and follower of Tsiolkovsky. Nikolay Fedorov's fantasies belong to this tradition as well. This strange Russian philosopher of the 19th century dreamed of reviving "decayed worlds" (*zagnivaiushchie miry*). Fedorov treated life not only as an earthly phe-

nomenon, but also as a cosmic one. So what does life mean in view of endless Space?

Thanks to Ilya Prigogine's research it has been discovered that different physico-chemical structures are capable of self-regulation. However, only life can absorb radiant energy, accumulate and transform it into an active form. Thus only life demonstrates the circular, and not linear, character of world interaction. Only life "turns round" the process of degradation from the highest to the lowest, bringing it back again to the higher and more complex forms of matters' organization.

In the "Cosmology of mind" Ilyenkov wrote: The circular character of infinity corresponds only to the dialectical world-view. The alternative to this understanding could only be a notion that included the idea of the "beginning" and the "end" of world development, "the first push," "the state that is equal to itself," and so forth [3]. In the most general form this idea of circularity can be found in Heraclitus, who considered the world to be a fire that periodically flared up and died out. But that was not much more than a metaphor. How this process takes place, concretely, is unclear. Even Engels had no idea, although he not only posed question, but also had certain scientific prerequisites in mind for its solution. The entire question focuses on the point, how and where the beginning and the end of the Big Cycle are joined.

In a certain sense life has already closed the circle. However, there is every reason to consider life as a cosmic phenomenon; life is not capable, evidently, to withstand the force of world entropy because life can transfer just as much energy as it has received into active forms. Neither the Earth, even were it completely covered with vegetation, which is able to absorb and accumulate energy, nor billions of other planets could have been able to absorb all the energy; an enormous part of

radiant energy is dissipated irretrievably in cosmic space. Sooner or later life on Earth, which owes its existence to the energy and heat of the Sun, must fade away...

The point is that organic life is not the highest form of the development of world matter. Its highest form is the mind. According to Ilyenkov, at this level, the closure of the Big Circle occurs. The hypothesis Ilyenkov tries to substantiate in his "Cosmology of mind" is that not only organic life, but the mind as well has a cosmic purpose, which must be realized sooner or later. Ilyenkov proceeds from the belief that matter does not exist without the thinking mind, just as there is no thinking without matter.

The idea that the human mind is the apex of development is present in the history of thought no less than the idea of human being as the "peak of creation" in the conception of man as a microcosm. The ideas centering on the existence of a reality higher to human being have always been of a religious nature. However, as Feuerbach showed, if a religion is but the doubling of the human world, then it follows that any world of an order higher than the human one is a fantastic world.

Ilyenkov concluded that matter must not only have an "upper" boundary, but a "lower" one, too. This was discovered in the natural sciences long ago as the state of the simplest mechanical properties. A form of matter's motion simpler than mechanical motion has not been found yet. It is impossible to imagine such a form, because outside mechanics, as the lowest threshold, interaction of any kind ceases to exist. Therefore, even if there is something "there," it is beyond discovery. After all, any disclosure is the result of our interaction with something that we find, discover, and cognize. In other words here science stops and mysticism begins.

However, the lower boundary is discovered not as something beyond which

we are unable to move. It is discovered as the nonlinear characteristic of movement. In other words, there is neither absolute regress of matter nor absolute progress. As soon as we pass the “lower” limit and start to split the simplest unit of matter with only mechanical properties, new, more complicated properties are discovered – for instance quanta and waves. The so called “microworld” turns out to be something akin to the macroworld. Modern physics arrives at something that the greatest natural philosophers of the past were not able to hit upon: reality turns out to be more interesting and fanciful than the most subtle fantasies.

The sameness of the microworld and the macroworld becomes apparent not only at the level of physical properties. Quite comparable energetic potentials are also revealed: the energy of one atom’s substance is comparable to the energy that is contained in any macrosystem. As for the specific features of vital human activity, they differ essentially from animals’ activity by their energetic potential. An animal basically uses the energy of its own organic body in its life activity, whilst people, in their labour activity, use tools. Therefore a human being exploits the objects of nature as the conductors of his own impact on other objects of nature, while he applies matter and the energy of nature with the same purpose. The energetic potential of human technology by far surpasses the potential of the organic body, not to mention the obvious exponential growth of the former. So there is a boundary “above” and a boundary “below.” These are the two prerequisites on which Ilyenkov founds his hypothesis.

“The third philosophical-theoretical prerequisite of the hypothesis, – Ilyenkov continues – is the indisputable statement that “everything that exists is worthy of destruction,” that any “finite” form of existence has its beginning and its end. This statement is applicable to both the present

solar-planet system and mankind that dwells upon it” [4].

Nowadays it is unlikely that someone would disagree with this assumption. Still, the question is, how will the mind perish in our solar system? Should it die and leave nothing behind then the mind remains a purely accidental fact in the history of the universe.

“Thinking turns into an absolutely futile episode which might just as well not have happened at all without any detriment to everything else,” writes Ilyenkov. In this case thought would not be an “attribute,” but “something like a mold on the planet as it cools, or like a senile disease of matter and not the true flourishing of the universe, not the highest product of world’s development” [5].

This problem relates not only to the purposes of the human being and the mind. It is also connected to the law of the conservation of energy, which holds only on the condition that there is a transition from one qualitative form of the motion of matter to another. So far science does not know, how the dissipated energy will return to the initial state of incandescent gas, or proceed from the state of “caloric death” to the plasmic state from which Nature can start the new Big Cycle of its development.

It is here that Ilyenkov advanced his hypothesis which in its magnitude surpasses the conceptions of the greatest natural philosophers of the past as well as all phantasizing moralists. He linked the problem of the purpose of human being and the problem of “heat death” into one and the same essential problem that can be solved only in one single manner. Why not assume, Ilyenkov writes, that “thinking is exactly that qualitatively highest form in which the accumulation and fruitful utilization of the energy, radiated by suns, is realised?” [6].

Organic life “resists” the growth of entropy. According to one felicitous com-

parison, life is like a sailor who climbs the mast of a ship that is sinking. The mast is finite, so the “sailor,” i.e. life, will die sooner or later and change into an inorganic dreg, into a mineral. If life, at the cost of its death, will not change to any higher form, then its existence is completely senseless. Thus the sense of life is to give birth to a rational being – that very human being which lives by way of the death of animals and plants.

The human mind alone is able not only to “oppose” the growth of entropy, but to return, at the expense of its life, ever more tepid matter to its initial fiery state. How is this to happen? Ilyenkov writes:

“In reality it can be conceived as follows: at some very high point of their development thinking beings, doing their cosmological duty and sacrificing themselves, consciously produce the world catastrophe causing the process to reverse into the “caloric death” of cosmic matter, thus initiating the process that leads to the revival of dying worlds in the form of a cosmic cloud of incandescent gas and steam” [7].

The world catastrophe caused by the mind might be similar to a nuclear explosion, the “mechanism” of which is based on a so called “chain reaction.” From the mere physical point of view there is nothing implausible about this scenario. The general rule here is that the “simpler” the structure under destruction is, the more energy it produces. Obviously, the “simple” structure is more difficult to destroy, though the energy, created by this destruction, is enormously larger than that spent on destruction itself.

“And the prospect”, – Ilyenkov concludes, – “is theoretically as follows: if it were possible to destroy an infinitely small structural unit of substance, then a proportionally equivalent infinite amount of created energy would be produced, the amount of which would be enough to destroy and to transform into incandescent

steam an infinitely large mass with cold matter” [8].

This then is the cosmologic hypothesis of Evald Ilyenkov. It might seem to many people to be sci-fi in nature, like a flight to the Moon from a canon. We have to remind ourselves that Ilyenkov himself called it “philosophical-poetic phantasmagoria.”

It seems, however, that it is difficult to refute what he himself wrote: “Apparently no other hypothesis can attribute such meaning to man and make as much sense of his death” [9].

The pathos of searching for truth and the highest mission of man to serve Mother Nature are combined into one. Ilyenkov tries to unite Heaven and Earth, Science and Religion, the physical and the lyrical. He thought that in that highest synthesis religion should be discarded in its form and saved in its earthly content. Following Feuerbach and Marx, Ilyenkov considered habitual religion to be a false (“distorted”) form of a very serious – utterly serious – content: to solve the question of the essence of man and his place in the universe. The question itself, Ilyenkov believed, was by no means senseless.

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1. Published for the first time in E.V. Ilyenkov, *Filosofija i kul'tura* [Philosophy and culture], Moskva, Politizdat 1991.
2. A term coined by Vernadsky to express the sphere of mind's (in Greek, nous) activity.
3. E.V. Ilyenkov, *Filosofija i kul'tura*, p. 419.
4. E.V. Ilyenkov, *Filosofija i kul'tura*, p. 421.
5. *Ibid.*, pp. 431–432.
6. *Ibid.*, pp. 432.
7. *Ibid.*, p. 433.
8. *Ibid.*, pp. 433–434.
9. *Ibid.*, p. 435.

FORMATION OF THE SELF IN CULTURAL HISTORICAL THEORY

Maidansky Andrey

Belgorod State University, Russia

The etymology of the word “personality” stores evidence of the social status of man, the role one performs in society. Also, the word *persona* denoted cultural guises: pictures of the human face, waxen death masks of ancestors and theatrical masks. In the course of history, the meaning of this word *interiorized* more and more, until it came together with a notion of some inward spiritual substance, *ego*.

In cultural historical theory (CHT), personality is defined as an *individual microsocium*, i.e. the fragment of social relations, culture, which is assimilated and developed by the individual human being. Like everything in the world, each person is unique. There are no two identical persons, as there are no two absolutely identical drops of water or leaves in the forest. But for all the individual peculiarities, there is something common that makes everyone of us a person. What is it, after all?

The presence of body and psyche of the definite biological genus is an absolutely necessary, but insufficient condition. Specifically human, personal qualities appear in the course of our *objective communication* with other people. In the case when usual human communication is impossible or extremely hampered, the self does not arise. We can see this fact quite well by the example of deaf-blind children, lacking for two main channels of communication with the outside world. Nevertheless, can a deaf-blind child become a human person? History knows such occasions. And in the second half of the XX century in Zagorsk boarding school, directed by Alexandr Meshcheryakov, an effective technology of upbringing the personality in deaf-blind children was elaborated.

Since the middle 60s, the prominent

Soviet philosopher Evald Ilyenkov took part in Zagorsk experiment. In his works we find the most profound and logically ordered exposition of the CHT of personality.¹ Ilyenkov is convinced that problems, principles and stages of educating deaf-blind children are the same as in the case with ordinary children. Only the *technique* of teacher-child communication is specific. The educational process is more laborious and protracted, but at the same time it is most “pure”, since the influence of occasional, extraneous factors is minimal.

The process of forming the specificity of the human psyche is extended in time, especially at the first – decisive – stages, and therefore can be viewed under “time’s magnifying glass”, as if it were being seen in a slow motion film².

Using this opportunity, Ilyenkov tries to discern the moment of birth of the ideal in the “natural”, not yet human psyche. He wants to see with his own eyes the most mysterious event in the universe – the origin and emergence of the human self.

In the present case you can see only what has been created by your own hands. Personality cannot emerge by itself here, it must be artificially formed, or be “implanted”, as Ilyenkov expresses it. An ordinary child adopts many things in adults, imitating what he / she sees or hears. A

¹ Recently a number of Ilyenkov’s essays and manuscripts on psychology has been translated into English (see Ilyenkov, 2002/2007, 2010), but, unfortunately, neither his main work on personality (Ilyenkov, 1979), nor the series of articles on Zagorsk experiment (Ilyenkov, 1970, 1975, 1977) has appeared.

² Ilyenkov, 1970, p. 89.

deaf-blind child has to be taught everything: not only to think and speak, but simply to smile or cry. And in the first instance he cannot do what each animal does – he can't find water and food, even if they are near, right under his nose.

If we take the definition of psyche as a form of search and orientative activity,¹ then it has to be admitted a deaf-blind child *lacks for psyche*. Ilyenkov never ventures to call them *inanimate* though, but he comes fairly close to that, characterizing a deaf-blind child, in his natural state, as an “anthropomorphous plant, something like ficus that lives only till one remembers to pour on it”².

There is no psyche in the ordinary newborn child as well. Delivering a lecture in the Institute of Genetics, Ilyenkov once called a baby a “piece of meat”, implying its complete inability to the objective activities in the surrounding world. All that we have at birth is organic needs plus purely physiological, “vegetative” functions providing the metabolism. Such is, according to Ilyenkov, the “prehistorical premises” of the emergence of psychic activity. Here is no trace of “soul”, psyche as such. Nevertheless, the first psychical functions and images emerge before long, as if of their own accord, in the course of interaction of the organism with the external objects which are correspond with its needs.

In a deaf-blind child this transition from vegetative to animal mode of life, from irritability to psyche, i.e. to search and orientative activity, may occur only artificially, with the help of a teacher. The latter is due to compensate the lack of two most important preconditions of psyche – vision and hearing. For the human being it is principal regulators of objective activity,

and herewith psychic as its function. As soon as the teacher manages to induce the self-reliant activity of the child with an external object, at the very moment the psyche emerges.

In the case of the deaf-blind child, smell is the only means of distant reception. The first task, therefore, consists in initiating the unassisted movement of the body in space, proceeding from innate organic needs (in particular, hunger) and using the sense of smell as a means of satisfying these needs.

The teacher gradually, starting with a couple of millimeters, *increases the distance* between the child's body and the food. After the child has learned to move toward the food by smell, some obstacles are placed in his way. Now the orientating function of the taction is brought into the foreground. The distance is growing, the obstacles become more and more complicated, but only within the limits of a “zone of proximal development”, i.e. so much that the child could get the goal without assistance.

Having joined with the concrete object by means of sensory perceptions, organic need turns into the *biological want*. Sensory image of the object of want is, to Ilyenkov, the primary form of psychic activity – so to say, an embryo of the psyche.

*The direct sensing of these external contours of things as the goal as well as of the means – obstacles on the path to its attainment, is the image, and is the cellular form of psychic activity, its simple abstract schema. [...] An image is the form of a thing that has been imprinted in the subject's body, as that “bending” that the object has imposed upon the trajectory of the motion of the subject's body*³.

At that moment when the first image of an external thing is formed, any child –

¹ Such conception of psyche had taken shape in Vygotsky's school, mainly in the works of A.N. Leontyev and P. Ja. Galperin. And Ilyenkov entirely shared these views.

² Ilyenkov, 1977, p. 69.

³ Ilyenkov, 2009/ 2010, p. 21-22, 28.

not only the deaf-blind, acquires psyche. Henceforth he is a full-fledged animal. His brain, having regulated only *physiological* processes in the body (respiration, blood circulation, digestion, etc.) till that, turns now into the control center of movement of its body in some external environment, into the organ directing the objective activity of the body. It means that the brain begins to perform the *psychical* functions. Filtering the stream of sensations, the brain forms sensory images of the objects of needs and images of the obstacles that hamper to satisfy these needs. At the same time it sets the organism in motion and computes an optimal trajectory and energy of acting.

The next educational task is to impart *higher, specifically human functions* to the psyche. To breathe into the animal psyche personality and mind. This role of Pygmalion can be played only by *another human person*. The new person is formed in no other way as in the process of communication. It is not an immediate affective tête-à-tête, like in animals, but the communication by means of cultural objects, starting with the most simple tools of everyday life. The mastering of cultural forms of activity with such tools is called the *practical communication* (A.I. Meshcheryakov).

The problem is that the child, like every animal, at first perceives human tools – spoon, chamber-pot or soap, as the obstacles, hindering him to satisfy his natural needs. Mechanical training in this case is inadmissible. It is necessary to inculcate in the child the ability to act with the objects of culture by himself, moreover – to develop in him as strong as possible *need for culture*.

With that end in view, Zagorsk teachers elaborated the method of the *jointly divided activity*. Leading the hand of a deaf-blind, teacher is trying to catch a slightest sign of the purposeful activity of the child, so that to diminish promptly the

guiding effort.

The help of the adult with forming the unassisted action must be strictly dosed. It must decrease as much as the activity of the child is increased¹.

In this formula we find the universal principle of education of cultural behaviour. In such a way any higher psychical functions and practical skills are formed. The principle of jointly divided activity demonstrates the *technology of ingrowing (interiorization)* the cultural forms into the natural psyche and “physics” of a child. All our life is nothing else than the education of person in the process of communication, somehow divided among people and linked up with these or that objects of culture.

Switching over to the mode of managing the practical communication with other people, the brain of the child turns into the organ of *personality*. To compel the brain to do this extra work – biologically waste, requiring incessant restriction and suppression of the needs of the own body, – it is necessary to *break down once more* the objective activity of the child, having made useless the formerly acquired experience of the direct, animal satisfying his needs. An object of culture is placed into the break point. It compels the child’s body to run counter to its own morphology – for a start, just to stand on his feet, and then to cope with food with the help of a spoon or a pair of chopsticks.

Ilyenkov regarded a spoon as a “swing gate” at the border of nature and culture, and Meshcheryakov liked to repeat: if you succeed in teaching a child to use a spoon, the education of all the rest human functions is a matter of patience and technique. In the course of the objective practical communication the initial mastering of language takes place, and the first elements of morality, artistic taste and

¹ Meshcheryakov, 1974, p. 302.

logical thought are formed.

Human psyche starts with a little, inconspicuous, habitual. With a skill to handle humanly with everyday objects, with a skill to live humanly in the world of things, made by man for man. [...] When this practical mind has formed, the language acquisition ceases to be a difficult problem, it becomes mainly a matter of technique. If man has somewhat to say and if he has a need to say something, then word and ability to use words skillfully are adopted with ease¹.

Demonstrating the objectively practical genesis of personality, Ilyenkov toughly criticized as physiological, as dualistic, “biosocial” conceptions of the nature of personality. His first article about that, *Psychic and brain*, initiated the long-term polemics with the somatic materialists. Among the latter two figures were notable – the pupil of Pavlov, academician Ehzras Asratyan and philosopher David Dubrovsky, who searched the origins of personal qualities in “cerebral neurodynamical codes”.

Ilyenkov did not deny the significance of physiological factors for the genesis of personality. Not only the structure of the brain, but also such peculiarities of the body, like the form of a nose or the colour of skin, may play a great role in the biography of the individual, Ilyenkov added². These *natural prerequisites* of a person relate to it insomuch as, say, the land relates to the land rent. Personality is impossible without them, but they can explain not a single *feature of this or that* person.

Dubrovsky’s appeals to some “yet scantily explored” individual features of the “cerebral architectonics” Ilyenkov considers as vaporous conjectures, a certain “neuromancy”.

Physical constitution of any normal man is more than enough for raising a highly developed, versatile and talented person, – even blindness with deafness is not an invincible obstacle to that. One should not undervalue the “marvellous morphology of the human body and brain”, laying upon Mother-nature the blame for the ungifted or vicious individuals, Ilyenkov insists.

Psychical phenomena have quite another “substance” than brain. It is the human labour, people’s collective activity that transforms nature, including nature of the organic body of man. Having created the brain of Cro-Magnon man, nature has done its best, and it has done it well. It is a marvellous organ capable of any work, right because a priori, anatomically it is capable of nothing, excepting one unique faculty – to master any faculties, any kinds of work³.

Generally, evolution clearly demonstrates the growth of number of degrees of freedom in living beings. Their life activity becomes more and more independent from the innate programs of behaviour, tightly hardwired into the structure of a body. This morphological freedom reaches its maximum in homines. The instinctive regulation of behaviour in people is replaced by the cultural-historical regulation, realized via the artificial, socially meaningful objects.

The same happens in the ontogenesis of personality. Ilyenkov refers to the experimental researches in Vygotsky’s psychological school. In particular, A.R. Luria showed that genotypic determination of psychic activity, visual memory for example, drops almost to zero up to 6-7 years. Memory switches over to the purely cultural operating mode – by means of signs. A.N. Leontyev retraced the same process in the psychical development of twin chil-

¹ Ilyenkov, 1977, p. 76.

² Ilyenkov, 1968, p. 145-146.

³ Ibid., p. 153.

dren.

In parallel, there occurs a reconstruction of “neurodynamics” of those segments of the cerebrum which materially support the cultural activity of the child. This activity transforms not only psyche, but also the morphology of body, including the higher floors of our nervous system, so to say, the penthouse of “cerebral architectonics”.

*All and sundry specifically human functions of the brain and their supporting structures are 100 % (not 90 and even 99 %) determined, and therefore explained, solely by the modes of activity of man as a social being, and not a natural one*¹.

The edge of this thoroughgoing formula is aimed against the doctrine of *bio-social* nature of personality.

One would think, what is the use of arguing? Is it not better to stay at a golden middle ground, having admitted the relative rightness of both parties, and so to reconcile the naturalistic and the cultural-historical theories of genesis of personality?

As a result, personality looks like a centaur, comprised of two halves entirely different by their nature. And the question when and where the human personality comes into the world – at the moment of syngamy, i.e. the fusion of two gametes, or much later, with the first cultural action of the child, – this question appears to be absolutely unsolvable. It is clearly impossible to be born in two different places at different times. And the laws of genetics have nothing in common with the laws of social life. So, which one of them rules the *act of birth* of the self?

Ignoring this dilemma, the authors-peacemakers emphasize the indissolubility of biological and social components of

personality. If they do not exist apart from one another, how can they be opposed? – At this point it should be noted that the biological, in its turn, does not exist apart from the chemical and physical processes, which undoubtedly influence on human behaviour, too. It is strange that adherents of the biosocial theory disregard all the rest natural “wealth of personality”...

The newborn infant gets into a special cultural environment, that subordinates his body and mind – wishes and attention, memory and emotions, hands and brain. Firstly, the child appears only as an *object of action* on the part of other people. He reacts to the cultural actions, aimed at him, in a purely organical mode, like an animal. He turns into a person at the moment when he performs his first *socially meaningful act* – an act, which is dictated not by his own body or by the natural psyche, but by those standards of culture that are accepted in his native community.

Starting to perform those operations, which were performed with respect to him by other people, the child became a person, a subject of cultural activity. Personality is measured by the cultural value of our deeds. The more powerful is someone’s influence upon other people and, eventually, upon the history of mankind, the more valuable this person is. Sometimes a person continues to determine the shaping of many generations even a thousand years after the death of its organic body and psyche. Such a person lives inside billions of its cultural (nongenetic) descendants, and it is justly called *great* or even *genius*.

So, the concept of personality involves only those individual features and faculties which are *significant for people*, taking positive or negative effect on other persons.

Do you want to know yourself? Don’t hurry to turn your mental look inside yourself. Firstly take a look at your

¹ Ibid., p. 149.

behaviour with respect to other people and examine better those things that link you to other people. These cultural “mirrors” will reveal the truth about your personality, and they will tell much more than “cerebral architectonics”. It was due to their help that you became a human being, and by their use you entered into the human relations with other people and with nature. They contain labour, thoughts and feelings of yours and of all those people who helped you to mould your personality. Creating such things, you realize yourself as a person which is preserved even after your physical death. Cultural things are the *chromosomes of humanity*. And the human body, including the brain with its “neurodynamical codes”, belongs among those things, inasmuch as it is a subject of social labour and, so to say, a first violin in the “ensemble of the social relations”.

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EVALD ILYENKOV ABOUT ART AND AESTHETIC ABILITIES OF MAN

Mareyeva Yelena

Moscow International Higher Business School MIRBIS, Russia

The first work of Evald Ilyenkov on the problems of aesthetics was published in 1960 (*Voprosy estetiki*, 4) under the title “O ‘specifike’ iskusstva” (On the ‘specificity’ of art). Then there were three articles: “Ob esteticheskoi prirode fantazii” [On the aesthetic nature of fantasy] (*Voprosy estetiki* 6, 1964), “K otsenke gegelevskoi kontseptsii otnosheniya istiny k krasote” [Appraising Hegel’s conception of the relation of truth to beauty] (in the anthology *Borba idei v estetike*, Moskva 1966) and “Chto tam, v Zazerkalye?” [What is there behind the looking-glass?]

(*Iskusstvo npravstvennoe i beznpravstvennoe*, Moskva 1969). One might conclude that the problems of art were at the periphery of Ilyenkov’s interests. As in other cases, Ilyenkov proceeded from the classical philosophical tradition in which the ideals of Truth, Good, and Beauty had not yet become the privilege of narrow expertise. Researching the nature of art, Ilyenkov abided by the notion of an integral personality, the abilities of which should be studied in their unity.

How does Ilyenkov explain the diversity of an individual’s aesthetic attitude

to the world? In his articles on art Ilyenkov frequently quotes Marx's *Economic and Philosophical Manuscripts of 1844* which he, unlike Western Marxists, never contrasted to Marx's mature works, especially *Capital*. The manuscripts, discovered only in the 20th century, revealed, in Ilyenkov's opinion, the "source and mystery" of Marx's humanism.

The historical materialism of Marx, as Ilyenkov stated, differs from other forms of materialism by the idea that all abilities of an individual, including the five main senses, are understood as a *product of history*, not as a gift from Mother Nature. Thus human eyesight and hearing differ from the eyesight and hearing of animals, and they do so because they are formed on the basis of communication with things made by a man for a man.

But a man differs from an animal above all by the presence of spiritual senses to which artistic taste and moral sense (conscience), the sense of the sublime, pride and love in its human spiritual meaning pertain. On the other hand, from the point of view of *historical materialism*, the highest spiritual senses do not presuppose additional physical organs, but rather transform and instill the highest ideal meaning into the activity of the natural senses, all the vital functions of a human organism.

The basis of vexation of mind is nothing but pain. Its essence differs, however, from a sudden heart attack. Thirst for justice differs from mere physical thirst. Someone who listens to symphonic music hears it with his ears, but he does not hear just a collection of sounds. Human senses are physically always the same. This means that the highest spiritual qualities do not presuppose different organs but different *abilities* of an individual which form a richer content of human life and behaviour.

According to Ilyenkov, the ability to

perceive the outer world in a human mode and the ability to *reason* about it are formed by the life activity of an individual based on the practical transformation of this world. The elementary forms of such abilities are assimilated entirely spontaneously by the child, which can not be said about the highest forms. Following Engels, Ilyenkov emphasized that the ability of logical and especially dialectical thought demands the study of the classical philosophical heritage. The treasury of world art plays the same role in developing the ability to perceive the world in the forms of advanced human sensuality [1].

Ilyenkov frequently insisted that art "educates the senses." Its task is to cultivate the human senses, those which express the "essential forces" of an individual. He stressed that neither logical thought nor the advanced human senses could be ends in themselves. Feelings closed in themselves become detrimental, pure "sentiments." Reasoning for the sake of reasoning changes into hollow "verbalism." The ability to think and feel in a human way (i.e., to perceive and to take to heart) are equivalent means for expressing man's creative potential. That was the lesson Ilyenkov drew from the German classics, paying special attention to Kant's and Fichte's ideas on productive imagination (*produktive Einbildungskraft*).

In normal speech "imagination" and "fantasy" mean the ability to invent something which does not exist. However, Kant showed that the ability to imagine, i.e. to refer freely and arrange images, is the common root of the senses and the intellect. In Fichte's teaching, productive imagination becomes the basis of *all* human abilities, down to reading a newspaper: words are constructed from letters and then the words are "remolded" again into visual images. It should be noted here that these ideas of the German classics found their experimental confirmation in Soviet psychology in the works of L.S. Vygotsky,

A.N. Leontyev, V.V. Davydov. Vygotsky's concept of interiorization of objective actions in the process of formation of higher psychic functions can in a certain manner be seen as a confirmation and advancement of Fichte's initial idea.

As for Ilyenkov, he clearly saw and was able to prove the methodological unity of classical philosophy and the cultural-historical school in psychology. In the clamorous discussion of the 70's between the so called "physicists" and "lyricists" Ilyenkov relied on Fichte and Hegel to argue for the *generality* and *universality* of imagination as the source of our abilities. Time and again he stressed that an arrogant attitude towards art as a superfluous "lyrics" which only disturbs scientific and technical progress was quite typical of mediocre scientists. Serious theoreticians, on the contrary, often emphasized the connection of creative intuition, which every scientist applies, with the imaginative flair cultivated by art.

In the persistent striving of scientists "to verify harmony by algebra" Ilyenkov saw not only a sign of individual narrow-mindedness, but the evidence of the crisis of culture in general in which positivism had become the standard of the 20th century. He explained the spread of positivism into science, philosophy, and mass consciousness by the extreme intensification of the division of labour in industrial society, which brought about the displacement of the classic ideal of an integral personality by the concept of a "professional" in command of details only. Under those very circumstances reason began to rule the mind, Benefit became preferable to the Good, Convenience to Beauty.

The situation, however, was exacerbated by the fact that one extreme is supplemented, as a rule, by another. In effect, while advocating the essential role of intuition in science, Ilyenkov at the same time had to argue against attempts to con-

trast it to reason as an irrational and even mystical ability. In his works on aesthetics he shows that the ability to penetrate directly to the essence, starting with the phenomena only, or to espy the whole on the basis of just a part, is not a unique talent of a genius, but a principle common to all rational action.

It is the world of culture, Ilyenkov stressed, that forms the human senses which do not merely perceive but also *understand* the perceptible. This "grasp" of the essential in an object, and intrinsically of its social meaning, is based on the personal and collective experience of the transformation and purposeful inquiry into the world. Thus, taking Hegel's side in the latter's quarrel with Schelling on the nature of intuition, Ilyenkov insists that the immediacy of intuitive attainment of truth is but the surface under which the mechanism of "condensation" of *Homo sapiens'* historical experience is concealed.

In this context it is evident that aesthetic perception is not a redundancy but on the contrary mankind's greatest achievement enabling the sensory grasp of the essence of surrounding reality in the form of *beauty*. In a first approximation, beauty is the perception of harmony as a kind of *wholeness*, external and internal, the wholeness of nature and of the human spirit. In this aspect, the sense of beauty is akin to a moral sense orienting a man in his deeds. Wholeness of a qualitatively different kind is meant here, which, in the dialectic tradition coming from Hegel and Marx, designates an organic wholeness or "totality" (*Totalität*) that shows itself first to advanced aesthetic sensibility and then to the theoretical mind.

Thus art initially appeals to the senses, above all to the highest moral senses of man; and if art ignores the sense of beauty and the other higher senses, then art is in crisis as is classical culture as a whole. In such a critical situation, Ilyenkov stressed, the productive imagina-

tion itself is degraded, it is broken into its elementary parts, one of which is a predilection for clichés and another is sheer arbitrariness [2].

These are the philosophical foundations of Ilyenkov's criticisms of modern art in the 20th century. In this regard he was completely at one with M.A. Lifshits. Ilyenkov characterized the "logics" of the development of modern art from cubism and abstractionism to pop-art in his article "What is there through the looking-glass?" written under the impact of his visit to an art exhibition in Vienna in the autumn of 1964. He writes ironically that by ignoring the immediacy of the sense of beauty as an atavism, modern art starts "analyzing" the world, deconstructs it into dimensions, planes, cubes, triangles, lines, and points. The result of such "analytical" activity is the same pop-art which brings us back to the *immediacy* of perception in its most primitive and unaesthetic forms. It is evident that as soon as substantial ties in society are perverted or destroyed art undergoes destruction as well. Ilyenkov was convinced that quirks in art were the expression of quirks in real life. In this case genuine beauty might seem redundant, irritating, and even unbearable.

In his time K.G. Jung wrote about the "attractiveness of ugliness:" certain social conditions mixing the sinister and the sublime, assuming the relativity of everything, discrediting the notion of the ideal are needed for the *cult* of ugliness to take form. Thus, even in the most "unrealistic" works of art of the 20th century.

Let us return to the nature of beauty, without which, as Ilyenkov thought, art ceases to be art. In my opinion, the central idea is that Ilyenkov's aesthetic views display a certain "point of growth." Both in his explanations of the nature of beauty and in the solutions he proposes to the problem of the ideal, Ilyenkov's position is not similar, but antithetical to that of M.A. Lifshits.

It is natural to suppose that the beauty in art more or less depends on the beauty in the objective world outside us. Being a materialist, Ilyenkov searches for such objective sources of beauty in Nature, not in God. He proceeds from a well-known statement of Marx in his *Manuscripts of 1844* according to which man, unlike the animal, is able to form the material of nature according to its own measure and thereby "according to the laws of beauty" [3].

In his article "On the aesthetic nature of fantasy" Ilyenkov explains that in the process of labour man has to distinguish the "pure forms" of natural things, their common forms and laws, from forms that are characteristic of primeval nature. The "pure form and measure of a thing," on which our activity is based, turns out to be its aesthetic form, in other words" the form of beauty" [4].

Here is another example of the close connection between Ilyenkov's and Lifshits' positions. For the latter, nature comprises things which mirror many phenomena, are an expression of their universal meaning.

It is clear that for such a position the laws of beauty coincide with the laws of nature. Still, even in "On the Aesthetic Nature of Fantasy," much of what Ilyenkov writes contradicts such an univocal treatment. In the light of the criticism of modern art, which led the Marxists Ilyenkov and Lifshits to join forces in opposition to it, their emphasis on the creative imagination as the ability to *reproduce* the essence of the world is quite understandable. Nevertheless, the situation looks much more complicated as soon as the notion of "beauty" is viewed in connection with the notions of the "sublime" and even the "tragic." In this case, art appears as something *excessive* and in that meaning *redundant*.

Kant, as is well known, writes about the "sublime" as the domain where aes-

thetics comes into contact with the ethical domain. It is there that art conjoins the measure of nature and the measure of man. Man is obviously too small in comparison with the infinite power of nature, but this fact could evoke fear and despair if it were not for the *creative efforts of man himself*. The latter *elevate* man despite his finitude but this provokes the contradictory feeling of the sublime.

It is clear that such abilities cannot be acquired through *education* and the *reproduction* of natural measure. Making a needle and an axe primitive man tried to extract “pure forms” of nature, but by inventing a computer and artificial materials modern man not only extracts and purifies but in a special way *synthesizes* natural processes. Present-day technological processes actualize not just the hidden essence of nature but also its *formal possibilities*. In this context, the following words of Ilyenkov have a very special meaning: “Human activity in nature is productive, that is, it produces, brings about something which did not, and cannot exist in nature as such” [5]. Labor, Ilyenkov writes in the same book, is “the only ‘substance’ of all ‘modes,’ ‘of all particular images of human culture’” [6]. Here the treatment of the laws of beauty goes beyond Lifshits’ own works. To avoid seeing the highest achievements of artistic culture as a “minor product” restricted to man’s exploration of the outer world, it is necessary to go beyond the “pure forms” of nature to the laws of beauty. Extraction of such “pure forms” is the starting point and the “cell” of the aesthetic attitude to the world, not its final output. To be more precise: the ideal of beauty should be deduced from the *transformation*, not from the *reconstruction*, of natural processes.

In the article “The problem of the ideal in philosophy,” Ilyenkov notes that it is impossible to extract a concept of the aim of human existence either from mathematics or from physics, physiology,

or chemistry [7]. Later he agrees with Kant and Fichte that there is no such Board of Weights and Measures in the “outer world” where the measure of human being could be stored [8].

All this means that the ideal, as the law and measure of human being in every man, is not given to him from the outside as an absolute divine or natural measure. Arising within the ideal dimension of human existence, it is a derivative of the “observation reflex” of our activity. Thus, when we act the hand is corrected by the eye, and in more complicated action by a fancied image of a final product. But man differs from the animal because his actions are guided by his notion of the Good or Justice, and not only by the eye and the image of the fancied aim.

Though born in the transient world of culture, the ideal does not lose its *absolute content*, and that is probably the most paradoxical side of human existence. When we say that “manuscripts do not burn” we do not mean that they are made of material which is not combustible. Here we speak instead of the content, not the form, namely about some (ideal) meaning of the work of art. In the world of culture, contrary to its progenitress Nature, anything that carries in itself the aforesaid ideal content is eternal (in the manner of a universal). A special question is how this eternal absolute content (i.e., the universal) is represented in a *singular* work of art or as an individual. Here we have the highest product of the world of culture, in which the mortal and the eternal *coincide*. A moral deed is also paradoxical, for in this case, when *giving* we do not lose but *acquire*; and even unequal exchange is fair in joint creative work, as everyone benefits from the exchange of ideas and abilities.

Indeed, the mentioned paradoxes are evidence of the irreducibility of human measure to natural measures. They confirm that the laws of beauty are ideal as

contrasted with material laws of nature. Ilyenkov, in whose works this idea has become theory, was frequently called an idealist. Still, one for whom ideals are objective reality in the world of culture is an idealist of a very special type. In all his works idealism actively *assists* the ideal principles of human life.

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IN SEARCH OF “THE THIRD SUBJECT” OF EDUCATIONAL PROCESS

Voznyak Vladimir

Drohobych Ivan Franko State Pedagogical University, Ukraine

The idea of necessity of conducting pedagogical cooperation as a type of subject-subject relationships have already asserted in philosophical, educational and pedagogical literature. But if the content of education is directed at the notorious “knowledge-skills-practices” interrelations, the logic of realization of pedagogical process anyhow remains old. If the students and the teacher communicate only about the “material” of teaching and learning the education cannot stay at a height of subject-subject relationships and is inevitably reduced to a simple subject-object model. So, we need to find “the third subject”.

To my mind the essence of humanization of education lies in decisive passage from a subject-object (S-O) model of pedagogical communication to a fundamental subject-subject (S-S) model. The necessity to provide overriding priority of the latter is not just the vain wishes. The thing is that subject-subject relationships have undoubted ontological priority as well as existential authenticity. The man (phylogenetically) does not start from S-O relationships. Any kinds of people-nature

relations are mediated by their relationships with each other and they are realized in a certain social form (K.Marx). F.T. Mikhailov claims that: “what has always defined, defines and will define and preserve human relationships is the attitude to the subjectivity of other people, searching for commiseration, co-thinking (co-knowledge) and concord in cooperation with them that is forming their motivation and behavior and is able to provide expanded reproduction of means of life and its main conditions: self organized group of people, creative and cognitive, spiritual and spiritually practical productivity” [8, p. 500].

The man ontogenetically does not start from subject-object relationships. This idea is fundamentally elaborated in the context of communicational paradigm (M. Buber, S.L. Frank, E.V. Ilyenkov, G.S. Batyshchev, E. Levinas etc.). According to S.L. Frank there is no ready existing-in-oneself “I” before the meeting with “You” [10, p. 356]. The meeting with “You”, “I-You” relationships as distinct from the “I-It” relation (M. Buber) by any stretch of imagination cannot be repre-

sented as subject-object. Genrikh Batishchev convincingly showed that the S-O relationship, even at its empirical predominance and dominance in the modern European period as a special form of aloof sociality and featuring relationships of man to his like and to nature, actually exists within the S-S relations and, then, the complete model can be presented as a S-O-S scheme [1, p. 112-117].

There exists a real temptation to take this triodical model as a basis for pedagogical process that is decisively humanitized, i.e. the process in which the attitude to the student as an object of influence (training and education) is inadmissible. But not everything is so simple; it is, rather, not simple at all. If the subjects of communication are rightful subjects of education (students and teachers) and knowledge is only an object, learning "material" that must be studied in certain succession, then the subject-subject relationships tend to be reduced to habitual objectiveness. But it happens this way; it is our traditional system of education! The results of cognitive, creative and other kinds of activities of the previous generations get into the structure of pedagogical process in a reduced object-thing form. It is done by "cookers of didactics" (as it was nimbly and ironically said by F.T. Mikhailov): they seem to be "adapted" for some age taking into account the abilities of students and processed for convenient learning. It should be remembered and then understood: an object-thing form is not meant for thoughtful, creative, independent and at the same time interesting absorption, filling and development of students' subjectivity. It is useful only for application, memorization, and adaptation. Knowledge as an object (material) and only as an object is alienated from the alive subjectivity of its creator and from the subjectivity of the one who "consumes" it. It is hard to disagree with Nikolay Berdyayev: "We cannot sense the in-

dividual, we can only sense something general and that's why there is always some aloofness present. Objective being is not just being as it is dissected by the subject for perception. The aloofness from the subject turns to be the most relevant to its cognitive nature" [2, p. 245]. In other words: the aloofness of the material taught in institutions of learning (secondary and high schools) from the subject of education is in complete accord with the structure of cognition (=learning) imminent to the present day education.

If, however, we give it a close examination: the matter of communication between the participants of pedagogical process (in other words – the content of education) – in this or other way is its culture: all this was elaborated by the mankind and presented to the future generations as a gift (in the truest sense of the word – a gift) for conscious and creative continuation and development – and, above all, the development into subjectivity, into the subjectivity of everyone, into the individuality, and subject uniqueness. The transformation of the content of education into its culture in the full and true sense of the word (or rather - the concept) - that's the essence of my idea of the "third subject". This is the essence of the process of humanization of education, and not just a simple increase in the proportion of subjects of social and humanitarian cycle. Culture (as the content and content-richness of the educational process) is the third subject, and the most difficult and the most important task of the teacher is "to give the floor" to "the third subject", activate the subjectivity of culture in a way that the culture was the means of teaching and developing a student – a means of feeding soul, heart and mind of each of its students.

I was very glad when I came across such thoughts in a recent publication of G.V. Lobastov: "To make the culture subject function as a characteristic defining

the individual, the individual must update subjective potency of his cultural life with his activity. In other words, the process of defining the individual with his historical culture is a process of self-determination through the culture. Yet in other words: an individual with his individual activity is not opposed to outer being with its natural and historical definitions, but just the opposite - brings the subjectivity of this culture into the active motion, matching and identifying with it. The potencies of being immediately and directly become the potency of an individual" [5, p. 88]. Everything was said here, or almost everything. In accordance with this logic (which is the ontology and theory of cognition, i.e. the dialectic) a normal educational process should be organized.

In the "abnormal" training (and education), in the traditional, current, perverted and disgusted training everything happens in a different way. Richness of the culture is thoroughly reduced to objectivity, to the "material" - it loses its ideal nature as its truth and becomes a simple matter - the content. Let's remember Plato who was the first to introduce the term "hyle" (in latin - "substance") and by "substance" - hyle we understand the material for any formation (or, rather, according to A.F. Lossev the formation itself as a material) and "foster-mother" of all things. The aloof pedagogics concentrated its full attention on the "material" (what must be taught to the students and what the students must learn, as well as the pace of learning by which the teachers' performance is evaluated) and completely cut off the "foster-mother"... The culture in this deformed (adapted¹) form does not nour-

¹ Then the pedagogue that provides adapted knowledge is an "adapter", a "mixer", a "transformer" (because he buzzes loudly and boringly), a "translator", rather a "retranslator" but not a pedagogue that leads the child into the world of knowledge rather into the world of human, that comes into this fantastic, magic

ish, educate, impregnate or give guidance to children's souls that turned into subjectivity. It is not a foster-mother but a cruel step-mother (like that in Cinderella's story) who forces to repeat and memorize. Evald Vassilyevich Ilyenkov had a reason to say that repetition is not the mother but the step-mother of learning. We must repeat things that are alien, foreign, and unnecessary. The same content that was mastered by the student at once with the help of active ability does not need repetition as it has been mastered. The most expressive demonstration of destructive influence of didactics is dividing education into disciplines (artificial disintegration) and the way educational programs are designed (it was well studied and described by V.V. Davydov), the texts and the language of manuals. Consequently we must agree with Felix Mikhailov who said: "... for 300 years the logics of theorification² well-entrenched in natural studies got us accustomed to normative, descriptively-directive texts that are similar to manuals for household devices. Not without a reason almost all textbooks are written in such language" [8, p. 471]. In such situation the subjectivity of culture is not activated; the culture is reduced to object-thing that is to be consumed; and the man cannot resuscitate the mortified culture with the symptoms of decay. That's why students are sick of such "content" that is tightly constrained with the rational chain and the rational (outer) goal.

Introducing the child to subject-subject relationships (bringing him to

and inviting world together with children, into the world where we can meet Truth, Goodness, Beauty and finally with oneself that is somehow true...

² "The logic of reasoning dominating in the process of defining a logical connection between the elements of some totality that was accepted by default as the unity of variety of the sides of the subject studied" (note by F.T. Mihailov).

school), teaching him to treat knowledge as object-material and force-feeding him with this material strictly “by science”, we accustom (i.e. train) him to act by object-thing logic, accustom him to thing thinking, thing attitude, in other words we accustom him to consumerism which we try to fight with “educational work”. Treating education as a thing (from understanding of Marks and interpretation of Batishchev to further development of this category) is a reality of educational process. And here, in a paradoxical (and pretty immanent) way objective subjectivism and unrestrained activism are bounded together with constructivism.

We always complain of excessive formalization and bureaucratization of educational space not trying to understand the logic of such phenomena. That’s why we are doomed to their total, systemic reproduction due to our own efforts (and still we always complain of someone from the director’s office or from the department of education or the ministry). We ourselves, no matter how strange it sounds, bureaucratize educational (and upbringing) process. F.T. Mikhailov writes: “The domination of bureaucracy that serves some individual interests in the educational sphere and in culture, fixes standard means and methods (the didactics of education in particular) of interpretation of present, continuously aging knowledge and skills as its main component. It extinguishes individual creative motivation of all the participants of educational process, thereby transforming the culture of education into the standard reproductive structure” [9].

Here we should turn to K. Marks’s characteristic of voluntary, “spiritualistic” character of bureaucracy that “wants to create everything, i.e. ... it raises the volition to causa prima (source – ed.), because its existence finds its expression only in activity, the content of which bureaucracy gets from outside; consequently only

through its content and its restrictions bureaucracy can prove its existence. For the bureaucrat the world is just the object of his activity” [7, p. 273]. – “Artistic activity” of education officials, immoderately zealous so to say innovative, bureaucrats from education is just what Marks once described. But if for the teacher his students are just the objects of pedagogical cooperation (object, material for study) and if the teacher’s activity is the form of external formatting of this “content” (he does not cooperate, co-think, co-learns with his students who are not enlightened and there won’t be any mutual serious learning), then what is the definition of such a teacher?... What do they turn him into by having destroyed the educational system? Of course talented, clever teachers who are devotedly in love with their students, who can make education a common goal, treat everything differently, in a true, as a matter of fact manner (which is not foreign to Goodness and Beauty).

A few more words about subjectivity concerning educational process. In the space of predomination of rational forms of activity any subjectivity comes in the form of object, thing and, as Hegel thinks, “the thing is something abstract and outer and I am something abstract and outer by myself” [3, p. 329]. And the student really feels as something abstract and foreign to such process, as a kind of statistical unit, and no declarations concerning the “individual approach” will help as well as no declarations can save education. That’s why it is not interesting for children to learn in such environment and by such scheme. Why so? Why is the real student’s interest on the other side of educational process and pretty often on the other side of good and bad, on the other side of content-rich, true artistic forms?

The pedagogics, castrated by a ruthless judgment, cannot generate anything alive. The birth, as development and as the continuation of the development of the

culture into alive subjectivity of student, is not subject to homebrew logic of judgment; this is a completely dialectic process. Hegel in his "Phenomenology of spirit" states that the essence of dialectic movement "in oneself is the subject from the beginning to the end" [4, p.36]. In other words if we consider this thought in the philosophic and pedagogic context then the education (learning and training) if it wishes to be a development (self-establishing) process of every participant of pedagogical communication (including the teacher) should be organized as a dialectic process, it must be subjective "from the beginning till the end" at any important point of its existence. It means that not the material for learning but the culture is subjective in its nature since there is no human outside the culture and the man is self-defined in culture and with culture. If it is true apodictically then organize, create the pedagogical communication in such way! The spiritual potential of culture (and culture according to N.A.Berdyaev is a culture of spirit) is induced, activated and energetically comes to meet us (depending on our readiness to this meeting which, according to M.Buber, is the true being of a human) only when it is understood as the "subject" and not an indifferent object, material. Yes, culture is a material for developing all human abilities, subjective characteristics and features, but human qualities in a human are not "built" in an outer-object manner; it is rather destroyed this way. But are the pedagogical practitioners really worried about the development of human characteristics in a human? Everything we have learned to do is to place students (and teachers) under control for the sake of some external goal and "put on air"... For the culture to stand as the real "construction material" of the spirituality – the spiritual world of every student, we must decisively deny the construction - engineering character of modern "pedagogical

thinking" and consider culture not just the "material" but the "foster-mother" of all souls including that of the teacher. Such radical turn is possible with the establishment of domination of subject-subject relationships in pedagogical process and especially when it comes to the participants of pedagogical communication and their attitude towards the content of education. The content of education must be considered in such a way that its subjective nature should be manifested obviously and continually. This is the "third subject" of educational process, not an empirical but transcendent subject that is invisible on the surface but the absence of which sooner rather than later will transform the educational process and training into the chain of boring procedures from which we'd like to escape as from plague (let's recall the characteristics of alienated work given by Marks). By the way, it is the "third subject" that has a true power to educate. And the main task of a clever pedagogue is to make everything: to organize the process of education in such a way that to give word, space and time to this – pretty strange – subject so that it was not "my will" (the teacher's) but "your will", the will of the "third subject" as the deep content-richness of culture.

And the secret is that this transcendent subject cannot deprive or restrict others of subjectivity; moreover it saves, preserves and revives the subjectivity of others. My signature example: the symphony concert in philharmonic hall where the true subject of all the actions is the produced and heard music (not the conductor or a musical band), which doesn't transform us into simple "objects" of some aesthetic influence but affects the depth of our human sense and penetrates into our souls and enlivens its transcendent depth. The same happens to us in the Tretyakov Gallery: when the guide professionally tells us about the artist, his manner, the theme of the picture etc. – all this is inter-

esting and even informative but in front of us is not the picture as the creation of artistic spirit but just the object of studying. We need an integration of our subjectivity with the subjectivity of the artistic image and then everything becomes alive, animated and spiritual. The pictures of great artists talk to us only if we want to hear them¹. Thus, subject-subject relationships evolve simultaneously in two dimensions: first of all, as absolutely and completely individual communication of the participants of educational process that involves the “third” subject; second, this “third” subject involves all the participants of pedagogical communication into oneself, into its essence, into its subjectivity.

The powerful field, the energetics of such communication transforms any “material” integrated into it into culture, into “foster-mother”. And then I, like the pedagogue, rescuing the spirit from the chains of object and at the same time rescue myself from “pedagogism”: the eternal indissoluble sludge of educational self - righteousness and false pedagogics in such situation in fact dissolves and disappears.

I cease to be an educator, sculptor, advisor and pass this hard mission to the subject in eidos of culture; and the high culture is much more clever than me. Then the culture for those involved in communication (among themselves and with the culture), for those interested in joint communication, becomes the window to another dimension of the world the organ of comprehension of contents on the other side of the present, as G.S. Batishchev said, “the object of desobjectivation”.

And in this sense the “third subject” is transcendent, it transcends the borders of our subjectivity. M.K. Mamardashvili writes about it: “The Sistine Madonna of

Rafael² is not a culture, it is the creation of art. But it is also a cultural object to the extent to which our relationships produce or give rise to human abilities that were not present before the contact with this picture. These are the abilities of apparition, understanding, etc.: apparition and understanding of something in the world and in oneself, and not in this image” [6, p. 345].

It appears that in non-alloof educational process there are three subjects and everything is subjective, as Hegel says, “from the beginning to the end”. Are there no objects in this process? – As many as you want: these are organizational forms, structural moments, object-subject conditions etc. that provide a standard flow of the process. While in abnormal, alloof process everything is vice versa: living people are sacrificed to some abstract structures (educational plans, programs, randomly assumed concepts, “social order” etc.) that attend them. K. Marks called such situations the domination of the dead (past) work over the alive work that corresponds to the real movement and self-expansion of capital.

Awakening, activation and expansion of the content of the “third subject” as the form of the true culture allow finding harmonic conflict resolution between training and education that is insoluble under conditions of modern traditional pedagogical practices and there are no known ways of their adequate comprehension in the so called “theoretical” pedagogics that joins these elements of educational process. Of course, if we treat education as the acquirement of some doses of all possible kinds of information and understand upbringing as “inoculation” of some positive “values” then the situation is insoluble.

¹ I remembered my son saying this in the Tretyakov Gallery: “When you stand in front of Shishkin’s picture and smell the pinewood”.

² Certainly, this is not the Tretyakov Gallery but the Dresden gallery (Zwinger).

Famous Moscow scientist Yuriy Afanasyev once said: “we teach math to our children while it is correct to teach our children with maths”. Why don’t we continue: teach with history, with literature, with geography, with biology... Finally all this is synthesized into one important thing: teach to be a human. And not just “teach” but involve children in the situation of learning when they cannot but study. Isn’t it an upbringing that is simultaneously a learning that deepens “transcendent subject” of every alive empiric human subjectivity?

I foresee the objections: but the teachers must put or at least formulate the “educational purposes” in their lecture notes. - I do apologize but this is just pedagogical lust, verbiage or self-righteousness. The thing is that we cannot put “educational purposes”. Education (as nourishing the soul with the spirit) is something transcendent, it does not obey logic of practicability but the logic of “whole importance”.

It is difficult to refrain from giving a long citation by M. Heidegger which, to my mind, places absolutely correct accents: “Wait, I’ll teach you what is called obedience – shouts a mother to her son who does not want to go home. Does the mother promise to give her son the definition of obedience? No. But maybe she will teach him a lesson? Still no, if she is a good mother. It is more likely that she will teach him to obey. Or better on the contrary: she will lead her son to obedience. And the more seldom she scolds her son, the more successful she will be. It will be a lot easier if she does it indirectly. And he will not just unwillingly agree but he won’t be able to deny the desire to obey. Why not? Because he has learnt to hear what makes him obedient by understanding where he belongs” [11, p.69]. – Let’s pay attention: M.Heidegger does not like the word “inculcate” which is so common for our pedagogical thought (= thought-

lessness). He corrects himself and says – “better on the contrary”: not to inculcate but to lead her son to obedience and to lead in such a way that it belonged to his being.

Let’s once again consider the thoughts of Martin Heidegger: “To learn means to coordinate our deeds and actions with the things that are brought by every meeting with what important for us” [11, p.39]. So, it is about the meeting with important things. “What is learning? The man learns in so far as he coordinates his deeds and actions with the things that are truly of importance to him [11, p.35]. – Right this “turning” towards us and “true importance” is the activation of the “third subject”, activation of the culture subjectivity. Then and only then there will be real learning, true education.

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**‘TO WHET OUR SYTHE AT THE PHILISTIMS FORGE’: WILLIAM
BRIDGE AND THE PARADOX OF ANTI-POPERY***

Pearson Samuel

Durham University, United Kingdom

Revisionist historians dispute the relative importance of religious versus political motivations for opposition to King Charles I in the early 1640s. In 1984 John Morrill set forth the ‘wars of religion’ model stressing the primacy of religious incentives in the English Civil War¹. Morrill compartmentalised reasons for protest during the Long Parliament into ‘the *localist*, the *legal-constitutionalist*, and the *religious*’ and assigned ultimate agency to the latter². Two strands of historiography then marshalled responses to Morrill, notes Glenn Burgess. Whig-liberal history perpetuated a teleological fallacy - the notion that because an Enlightened, modern, individualistic liberty eventuated from the English Revolution, the revolution’s instigators must have intended that liberty³. In contrast, while commending Morrill for restoring religious motivations to mainstream Civil War historiography, the revisionist approach adopted in this article rejects Morrill’s partition between religion and politics as an anachronism incomprehensible to early modern people⁴. Instead, it ac-

knowledges with Glenn Burgess the ‘intricate discursive connections between religion and politics’ in the early modern mind⁵.

Tracing this holistic approach to early modern political thought, we find Stuart Clark in 1980 proposing sixteenth-century accounts of witchcraft as expressions of inversion. Early modern people interpreted such anomalies not simply as distortions of the normal but as capsize antipodes of order⁶. Likewise, in 1981 R.W. Scribner identified the dialectic process by which Lutheran printers and artists framed their identity as purity and truth against an antithesis of Catholic corruption and deception⁷. Adopting inversion theory, Peter Lake explained ‘anti-popery’ as the process by which ‘every negative characteristic imputed to Rome implied a positive cultural, political or religious value which Protestants claimed as their own exclusive property’⁸. Anti-popery emerged as a language of expression unto itself. The amorphous nature of the label ‘popery’ enabled Protestants to apply it to anything they considered con-

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¹ John Morrill, ‘The religious context of the English Civil War’, *TRHS*, 5th ser., 34 (1984), p. 178.

² *Ibid.*, p. 157.

³ Glenn Burgess, ‘Religion and the historiography of the English Civil War’, in Charles W. A. Prior and Glenn Burgess (eds.), *England’s Wars of Religion, Revisited* (Ashgate, 2011), pp. 21-22; *idem*, ‘On Revisionism: An analysis of early Stuart historiography in the 1970s and 1980s’, *HJ*, 33 (Sep. 1990), p. 615.

⁴ Edward Vallance, ‘Preaching to the converted: Religious justifications for the English Civil

War’, *Huntington Library Quarterly*, 65/3-4 (2002), p. 397.

⁵ Burgess, ‘Historiography’, p. 23.

⁶ Stuart Clark, ‘Inversion, misrule and the meaning of witchcraft’, *P&P*, 87 (May, 1980), p. 127.

⁷ R.W. Scribner, *For the Sake of Simple Folk: Popular Propaganda for the German Reformation* (Cambridge, 1981), pp. 241-244.

⁸ Peter Lake, ‘Anti-Puritanism: The structure of a prejudice’ in Peter Lake and Kenneth Fincham (eds.), *Religious Politics in Post-Reformation England: Essays in Honour of Nicholas Tyacke* (Woodbridge, 2006), pp. 81, 96; *idem*, ‘Anti-popery: The structure of a prejudice’ in Richard Cust and Ann Hughes (eds.), *Conflict in Early Stuart England: Studies in Religion and Politics 1603-1642* (New York, 1989).

tradictory to their confessional vision of the national future, reduce political decisions to polar opposites by which they defined their identities, and command Protestant solidarity against doctrines, decrees, or persons they deemed popish⁹. Lake's inversion theory has since demonstrated the successful attempt of an inchoate seventeenth-century English republicanism to cast itself as a choice for liberty over popery¹⁰. Finally, a parallel line of thought in Conal Condren's linguistic scholarship allows an interpretation of Protestant resistance theory as casuistry: the rhetorical manoeuvres involved in vindicating rebellion and maintaining 'a verbal and moral space quarantined from Luciferian pollution'¹¹.

Restricting the study to two Civil War tracts by Cambridgeshire Independent minister William Bridge (1600-1671)¹² permits an examination of Jesuit influence on an individual Puritan as well as an in-depth exploration of what loyalty and treason meant during the tempestuous debates of 1642/3¹³. Bridge's Royalist target Henry Ferne, following suit with Robert

Filmer's account in *Patriarcha* of the inception of kingship in Genesis¹⁴, elaborated a patriarchal vision of the properly ordered society already deeply entrenched in Tudor England¹⁵ in his *Resolving of Conscience* (1642) and *Conscience Satisfied* (1643)¹⁶. Ferne asserted that '[t]he first Fathers of Mankind, were the first Kings and Rulers'. Monarchy began with Noah. His progeny dispersed 'into Countries farre distant' where their fathers ruled as kings inheriting power 'by primogeniture'¹⁷. Bridge's counterattack in *The Wovnded Conscience Cvred* (1642) and *The Truth of the Times Vindicated* (1643) invoked the spectre of popery to malign his enemy's patriarchal history as contradictory to Protestant values and biblical history¹⁸. His response reveals less about Ferne's affinity for Catholicism (probably negligible and certainly immaterial to the present study) than it does about Puritan attitudes toward loyalty and sedition¹⁹.

⁹ Ibid., pp. 80-83.

¹⁰ Clement Fatovic, 'The Anti-Catholic roots of liberal and republican conceptions of freedom in English political thought' *Journal of the History of Ideas*, 66/1 (Jan., 2005), pp. 38-40, 57-58, in reference to Milton, Locke, Algernon Sidney, and Edmund Burke.

¹¹ Conal Condren, *Argument and Authority in Early Modern England: The Presupposition of Oaths and Offices* (Cambridge, 2006), p. 188; see also Edward Vallance, 'The kingdom's case: The use of casuistry as a political language 1640-1692', *Albion*, 34/4 (Winter, 2002), pp. 557-583.

¹² Richard L. Greaves, 'Bridge, William (1600/01-1671)', *Oxford Dictionary of National Biography* (Oxford University Press: 2004); [Web edn, Jan 2008. <http://www.oxforddnb.com/view/article/3389>], accessed 5 Dec 2014.

¹³ David Wootton, 'From rebellion to revolution: The crisis of the winter of 1642/3 and the origins of Civil War radicalism', *English Historical Review*, 105/416 (Jul., 1990), pp. 654-669.

¹⁴ David Underdown, *Revel, Riot and Rebellion: Popular Politics and Culture in England 1603-1660* (Oxford, 1985) pp. 9-11, 287; Although *Patriarcha* was published in 1680, Sommerville has dated its authorship to before the Civil War in Johann P. Sommerville (ed.), *Patriarcha and Other Writings* (Cambridge, 1991), pp. xxxiii-xxxiv; see also xvi-xvii and 27-34.

¹⁵ Underdown, *Revel, Riot and Rebellion*, pp. 9-11ff; for a challenge to historiographical assumptions about the universal acceptance of patriarchal dominance early modern England, see Anthony Fletcher, 'Men's dilemma: The future of patriarchy in England 1560-1660', *TRHS*, 6th ser., vol. 4 (1994), p. 80.

¹⁶ H[enry] Fern[e], *The Resolving of Conscience* (Cambridge, 1642), Wing F800, *EEBO*, Web, 2 Dec 2014; idem, *Conscience satisfied*, (Oxford, 1643), Wing F791, BL, TT, E 97[7], *EEBO*, Web, 30 Nov 2014.

¹⁷ Ferne, *Conscience Satisfied*, p. 8.

¹⁸ William Bridge, *The Wovnded Conscience Cvred* (London, 1642), Wing B4476, BL, TT, E 89[9], *Early English Books Online*, Web, 30 Nov 2014; idem, *The Truth of the Times Vindicated* (London, 1643), Wing B4467, BL, TT, E 61[20], *EEBO*, Web, 30 Nov 2014.

¹⁹ Lake, 'Anti-popery', pp. 73-74.

This article affirms the validity of Lake's inversion methodology for Bridge's anti-popery while incorporating commentary from Condren on resistance theory as casuistry. In the first section, we apply Peter Lake's inversion theory to Bridge's portrayal of the evils of divine-right monarchy. Tracing monarchy's origins to Edomite rebellion against God, Bridge invoked the trope of a papal conspiracy to corrupt the king in order to legitimate armed resistance. Having portrayed monarchy as nefarious and unbiblical, Bridge presented the alternative contractual government as righteous and scriptural. Herein lies the paradox of Bridge's anti-popery: he appropriated Jesuit contractual theories of government to legitimate an alternative to Ferne's patriarchy.²⁰ Evidence of Catholic influence on Bridge provides a platform for discussing the interpretive merits of the 'influence model' for the history of ideas in section two. In section three we test and affirm the influence model with Jesuit influence upon Bridge as a case study. Finally, the fourth section brings the paradox full circle, examining the casuistic language which Bridge invoked to parry accusations of popery for Jesuit influence on his thought.

I

As illustrated above, Peter Lake's study on inversion reconstructed the identity of early Stuart Protestantism with respect to anti-popery²¹. A typical tactic of anti-popery reduced political decisions to two absolutes: catholicity versus heterodoxy or fidelity versus treason, for exam-

²⁰ J. P. Sommerville has recognized Jesuit impact on Bridge but the paradox of Catholic influence on a Puritan has not been explored; in J. P. Sommerville, *Royalists and Patriots: Politics and Ideology in England, 1603-1640* (New York, 2014), p. 222.

²¹ Lake, 'Anti-popery', p. 74.

ple²². Ferne advertising monarchy as the only form of government established 'by divine example and insinuation' and dismissing 'Aristocracy' and 'Democracy' as 'meer inventions of man'²³ provoked Bridge to present his own vision of the properly ordered society in *Truth of the Times*²⁴. Repudiating absolute monarchy as sinful and rebellious implied the righteousness and fidelity of its mirror image Parliamentarianism. Furthermore, given the tainted association of 'resistance' in sixteenth- and seventeenth-century England - mutiny against the king, rebellion against God, and popery - casuistic definitions of resistance became a survival tactic for Parliamentarians anxious to prove the legitimacy of their cause²⁵.

Bridge cast monarchy as rebellion against God in order to invert resistance to Charles as an act of loyalty to Protestant England in accordance with Scripture²⁶. The Hebrew for 'to rebell [sic]' was, after all, eponymous for Nimrod, monarch over Babel, the first 'kingdome after the flood'. For 'in erecting his Kingdome, he had rebelled against the way of government which before was used [sic] if not appointed.' Presiding as recalcitrant despot over Edom, Nimrod differed from Abraham in kind, not just degree. To Bridge, Scripture affirmed 'not that *Abraham* was a King, or that his government was Monarchical but rather the contrary'. Indeed, legitimate 'Kingly government' only emerged 'in the fourth age of the world' (the era between King David and the

²² *Ibid.*, 'Anti-Puritanism', p. 90.

²³ Ferne, *Conscience Satisfied*, pp. 8-9.

²⁴ Bridge, *Truth*, pp. 1-4. Bridge did not advocate the abolition of monarchy, only the substitution of divine-right monarchy for a limited monarchy with divine sanction on the contractual election of monarchs.

²⁵ Condren, *Argument and Authority*, pp. 186-189.

²⁶ Conal Condren, *The Language of Politics in Seventeenth-century England* (New York, 1994), pp. 116-117.

Babylonian Captivity)²⁷. Bridge thus dichotomised Old Testament history for polemical purposes. The Edomites under ‘Nimrod, ... that cursed and wicked posterity of Noah’ revelled in monarchical apostasy while the Hebrews flourished in virtuous pre-political fellowship. For ‘*the Jewes did not constitute a Commonwealth, but a family*’ until (as outlined in section three) deciding to appoint Saul king²⁸, Thus Bridge diplomatically affirmed God’s approval for orderly government, deprived divine-right theory of its traditional celebrities Adam and Noah²⁹, and swapped Nimrod for the patriarchs as monarchy’s primogenitor. Bridge asserting genesis of monarchy in uprising against God denied the legitimacy of divine-right theory as a prop for the Stuart administration.

Despite casting monarchy in terms of rebellion, Bridge hesitated to urge the masses into resistance against Charles. Instead he adopted what Lake has defined as the ‘evil counsellors’ scheme which mandated war as an expression of one’s fidelity to the king even against His Majesty’s wishes³⁰. The Civil War according to this paradigm targeted not the king but ‘those that are malignant about the Kings person, notwithstanding the Kings command to the contrary’³¹. A papal conspiracy to corrupt the king and supplant English liberty with tyrannical despotism licenced swift, decisive action.³² The righteous crusade ‘to destroy those nests of Jesuites and Jesuited persons’ busily adulterating the kingdom justified Parliament’s militarisa-

tion³³. For, Bridge warned, ‘if the Papists get the upper hand,... either they wil force the King to another Supremacie, or else quickly make a hand of him’³⁴. Bridge then recast resistance in the vocabulary of fealty in asking, ‘[w]hat better service therefore can a true subject performe to his Majesties person, then by force of Armes to deliver him out of the hands of those spoylers that lye in waite for his pretious soule?’³⁵ Here Bridge employed Conal Condren’s casuistry. By invoking the kingdom as an authority higher than the king and colouring resistance as defence of the king’s person against his advisors, Bridge purchased the moral space necessary to promote war³⁶.

Another trope of casuistry presented resistance as defence of order and religion against a self-interested faction hell-bent on corrupting a wholesome, ostensibly Puritan majority³⁷. Thus Bridge portrayed Parliament’s struggle as a ‘defensive war’ and alleged that Ferne ‘*speaks evill of the Rulers of the people... & seeks to withdraw people from obedience to authority*’ as if Ferne were an *agent provocateur* corrupting a rational, dutiful citizenry³⁸. ‘Rulers’ indubitably implied a representative body. Yet determining who those ‘Rulers’ were - the authorities Bridge later set forth as polar opposites to monarchical despots - compels us more intensively to study the influences operating on Bridge’s contractual government. For, like most Civil-War resistance theorists, Bridge did not intend Charles’ deposition³⁹. Rather, he contended for contractual limitations against

²⁷ Bridge, *Truth*, p. 10; Augustine divided history into six ages, Adam inaugurating the first and Christ the sixth. In Graeme Dunphy, ‘Six ages of the world’, in Graeme Dunphy (ed.) *Encyclopedia of the Medieval Chronicle* (Leiden, 2010), pp. 1367–1370.

²⁸ Bridge, *Truth*, pp. 7, 11, quote at p. 10.

²⁹ Schochet, *Patriarchalism*, p. 139-146.

³⁰ Lake, ‘Anti-Puritanism’, p. 81.

³¹ Bridge, *Truth*, p. 20.

³² Lake, ‘Anti-popery’, p. 91.

³³ Bridge, *Truth*, unnumbered page, fo. A2^v, p. 18.

³⁴ *Ibid.*, *Wovnded Conscience*, p. 44.

³⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 44.

³⁶ Condren, *Argument and Authority*, p. 188.

³⁷ *Ibid.*, *Language of Politics*, pp. 116-117; Lake, ‘Anti-popery’, p. 91.

³⁸ Bridge, *Wovnded Conscience*, unnumbered page, fo. A2^f.

³⁹ Sommerville, *Royalists and Patriots*, p. 3.

the king on behalf of the ultimate arbiter of national government: Parliament⁴⁰.

II

A brief survey of Bridge's contractual theory of government reveals the Catholic influences acting upon it. Yet intellectual historians contest the adequacy of 'influence' as a descriptor for the transmission of ideas between writers. Harold Bloom having identified 'anxiety of influence' in the field of literary criticism in 1973⁴¹, Francis Oakley appropriated the term in 1996 to describe a recent phenomenon: historians' disquiet with the potential for one idea to influence another⁴². Oakley traced historiographical unease surrounding influence to a salvo of articles from Quentin Skinner. In 1969 Skinner posed a litmus test for influence: '(i) that there should be a genuine similarity between the doctrines of A and B; (ii) that B could not have found the relevant doctrine in any writer other than A; (iii) that the probability of the similarity being random should be very low'⁴³. Taking up Skinner's 'influence model', Oakley tested the influence of conciliar theory⁴⁴ on sev-

enteenth-century English constitutionalism⁴⁵. Noting numerous examples of English Parliamentarians who cited councils and conciliar writings, Oakley located 'a path from Constance to 1644'.⁴⁶ Tracing continental and Catholic influence then, with proper attention to detail, may serve as a valid methodology for observing the intellectual inspiration for parliamentary theorists. Further, Catholic influence, if demonstrated, will illustrate the hypocrisy of Puritan diatribes against popery: Puritans could simultaneously embrace Catholic political thought and denounce popery.

Indeed, the central paradox of Calvinist theories of resistance lay in their Catholic pedigree. As Skinner admitted in 1978, 'the main foundations of the Calvinist theory of revolution were in fact constructed entirely by their Catholic adversaries'⁴⁷. Specifically, Jesuit faculties in sixteenth-century Spanish universities formulated contractual theories of government from a medieval Thomist tradition. Elaborated from earlier Spanish Dominican scholarship on Aquinas, the Thomist revival presented natural law - the moral obligations discernible to all human beings outside Scripture - as inseparable from God's moral law revealed in the Bible and as foundational for civil society. Considering the state of nature in which political communities are constituted, the Jesuits then addressed the moral quandary of resistance to monarchs. In doing so, the Jesuits supporting the papal deposing power⁴⁸.

To Jesuits Luis Molina and Francisco Suárez, God's sanction could not apply to monarchical and popular rule

⁴⁰ Bridge, *Wounded Conscience*, pp. 52-53.

⁴¹ Harold Bloom, *The Anxiety of Influence: A Theory of Poetry* (New York, 1973), p. 148, 150.

⁴² Francis Oakley, "'Anxieties of Influence': Skinner, Figgis, Conciliarism and Early Modern Constitutionalism' *Past & Present*, 151 (May, 1996), p. 60ff. Oakley modelled his own study on John Neville Figgis, *Political Thought from Gerson to Grotius: 1414-1625: Seven Studies* (Kitchener, 1990; first pub. New York, 1960).

⁴³ Quentin Skinner, 'Meaning and understanding in the history of ideas', *History and Theory*, 8/1 (1969), p. 26; idem, 'The limits of historical explanations', *Philosophy*, 41/157 (Jul., 1966), pp. 199-215.

⁴⁴ The Councils of Constance (1414) and Basle (1431), proceeding from the Great Schism of 1378 to 1417, asserted the authority of councils over the papacy even to the point of deposing popes. In Antony Black, *Political Thought in Europe 1250-1450* (Cambridge, 1992), pp. 169-178.

⁴⁵ Oakley, 'Anxieties', pp. 76-94.

⁴⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 93-94.

⁴⁷ Quentin Skinner, *The Foundations of Modern Political Thought*, (2 vols., Cambridge, 1978), vol. II, p. 321.

⁴⁸ Sommerville, *Royalists and Patriots*, pp. 13-18; Skinner, *Foundations*, II, pp. 137-138, 140, 145.

alike. In order to resolve this discrepancy and advocate papal absolutism, Molina and Suárez followed Aquinas' dichotomisation of power into the church, a spiritual sphere of divine institution under the pope with spiritual goals, and civil society, a political realm of human constitution for earthly purposes.⁴⁹ The pope thus remained exempt from deposition given that he represented Christ on earth. Only God could remove him. By contrast, considering that divine sanction only applied to them through the intermediary of the people, monarchs remained subject to the people's deposing power given the pope's approval⁵⁰. Further, although Luis Molina⁵¹ and Juan de Mariana⁵² and Francisco Suárez posited the consensual beginnings of secular government in the state of nature, it was Suárez who popularised the language of 'contract'⁵³. His belief that men (male householders) are at liberty in the state of nature and decide to constitute rulers⁵⁴ thus situating original sovereignty in the hands of the community became easily applicable to seventeenth-century Parliamentaryism.⁵⁵

III

Bridge's response to patriarchy harkened to the Thomists' commentary on

contractual government in the Old Testament, which he considered inseparable from natural law⁵⁶. He refuted Ferne's theory of primogeniture with a chronicle of younger sons appointed to rule Israel extracted from John de Pineda's 1613 *De Rebus Salomonis*⁵⁷. Likewise, Bridge questioned Ferne's patriarchy with Molina's distinction between 'paternal and civil power', asserting that the latter, upon which civil government is based, 'hath its origination from the will of Men' and therefore still subject to the people's rescindment⁵⁸. His desire to represent contractual government as 'no new upstart opinion' - to prove the continuity of his ideas and absolve himself from the charge of religious innovation - led him to incorporate Catholic ideas⁵⁹.

Yet the most striking example of Jesuit influence arose from Spanish Jesuit Pedro Hurtado de Mendoza (1578-1641)⁶⁰. Mendoza's Old Testament commentary directed Bridge to I Samuel 12:13 where he gleaned that the inauguration of Hebrew kings, even those 'immediatly appointed by God himself,' remained subject to 'the intervening choice of the people'⁶¹. Popular election reappeared with

⁴⁹ J.H.M. Salmon, 'Catholic resistance theory, Ultramontaniam, and the royalist response, 1580-1620' in J.H. Burns and Mark Goldie (eds.) *The Cambridge History of Political Thought 1450-1700* (Cambridge, 1991), pp. 237-238.

⁵⁰ John Hittinger, *Liberty, Wisdom, and Grace: Thomism and Democratic Political Theory* (Boston, 2002), p. 40; Bernice Hamilton, *Political Thought in Sixteenth-century Spain: A Study of the Political Ideas of Vitoria, De Soto, Suárez, and Molina* (Oxford, 1963), p. 69-70.

⁵¹ Höpfl, *Jesuit Political Thought*, pp. 226-229.

⁵² Salmon, 'Catholic resistance theory', pp. 240-241.

⁵³ *Ibid.*, pp. 248-253.

⁵⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 252-253.

⁵⁵ Black, *Political Thought in Europe*, p. 178.

⁵⁶ Oakley, 'Anxieties', p. 106-108; Bridge considered Scripture, especially the Decalogue, as inseparable from natural law: *Truth*, pp. 4, 14.

⁵⁷ Bridge, *Truth*, p. 12, referring to John de Pineda, *De Rebus Salomonis Regis vel Salomon Praevius* (fol. n.p.: Sumptibus Antonij Hierati, 1613), pp. 73-82. Retrieved from *Bayerische Staatsbibliothek Digital* 25 November 2014 at <http://goo.gl/M112NY>.

⁵⁸ Bridge, *Truth*, p. 11. On Molina's view of resistance see Salmon, 'Catholic resistance theory', pp. 261, 266; for Molina's contextual background, see Hamilton, *Sixteenth-century Spain*, pp. 180-184.

⁵⁹ Bridge, *Wounded Conscience*, pp. 10-11.

⁶⁰ Daniel Novotny, *Ens Rationis from Suarez to Caramuel: A Study in Scholasticism of the Baroque Era*, (New York, 2013), p. 13. For a parallel theory to that of Mendoza in Huguenot thought, see Skinner, *Foundations*, II, pp. 326-338.

⁶¹ Bridge, *Truth*, p. 7; I Sam. 12:13 [King James Version]: 'Now therefore behold the king whom ye have chosen, and whom ye have desired! . . .'

Saul's coronation in I Samuel 11:15⁶², upon which Bridge imposed a translation of Mendoza's Latin commentary: '*What is more plain? Neither could they [the Hebrews] make him King otherwise, then by conferring Kingly power upon him.*'⁶³ Mendoza further informed Bridge that the Hebrew 'Synedrion... were equal to Moses being appointed by God as Moses was,' thereby confirming the Old Testament presence of a representative body alongside the patriarchate, which Bridge equated to seventeenth-century hereditary monarchy.⁶⁴ Bridge then prescribed a historical pattern in the formation of governments from states of nature. In a subtle twist on divine right theory, God's sanction applied to the people's collective choice for '[n]either are... Gods designation and mans election repugnant, but may stand together'⁶⁵. Bridge's construction of ideal government from Jesuit commentary on passages in I Samuel reflected a desire to extend scriptural sanction to his own version of contractual government and thereby imply the heterodoxy of Ferne's patriarchy.

Moreover, Bridge's rampant citations of Jesuit authors in *Truth of the Times* - twice for Molina, four times for Pineda, and eight times for Mendoza, suggest influence, if not 'influence'⁶⁶. *Truth* meets two of Skinner's three conditions. 'Genuine similarity' exists between Bridge and the Jesuits in the form of direct quotation and his meticulous citations rule out the likelihood of randomly re-occurring ideas⁶⁷. However, one can only speculate as to where Bridge originally heard about contractual government: proving that the Jesuits first introduced him to the idea is

nearly impossible. He does not cite Jesuits when discussing popularly constituted government in his earlier *Wovnded Conscience*, suggesting that he only turned to them to confirm ideas he acquired elsewhere⁶⁸. However, Bridge's own equivocal remarks on the appearance of Catholic ideas in his thought, alongside Ferne's accusations of popery, affirm the contention that real influence occurred. To this paradoxical Puritan - Jesuit alliance, and the sophistry to which Bridge resorted to extricate himself from it, we now turn.

IV

Fraternity between Puritans and Catholics on contractual theories of government from natural law had already become, as Oakley has shown, commonplace by the 1640s⁶⁹. The English Puritan appetite for conciliar theory expanded in the sixteenth century, traceable both to Henry VIII's support of the royal prerogative over the pope in the 1530s as well as anti-papal writings in the 1550s from resistance theorists John Knox and John Ponet⁷⁰. English-language publications of Gerson, d'Ailly, Mair, and Almain in 1606 and John of Paris in 1611 further familiarised English people with conciliarism.⁷¹ Thus we find Stephen Marshall in 1643 invoking 'the Councill of *Basil*' to prove the superiority of council over pope and the 'Kingdom above the King'⁷².

At the same time, Catholic (especially Jesuit) political thought became increasingly treasonous in seventeenth-century England. The essentially Spanish

⁶⁸ Bridge, *Wovnded Conscience*, p. 209.

⁶⁹ Oakley, 'Anxieties', pp. 76-94, 101-102; for the conciliar impact on constitutionalism, see Francis Oakley, *The Conciliarist Tradition: Constitutionalism in the Catholic Church 1300-1870* (Oxford, 2003), pp. 217-249.

⁷⁰ Ibid., *Conciliarist Tradition*, pp. 133-139.

⁷¹ Ibid., 'Anxieties', p. 83.

⁷² Stephen Marshall, *A Copy of a Letter Written by Mr. Stephen Marshall* (London, 1643), Wing M750, BL, TT, E 102[10], *EEBO*, Web, 30 Nov 2014, p. 9.

⁶² I Sam. 11:15: 'And all the people went to Gilgal; and there they made Saul king before the Lord...'

⁶³ Bridge, *Truth*, p. 7.

⁶⁴ Ibid., p. 26.

⁶⁵ Ibid., p. 7.

⁶⁶ Ibid., *passim*.

⁶⁷ Skinner, 'Meaning and understanding', p. 26.

gestation of Jesuit theories on contractual government, England's turbulent sixteenth-century relationship with Spain, and the threatening images implied in the notions of the 'Spanish Armada' and plots against Queen Elizabeth made these theories especially inflammatory⁷³. By the end of Elizabeth's reign in 1603, 'Jesuit' connoted the pope's power to dethrone monarchs, hostility to divine right, and foreign machinations against national sovereignty⁷⁴. The 1605 Gunpowder Plot only intensified such fears⁷⁵. Such Parliamentary agitators as Henry Parker who insisted that 'the maine Engineers in this Civill Warre are Papists, the most poisonous, serpentine, Iesuited Papists of the world'⁷⁶ accelerated the stereotyping of Jesuits as insurrectionists and ensured that the tropes of anti-papery remained a medium of disputation into the 1640s.⁷⁷

Royalists also sniffed out popery of a distinctly Jesuit flavour in theories of contractual government and exploited it for polemical purposes⁷⁸. The tradition of Royalist polemic conflating Jesuits and Puritans in a subversive conspiracy⁷⁹ moved John Spelman to opine that the theory of the popular origins of government 'had its first hatching in the Schoole

of the *Iesuite*'⁸⁰. Detecting the Catholic nature of parliamentary resistance theory, Ferne cautioned 'all Misse-led People in this Land' to avoid such 'Jesuiticall practises' as resisting their king, for 'under pretence of keeping out Popery, you are led in this way of resistance by the like steps that brought Popery in [to England]'⁸¹. Ferne recognized as seditious the Puritan inclination toward the papal deposing power, a doctrine central to the Jesuit argument that secular authorities are man-made and hence deposable⁸². For among the Puritans' 'many weapons sharpened for... resistance at the Philistins forge', they exulted in 'the Popes power of curbing or deposing Kings in case of Heresie'⁸³. In addition, John Maxwell lamented that the pontiff dethroning monarchs under the guise of maintaining orthodoxy had taught Puritans to 'colour and lustre their ugly Treasons and Seditions with the Cloak of Religion and Righteousness'⁸⁴. To these Royalists contractual government was only popery of a craftier variety.

The stigma of popery in theories of the contractual origins of government forced Puritans to account for the integrity of their Protestantism⁸⁵. Ferne's accusations against Bridge for fraternising with popery left Bridge demanding, '[w]ho are most like to the Papists you, or wee, I referre you to all that knows us' for 'we

⁷³ Charles Howard McIlwain (ed.), *The Political Works of James I* (Cambridge, 1918), pp. xxvii-xxviii.

⁷⁴ Lake, 'Anti-papery', p. 79; Oakley, 'Anxieties', p. 88; Anthony Milton, *Catholic and Reformed: The Roman and Protestant Churches in English Protestant Thought 1600-1640* (Cambridge, 1995), p. 42-43.

⁷⁵ Milton, *Catholic and Reformed*, p. 43.

⁷⁶ [Henry Parker], *The Contra-Replicant, his Complaint to His Maiestie* [London, 1642/3], Wing P400, BL, TT, 87[5], *EEBO*, Web, 30 Nov 2014, p. 9.

⁷⁷ Anthony Fletcher, *The Outbreak of the English Civil War* (London, 1985), pp. 410-412; Milton, *Catholic and Reformed*, p. 92; Lake, 'Anti-Papery', p. 80.

⁷⁸ Sommerville, *Royalists and Patriots*, p. 46, 50.

⁷⁹ Oakley, 'Anxieties', p. 88.

⁸⁰ [John Spelman], *Certain Considerations upon the Duties Both of Princes and People* (Oxford, 1642), p. 2; as quoted in Gordon Schochet, *Patriarchalism in Political Thought: The Authoritarian Family and Political Speculation and Attitudes Especially in Seventeenth-century England* (Oxford, 1975), p. 101.

⁸¹ Ferne, *Resolving of Conscience*, fo. ¶1^r, ¶2^v.

⁸² Hittinger, *Thomism*, p. 40; Hamilton, *Sixteenth-century Spain*, pp. 69-70.

⁸³ Ferne, *Resolving Conscience*, p. 24.

⁸⁴ John Maxwell, *Sacro-sancta regum majestas* (Oxford, 1644), Wing M1384, BL, TT, E 30[22], *EEBO*, Web, 9 Dec 2014, p. 27.

⁸⁵ Oakley, 'Anxieties', p. 101.

doe differ much from them'⁸⁶. Inverting the indictment, Bridge insinuated that Ferne himself frequented 'the new forge of the Jesuites... which he reserve[d] to whet his owne weapons at'⁸⁷. Having sullied Ferne's reputation, Bridge turned to the reparation of his own. Asking rhetorically, '[i]s this to whet our Sythe at the *Philistims* Forge, to use the same Scripture for one purpose, which the *Philistims* doe for another[?]', Bridge concluded that arguments do not become 'Popish because they use the same Scripture to other purposes'⁸⁸. Invoking Scripture - the fact that 'Abraham' would not 'refuse the use of the Well because *Ahimilechs* men had used it' - Bridge assimilated his popish predecessors into a biblical canon⁸⁹. Simultaneously justifying his appropriation of Catholic natural law in the vocabulary of Puritanism, denying his culpability, and alleging Ferne's fraternity with Catholicism, Bridge revealed an acute sensitivity to the force of anti-popery as a 'language of politics'⁹⁰.

Bridge's example has illustrated the nebulous nature of anti-popery. As Lake noticed, anti-popery could become a contradiction unto itself, a discourse rather than a political platform⁹¹. Catholicism lay ready to hand both as an incubator for ideas to marshal against divine right theory and a spectre to invoke against Royalism. For Bridge had borrowed a natural law discourse on the contractual origins of government yet manipulated popery to depreciate his foes as rebels against a Protestant God and traitors against a Protestant England. Then, having constructed a political theory at once scriptural and Catho-

lic, Bridge resorted to inversion to extricate himself from Ferne's quite justifiable allegations of popery. The same inversion is evident in the rhetorical contortions to which Bridge resorted to portray resistance as an act of duty unto the king. In light of Lake's inversion theory and Condren's casuistry, Bridge's appropriation of scholastic thought provides evidence of a Puritan co-mingling reverence for natural law of a Catholic variety with anti-popery in the service of scripturally sanctioned order.

The above study has been more vertical than horizontal, rendering problematic any attempt to extend it to Puritan culture as a whole without first incorporating more Puritan pamphleteers. Nevertheless, Bridge's faith was a Puritanism more temporally, spatially, and religiously elastic than typically appreciated. His atavistic appetite for Jesuit ideas birthed in a thirteenth-century scholasticism traceable through Aquinas to Aristotle evidences a connexion between seventeenth-century Puritanism and medieval Christianity despite the Protestant rejection of scholasticism for *sola scriptura*.⁹² Moreover, the essentially Spanish influence discussed above confirms Sommerville's thesis of a continental, cosmopolitan perspective amongst at least select Stuart-era Protestants⁹³. Lastly, Bridge's willingness to quote Catholic doctrines demonstrates a precociously ecumenical outlook, which, if future scholarship can extend it beyond individual writers, may lower the boundaries between 'Catholic' and 'Protestant' resistance theories. To borrow Bridge's phrase, perhaps seventeenth-century Puritanism was less of a 'new upstart opinion' and more of a synthesis of medieval and post-Reformation Christianity⁹⁴.

⁸⁶ Bridge, *Truth*, p. 49; see Ferne, *Resolving of Conscience*, p. 24 for context.

⁸⁷ Bridge, *Truth*, p. 48.

⁸⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 47.

⁸⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 49.

⁹⁰ Condren, *Language of Politics*.

⁹¹ Lake, 'Anti-Puritanism', p. 81.

⁹² Sommerville, *Royalists and Patriots*, pp. 14-15.

⁹³ *Ibid.*, p. 78.

⁹⁴ Bridge, *Wovnded Conscience*, pp. 10-11.

QUASILAWMAKING OF THE CONSTITUTIONAL COURT OF THE RUSSIAN FEDERATION AT OFFICIAL INTERPRETATION OF THE CONSTITUTION OF THE RUSSIAN FEDERATION

Ostapovich Igor

Gorno-Altai State University, Russia

With adoption of the Constitution of the Russian Federation in 1993 forming democratic society and the constitutional state the Russian Federation chose the novelistic Roman-German legal system. In this regard now at the legislative level the decisions of the courts aren't the source of law. At the same, time the Constitutional Court of the Russian Federation, providing an official interpretation of the Constitution of the Russian Federation and revealing legal gaps, repairs these gaps and thus forms new rules of behavior. Such rules of behavior in legal practice gain characteristic features of an independent source of the law.

Peculiarities of lawmaking and its outcomes are discussed in foreign and Russian scientific literature by O. Vereshchagin, P. Guk, M. Marchenko, O. Popov, E. Semyanov, S. Cherednichenko and others [1]. At the same time the matter of legal nature of the judicial acts particularly of judicial statutory and regulatory authority and regulatory legal act being a result of lawmaking still remains underexplored.

According to O. Vereshchagin, the forms of lawmaking are judicial precedents, the rules of the courts, interpretations of the higher courts, court practices [2]. According to S. Cherednichenko the results of lawmaking include judicial precedents, interpretation acts of the court practice, act of standard interpretation, interpretations of the plenums of the highest courts, legal limitation acts [3]. According to E. Semyanov the outcomes of lawmaking are the legal acts, acts of standard interpretation, interpretations of the plenums of the higher courts, legal limitation acts, quasi-precedent legal acts [4]. O. Popov considers lawmaking acts to be court

precedents and decrees [5].

The variety of such opinions about the results of lawmaking is possible to be considered from the point of broad and narrow approach.

According to the representatives of the broad approach in some cases the results of lawmaking include legal phenomena not completely corresponding to them by nature (law interpretation acts, legal discretion) and in the other cases legal phenomena corresponding to the results of the lawmaking only in their certain parts (court practice, legal precedent).

The notion of "lawmaking act" is entailed into the notion of the "court lawmaking acts" and general features of the lawmaking acts are peculiar to the court lawmaking acts. At the same time they possess specific type features.

The general character of the lawmaking acts shall be fixed in legislation. For example obligation of the court decrees of the corresponding courts results from the legislation of such legal frameworks of civil law as in Albania, Andorra, Bulgaria, Greece, Estonia, Spain, Italy, Macedonia, Germany, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia, Croatia, Czech Republic etc. Thus, according to Article 119 of the Constitution of Portugal the official paper "Daily newspaper of the Republic" announces in particular the decisions of the Constitutional Court as well as the other courts being universally binding under the law. Under Article 145 of the Romanian Constitution the decisions of the Constitutional Court are obligatory and shall be published in "Monitorul Oficial al Romaniei" [6].

Regulatory-legal content of the lawmaking acts consists in them having

general rules of behavior that cover unlimited number of participants and not limit the action by the fact of their implementation.

At the same time certain peculiarities of court lawmaking acts are possible to be revealed with the help of the analysis of their form, content and structure. Court lawmaking acts may acquire the form of a court regulatory legal precedent and a court regulatory legal act.

Court regulatory legal precedents are the results of the court lawmaking fixing legislative mandates. In judicial literature the court precedents containing the rules of understanding of the legislative mandates being the results of the court activity are called judicial precedents [7].

Court regulatory legal precedent along with the general features of the lawmaking act has the following characteristics: it is adopted in the legislative form of action i.e. in the judicial proceedings, it has casual character at the same time containing legislative and individual mandates, has complex structure, influencing further analogous actions. Consequently the court regulatory-legal precedents are the court decrees by certain case announced in official papers, containing legislative mandate, which have general character and cover further analogous cases.

Court regulatory-legal acts are written legal acts containing legislative mandates on organization and order of activity of the corresponding court authorities. For example, UNO International Court, European Union Court, European Court of Human Rights, majority of courts of general and constitutional jurisdictions as well as their structural subdivisions functioning on the basis of the rules adopted by them.

Thus, in 2006 European Court of Human Rights adopted the Rules containing legislative mandates on organization and operation of the court as well as its proceedings. Besides, under Article 148 of the Federal Constitutional Law of Austria

detailed provisions on organization and proceedings of the constitutional court are regulated by the Rules adopted by the constitutional court on the basis of the federal law. According to Article 127 of the Constitution of Croatia "internal organization of the Constitutional court of Croatia is regulated by its Rules" [8].

The examples of court regulatory legal acts in Russia may be the Rules of the Constitutional Court, Rules of the Plenum of the Supreme Court, provisions on scientific-consulting councils at highest court institutions etc.

Thus, the Preamble to the Rules of the Constitutional Court establishes the order of election and appointment of its corresponding authorities and persons; authorities and order of meetings of its structural subdivisions; the order of preparation of the materials by the constitutional submission and constitution applications; the order of case proceeding and other matters of internal activity of the Constitutional Court thus, containing legislative mandates of internal regulatory action.

Court regulatory legal acts mentioned above mainly establish internal rules of the activity of the corresponding court authorities and are as a rule adopted in the form of Rules and thus they may be called court regulatory acts.

As documentary form of lawmaking act envisages corresponding structuring of its text, conforming to the rules of legal technology: logistic, grammar and stylistic the court lawmaking acts shall have specific requirements to their form and content. These aspects of the court lawmaking acts need further research.

According to the results of the analysis based on the general theoretic construction of the lawmaking act the court lawmaking acts may include court regulatory legal precedent and court regulatory legal act being the results of the judicial legislation. It is important that they are distinguished from the other court acts

not containing legislative mandates and are not of general obligatory character. The other significant fact is the formation of the technology of adoption of the law-making acts and its legislative fixation.

Thus, we really shall agree with the fact that interpretation is specific legal analysis envisaging the number of complex sequential stages and actions. Only highly qualified lawyers and legal scientists will be able to adequately and qualitatively solve such problem. This doesn't mean that interpretation is not provided by other subjects (state authorities, citizens) and only Constitutional Court adopts such acts obligatory for all. It is the obligatory feature and its application is guaranteed by the official enforcement that differs the official interpretation from the other types of interpretation. This differs the Constitutional Court from the general jurisdiction courts, the other bodies of state authority that in their activity may act in accordance with short-time interests or make decisions under the influence of different powers. The official interpretation of the Constitution of the Russian Federation and the laws of the Russian Federation is related to the necessity of specification and development of the content of certain provisions in the case of revealing gaps and unclearly established norms. These authorities are envisaged by the legal nature of the constitutional justice. The effective constitutional control would be impossible without revealing the real essence of the constitutional norm that shall conform to the disputed legal act. Official interpretation of law is the highest level of interpretation performed by the authority for which this function is primary, not secondary characterizes the essence of its activity.

Legal literature contains different opinions on specificity of interpretation. Thus, A.A. Lebedev notes that peculiarity of interpretation in the sphere of court constitution control is in its prevailing

law-making character [9].

S.A. Avakyan states: "Interpretation shall be provided within the limits written and fixed in the constitution. But the matter is that what is written is either not understood at all or it is possible to develop several ways of its realization. Then the interpretation becomes not just the interpretation but rather a creation of a new legal norm" [10].

This approach is opposed by V.Y. Solovyev as due to this approach there is a possibility of changing the legal norm through its interpretation which in its turn becomes an act of direct lawmaking [11].

To solve this problem it is necessary to accept the decision of the Constitution Court as a precedent in specific cases on interpretation of constitution and laws. But the court precedent as a source of law is characteristic for common law and foreign for civil law. However, it is impossible to ignore the presence of general trend for harmonization of different legal systems.

Due to the defects of certain provisions of the laws caused in particular by the wrong grammatical expressions and some logical-grammar mistakes it is necessary to apply logical, teleological and grammatical methods of interpretation. In this case it is necessary to consider the fact that both separate provisions of the fundamental law and constitutional institutions are the part of integral legal control and perform their functions which in their turn shall conform to the legal nature of the constitution itself. The results obtained in the process of concretization of certain constitutional norm shall not contradict to the content of the other constitutional norms or to the Constitution in general as well as to its fundamental parts.

Consequently during the interpretation of the constitutional norms the court shall not consider only their literary content but also consider their place in the legal system, peculiarities of their realization because all the elements are interre-

lated and play their roles within the whole system. Besides, interpretation of the constitution and other laws shall be objective, unprejudiced and qualified as the content of the constitutional norm may less be changed by interpretation creating the other norm by its essence resulting in appearance of new legal relationships.

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THE WILL AND ITS FORMS IN THE LEGISLATION OF THE REPUBLIC OF KAZAKHSTAN AND FOREIGN COUNTRIES

Dautbayeva Dinara¹, Babajanyan Yester²

¹*Kazakh - American Free University, Kazakhstan*

²*Kazakh Humanities and Law University, Kazakhstan*

Succession refers to one of the derived ways of title acquisition. Basis for succession is constituted by either will or law. As early as in the beginning of the 20th century, I. Pokrovskiy emphasized importance of testamentary succession as a social institute of the civil law [1, p. 304-305].

In terms of its legal nature, will refers to transactions; but since only one party is needed to settle this transaction, the will is considered to be a unilateral transaction. Therefore, it is covered by regulations on transactions of the General Part of the Civil Code of the Republic of Kazakhstan (hereinafter referred to as CC

RK). Thus, legal force of the will depends on four principal conditions, which are the conditions of any transaction validity, as follows: 1) condition on content; 2) condition on parties; 3) condition on will and will declaration; 4) condition on structure. Thereby, we can emphasize significance of the will form as one of fundamental conditions of its validity, failure to comply with which may render the will invalid.

To substantiate the significance of the will validity basis under consideration, M. Gordon stated, “peculiarity of will actually consists in the fact that it files a will of the testator expressed in one time while such arrangement becomes known to a wide range of persons later, long after the will was made. It is not easy matter to establish many years later what the testator was going to say regarding his estate destiny. Therefore, it is necessary from the very beginning to make provisions for accurate filing of the testator's will using the terms that cannot cause disputes” [2, p. 39].

Thus, form of the will is strictly regulated by the Civil Law to ensure a testator's right of the last will as much as practical and to minimize possibility for contestation of the will content in the court.

According to Article 1050 of CC RK and Article 1124 of CC of the Russian Federation (hereinafter referred to as RF), duly executed wills are the wills that are notarized or equal to notarized (Article 1052 of CC RK, Article 1125 of CC RF); the list of such wills is comprehensive.

Thereby in compliance with the existing laws, notary form of the will is a compulsory condition of its validity, and, at this, the will should be executed and signed by the testator personally.

Let us pay attention to international legal practice in solving this issue. Thus, even Roman Civil Law stipulated nuncupative form of the will along with written one. “Should the testament be oral (testa-

mentum nuncupativum), the testator shall express his will either with words or signs so that the witnesses could hear and understand him. Sometimes a document is made for such testament to better prove its content... Should the testament be written, it is to be handwritten by the testator with corresponding note in the text, and if this is the case, no special signature of the testator is needed (test. allographum)” [3, p. 439].

In 21st century, civil laws of many foreign countries stipulate “possibility of making a nuncupative will in extraordinary circumstances” [4, p. 512]. Thus, according to § 2250-2251 of the German Civil Code “a person being in a location that is incommunicado due to an emergency situation in a way that it is impossible or hardly possible to make a testament in a court or a notary's office, a person under immediate mortal danger, a person who appears to be outside a German port while going by a German flag vessel may make a testament as a parol statement witnessed by three persons. The extraordinary testament shall be considered null and void, provided that 3 months have passed upon the date of the testament and the testator is alive” [4, p. 513].

Parol form of the will applicable only in special cases is stipulated by the Law of Hungary [4, p. 512].

Article 11 of 1837 Act of England stipulates, “any soldier being in actual military service, or any mariner or seaman being at sea, may execute nuncupative wills attested by witnesses, or wills in writing requiring neither signature, nor attestation by witnesses” [5, p. 537].

The same regulation with some differences is contained in CC RF as well.

Notwithstanding that this provision has a positive meaning and partially considers historical background of the Russian Civil Law, it is no so much relevant for RK as for RF. Unlike the Russian Federation, there are no military actions in the

territory of the Republic of Kazakhstan and risk of natural calamities is not that high. These are the factors that according to the Russian lawyers caused adoption of regulations on wills made in extraordinary circumstances [6, p. 48]. Furthermore, enforcement of such provisions will require development and adoption of relevant sub-laws to establish procedure of notarial actions on conducting succession-related cases initiated due to wills that were made in extraordinary circumstances.

In terms of historical observation, several forms of testamentary dispositions were developed in Europe. Thus, Article 969 of the French Civil Code contains three forms of the will as follows: holographic will, that of record and mystic form.

Olograph or autograph will is stipulated by the Law of England as opposed to continental Europe. In this regard, English legislator provides no free choice to a testator. According to Article 9 of 1837 Act, a will should be executed in writing, signed by the testator (or some other person by his direction) and attested in his presence by at least two witnesses [7, p. 537]. The witnesses should state their full names and addresses.

In general, English olograph form of the will was accepted by all states of the USA. But according to the Uniform Probate Code of the USA it is not compulsory for wills to be written by the testator himself as opposed to autograph wills of the continental law. The testamentary disposition may be either written by other person for him or typewritten. Combination of typed and handwritten texts is also allowable though the US courts usually have difficulties in defining the will in these wills.

“Although clearly the most dramatic, § 2-503 is not the only revision to the Uniform Probate Code designed to cure "intent - defeating formalism". Holographic wills, for example, as noted above, have

few formal requirements.

Yet courts typically trip over them in the one situation in which the testator's intent is comparatively clear—where the document offered for probate is an unattested printed will form filled in and signed by the testator in his or her writing. The requirement that holographs be in the testator's handwriting sometimes has to contend with the troublesome presence of printed or typewritten matter on the document. When that happens, courts apply various rules to construe away the printed material and determine if what remains is a will by asking: Are the "material provisions" in the testator's handwriting, is the printed matter "mere surplusage," or did the testator "intend to incorporate" the printed portions into the handwritten provisions?" [8, p. 1043].

The only exception is the Law of Louisiana that adheres to the French type of testamentary dispositions. In the USA, succession is enacted according to the laws of the states. However, differences between the laws of the states regarding this issue are not vital. Thus, the laws of Maine, Massachusetts and Illinois stipulate attestation of will by three witnesses. In other states (Arizona, Arkansas, California), holographic will is not the only will form. In the above states, handwritten will similar to that of the laws of continental Europe, RK and RF is allowed.

In addition to olograph will inherent to probate law of English-American system, the laws of the great majority of countries require as follows: firstly, written execution of the will, secondly, attestation by a notary or any other official designated by the law.

Will notarization is also required by the laws of Italy and Switzerland as well as the regulations of the Hague Convention on the Conflict of Laws regarding the form of the testamentary dispositions. These regulations are referred by the succession legislators of several European

countries (Switzerland, Austria and Belgium), i.e. countries that ratified the above Convention [9, pp. 664-667].

According to CC RK, a will must be executed in writing. In special circumstances wills attested by other persons are treated as equal to notarized ones. These wills are listed in Article 1052 of CC RK. Paragraph 2 of Article 1052 of CC RK stipulates that such wills should be attested in the presence of a witness.

CC RF (paragraph 2 of Article 1124 of the CC) stipulates, “the following persons may not act as witnesses: a notary or any other person attesting the will; the person in whose favor the will or the testamentary refusal was made, a spouse of such person, his or her children and parents (as well as adopted and adoptive persons); individuals not disposing of full legal capacity; persons unable to read or write; individuals physically challenged in a manner expressly preventing them from comprehending the essence of the issue in full; persons who cannot speak the language well enough to execute the will, except when a close will is made” [10].

Witnesses are needed to attest legality of the actions of the person attesting the will and minimize possibility of abuse by such person.

As mentioned above, Article 1050 of CC RK states personal signing of the will by the testator as a compulsory requirement to the will form.

Paragraph 3 of Article 1050 stipulates exception to the rule. “Should the testator be unable to sign the will personally owing to his physical defects, disease or illiteracy, it may be signed by other individual upon his request in presence of a notary or any other person attesting the will, with specification of reasons preventing the testator from signing the will personally” (Paragraph 3 of Article 1050 of CC RK).

The testator is not obliged to notify any other person on execution of his will,

its content, revision or cancellation. His expression of will is a unilateral transaction for which will of only one party (that of the testator) is needed.

It is common knowledge that potential heirs are interested in certain consequences of the transaction. However, sometimes successors are not worthy heirs. The testator’s wish to postpone as much as possible quarrels and disputes between relatives (who often become these very heirs) regarding the upcoming division of the estate to be inherited is quite understandable.

To solve these problems, Article 1051 of CC RK stipulates secret will; its wording is being known to the testator only before commencement of the succession. No other person, including the notary, who must be present at this, can learn its content prior to death of the testator. Foreign countries have been using this form for a long time. For example, in the Federal Republic of Germany, Poland and Bulgaria it is called handwritten will, in Hungary – personally written, in Italy – secret (thought is may be written by a third party), in France – mystic, in Spain – closed will.

However, Paragraph 4 of Article 1051 of CC RK has quite superficial description of regulation of issues related to secret will.

Firstly, how many original copies of the secret will shall be made? Secondly, may the officials entitled to commit notary actions attest the secret will? Thirdly, what is the manner and order of signatures of the testator and the two witnesses on the ‘first’ envelope? Do they have to state any other data near their signatures on the first envelope? Fourthly, what document should the notary give to the testator to prove that he took the secret will for safe keeping given that it is executed as a sole original copy and kept by the notary? Fifthly, what is the procedure for the will opening?

As per the first question, it should be mentioned that the Law maximizes privacy of the will by giving legal force to the secret will. Based on this guarantee, any secret will should be executed as a sole original copy.

As per the second question, the answer is positive. If a secret will complies with the form, it was attested by an authorized official and submitted to a notary in accordance with Article 38 of the Law of the Republic of Kazakhstan “*On Notariate*” dd. July 14, 1997 (hereinafter referred to as Notariate Law) this will should be considered valid.

One of the significant gaps in the Civil Law of the Republic of Kazakhstan is absence of regulations on secret wills opening.

Study of legal experience of foreign countries gives some idea on possible solution of the problem. Thus, CC of the Republic of Belarus dd. December 7, 1998, CC of the Republic of Armenia dd. May 5, 1999, and CC RF dd. November 26, 2001 stipulate that the second envelope should bear statement of certification with detailed information on the testator and the witnesses, place, date and time of the will acceptance, home address of each witness as well as a notice that the notary receiving the secret will should advise the testator on the rights of the heirs who have right for compulsory portion beforehand. The testator should be granted with a document confirming the secret will acceptance.

Regarding the disclosing procedure, we can find common features in the laws of the considered foreign countries. Thus, upon receiving the testator’s death certificate the notary within 15 days maximum should tear the will envelope open in presence of at least two witnesses and interested parties out of the legal heirs that expressed their wish to be present.

Number of the attendees is not limited. When the envelope opening proce-

dure is over and the will is announced, the notary should make a protocol, confirming the envelope opening and stating full wording of the will. Then he and the witnesses should sign it. This protocol should also state all discrepancies of meaning and content with proper will. The original will and protocol should be kept by the notary, the heirs receive a notarized copy of the protocol.

To summarize, it can be noted that currently the existing CC RK in terms of provisions regulating various aspects of will execution as a social institute covers provisions on general requirements to the will form and this can be considered a legislation progress; but along with this, it requires significant revisions of some provisions.

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ECOLOGICAL AND LEGAL PRINCIPLES OF IMPROVING ECONOMIC INCENTIVES FOR ENVIRONMENTAL MANAGEMENT AND PROTECTION IN THE REPUBLIC OF KAZAKHSTAN

Gavrilova Yuliya

Kazakh - American Free University, Kazakhstan

The Environmental Code of the Republic of Kazakhstan as of January 9, 2007 [1] covers all aspects of interaction between society and nature including issues of economic regulation of environmental protection and management. Article 95 of the primary codified environmental act of the Republic of Kazakhstan stipulates the following economic mechanisms of environmental protection and management regulation: planning and funding for environmental protection measures; charges for environmental emissions; charges for natural resources use; economic incentives for environmental protection; market mechanisms and environmental emissions trading; environmental insurance; economic evaluation of environmental damage.

However, statutory institutions of economic mechanism for environmental protection and management regulation need to be worked out in greater detail as they are set out in a rather general form and contain a large number of reference rules. The least developed aspect of such a mechanism is economic incentives for environmental protection. Nowadays at the scientific and theoretical level there is an understanding of the need for incentive-based environmental charges, however, at the legislative level and in practice such

payments, having a tax character, are dissolved in the state budget that does not give them the proper destination.

Unfortunately, the primary environmental act of the Republic of Kazakhstan neither stipulates the special-purpose character and expenditure of environmental charges nor mentions well-known international experience of incentive mechanisms of payment for environmental management. The latter include the following: a flexible mechanism for environmental payments, tax breaks, easy-term loans, mortgage rates and mortgage interest, environmental funds, etc. According to Article 103 of the Environmental Code the Government the Republic of Kazakhstan may only establish maximum rates for environmental emissions in order to enhance economic incentives for environmental protection.

However, the establishment of marginal rates can hardly create the necessary incentives as natural resource users will raise the price of their products, goods, or services instead of implementing environmental protection measures.

In our opinion, this problem can be solved, first and foremost, through the adoption of a special act covering environmental payments in the Republic of Kazakhstan. As D. Baideldinov stated, “in

order to improve the system of environmental payments in Kazakhstan it is necessary to develop and adopt a special act "On Environmental Payments" [2, p. 44].

We support the stated above position of Kazakhstani scholars (D. Baideldinov and K. Rakhimberdin) and think the main objective of the act is the creation of effective mechanisms of economic interest of natural resource users to reduce the negative impact on the environment. Moreover, the current system of environmental charges, gradually turning into a form of environmental taxes and regarded as one of the sources of budget replenishment, should change its direction towards the development of compensation for environmental loss and stimulate natural resource users to reduce their harmful impact. Besides, the future act should be sent to the exemption from the payment of those business entities, which use best available technologies and do not go beyond the standards of permissible impact on the environment. This situation, of course, changes the content of the principle of "polluter pays" that will change the nature of the environmental tax payments operating today in the Republic of Kazakhstan.

Much attention is to be paid to the components of environmental payments. As the payments include charges for environmental management and emissions it is necessary to provide for a clear procedure of determining the pay for each object. Further, it would allow any person to calculate the charge to be paid.

Taking into account the domestic Kazakhstani experience of ecological funds, it would be advisable to send environmental payments to such newly created institutional financial associations. The future normative act should also stipulate that the incoming funds are to be strictly spent in accordance with the purpose.

Under the conditions of economic crisis and reducing the state budget financ-

ing for environmental measures, the role and importance of ecological funds must increase. Moreover, future ecological funds are to adequately reflect the nature and circumstances of the economic situation in the country. For example, they must ensure the allocation of easy-term environmental loans to those natural resource users whose activities have an adverse impact on the environment. When creating such funds, it must be taken into account both positive and negative experiences of transitional circumstances of Kazakhstan and other countries where ecological funds previously operated or are currently operating. Moreover, the state and public organizations should strengthen the control mechanisms over the receipt and expenditure of funds, as one of the reasons of abolishing the ecological funds in Kazakhstan were examples of the funds use for purposes not directly related to the environmental protection. At the same time, ecological funds must be independent in decision-making. The state should provide support and establish such a level of environmental charges, which would ensure the stability of the revenue base of ecological funds and correspond with the cost required for the restoration of disturbed ecosystems.

It also should be emphasized, that in order to avoid past mistakes it is necessary to ensure publicity and transparency of ecological funds. The latter condition is especially important when considering projects to be funded. The project cycle is expected to include a sequence of specific steps after the application of the project's author to the ecological fund, evaluation of the project, its approval (deviation), its realization, and its results evaluation. The legislator is to bend every effort to saving time of the applicant as well as to the transparency of ecological funds, especially when making decisions regarding the approval or rejection of the project.

Ecological funds are possibly to be

created directly at the enterprises and enterprises-natural resource users must form ecological funds in the amount sufficient to perform their assigned limits of the environmental impact and withdrawal (use) of natural resources.

Ecological funds may include the following sources: payments for environmental emissions and use of natural resources; charges for any claims in damages; penalties for violation of environmental laws, environmental regulations, rules, and standards; depreciation for the restoration of environmental installations and facilities; loans of regional ecological funds for reducing the harmful environmental impact and irrevocable payments (subventions) for such a reduction from the said funds; part of the enterprise payments for consumption of natural resources in cases when the enterprise recovers spent resources from its own funds or bank loans; income (deposit interest) from keeping ecological funds at banks.

In case of insufficiency of these sources the ecological funds can be replenished by the part of the balance sheet profit of the enterprise.

Ecological funds of enterprises should be formed and expended under the supervision of banking institutions and environmental protection bodies. Part of the funds should be spent on improving primary production in order to mitigate the harmful environmental impact and to conserve natural resources.

The sources of regional ecological funds should be ... “revenues from the issue of environmental loans, budgetary subsidies, target local taxes, voluntary contributions, and interests for environmental loans...” [3, p. 6]. One of the sources of ecological funds replenishing can be environmental insurance premiums. As Kazakhstani researcher G. Mukasheva correctly noted, “Insurance is one of the most important economic institutions that existed in different economic formations

but it is most fully realized in the market” [4, p. 16].

In our opinion, in order to promote environmental management it is necessary to review the conceptual principles of ecological insurance in the Republic of Kazakhstan. The main purpose of this institution should be the formation of insurance ecological funds for prevention of environmental accidents and disasters. Their funds will be spent directly for the restoration of environmental damage caused by accidental pollution.

In addition to the direct interdependence of the environmental payments institute on environmental insurance, the considered tool of economic mechanism of environmental protection is indirectly associated with another tool of environmental management – the environmental audit. According to the Environmental Code the environmental audit is an independent audit of economic and other activities of the audited entities aimed at the identification and assessment of environmental risks and the development of recommendations for improving the environmental safety of their activities. Clause 4 of Article 82 of the act contains the structure of environmental information including data of ecological and economic aspects of the subject. But the said act does not define the content of the ecological and economic activity. In our opinion, the value of the environmental audit is the following: its results serve as the basis for making a conclusion on the state of economic and financial reporting, accounting, timeliness and value of the current environmental charges; purposeful use of capital funds allocated for environmental protection. These components must become not only the structure of ecological and economic activities but also the objects of the environmental audit (it should be noted that the Environmental Code of the Republic of Kazakhstan stipulates no clear objects of environmental audit). Thus, the

problem of improving the legislation of the Republic of Kazakhstan in the field of environmental charges reveals a number of gaps to be replenished due to both legal science and practice.

In our study it is also important to emphasize the fact that ecological funds have significant advantages compared with the existing system of environmental payments to the budget. All incoming payments “are spent on anything: most often on patching holes in the budget, on solving accidental problems, but not on solving environmental issues in the place of the enterprise activity and the place of harmful environmental impact”, says Andrei Karchevsky, a freelance Advisor to the Minister for the Environment.

We can mention the following as an example: in 2006 the budget of Karaganda Region received 2.2 billion tenge of environmental payments from industrial enterprises of the region and most part of them was spent on road maintenance in Karaganda. This happens all the time. Officials neither spend the environmental money purposefully nor care about funding top priority problems from the national budget. For example, the Register of Environmental Issues compiled by the Ministry of Environment Protection for 2008-2010 contains no programs for Temirtau, which means the latter will get no money to improve its environmental situation” [5, p. 4].

Atyrau Region may serve as another similar example: for 12 months of 2005 the actual amount of environmental revenues to the regional budget accounted for 4 546 220 000 tenge or 141% of the plan. But for environmental measures in 2005 it was allocated only 357 870 000 tenge or 1/10 of these funds.

Statistical data on environmental payments in the North Kazakhstan Region are also of particular interest. Every year the local budget receives funds from payments for environmental pollution. The

analysis shows that each year environmental payments increase (in 2005 the amount of environmental charges exceeded that of 2002 in almost 3 times). However, in practice the allocated funds are insufficient to implement the necessary measures [6].

The former Minister of Environmental Protection N. Iskakov speaking at the board meeting reported that in the western region of Kazakhstan the environmental funding is a small percentage. Thus, “in 2006 Aktobe Region planned to finance environmental protection to the sum of 100 million tenge, which is 3% of the planned volume of the payments. West Kazakhstan Region allocated for these purposes only 0.2 billion tenge or 4% of the amount of actually received environmental funds [7].

Thus, on the basis of the foregoing, it should be emphasized that there is an urgent need to stipulate in the environmental legislation the obligation of spending environmental funds strictly on environmental conservation, restoration, and other environmental purposes. Ecological funds are not the only means of economic incentives of natural resource users to reduce their harmful impact.

Together with the introduction and development of ecological funds it is important to work out the procedure of giving the enterprises a regime of accelerated depreciation of environmental facilities and structures, cleaning equipment, and other eco-technology. The introduction of accelerated depreciation in foreign countries contributed to the accumulation of capital for upgrading the outdated technology and transition to less harmful equipment. Thus, the amortization period for pollution control equipment in Canada is two years, in France – a year for 50% of equipment. Besides, the system of economic incentives for “nature-friendly production” providing various benefits and bonuses is to function simultaneously with

the above mentioned tools.

Thus, the system of environmental charges should be organized in such a way that it would be more profitable for natural resource users to apply new technologies and develop nature-friendly processes than to pay taxes and penalties. But for this purpose the amount of payment should not be symbolic. At the same time, penalties are a form of negative motivation for environmental management and protection as their main function is a punitive one.

It is known that one of the reasons for the unfavorable environment in Kazakhstan is the underestimation of the real economic value of nature and the cost of natural resources or services. The experience has shown that neither the centrally planned economy nor the modern market economy could and can adequately take into account the economic value of nature. In our opinion, the adequate consideration of environmental factors in economic performance, as well as full economic assessment of natural resources through environmental inventories can help to improve the system of environmental payments in Kazakhstan.

The improvement of environmental charges may also be contributed by other mechanisms such as the loan rate which is an additional charge to compensate the constant environmental damage caused due to lack of non-waste technology. Loan rates are not included in the price of the final product, but depend on the environmental damage and the cost of its restoration. It can be represented in the form of a loan to be paid by the nature user to the state stimulating non-waste production. Moreover, the environmental authority, when passing the use of natural resources, takes the security deposit from the user; it is fully refundable to the latter, if the resource is returned in adequate state. The loan rate must consist of various factors affecting the environmental pollution including both the quantity and quality of

environmental emissions, and characteristics of the object polluted (whether it is a specially protected natural area or a city or an area with adverse environmental conditions, etc.).

In general, loan rates should stimulate natural resource users to environmental compliance. Such a system can be a powerful economic lever of careful use of natural resources. Loan rates are required to reimburse the basic costs of the state for environment protection measures.

Together with the introduction of loan rates it is important to provide in the future normative act the possibility of credit granting to the natural resource users for the payment of loan rates. The price paid for the use of credit should be the loan percentage. When changing it at a constant amount of the loan rate, the environmental authority may stimulate the implementation of various nature protection measures; when refusing to provide credits to pay the loan rates, it may force the closure of the enterprise most damaging the nature.

Such economic and environmental tools, of course, require a comprehensive approach to the development of a legal framework to ensure their functioning. In particular, the provision of credit facilities to enterprises engaged in environmental protection is complicated by the fact that the banking legislation does not contain all necessary prerequisites. It is obvious that banks engaged in lending, should, in turn, somehow compensate for the costs associated with the issuance of preferential loans thus being economically interested. But for a start it is necessary to mention a new type of environmental services of banks - a flexible use of a wide range of banking products for financing environmental business. It requires the bank-specialists' expertise in the field of environmental auditing, management, and marketing. The latter circumstance would be aimed at increasing the volume of banking services.

An example of the expansion of such services can serve the ecological balance compilation and the publication of annual environmental reports of the Credit Suisse Bank. "The information of getting *Series 14001 # 150 Environmental Certificate* was brought to the public via the Internet through publications in the press. The Bank primarily expresses interest in the companies having the specified certificate. For example, if two companies are in need of credit and one of them is certified *Series 14001 #150*, then, of course, preference will be given to that having the specified environmental certificate ..." [8].

Today it is very important for the Republic of Kazakhstan to have the environmental component reflected in banks activities. The state should support the banks implementing new environmental products, programs, and activities. It should also provide assistance to the banks sponsoring environmental activities, conducting environmental lottery, etc.

In general, the legal system of the Republic of Kazakhstan in the field of economic incentives for environmental management is still being formed and de-

veloped. There is much to do for improving the current legislation and developing new norms to regulate relations in the direction indicated.

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PECULIARITIES OF INTERROGATION RECORDING

Alembayev Kairat

Kazakh - American Free University, Kazakhstan

One of the main methods of fixing the procedure and results of interrogation is the record which is taken in compliance with Articles 203 and 218 of the Criminal Procedure Code of the Republic of Kazakhstan [1]. It should reflect the whole process of interrogation: its progress and results, time of its beginning and completion, break period if there was any.

The record is made in the course of interrogation or immediately after it. It should be cautioned against keeping the record after a long time after interrogation,

which sometimes occurs in practice because of the diversion of the interrogating officer to other cases [2].

Testimony is recorded in the first person, word for word (as much as possible), in a handwritten, typewritten or computer-made way by means of taking shorthand notes, sound and video recording; the latter being attached to the record and kept in a criminal case file.

Questions and answers during the interrogation are recorded in the order they have been asked. It is also necessary to

record all demonstrative proof and other materials concerning the criminal case.

The initial interrogation record includes the personal data of the person being questioned, as well as other information required by the circumstances of the case. The subsequent interrogation record includes only the interrogated person's surname, first name, and middle name (if they have not changed).

According to Article 99 Clause 2 of the Criminal Procedure Code, if the interrogating officer issued a decision on security measures taken to the interrogated person, the personal information will be stored separately (not in the record), which is also to be recorded. The interrogating officer's decision is placed in a sealed envelope. Only the interrogating officer, the prosecutor, and the court have the right to get acquainted with the content of the envelope.

If the interrogation was conducted with the help of technical means or with the use of drawings, diagrams, plans, etc., this should be fixed in the record. It also should be recorded that the interrogated person and the defender (if present) are informed about the scientific and technical means used.

The interrogated has the right to make a free account of the matter and then to record the evidence with his own hand. When the interrogated signs all the testimony, the interrogating officer can ask questions.

One of the typical mistakes during the interrogation is if the interrogating officer offers the interrogated to bear evidence in his own handwriting immediately after having asked a single question. This is a violation of criminal procedure law, as the testimony with one's one hand is to be made only after the interrogating officer listens to free account of the matter, i.e., completes the first stage of the interrogation.

Upon the completion of the interro-

gation the record is presented to the interrogated or the interrogating officer reads it out. The interrogated has the right to demand for introducing additions and clarifications to the record that must be implemented. All additions and clarifications are to be reflected either in the record of the interrogation, its continuation or in the additional record. Any changes, additions, or corrections not signed by both the interrogated and the interrogating officer are inadmissible. Otherwise, such a record loses its value as a source of evidence because of a serious violation of procedural law. The interrogated signs every page of the record thus certifying the record itself and the evidence given. In case of failure of the interrogated to sign the record, the interrogating officer finds grounds for refusal, puts them in the record and certifies it with the signature [3].

The entire record of the interrogation is to be signed by the interrogating officer at the end of the record. If necessary the interrogating officer can certify each page of the record with the signature, especially when the record is typewritten that does not exclude further replacing of any page of the record when transferring the criminal case file to other officials.

The record is also to be signed by all persons who participated in the interrogation: the defender, the investigation department head, the prosecutor, the interpreter, the expert, and the person responsible for fixing the interrogation using scientific and technological means. The list of all participants is to be recorded as well.

According to Article 219 of the Criminal Procedure Code the interrogation of the injured party, witness, suspect, or accused may be conducted by means of sound and video recording at the request of the interrogated or by the decision of the interrogating officer. The interrogated is to be notified about it prior to the interrogation.

Audio and video recording, as well

as the record, must include the following information: date and place of the investigative action; time of its beginning and completion; characteristics of technical means applied and the terms of their application; facts and reasons of record suspension; information of a person producing sound and video recordings.

Audio and video recording of a part of the interrogation or the repetition of testimony especially for audio recording is not allowed. Audio and video recording must reflect the entire course of the interrogation and contain the following: announcement of the interrogating officer about the interrogation; confirmation of the interrogated person's consent; explanation of the interrogated person's rights and obligations; every question and every answer; supplements to audio and video recordings made after acquaintance with sound and video records.

Upon the completion of the interrogation all audio and video recordings are fully reproduced to the interrogated and then are certified by both the interrogated and the interrogating officer. Audio and video recordings are stored in the criminal case file and are sealed at the end of the preliminary investigation.

Audio and video recordings are annexed to the record of the interrogation and together with the paper record constitute a source of evidence. In certain situations, they can be independent sources of evidence. In particular, when there are questions about the authenticity of the materials, the conformity of the testimony in the paper record with the audio and video recordings, as well as when conducting psychological and psychiatric examination of the interrogated during the investigative process.

It is obligatory to enter all evidence fixed by means of audio and video equipment on the record of the interrogation.

Evidence Evaluation: General terms of evidence evaluation are stipulated by

the Criminal Procedural Law and subject to the evaluation of evidence obtained during the interrogation. However, there are some specific peculiarities between the evaluation of evidence of witnesses and injured parties, of suspects and accused persons (Articles 25 and 128 of the Criminal Procedure Code).

While evaluating the evidence of a witness or an injured party, it is necessary to determine the significance of the information of the facts previously used for establishing the circumstances subject to proof. In this regard, every item of evidence is to be evaluated from the perspective of relevance, admissibility, and reliability. Therefore, it is necessary to determine the following:

- whether the evidence is relevant to proper resolution of the criminal case;
- whether they are given in accordance with the Criminal Procedure Law;
- whether the information reported in the interrogation corresponds to the facts in the past;
- what is the place of the evidence in the whole set of available proofs on the criminal case.

The greatest difficulty is related to the evaluation of the evidence reliability and conformity with the objective facts previously perceived by the party and reproduced during the interrogation. This takes into account the following factors:

- conditions of evidence formation (objective and subjective);
- personality characteristics of the interrogated;
- procedural status of the interrogated;
- attitude to the case under investigation and its outcome;
- reasons for giving evidence.

Each of the proposed factors reflects personal characteristics of the interrogated, thus influencing the formation of evidence. The process of evidence formation, as mentioned above, is quite compli-

cated and should be fully taken into account in evaluating the evidence together with the features of the person being questioned.

During the interrogation the evidence cannot totally conform to the objective reality. Therefore, evidence evaluation involves understanding the relevance of the information to real circumstances of the case. The evidence can be recognized as completely appropriate the circumstances of the case or as not appropriate [4].

Some scientific observations and experiments on the testimony, as well as summarizing of the investigative and judicial practice provide a basis to challenge the absolute and unconditional credibility of even bona fide witnesses.

Testimony often has serious disagreements, inaccuracies, and mistakes depending on a number of factors: significance of the event, the quality of perception by the eyewitness, and other objective and subjective factors mentioned above.

In this regard, personal bona fides of the witness conflicts with reality, thus resulting in fallacious evidence. The interrogating officer requires accurate knowledge, wide experience, and high professionalism during the interrogation and in evaluating the evidence.

In connection with the above mentioned, it is necessary to consider such concepts as "truth", "falsity", and "deliberate falsity of the evidence". The Criminal Procedure Law provides that witnesses and injured parties: a) must truthfully report all known in the case and tell the truth and nothing but the truth; b) are responsible for perjury (Articles 75 and 82 of the Criminal Procedure Code).

The word "truth" means something which is in accordance with fact or reality. The law requires a witness or an injured party to give truthful testimony. At the same time, in terms of the legal concept the evidence truthfulness is determined not

only by objective but also by subjective attitude of the interrogated, by his or her good faith.

The witness or the injured party may be veracious in the case when their testimony is appropriate to objective reality or when they are mistaken in good faith and their testimony does not correspond to the case file. In the Russian language the word "falsity" means a deliberate distortion of the truth, the fact of being untrue or insincere. But the science of criminal law considers the term in two ways. The evidence can be proven false and untrue as a result of unintentional situations of subjective and objective factors. Willful false testimony means that the interrogated deliberately tells lies.

Reasons for conscious and deliberate falsehood in the testimony of a witness or an injured party vary. Quite often they are the following: attitude and relationship to the outcome of the case; fear of revenge by the criminals; distrust to the investigating bodies; and some other not disinterested motives. All this does not diminish the value of the correct determination of the veracity of the witness or the injured party. In some cases, false statements may be associated with slander and self-incrimination. This refers to the testimony of the suspect and the accused.

Slander is the action or crime of making a false spoken statement damaging to a person's reputation. Such statements are most often deliberately false or are the result of honest mistakes.

Self-incrimination is the action of false admitting oneself guilty of an offense. There are two types of self-incrimination: a simple one, when the interrogated falsely pleads guilty, and a complex one, entailing a false confession of one's guilt and false accusations of others, supposedly accomplices. The origin of self-incrimination in the testimony is most often associated with the use of illegal methods and means of interrogation, used

contrary to the prohibition, or out of mercenary considerations of the person conducting the interrogation. Sometimes self-incrimination becomes a provocation on the part of the interrogating officer when the latter intentionally suggests the idea of the subjective benefit of certain evidence, actually false, to the interrogated. Self-incrimination, as well as slander, can be the result of influence of the actual perpetrator and his/her relations, as well as an initiative of the interrogated and his/her personal considerations, e.g., the interrogator may take the blame of a criminal groups to shield the accomplices, or take the blame of own relatives, friends, etc. [5].

Evaluation and verification of evidence are inextricably connected to each other. Evidence verification, as well as evidence evaluation, occurs throughout the interrogation presenting a system of actions aimed at obtaining reliable evidence. Evidence verification includes:

- analysis of the information of the evidence;
- comparison of this information with the evidence in the case file, as well as collected after the interrogation including obtained during the interrogation;
- detection of inconsistencies in the evidence in relation to other testimony.

When evaluating the evidence it is very important to distinguish between the information resulting from the deductions of the interrogated or true facts and credible facts, as well as sources of information perceived directly by the interrogated or received by the interrogated from other sources.

Other investigative actions, interrelated to the previous interrogation, such as confrontation, evidence verification at the place of the crime, investigatory experiment, experimental testimony, etc. are conducted during the investigation for final evaluation and verification of the evidence.

Further verification of evidence is not an end in itself. Its task is to obtain new evidence, which collectively form a system contributing to proper resolution of the criminal case.

Specific character of verification of evidence of the suspect and the accused is determined by four main provisions:

- obvious interest in the outcome of the case;
- the presumption of innocence, which excludes treating the evidence as given by a guilty person;
- discharge from proving the innocence and giving credible evidence;
- the position taken with respect to the accusation (suspicion).

In any situation – whether the accused (the suspect) recognizes his/her guilt in full, in part, denies it, gives evidence about his/her own actions or other persons' actions, or declares an alibi - the interrogating officer must fully and impartially verify the information received.

There are cases when the suspect changes the contradictory evidence fully or partially. Sometimes it happens without a motive; therefore, all evidence (previous and further) must be evaluated and verified.

Reasons for the previous evidence refusal must be thoroughly examined, and each of the available evidence must be proven and evaluated. All new evidence are verified and compared with the evidence collected during the investigation.

If the suspect (the accused) changed the evidence, rejecting the first conviction of a crime, reasonably referring to the use of illegal methods of influence, an official or criminal investigation is to verify such statements. Only after that the evidence of the suspect (the accused) can be evaluated.

When it comes to a complex of procedural and criminalistics issues, it is necessary to draw attention to the fact that the evidence obtained during the interrogation in violation of law, have no legal force and

evaluated as unacceptable evidence (Article 116 of the Criminal Procedure Code).

These violations include cases when the interrogation is conducted:

- with the use of torture, violence, threats, deception or other unlawful actions by the investigating authorities;

- with the use of delusion or the interrogated person's ignorance of his/her procedural status and rights guaranteed by the law;

- without full explanation to the interrogated his/her rights and obligations taking into account the procedural provisions;

- in violation of the interrogated person's rights guaranteed by the Criminal Procedure Law;

- by a person who is not entitled to interrogate under the given criminal case;

- with the use of tactical criminalistics methods, other equipment and techniques contrary to the Criminal Procedure Law and modern science;

- before instituting criminal proceedings.

The responsibility of the person(s) who committed violations during the interrogation depends on the extent of the violations. For example, the use of torture by the interrogating officer, the person conducting the inquiry, or any other official for getting the evidence from the tortured or a third party is a criminal offense (Article 347-1 of the Criminal Code of the Republic of Kazakhstan).

Coercion to testify by threats, blackmail or other illegal actions on the part of the interrogating officer or the person conducting the inquiry also entails criminal responsibility (Article 347 of the Criminal Code) [6].

Criminal liability is also stipulated for falsification of evidence (Article 348 of the Criminal Code). In relation to the interrogation it is revealed:

- when the interrogating officer or the person conducting the inquiry draws

up a false record with fictional testimony;

- when the evidence are recorded improperly, subjectively, for mercenary motives;

- when the record is forged (including signatures of the interrogated and other persons participating in the interrogation, etc.).

There are some other hidden (latent) violations of the law during the interrogation. One of such relatively common disorders is the interrogation before the initiating of criminal proceedings. According to Article 194 Clause 2, Article 221, and Article 242 Clause 2 of the Criminal Procedure Code, the interrogation, as well as other investigations, except the crime scene investigation and forensic examination can be carried out only after the decision to institute criminal proceedings.

In order to conceal such a violation, the interrogating officer does not write the date and time of the interrogation in the record immediately at the beginning of the interrogation and fills the gap after the criminal proceeding instituting. It may seem a minor violation, but it is a falsification which is unacceptable

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THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL PRINCIPLES OF THE CODE OF ADMINISTRATIVE OFFENCES AS OF JULY 5, 2014

Kozhuganova Dinara

Kazakh-American Free University, Kazakhstan

Improving the administrative law of the Republic of Kazakhstan is one of the important tasks of the state. The Republic of Kazakhstan conducts different legal reforms and works for compliance with the Basic Law of the state. In this regard, it should be emphasized that problems of administrative law arise from the norms of the Constitution.

In his address to the people of Kazakhstan “Strategy 2050: A New Policy of the Established State” the President instructed the Government to start with the reform of criminal law. However, the foundations of the next stage of improving the legislation of the country were based in the *Concept of Legal Policy for 2010-2020*, approved by Presidential Decree of August 24, 2009, which defined the strategic directions of criminal policy development and a new stage of criminal law modernization. More than 50 administrative offenses were transferred from the Administrative Code to the Criminal Code.

One of the reasons for law modernization was excessive repressive administrative penalties, which in some cases exceeded the penal sanctions. The Administrative Code renewal is related to the reform of criminal law. The adoption of a new version of the Criminal Code could not influence the content of the Administrative Code, as it introduced a new type of wrongful act – “a criminal offense”, which is intermediate between an adminis-

trative offense and a crime.

Reasons for frequent changing of code standards are both objective and subjective. The former (objective reasons) include a vast array of relationships regulated by the Code of Administrative Offences. Political, economic, social, spiritual, and other changes in the national and international spheres cause the need to make amendments to the administrative law. In other words, the adoption of a new legislation or amendments to branch laws that change the mechanism of legal regulation in the area objectively implies the need for changes and amendments to the Code of Administrative Offences. The latter (subjective reasons) include the fact that current authorities-developers see an opportunity to effectively solve various problems through the introduction of administrative responsibility for certain violations and the increase of penalties for existing administrative offenses. This can be explained by the fact that more stringent penalties will force the administrative relations participants to bear more responsibility to comply with current legislation.

Since the adoption of the current Code of Administrative Offences in 2001, it has been amended for a number of times, which led to the systematic violation of the Code, the contradiction of some norms, as well as the violations of its General and Specific Parts. As it was mentioned above, the severity of penalties for an administrative offence in some cases

exceeds the penal sanctions. Thus, today's realities have prompted the need for a new legislation able to respond to current challenges.

760 of the existing 970 articles of the code were amended: new norms were introduced and the existing ones were renewed. The procedure of cassation revision of the administrative offenses decisions entered into force was also reformed. Now the decision is to be considered on the complaint of the person subjected to administrative liability, the injured or their legal representatives. The valid code provides reconsidering only by the objection of the Prosecutor General and the Prosecutor General Deputies [1].

Administrative law is also reformed by means of humanization and reduction of the courts burden. In this regard, the competence of the courts, bodies, and officials authorized to consider administrative offense cases is also revised. The jurisdiction of the authorized state bodies includes cases on administrative offenses for which fine is prescribed, except for some articles.

Courts will consider cases on administrative offenses for which the following penalties are provided: administrative deportation of foreigners or stateless persons; confiscation of the object which appeared instrument or subject of an administrative offense, as well as property obtained as a result of an administrative offense; deprivation of special rights, licenses, special permit, qualification certificate to a specific activity or performing certain actions; suspension or prohibition of activities or certain types of activities.

The Code provides absolutely certain amount of the fine that would eliminate the corruption factor in making administrative punishment.

Deputies made amendments relating to the institution of administrative detention used as a measure of administrative penalty for the commission of certain offenses. In this context, at the discussion

stage of the Criminal Code project some norms stipulating penalty in the form of administrative detention, such as committing illegal acts in family relations, bringing a minor to a state of intoxication, disorderly conduct, violation of administrative supervision law, and driving while intoxicated were excluded from the Criminal Code [3].

It should be noted that in order to humanize the law the Code provides for measures to support small businesses, which was emphasized in the Address of the President to the People of Kazakhstan on January 17, 2014. In particular, compared to the current Code, the amount of penalties for small businesses reduced on average by 50%; the maximum period of administrative detention also reduced to 30 days, in exceptional cases - in a state of emergency - up to 45 days, whereas in the old code the maximum period of administrative detention was 45 days. Thus, the new code provides arrest only in 29 articles, the current - in 69. The exception of the norm "Application of compulsory medical measures to patients suffering from alcoholism, drug addiction or substance abuse and committed an administrative offense" is of great importance too as compulsory medical treatment significantly restricts the rights and freedoms of citizens [2].

Humanization of law is evidenced by the introduction of a provision allowing the judge, body or official to reduce the amount of the fine to 30% for individuals under mitigating circumstances. This innovation was introduced due to the fact that both the old Code and the new Code provide a rule that allows softening the administrative responsibility under such circumstances.

However, it should be noted that the current Code provides neither mitigating nor aggravating circumstances, since over 50% of the articles provide fixed fines.

Adopted provisions are aimed at:

- establishing fixed fines;
- enlarging the number of offences with warning as the first penalty;
- changing the number of persons belonging to officials;
- enlarging the number of provisions establishing the possibility of reducing the fine by 30% under extenuating circumstances;
- introducing a shortened way of considering administrative cases;
- introducing a possibility of reconsidering valid decisions based upon newly discovered evidence and others.

Shortened considering will encourage citizens to voluntarily pay the fines imposed. A citizen, who is fined, can reduce the fine by 50 per cent if pays within seven days from the date of the minutes. This encourages citizens to timely pay the fines, which in its turn will increase the level of fine exaction. This innovation makes it easier to provide the principle of inevitability of punishment inherent in the law. A total reduction of fines affected about 300 articles of the Code.

The institute of administrative proceedings participants' notification was also improved. Now administrative proceedings can be conducted without the participation of offenders. This minimizes contacts of offenders with police officers thus reducing conditions for corruption.

A new version of the Code of Administrative Offences systematized the following norms: Article 26 of the Civil Procedure Code "Proceedings challenging the decisions of bodies or officials authorized to consider administrative cases" are excluded and its provisions are transferred to Article 45 of the Code of Administrative Offences on reconsideration of administrative decisions which have not yet become effective in law.

A number of provisions of Article 27 of the Code of Civil Procedure "Proceedings against decisions and action (or inaction) of state authorities, local gov-

ernment, public associations, organizations, officials and civil servants" moved to Article 44 of the Code of Administrative Offences against the action or inaction of state authorities or officials carrying out administrative proceedings [4].

The institute of reconsidering valid administrative decisions on newly discovered evidence is introduced. Citizens are better able to protect their rights as according to the current Code, the reconsidering of valid decisions was only possible on the protest of the Prosecutor.

Since January 1, 2015 in accordance with Article 449 of the Code of Administrative Offences "stalking appeal to the public for purchase, sale, exchange or getting things in a different way of a person who is not the subject of entrepreneurship, as well as fortune-telling, begging, sexual services or imposing other services" may be fined in the amount of five monthly calculation indices; for a second offense within a year - in the amount of ten monthly calculation indices or administrative arrest for up to five days. Foreigners or stateless persons may be subjected to administrative detention for up to five days with an administrative expulsion from the Republic of Kazakhstan.

The new Code makes it possible to more effectively protect the rights of citizens and simplifies the provisions of excessively complex law.

New formulations of offenses involving liability for violation of labor rights of workers, for failure of the leave within 2 years, and discrimination against workers with the right to equal working conditions and equal pay are introduced to the new Code.

In order to prevent corruption and to ensure the reduction of production the Code draft sets a certain amount of the fine (in percentage) which is used only in certain cases for violations of environmental, tax, economic legislation, and legislation in electric power engineering.

Humanization is also to expand the application of prevention as a form of administrative punishment.

The new Code of Administrative Offences saved exceptions for a current special order to prosecute for tax offenses and offenses recorded by certified special gauging technical means and devices operating in automatic mode.

The new Code of Administrative Offences determined the order of interaction of state bodies and officials authorized to consider administrative proceedings with the competent state bodies and officials of foreign countries, which will increase the possibility of law enforcement.

In addition, the new version of the Code expanded the use of prevention as a form of administrative punishment, revised competence of bodies authorized to

consider administrative proceedings. In particular, 90 articles and 52 clauses of articles providing administrative fines were transferred from the court jurisdiction to public authorities.

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ALTERNATIVE DISPUTE RESOLUTION PROCEDURES IN KAZAKHSTAN

Dautbayeva Dinara¹, Babajanyan Yester²

¹*Kazakh - American Free University, Kazakhstan*

²*Kazakh Humanities and Law University, Kazakhstan*

In the present-day world economic relations is an integral part in the strengthening of international cooperation, mutual understand, both between countries and between other subjects of international law.

At the present stage the development of foreign policy activity of the courtiers promotes the formation of a complex system of international relations. Rates to attract foreign investments in Kazakhstan led to an increase in the number of investment disputes. Bilateral investment agreements provide investors a direct right to submit the dispute to arbitration against the State, violating the laws and agreements - even if investors do not have agreements with the State.

Alternative dispute resolution proce-

dures are becoming more common in international practice. Previously allocated to three main types of alternative dispute resolution procedures: 1) negotiation (negotiation) - settlement of the dispute directly to the parties without the involvement of other persons; 2) Mediation (mediation) - settlement of disputes by an independent neutral mediator who helps parties reach agreement, and 3) arbitration (tribunal) - the resolution of the dispute by an independent neutral person - the arbitrator who makes a binding decision on the parties.

However, in recent years, more and more new types of alternative dispute resolution procedures are developing. American lawyers now exclude the arbitration from alternative dispute resolution

procedures, but at the same time there are about twenty dispute settlement procedures. The most common form of alternative dispute resolution procedures are mediation, conciliation, mini-trial, non-binding arbitration or expert opinion, and others [1, p.78].

As we know, there are several types of international arbitration - international commercial arbitration, international investment arbitration, and arbitration between states. Since Kazakhstan gained independence in 1990 the country had laws that allowed developing to courts of arbitration.

In the development of commercial arbitration in Kazakhstan has entered a new stage. On December 28, 2004 the long-awaited laws of the Republic of Kazakhstan "On Arbitration courts" and "On International Commercial Arbitration" were finally adopted and the Law of the Republic of Kazakhstan and also Law "On making amendments and addenda to some legislative acts of the Republic of Kazakhstan on issues of arbitration courts and tribunals" (hereinafter - the Law on Amendments). Arbitration courts in Kazakhstan have been in limbo since the state courts have denied enforcement of their decisions. Entrepreneurs no longer apply to the arbitral tribunals, their activity was paralyzed. Therefore, new laws are urgently needed to revive the arbitration courts in Kazakhstan, which were almost destroyed as a result of ill-conceived policy of Republic Government. There is no doubt that the new laws will play a positive role.

At the same time in the adopted laws there are certain ambiguities and contradictions, therefore, problems arise in applying those laws.

First of all, you must clearly understand that the arbitral court and arbitral tribunal - are one and the same. In English language the word "arbitration court" interpreted as an "arbitral tribunal". The essence of arbitration court (arbitral tribunal)

that a non-governmental body established by the parties themselves to resolve the dispute. Accordingly, the terms "commercial arbitration", "arbitration," and "arbitration court" are equally applicable to arbitration and to international commercial arbitration. At the same time it must be considered that in the adopted laws, the term "arbitration" applies only to international commercial arbitration.

Equally important today takes the issue of delimitation of competence of the arbitral court and international commercial arbitration in the Republic of Kazakhstan.

Arbitration (tribunal) courts may be permanent (institutional) and formed specifically to address a specific dispute (arbitration «ad hoc») (see item 2) Article 2 of the Law on arbitration courts, paragraph 1 Article 2 of the Law on International Commercial Arbitration).

As rightly pointed by O. Skvortsov, genetically arbitration occurs in the private and the substantive law on the basis of the contract (arbitration agreements) and transformed into a system of procedural rules governing the relationship of the parties to a dispute [2, p. 121].

Distribution of powers between the court of arbitration and international commercial arbitration shall not be held between the specific arbitral bodies (only one court of arbitration, the other only to arbitration), but the nature of disputes. That is, any arbitration court (tribunal) may consider domestic disputes, and international as well, and any natural or legal persons (both resident and nonresident) can go to any arbitral tribunal, no matter how he was called: "arbitral tribunal" or "international commercial arbitration". In this case, depending on the nature of the dispute law on arbitration courts or the Law on International Commercial Arbitration will act. Distribution of powers enshrined in Item 4 of Article 6 of the Law on International Commercial Arbitration, under which:

"In the arbitration agreement of the parties may submit disputes arising from civil contracts between individual and legal persons as well as commercial and other organizations," if at least one of the parties is a nonresident of the Republic of Kazakhstan".

In accordance with paragraph 9) Article 2 of the Law on International Commercial Arbitration a Commercial entities refers as a legal entity of Kazakhstan or a foreign organization whose primary purpose is to deliver revenue. Explanation why foreign organization is separately allocated from the entity is that in some countries participation in public circulation of organizations that are not legal persons is allowed (e.g., a general partnership in the UK).

In accordance with Item 3 of Article 1101 of the Civil Code of the Republic of Kazakhstan, a civil legal capacity of foreign organizations that are not a legal entity under foreign law is determined by the law of the country where the organization is established.

If applicable is the law of the Republic of Kazakhstan such organizations follow the rules of the Civil Code, which regulate the activity of individuals who are commercial entities, unless otherwise follows the laws of the Republic of Kazakhstan or the obligation.

On the basis this, an interpretation of paragraph 4 of Article 6 of the Law on International Commercial Arbitration: the parties to the dispute may be individuals or legal entities, as well as the organization of the number of residents who are not legal entities, but to which the provisions of the Civil Code of commercial organizations are applicable.

Appeal to arbitration (tribunal) proceedings as provided by law of the Republic of Kazakhstan dated December, 28 2004 on "International Commercial Arbitration" (hereinafter - the Law on International Commercial Arbitration), and "On

arbitration courts" (hereinafter - the Law on Arbitration Courts) is one way of protecting civil rights and is possible only if properly entered into between the parties to the arbitration (tribunal) agreements, which is by its legal nature the civil contract. According to Section 2, Art. 2 of the Civil Code of the Republic of Kazakhstan (hereinafter - CC) individuals and legal entities acquire and exercise their civic rights of their own free will and in their own interests. They are free to establish their rights and obligations under the contract and identify any which do not contradict the law of contract. By virtue of paragraph 1 of Art. 8 of Civil Code citizens and legal entities at its discretion dispose of their civil rights, including the right to defense, which is in accordance with paragraph 1 of Art. 9 of Civil Code are administrated by the Court, Arbitral Court or the Arbitral Tribunal. With regard to the matter, this means that above a properly executed arbitration clause only the parties of this clause can be initiators of arbitration proceedings.

On this occasion, Basin Y.G. and Suleimenov M.K. noted that "the members of the plaintiffs and defendants can not beyond outside of signatories of the arbitration clause, because agreement of the parties to the dispute to its proceedings in the arbitration court – is an indispensable condition for making the case for arbitration proceedings. Forcibly, without consent granted by the signing of an arbitration clause in any other lawful manner, no one can be brought to the arbitration court as plaintiffs or defendants. This also applies to those who really seriously involved in the conflict that occurred, are interested in a favorable arbitration decision for themselves (the mortgagor, guarantor, guarantors, etc.). Exceptions are allowed only in cases where an international treaty, member of which is the Republic of Kazakhstan, directly establishes the right of one party to the dispute, to apply to the

arbitration of the defendant country under certain conditions, even without obtaining the consent (e.g., Article 3.4 of the Kiev 1992 Agreement on the procedure for resolving disputes related to economic activity).

Thus, the parties to the arbitration (tribunal) are those persons who have concluded an arbitration (tribunal) agreement. Meanwhile, in certain cases, the subjects of arbitration (tribunal) process relationships may also be a third party. In the legal literature on the possible involvement of third parties in the arbitration (tribunal) proceedings is a controversial and poorly studied, despite the fact that "the consideration and resolution of the case to arbitration may be at risk of violation of their rights and legitimate interests" [3, p. 46].

What is the international investment arbitration and what are its peculiarities? It is fast growing in popularity dispute resolution between foreign investors and public authorities. It is unique in that it gives investors an opportunity to claim compensation for material damage or breach of obligations by the government itself and to do so outside the judicial system of any of the state. The arbitrators are usually lawyers and attorneys with the global name and reputation, which are chosen specifically for each process by the parties or appointed by one of the international organizations that provide their services in this area. Thus, the difference in investment arbitration from commercial arbitration - is that the respondent was usually the state, and the plaintiff - a private citizen, citizen of another State, and, as a rule, there are a very big money. It must be stressed that in order to dispute dealt with in international arbitration, it's necessary to have prior approval for both sides. In commercial relationships such consent is often achieved by including in the contractual relationship of the arbitration clause, i.e., prior agreement of the parties that all disputes relating to this contract shall be

settled through international arbitration. In the context of investment arbitration agreement by the Government is usually witnessed in the investment agreement between the investor's country and the country to attract investment. Kazakhstan is party to 39 such agreements. These agreements stipulate the rights which are endowed with investors of different states such as the right to compensation for expropriation or discriminatory attitudes by the authorities. What is or is not a discriminatory attitude, which should pay compensation - the arbitrators decide on the basis of the specific facts of each case and applicable law.

According to the Law on Investment, an investment dispute -is a dispute arising out of contractual obligations between investors and government authorities in connection with investment activities of the investor. In our point of view, the definition of an investment dispute in the existing Law on Investments is not entirely successful, and worsens the position of investors compared to the old Law on Foreign Investment.

Firstly, the category of Investment Disputes ruled out non-contractual disputes on the relationship between the competent authority of the State and the investor. Thus, it can be considered only in state courts, while the old Law on Foreign Investment in Article 27 will transfer it to international arbitration, even without the consent of the State. Secondly, it is clear that the existence of any dispute can justify the violation of the law of one of the parties to the dispute, and, thus, the definition of an investment dispute raises the risk of transmission of disputes between state and investor in Kazakhstan's courts since the foundation of such a transfer could serve as a charge state investor in violation of the law.

Important is the definition of an investment dispute. There are two definitions of "investment dispute". Under the

investment disputes in a broad sense refers to any disputes related to investments. This may be economic, technical, technological, administrative and legal nature disputes between the different subjects and the economic, technical, technological and administrative disputes can have an independent nature, but also serve an integral part of legal dispute. The Russian legislative does not explicitly use the term "investment dispute" in practice. The definition of investment dispute as long as it does not apply to the current legal acts, has a collective and doctrinal significance. However, due to the international character of investment relations, as well as the international character of the mechanisms for resolving investment disputes and enforcement of the decision must take into account international laws and jurisprudence. In this connection it should be should mentioned that the Washington Convention on the Settlement of Investment Disputes between States and Nationals of Other States on March 18, 1965 year. Article 25 of the Washington Convention as an investment disputes determines the legal disputes arising directly from the relations relating to investments between the state (or any authorized agency of the state) and the person (physical).

Thus, in the narrow sense of investment disputes necessary to understand the legal disputes between the state and private foreign investors related to investments in the territory of the latter first. In legal doctrine disputes in the narrow sense are usually called investment. This is due to the presence of aggravating circumstances: first, to the special composition of parties in a dispute (a State on the one hand, and private foreign investors – in another) and, consequently, the specifics of the subject and a special procedure for settlement of investment disputes. Investment disputes can be called the disputes about definitions, because the main diffi-

culties in solving them are connected with different interpretations of terms, not only in different order, but also within the same order.

As is known, under Article 9 of the Law of the Republic of Kazakhstan on Investments No.373-II dtd. January 8, 2003, provides that investment disputes can be resolved through negotiation, in the courts of Kazakhstan, or in accordance with previously agreed by the parties' dispute settlement procedures that include international arbitration, determined by agreement of the parties. On the one hand, the Law on investments as though is not specifically regulated, in what arbitration should be referred to a dispute, as it was in the old Law on Foreign Investment, and leaves it to the discretion of the parties, but on the other hand, in my opinion, the arbitration agreement should exclude the jurisdiction of the state court.

However, despite the existing mechanism for protection of investors, each worried about the enforcement of arbitral awards.

At present in Kazakhstan created a legal framework for recognition and enforcement of international arbitration. Kazakhstan has joined and ratified almost all major international and regional, conventions and agreements relating to arbitration. Today they are all positive law of the Republic. In particular, the adoption of internal regulations - Laws of the Republic of Kazakhstan on International Commercial Arbitration, on Arbitration Courts, on Amendments to some legislative acts of the Republic of Kazakhstan on issues of arbitration courts and tribunals, in particular, to the Civil Procedural Code of the Republic of Kazakhstan.

Kazakhstan has also joined the New York Convention on Recognition and Enforcement of Foreign Arbitral Awards of June 10, 1958, the European Convention on International Commercial Arbitration dtd. April 21 1961, ratified the Washing-

ton Convention on the Settlement of Investment Disputes between States and individual and legal persons of Other States on March 18, 1965. Kazakhstan is a party to the Agreement on the procedure for settling disputes related to economic activity dtd. March 20, 1992, the Agreement on the order of mutual enforcement of arbitral awards, business and economic courts of the territories of States - members of the Commonwealth dtd. March 6, 1998. By acceding to these conventions and agreements, with national legislation, our government is obliged to recognize the power of arbitration agreements and clauses in contracts of investment on the order of dispute resolution, as well as to recognize and execute the decisions of both foreign and international and Kazakh courts of arbitration. The list of grounds for refusing recognition or enforcement of an arbitral award, provided by the Law of the Republic of Kazakhstan On International Commercial Arbitration correspond to the list established by the New York Convention.

Thus, Kazakhstan has recognized arbitration awards made in another State party to the Convention.

Consequently, the grounds for refusal of enforcement of the law on arbitration courts are only procedural violations and contrary to public policy.

The order of enforcement is established by the Law on Amendments and separately for arbitration and international commercial arbitration. Chapter 1.18 "Enforcement of arbitral awards, as well as Articles.425-1, 425-2, 425-3 for the enforcement of an arbitral award are included in the Civil Code of RK (Section 5 of the International Process, Chapter 45 "Proceedings involving foreign persons").

In addition, when addressing the issue of exclusive jurisdiction of the Kazakhstan courts must take into account provisions of international treaties. If investment disputes relating to the definition of real estate rights and other matters re-

ferred to Article 417 of the Civil Code of RK is a subject to international treaties that provide investment disputes by arbitration, so then the norm of the exclusive competence of Civil Code should not apply to them.

International conventions are very important for the protection of foreign investments, such as Washington Convention dtd. March 18, 1965, entered into force on October 14, 1966 on the Settlement of Investment Disputes between States and Nationals of Other and the Seoul Convention of the year 1985, which entered into force on April 12, 1988 on establishing the Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency, in which Kazakhstan is one of the members. In addition to the Convention mentioned above, international legal regulations of investment relations are administrated by a number of regional treaties and bilateral agreements between states and nations and international organizations.

Washington Convention was adopted to protect investors (individuals and legal entities) from the "immunity" of the state of the recipient (the State in whose territory the object of investment). This protection provides for the removal of investment disputes under the action of national courts and transfers it to the specially established International Centre for Settlement of Investment Disputes. As part of this center provides the implementation of two types of proceedings: conciliation and arbitration procedure.

Seoul Convention was adopted in order to protect foreign investors against noncommercial risks (political). It was established by an intergovernmental organization dedicated insurance investment risk - The Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency, which deals with insurance for investors. The aim of all types of insurance is to stimulate investment activity in less developed countries. Warranty is the economic soundness of investments. After

appropriate compensation for the investor, the Agency acquires the right to claim these sums from the state of the recipient.

There are not so many arbitration courts in Kazakhstan. The exact number is unknown, since a single center and statistics of arbitration does not exist. We can assume that the total number over twenty, mostly are in Almaty city.

The first arbitration courts, which were established in Kazakhstan in 1992-1993 - is the Arbitration Commission at the Union of Chambers of Commerce of the Republic of Kazakhstan and the International Arbitration Court «IUS». Later in the territory of our republic set up Kazakhstan International Arbitration (KIA), in English Kazakhstani International Arbitrage (KIA), which is for four years of existence has become a leading arbitration (tribunal) court in Kazakhstan.

Rules of Arbitration KIA are developed in accordance with the laws on arbitration and international commercial arbitration, as well as the regulations of the leading institutional arbitration in the world.

The quality of arbitration depends not only on well-developed procedural mechanisms, but also on the qualifications of the arbitrators. So the list of Arbitrators KIA consists of leading local and international experts in the field of law, which is a recognized authority not only in academic circles but also among practitioners.

In recent years, around the world are increasingly recognized such a mechanism of alternative dispute resolution, like mediation. At mediation the mediator offers options for the parties mutually resolve the dispute, but does not make binding on the parties. Mediation proceedings shall be conducted in accordance with the rules of mediation KIA.

According to the developed Rules of Administration of arbitration (tribunal) proceedings under the UNCITRAL Rules can help the parties who have chosen as a

tool to deal with dispute arbitration ad hoc, as the competent authority or in providing administrative services to secretarial, technical nature.

Kazakhstan International Arbitration has established partnerships with leading arbitration institutions in different countries. Among them are Chinese Foreign Trade and Arbitration Commission (CIETAC), Japan Commercial Arbitration Association, International Commercial Arbitration Court at RF Chamber of Commerce, The Korean Council for Commercial Arbitration (KCAB), the International Court of Arbitration of the International Chamber of Commerce and others.

Summarizing mentioned above, it should be emphasized that the main direction of economic policies on the regulation of investment activities should be harmonization of legal documents, legislative approximation of the common economic space. In this experience of international cooperation shows that the most effective tool for creating an optimal legal framework is a conclusion of international treaties, conventions and agreements on the protection and guarantee of mutual investments. An example is the Washington Convention on the Settlement of Investment Disputes between States and citizens of other States, operating since the year 1966, the Convention provides formation of the International Center for Investment Disputes at the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development.

International rules indirectly regulate the activities of investors, limiting the possibility of nationalization, to determine the requirements for environmental protection and preventing the laundering of illegally obtained funds.

The investment management is much widespread at the international level, both in the form of bilateral agreements and within the various integration groupings. International legal protection of in-

vestments is more efficient to attract investment than a consolidation of similar safeguards in national legislation. But, nevertheless, the other component, which determines the regulation of foreign investment, is a nationally-law.

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SEMANTIC CORRELATION IN THE PARADIGM OF EXPLICITLY MARKED MASKULINISMS IN ENGLISH

Fedorova Olesia

Khmelnyskyi Humanitarian-Pedagogical Academy, Ukraine

Assessment of language as a mirror of the world is commonly accepted. Among all aspects of the multifaceted world a human being is the most interesting thing to see in the language mirror. The current anthropological turn in linguistics, emergence and rapid development of human-oriented branches of linguistics can be explained by the need to understand a human being. Gender linguistics is focuses on language reflection of sexual and gender characteristics of a person. Masculinity and means of its representation in language is a problem which is still under discussion in academic circles and in need of a thorough investigation.

The number of works devoted to the description of means and methods of masculinity representation in English and other languages is big enough to cover thoroughly most aspects of the problem, including the linguistic features of the concept "man", linguistic expression of masculinity as a social and cultural category of gender, the construction of gender in discourse, features of male verbal behavior, the dynamic aspects of the masculinity representation in language, and many-sided detection of stereotyped use of language units denoting a man [1, 3, 4, 5], but the question of the semantic value of masculinity markers, their status, age and relational connotation remains unresolved.

The purpose of the article is to analyze and compare the semantic value of masculinity markers within age, relational and status oppositions.

Modern English has extremely limited the explicit means of marking the names of men, compared to corresponding marking of names of women. Such elements as -man/man-, -boy/boy-, -

master/master have traditionally been seen as explicit markers of masculinity in English.

Explicit gender marker of masculinity -man/man-. The peculiarities of masculinity marker -man/man- usage were studied by many authors, focusing on its productivity, valence, etymology, gender neutrality / markedness of the person's names marked by it, stereotyped perceptions of the latter, and discourse features and diachronic trends of their usage.

This priority over other gender markers is explained by:

- high diachronic and synchronic performance of the marker;
- a high proportion of its derivatives in the total number of gender marked names of persons;
- semantic meaning (the combination of gender neutral and gender-marked sememe in the lexemes, activation of which in speech is socially significant and often stereotypic;

On the whole 564 names of persons explicitly marked with -man/man- were found in lexicographic registers, which is 52% of the total number of explicitly marked maskulinisms. The most productive derivational model of maskulinisms with -man is "noun + -man". It is characterized by a wide range of relational models and meanings:

- "instrumentative - agentive (M)" with the meaning "a man, using a tool X in his work", where X – is a derivation basis (*axeman, bowman, gadman, hammer-man, hatchet man*);
- "objective-agentive (M)" with the meaning "a man, that commits an act aimed at an object X, its manufacture, maintenance, sales, etc.", where X – is a derevation basis (*bookman, brakesman,*

businessman, cattle man, coalman, clayman, glassman, horseman, meatman, muffinman, newsmen, proseman, lumberman). This group includes a very significant subgroup of masculinisms formed on the relational model "transportive - agentive (M)", with the meaning "man, that drives a vehicle X", where X – is a derivation basis (*boatman, bulldozerman, cabman, carman, cartman, coachman, draftsman, ferryman, gigman*);

- "inclusive-agentive (M)" with the meaning "a man, who belongs to a group X", where X - is a derivation basis (*banksman, assemblyman, crewman, gangman, infantryman, jurymen, militiaman, office-man*);

- "locative-agentive (M)", with the meaning "a man, that performs a specific activity or resides in location X", where X - is a derivation basis (*woodsman, townsman, stockman, shipman, ranchman, backroom man*);

- "temporative-agentive (M)", with the meaning "a man, performing activities within time X or by moment X", where X – is a derivation basis (*dayman, minute man, four-minute man*);

- "agentive - agentive (M)", with the meaning "a man, that is a person X», where X – is a derivation basis (*sailorman, yeggman, fellowman, boss man, liegeman*);

Derivational model "Adjective + man" is not widely used. There are no more than 5-7% masculinisms modeled on it. The relational model "descriptive - agentive (M)", with the meaning "man, possessing the feature X", where X – is a derivation basis (*bad man, my man, old man, fresh man, front man, dead -man, funny man, gentleman, superman, new man*) is typical. Derivational model "Verb + man" is even less productive. It is worth mentioning that the identification of the basics as nominal or verbal is complicated (*bindleman, gagman, patrolman, serviceman and stuntman*). In our study we were

guided by Webster's dictionary information on the type of derivation base when determining it [6]. Relational model "performative-agentive (M)" with the meaning "man, performing activity X", where X – is a derivation basis, is typical of this group of men's names (*workman, weighman, watchman, repairman, pitchman, ploughman, hangman, hit man, freeze-man*).

Considering marker of masculinity -man/man- in terms of its basic and connotational meanings implementation following pattern have been found:

- marker -man/man- is traditionally used in the most general meaning "man" without the implication of social, age and relational features of the referent (*he-man, mass-man, everyman, huntsman, townsman, bondsman, clergyman, Englishman*);

- the portion of the lexemes, which implement -man/man- marker's meaning "man-worker, employee, subordinate" is significant (*aircrewman, bankman, cleyman, feather-man, fly-man, foot-man, transit man*);

- in some cases marker -man/man- activates the meaning "husband of a woman, lover, boyfriend, father" (*bridesman, houseman, old man*).

Explicit gender marker of masculinity -boy/boy-. Explicit marker of masculinity -boy/boy- is the second most popular marker (75 lexemes found). Like most others, this group of masculinisms is characterized by a noun derivation model. It is quite various in terms of relational models:

- "objectivity - agentive (M)" with the meaning "a boy, who commits an act aimed at object X, its manufacturing, maintenance, sales, etc.", where X – is a derivation basis (*cowboy, herd-boy, horseboy, ticket boy*);

- "inclusive-agentive (M)" with the meaning "a boy, belonging to group X", where X - is a derivation basis (*schoolboy, choir-boy, homeboy*);

- "locative - agentive (M)", with the meaning "a boy, that performs a specific activity or resides in the X-location", where X - is a derivation basis (*backroom boy, boy uptown, hospital-boy, house-boy, shop-boy, pantry-boy*);

- "agentive- agentive (M)", with the meaning "a boy, who is a person X", where X - is a derivation basis (*lover boy, toy boy*).

The second in productivity is a derivational model "Adjective + man", which corresponds to the relational model "descriptive - agentive (M)", with the meaning "a boy, possessing feature X" (*gold boy, big boy, blue boy*). Maskulinisms marked with -boy/boy- with a verbal basis are not numerous (*flyboy, plough-boy*).

According to Webster's dictionary, the lexeme *boy* has a number of meanings. Most of them are implicated by the marker of masculinity -boy/boy-:

- "a boy, young man (under 18)" (*Boy scout, charity-boy, choir-boy, day-boy, gown-boy, hospital boy*);

- "an inexperienced young man" (*hawk-boy, ball boy, potboy, bug boy, cowboy, office-boy*);

- a person of lower social status or nation" (derogatory) (*blue boy, toy boy, rah-rah boy*);

- "a man" (colloquial) (*backroom boy, big boy, wide boy, boy in blue*).

The marker -boy/boy- has got a characteristic meaning "worker, employee, servant" (*stockboy, shop-boy, pantry-boy, lather boy, jack-boy, knife-boy, bus-boy, page-boy*). In the paradigm of EMM -boy/boy- is the formant, which implements additional meanings "a lover, sexually attractive man, boy" (*lover boy, play-boy, rent boy, blue-eyed boy, toy boy*).

Explicit gender marker of masculinity - master (master-). Formant - master / master- is not defined as a gender marker in modern linguistics. Studies on its productivity, morphological status, derivative models are rare [2: 55]. How-

ever, considering following arguments, we believe -master/master- to be an explicit marker of masculinity:

- as a part of a person's name - master/master- constantly realizes the meaning of masculinity;

- there is a steady tendency to form pairs of semantically related masculinisms marked with -master/master- and femininisms, explicitly marked by semiaffixes - mistress/mistress- , -lady/lady- and others;

- In pairs such as *webmaster - web-mistress* the only differentiating sememes are "masculinity" and "femininity"/the fact allows to define the elements exactly as gender markers;

- Semiaffix -master/master- is both productive in diachrony (total diachronic capacity - 128 units [2; 55]) and in synchrony (total number of derivatives - 66).

Derivative model "noun + master", "adjective + master" are typical of the marker - master/ master- [2: 55]. This group has such relational models:

- "deskriptive - agentive (M)" with the meaning "master, who has feature X", where X - is a derivation basis (*dancing-masrer, drawing-master, riding-master, sailing-master*);

- "objective-agentive (M)" with the meaning "master, who operates an object X", where X - is a derivation basis (*horse-masrer, form-master, concert-master, toast-master*);

- "locative - agentive (M)" with the meaning "master, who works in the location X ", where X - is a derivation basis (*harbour-masrer, dock-master, station-master*).

The meaning of EM -master/master- as a part of maskulinisms is not homogeneous. Following subgroups were distinguished according to the connotations:

- master - "agent" (*paymaster, weigh-master, bridge-master, horse-master*);

- master - "a teacher, a mentor" (*writing-master, resident master, careers*

master, schoolmaster);

- master - "an administrator, leader, chief" (*chair-master, chapel-master, job-master*);

- master - "an owner" (*horse-master, barge-master, botmaster, ship-master*).

Analyzing the semantic meanings of explicit markers of masculinity, we noted some significant differences specific to each of them and their derivatives, correspondingly. Several semantic oppositions within the paradigms of maskulinisms marked by different markers were outlined.

Gradual opposition on base of age connotation is quite regular among the markers of masculinity. The names of the men marked with -boy/boy- usually imply connotations "a child, young age" according to the main meaning of the lexeme boy (*boy scout, charity-boy, choir-boy, day-boy, gown-boy, hospital boy, schoolboy*). For example: *headboy - headman, school-boy - schoolman, scout boy - scout master, gownboy - gownsman*. However, in this group, there is the evident tendency to express some "an adult male" in maskulin-

isms marked with -boy/boy- belonging to the spoken language, slang (*backroom boy, big boy, boy with toys, wide boy, boy in blue, boy uptown*). Correspondingly, there are two centers of distribution of maskulinisms with -boy / boy- in opposition on base of age connotation.

Formant -man/man- is regularly involved in the formation of men's names of profession, occupation, as it often implies a connotation "an adult man". But there is also a large number of lexemes nominating men according to social status, nationality, race, religious and cultural preferences, which significantly extends the range of age connotations expressed by the marker. Maskulinisms marked with -master/master- form almost a homogeneous group on basis of age connotation, due to the specificity of the marker. It is mainly used to form the names of men involved in management activities, owning property, property management and almost necessarily expresses the meaning "adulthood" (*chair-master, chapel-master, job-master, workmaster, barge-master, botmaster, iron-master, ship-master*).

Marker's meaning	-boy/boy-		-man/man-	-master/master-
	General vocabulary	Colloquial vocabulary, slang		
A boy				
A teenage boy				
An adult man				

Figure 1. Opposition in the paradigm of explicitly marked maskulinisms on basis of age connotation

On the basis of age connotation maskulinisms form a gradual opposition, but due to semantic ambiguity of the markers categories of names of men in this opposition are unclear.

The next opposition, which can be clearly seen, is determined by the connotations of status and also has a gradual structure. Distribution of the markers in the op-

position is directly proportional to their distribution in the opposition on basis of age connotation, which is caused by interdependency between the age and status characteristics of the referent.

The lowest degree in the opposition is occupied by marker -boy/boy-, implying low-status semes "assistant to a master, low-skilled worker, hodman" (*clapper*

boy, bundle boy, cabin boy, hawk-boy, office-boy, pantry-boy, stable boy), "unskilled, low-paid worker" (bell boy, button boy, paper-boy, post-boy). Compare: *Bat-boy - batsman, cowboy - cowman, herdboy - herdsman, newsboy - newsman, office-boy - office-man*. At the same time, there is a group of maskulinisms marked with -boy/boy- implying a connotation of "high status" (*backroom boy, big boy, boy in blue, boy uptown*). This subcategory includes language units with age connotation "adulthood" and belongs to the spoken language, slang.

Variability of status characteristics expression can be observed in the group of

maskulinisms marked with -man/man-. The highest degree in the opposition is occupied by marker -master/master-. In the subgroup of its derivatives the largest share is the nouns with status connotations "head master, owner, chief". However, in the subgroup there are no maskulinisms denoting referents with low status characteristics. Status correlation is clearly detected among paronymous units: *barge-man - bargemaster, coalman - coalmaster, horseboy - horseman - horsemaster, head-boy - headman - headmaster*. There are cases of neutralization of oppositions: *sheepman - sheepmaster, lockman - lockmaster, property man - property master*.

Marker's meaning	-boy (boy-)		-man (man-)	-master (master-)
	General vocabulary	Colloquial vocabulary, slang		
Low status				
Middle status				
High status				

Figure 2. Opposition in the paradigm of explicitly marked maskulinisms on basis of status connotation

As for the ability to express relational characteristics (marital status, family and intimate relationships with women) markers are also unequal. Most of lexemes that express relationships of the men-referent with women (lover boy, playboy, blue-eyed boy, gold boy, toy boy, boyfriend) and men (rent boy), are marked with -boy/boy-. A small percentage of these lexemes are in the group of maskulinisms, marked with -man/man- (bridesman, groomsman, old man). Marker -master/master- is indifferent in terms of referent's relational characteristics' expression.

To sum up, we note that explicit markers of masculinity provide a necessary means of gender identity explication and the implication of age, status, relational characteristics of the referent. They

are productive at modern stage in many areas of language use. Featuring a variety of semantic meanings, markers of masculinity and their derivative lexemes fill a number of lexical and semantic noun groups.

Prospects for further research of gender noun marketing are to identify discursive and diachronic variability of explicit gender marking.

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A REVIEW OF CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES ENHANCING THE USE OF VIDEO MATERIALS IN TEACHING SPEAKING TO EFL STUDENTS

Yelakov Vladimir

Kazakh-American Free University, Kazakhstan

In order to use films and videos fully in classroom, EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teachers should integrate *pre-viewing*, *viewing*, and *post-viewing* activities into the lesson. The nature and length of these activities depend on the selected film / video, student needs, students' ages, and instructional objectives. A teacher may choose to integrate all three activities in a given film / video lesson while planning only two for another lesson. Before presenting the video, the teacher should engage the learners' interest in what they will be doing and prepare them to do it successfully. While learners view the video, the teacher should remain in the classroom with the learners to observe their reactions and see what they do not understand, what intrigues and what bothers them. After the viewing, the teacher should review and clarify complex points, encourage discussion, explain, and assign follow-up activities. It is also important to ensure the suitability, length, clarity, and completeness of the videotaped material. Tomalin (1991) believes that the ideal video clip tells a complete story or part of a story.

The activities presented below are, for the most part, standard communicative activities that have been adapted for the use with films and videos.

The primary purpose of **pre-viewing activities** is to prepare students for the actual viewing of a film / video. Because comprehension is partially determined by a student's own background knowledge, an effective pedagogical strategy is to devise activities that access this knowledge. A pre-viewing activity is meant to acquaint students with the material that they are going to view and facilitate easier and better comprehension thus achieving successful results in language teaching. Consequently, the teacher may design this activity to help students with their language skills. Indeed, it is obvious for both the teacher and students to work cooperatively, deliberately, and simultaneously with the intention to develop the four skills (i.e. listening, reading, writing, and speaking). The activities listed below should be viewed as possible suggestions for pre-viewing activities. Some of the activities naturally evolve out of certain films; the film / video itself, needs of the students, and the goals of the class session should be considered before deciding on a specific pre-viewing option.

Student Interviews / Polls. Students can interview or poll other class members about issues related to the film / video. Ideally, the question(s), generated by the instructor, should highlight an issue, con-

cept, and / or problem that will surface in the film / video. The discussion that accompanies the interviews / polls helps prepare students for the content of the film / video, thereby aiding comprehension.

There are many variations for an interview / poll activity. Students can ask each other the same question(s), or students can be given separate questions. Students can record their findings so that once interviews / polls are completed, they can report findings to another student, a small group of students, or the entire class.

Problem Solving. Students can be given a problem that highlights issues from the film or video. In small groups, students can discuss and attempt to solve the problem, later reporting possible solutions to the class. For example, if students were to view a video about women’s roles in our society, the following questions could be provided to start a discussion for a problem-solving activity. Therefore, students discuss a particular woman’s problem in their group and come up with a list of suggestions for her.

a) Do you have any suggestions?

b) What do you think are some options for (the woman’s name)?

Discussion of the Film / Video Title. Students can examine the title of the film / video in order to hypothesize its content. This quick activity can be done as a class or in small groups, the latter allowing for more student participation.

Brainstorming Activities. The teacher can pose questions or elicit information that link students’ past experiences with the film / video. For instance, if the students are going to see a film that ac-

companies a unit on “Professions”, students could participate in the following activity: Individually, think of five professions that can be dangerous or have risks. Write down the risks of those professions. Then, in groups, compare and discuss lists. Choose the three most dangerous professions listed and substantiate your point of view. After that, students could be asked to interview three students from other groups about the three most dangerous jobs selected in their original group. For example, “Would you like to be a _____? Why? Why not?”

Film Summary. Students can skim a written summary of the film / video for the main idea(s) and / or scan the summary for specific details. Teacher-generated questions help students locate the information for viewing comprehension. The teacher can also present a short lecture summarizing the main points of the film. To facilitate note-taking, a “skeleton” of the lecture notes can be distributed, with blanks for students to fill in missing information. Then the students can present their summaries verbally in groups or for the whole class. The next step in this activity is to see the film / video, thereafter the students choose the best speaker who presented the summary before the film. To terminate the given activity, the winner’s speech can be presented before the audience.

Information-Gap Exercises. After introducing students to the topics of the film / video, they can fill in a grid similar to the one below with the following discussion of the information they noted down.

What I know about the topic	What I am unsure of about the topic	What I hope to learn about the topic

Dictionary / Vocabulary Work. Students can be introduced to important words / phrases needed for better compre-

hension of the film or video through dictionary or vocabulary exercises. Some believe it is necessary to present vocabulary

lists to students before screening time. Others believe that it is advantageous to introduce vocabulary items after the film / video has been shown, when there is a real need for the word / phrase. With this latter option, concepts are developed throughout the screening of the film, not necessarily by means of specific vocabulary; the visual stimulus contributes much to comprehension. Once students have been exposed to the content of the film, post-film activities will create a need for specific vocabulary words / phrases. Students, at that time, will be motivated to match a concept developed in the film to a vocabulary word / phrase. This word or phrase can, then, be introduced at that moment of “need”, by the teacher or another student in class. The teacher may want to vary these options at different times in the course.

The primary purpose of **viewing activities** is to facilitate the actual viewing of a film / video. More specifically, these activities help students deal with specific

issues and focus on character or plot development at crucial junctures in the film / video. The activities listed below can be regarded as possible options to be used while showing a film / video.

Directed Listening. Students can be asked to listen for general information or specific details considered crucial for comprehension. Similarly, students can be asked to consider a particularly relevant question while viewing the film. This activity can be further transformed into discussion of what the students have found out by listening for general information and / or specific details.

Information Gathering. As in directed listening, students can be asked to gather pertinent information while viewing the film or video. For example, if students are studying a unit on “Energy Sources”, they could be asked to fill in the following grid and then discuss the information they have gathered:

Renewable energy sources	Non-renewable energy sources

Film Interruptions. The film can be interrupted in progress to clarify key points in the thematic development of the film. In addition, a film can be interrupted so that students discuss the content of the film up to that point or predict what will happen in the remaining portion(s) of the film. The latter exercise is especially effective in dramatic films / videos.

Second Screening. Films can be shown in their entirety a second time. However, the length of the film and the pre-viewing and post-viewing activities may make this option undesirable. It is important to keep in mind that if films / videos are primarily used as springboards for other classroom activities, it is not necessary for students to understand all aspects of the film / video. Second screening activity may also be used to focus stu-

dents’ attention on some particular information that can be a source of the following discussion.

Post-viewing activities stimulate both written and verbal use of the target language, utilizing information and / or insights from the film / video. Because the entire class now has a shared experience, designing post-viewing activities that extract main ideas, concepts, and / or issues from the film / video is effective. Post-viewing activities can easily lend themselves to writing and / or speaking practice. Ideally, the two skills can be linked, allowing students to use the information from a speaking activity, for example, in a writing assignment.

In-Class Polls or Interviews. Students can interview classmates to find out reactions to the film or to explore issues

raised in the film. Students can report findings verbally (either to the entire class or to a small group) and / or in a written essay.

Film Summaries. Students can work alone or in small groups to identify the main points of the film / video. Students can then summarize main issues raised in the film in a written and / or spoken form (Williams, 1982).

Alternative Endings. Especially with dramatic story-lines, students can work together to come up with an alternative ending and report it in an verbal and / or written activity.

Discussion. Film-related questions focusing on issues, personal experiences, and / or cultural observations can be raised to stimulate small group discussion. Similarly, students can examine problems central to the topic of the film / video; working together, students can share insights, propose solutions, and later report them in spoken and / or written form.

Comparisons. Students can compare what they knew about the film / video topic before the viewing with what they learned as a result of the viewing in the form of discussion.

Agree / Disagree / Unsure Activity. Students can react individually to a series of statements related to the film / video. For example, during a unit on "Media", students can complete the following exercise:

Do you agree (A), disagree (D) with or are you unsure (U) about these statements?

- 1) Television is a wonderful educational tool.
- 2) Watching television is a waste of time.
- 3) Selective television watching is crucial.
- 4) People read less because of television.

After comparing answers in small groups, students select a statement that

they either agreed with or disagreed with and comment on it in their discussion or dialogues.

Ranking / Group Consensus. By ranking various characters, issues, etc., of a film / video, students can attempt to reach a consensus.

Speech Organization. A number of exercises will help students with speech organization:

a) After eliciting the main ideas of the film / video, students can list details that support those major issues; and then the supporting details can be used to prepare a speech.

b) Teachers can cut printed film summaries into "strips", comprising one sentence or an entire paragraph. Students can practice organizing their speeches by assembling the strips into logical order, thereby reconstructing the summary which can be presented to the group or class.

c) Based on a close examination of an introductory paragraph of the speech, focusing on certain features of the film / video, students can identify ideas to be developed in subsequent paragraphs. Once the main ideas of subsequent paragraphs are identified, students can compose those paragraphs.

d) This activity can also be presented in the form of the game called "Snowball", in which the students can present one by one sentences or even paragraphs if their level of English is high enough.

Speed Speaking. After introducing a topic related to the film, students are asked to speak about it for a short period of time. The emphasis here would be on speaking fluency rather than accuracy.

Using Notes for Speech Practice. If students have taken notes while watching the film / videotape, students can pool their notes to obtain a more complete set of notes. Then, using these notes, students can prepare a brief summary or examine a particular aspect of the film / video.

Role plays / Simulation Games.

Students can role-play characters or a situation from the film / video (Tomalin, 1991).

Debates. Students can hold a formal debate concerning an issue raised in the film. Such formal activities take careful preparation.

The pre-viewing, viewing, and post-viewing activities listed above represent a sampling of the types of classroom activities that can be utilized with films and videos. Teachers who recognize the needs of their students and have clear instructional objectives should be able to make productive use of these and other activities.

Some more examples of speaking activities integrated with video are suggested by Pearson long man. Com but they are not subdivided into pre-viewing, viewing and post-viewing activities. The assumption is that while watching television is often seen as a passive viewing experience, there are ways to turn it into a springboard for student interaction. Here are some general teaching strategies that enhance the use of video materials in language classroom by targeting specific skill sets:

- Predicting;
- Viewing comprehension;
- Speaking practice;
- Discussion.

Predicting

With picture and audio on:

- Use the pause control to stop a scene and have students predict what will happen next.

- Use the pause control to stop after a particular line of dialogue and have students predict the next line.

With audio off:

- Have students predict the situation and characterizations based on viewing an entire scene without the sound.

- Have students predict lines of dialogue after viewing an entire scene with-

out the sound.

- Have students predict individual lines of dialogue by using the pause button to stop the scene.

With picture off:

- Have students predict the situation and characterizations by listening to the soundtrack without watching the picture.

Viewing comprehension

You can check students' understanding of the situation and characters in the following ways:

Before watching:

- Give students specific things to look and listen for before they watch a scene.

While watching:

- Freeze-frame the scene by using the pause button and check students' understanding.

While watching or after watching:

- Have students answer comprehension questions you devise.

After watching:

- Give students cloze scripts and have them fill in missing words in dialog lines.

Speaking practice

Role Plays: Have students role play a scene, practicing the lines of dialogue for correct intonation and emphasis.

On-Location Interviews: Have students circulate around the classroom and interview each other using questions contained in the video segment. Students can then report to the class about their interviews.

Information Gap: Have half the class see a segment without audio and the other half hear it without the picture. Students from each half of the class then pair up, talk about the situation and characters, and act out the scene.

Strip Dialogue Scenes: Write dialogue lines on separate strips of paper, distribute them randomly, and have students

recreate the scene by putting the lines together.

Discussion

- Have students discuss the scene, plot and characters' actions, thoughts, and feelings.

- Have students think about what the characters in the scene are thinking but not saying. Students can create these *interior monologues*, present them to the class, and discuss any varying opinions about characters' inner thoughts during the scene.

- Have students tell which characters they identify with and explain why.

Although the use of films and videos in the second-language curriculum is endorsed by many professionals and has proven to be an excellent teaching tool, their use is not without limitations:

- First, using such media effectively requires rather extensive teacher preparation. As overworked as most teachers are, it is difficult to find the necessary time needed for previewing films, film selection, and lesson planning.

- Second, if one's school does not have the equipment, or has poorly serviced equipment, a film / video component in the curriculum would be unwise. Similarly, if one's school has an inadequate (or nonexistent) film / video library, it may be close to impossible to select films / videos that would justifiably enhance one's syllabus.

- Third, this modern audiovisual technology can easily master its viewers, causing teacher and student alike to lose

sight of instructional objectives, turning both into passive and uncritical television-like viewers (Willis, 1983). These possible pitfalls can be circumvented if one is cognizant of them and consciously attempts to avoid them.

Films and videos, widely recognized as powerful communication media, can greatly enhance and diversify a second-language curriculum. With careful selection and purposeful planning, films and videos can motivate students, thereby facilitating language learning. Moreover, the integration of pre-viewing, viewing, and post-viewing activities into the film / video lesson encourages natural language use and language skill development, making films and videos valuable teaching tools.

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NATIONAL VARIETIES OF ENGLISH

Goncharov Anton

Kazakh-American Free University, Kazakhstan

In this article we would like to briefly examine some national varieties of English, including American English, in

terms of their phonetic and grammar peculiarities. The article is based on the assumption that British English (BrE) is the

most common variant of English for readers; therefore all comparisons are based on this basis.

First of all, let's describe British and American national varieties.

British English is the basis for the varieties spoken in England, Ireland, Wales, Scotland, Australia, New Zealand, India, Pakistan, Malaysia, Singapore, and South Africa. American (or North American) includes chiefly the English of Canada and the United States.

Despite the groupings just suggested, certain characteristics of Canadian English are closer to British English, while certain characteristics of Irish English are closer to North American English. And there are many differences between, say, standard British English and standard Indian English. But we can still make a number of generalizations about British-

based varieties and American-based varieties, provided we recognize that neither group is completely homogeneous.

There are well-known spelling differences between British and American English. Some are systematic, others limited to a particular word. American red, white, and blue *colors* are *colours* in Britain, and many other words ending in *-or* in American English end in *-our* in British English. Among idiosyncratic spellings are British *tyres* and *kerb* versus American *tires* and *curb*. Interestingly, Canadians often use British rather than American spelling practices, a reflection of their close historical association with Britain. For the most part, these spelling differences don't reflect spoken differences. Below are Listed some common American ~ British spelling correspondences.

British	American	British	American
labour, favour	labor, favor	tyre	tire
licence, defence	license, defense	kerb	curb
spelt, burnt, spilt	spelled, burned, spilled	programme	program
analyse, organise	analyze, organize	pyjamas	pajamas
centre, theatre	center, theater	cheque	check
judgement, abridgement	judgment, abridgment	tonne	ton
dialled, cancelled	dialed, canceled	catalogue	catalog
instalment, skilful	installment, skillful	tsar	czar

Pronunciation Differences in vowel and consonant pronunciation, as well as in word stress and intonation, combine to create American and British accents. Speakers of both varieties pronounce the vowel of words in the *cat, fat, mat* class with /æ/. For similar words ending in a fricative such as *fast, path, and half*, American English has /æ/, while some British varieties have /ɑ:/, the stressed vowel of *father*. Americans pronounce the vowel in the *new, turn* and *duty* class with /u/, as though they were spelled 'noo,' 'toon,' and 'dooty.' Varieties of British English often pronounce them with /ju/, as

though spelled 'nyew,' 'tyuneand 'dyuty' a pronunciation also heard among some older Americans.

As to consonants', perhaps the most noticeable difference has to do with intervocalic *Itl*. When /t/ occurs between a stressed and an unstressed vowel, Americans and Canadians usually pronounce it as a flap [ɾ]. As a result, the word *sitter* is pronounced [sirar], and *latter* and *ladder* are pronounced the same. By contrast, speakers of some British varieties pronounce intervocalic *t* as [t]. As another example, most American varieties have a retroflex /ɾ/ in word-final position in

words such as *car* and *near* and also preceding a consonant as in *cart* and *beard*, whereas some British varieties, including standard British English, do not. With respect to this post-vocalic /r/, speakers of Irish and Scottish English follow the American pattern, while speakers of dialects in New York City, Boston, and parts of the coastal South follow the British pattern.

Among differences of word stress, British English tends to stress the first syllable of *garage*, *fillet*, and *ballet*, while American English places stress on the second syllable. The same is true for *patois*, *massage*, *debris*, *beret*, and other borrowings from French. In certain polysyllabic words such as *laboratory*, *secretary*, and *lavatory*, the stress patterns differ, with American English preserving a secondary stress on the next-to-last syllable.

Canadian English was developing under the influence of both British and American variants and as a result of that has marks of both types of pronunciation, but the most common type is the one that is called General American.

In Canadian English there are no significant differences from British English in grammar, but there are a lot of specific words that exist only in Canadian English. In general these words are connected with the peculiarities of life in Canada, its nature etc. There are also many loanwords that were borrowed from Indian languages. For example the word 'caribou' which is one of sub-species of deer, or the verb 'to toboggan' which means 'to sail on boat'. Another Canadian phrases are: 'fog-eater' – 'rainbow in fog', 'salt fishing' – fishing with its salting right on the boat, 'steel man' – 'railroad worker', 'cat driver' – 'tractor driver' etc.

The one significant difference of Canadian English is almost total absence of Past Perfect Continuous and Past Perfect Simple taking over its place.

In *Australian English* there is more

to discuss. It differs from other Englishes primarily in its accent and vocabulary. The major features of the accent were established by the 1830s. In the period between colonial settlement (1788) and the 1830s, when the foundation accent was being forged, new lexical items to describe the new environment, especially its flora and fauna, were developed either from Aboriginal languages (coolibah, wombat, wallaby, waratah, and so on) or from the 'transported' English word stock (native bear, wild cherry, and so on). Many more vocabulary items were later added in response to the nineteenth-century process of settlement and pastoral expansion. All of this seems at once predictable and inevitable - this is the way a colonial society imposes its linguistic footprint on a subjected land.

And then, at the end of the nineteenth century, something curious and largely unpredictable happened to Australian English. In response to a newly-developed concept of Received Pronunciation in Britain, which was closely tied to notions of social prestige, some Australian speakers modified their vowels and diphthongs in order to move them towards the British exemplars. From the 1890s, and well into the 1950s, elocution was in the air, and elocution teachers found a ready market for the teaching of British vowels and diphthongs to the socially - aspirational classes. This modified form of Australian speech came to be called Cultivated Australian.

As if in response against this new British-based Cultivated Australian, a diametrically opposed form of Australian English developed in the first part of the twentieth century. This form moved the Australian vowels and diphthongs even further away from what was now the British standard of pronunciation, and emphasized nasality, flatness of intonation, and the elision of syllables. This second modified form of Australian speech came to be

called Broad Australian. While it is true that when non-Australians hear any Australian say 'mate' or 'race' they are likely to mistake the words for 'mite' and 'rice', the mishearing is most likely to occur with speakers of Broad Australian.

The majority of Australians continued to speak with the accent that had been established in the first fifty years of settlement, and this form of speech came to be known as General Australian. General Australian was now book-ended by Cultivated Australian and Broad Australian, and these forms of Australian English came to carry with them very different sets of values. Cultivated Australian, for example, came to express a longing for British values and a nostalgia for a country that was still regarded by many as 'home'. Broad Australian was strongly nationalistic, and carried with it notions of egalitarianism that were antagonistic to a perceived class-obsessed and hierarchical Britain.

All three forms of Australian English included most of the vocabulary items that had developed in the second half of the nineteenth century: **billy** 'a cooking utensil'; **swag** (transferred from the underworld sense of 'booty') as the collection of belongings of a bush traveler, and swagman as their bearer; **fossick** - perhaps a variant of the midland and southern English **fussock** (to bustle about)-meaning 'to search for gold', and then 'to rummage around for anything'; the outback and the never-never to describe country far from urban areas; **brumby** 'a wild horse'; **larrikin** 'an urban hooligan'; and so on.

In lexis, a number of the most culturally important Australian terms developed towards the end of the nineteenth century, at precisely the time that Australian English was generating its Cultivated and Broad forms. **Battler** (especially in its present manifestation of **little Aussie battler**) is one of the most positive words in Australian English, and it usually refers to

a person who works hard to make a decent living in difficult circumstances. Initially, the **battler** was a person who scrounged a living on the edges of society: an itinerant and irregularly employed rural worker struggling to survive (1898); a person who frequented racecourses in search of a living (1895); a prostitute (1898). **Battler** eventually divested itself of the associations of the mug punter and the prostitute, but even in its earliest uses there is evidence of strong sympathy and admiration for working-class people who eke out their existence with resilience and courage.

The opposite of the battler is the bludger - one of the most derogatory of Australian words. The **bludger** is a person who lives off the efforts of others, a cadger and an idler, a person who expects others to do all the work. The history of this word helps to explain something of the moral condemnation that **bludger** and its verb to **bludge** typically carry. Australian **bludger** is a form of Standard English **bludgeoner** 'a person who is armed with and doesn't hesitate to use a **bludgeon**, a short stout club'. In Australia the **bludger** became a pimp who was prepared to protect his financial stake in a prostitute by resorting to the violence of the bludgeon. The salient feature in this, and all later senses, is that the person who is called a **bludger** is living off the work of another and, from this sense, it is a short step to the use of **bludger** as a generalized term of abuse.

Dinkum emerges at about the same time. **Dinkum** is from British dialect, where it meant primarily 'work; a fair share of work'. The notion of 'fairness' has always been associated with **dinkum**, and it is from this connotation of 'fairness' that the particularly Australian meaning 'reliable, genuine, honest, true' developed in the first decade of the twentieth century. It was also at this time that the collocation **fair go** appeared, an important expression of egalitarian principles. The continuing

significance of this phrase in Australian society is evidenced by the fact that a recent Federal Government booklet **Life in Australia** (2007), aimed at new migrants, explains what is meant by a **fair go** in Australia: 'Australians value equality of opportunity and what is often called a 'fair go'. This means that what someone achieves in life should be a product of their talents, work and effort rather than their birth or favouritism. Australians have a spirit of egalitarianism that embraces mutual respect, tolerance and fair play. ... The aim is to ensure there are no formal class distinctions in Australian society'. Although **dinkum** (and its variant **fair dinkum**) appeared in the 1890s, the evidence indicates that its really widespread use occurred during the First World War.

It was out of the First World War that Anzac (an acronym formed from the initial letters of Australian and New Zealand Army Corps) and digger (originally a soldier engaged in the digging of trenches, echoing its earlier use for a person digging for gold) emerged in the sense 'an Australian soldier'. By the end of the war both terms were being used emblematically to reflect the traditional view of the virtues displayed by those who served in the Gallipoli campaign, especially as these virtues were seen as national characteristics. Such terms are part of a rich tradition of Australian colloquialisms that became established in the first half of the twentieth century: **bonzer** 'excellent'; Buckley's chance 'no chance at all'; **cobber** 'mate'; **crook** 'dishonest, unpleasant, ill'; **dag** 'a character, an entertaining eccentric' (later 'an unfashionable person, a nerd'); **plonk** 'cheap wine' (an example of a word of Australian derivation adopted in Britain, and elsewhere, with little awareness of its origin); **pom** 'an English person'; **rort** 'an act of fraud or sharp practice'; **wog** 'a flu-like illness'; **wowser** 'a puritanical person, a killjoy' etc.

The development and evolution of

English in Ireland is also an interesting topic to discuss. The Plantation of Ulster that began in 1609 was a planned process of settlement aimed at preventing further rebellion among the population in the north of Ireland. This part of the island was at that time virtually exclusively Gaelic-speaking and had shown the greatest resistance to English colonization. From the early seventeenth century onwards, Irish lands were confiscated and given to British settlers - or 'planters' - who arrived in increasing numbers, bringing the English Language with them. Large numbers of settlers came from southwest Scotland and thus spoke a Scots dialect, while the remaining settlers came predominantly from the north and Midlands of England. By 1830, for instance, Londonderry had a population that was 25% Scots, 25% English and 50% Irish.

For some considerable time the colonists remained surrounded by Gaelic-speaking communities in County Donegal to the west and the counties of Louth, Monaghan and Cavan to the south. Thus English in the northeast of the island developed in relative isolation from other English-speaking areas such as Dublin, while the political situation over the course of the twentieth century has meant that Northern Ireland has continued to develop a linguistic tradition that is distinct from the rest of Ireland. Scots, Irish Gaelic, seventeenth century English and Hiberno-English (the English spoken in the Republic of Ireland) have all influenced the development of Northern Irish English, and this mixture explains the very distinctive hybrid that has emerged.

Speech in the whole of Ireland is for instance rhotic - that is speakers pronounce an /r/ sound after a vowel in words like farm, first and better. The pronunciation of this /r/ sound is, however, much more like the sound we hear in an English West Country accent than the 'tapped' or 'rolled' /r/ sound we associate with Scot-

tish speakers. On the other hand the vowel system of Northern Irish English more closely resembles that of Scottish English, rather than the English of England, Wales or the Republic of Ireland. Pairs such as pull and pool are often homophones, boot frequently rhymes with foot and phrases such as good food are pronounced with vowels of equal length in Belfast and Glasgow, for instance, but not in Dublin, London or Cardiff. Many speakers - particularly older speakers in rural communities - retain pronunciations that are a throwback to much older, conservative forms of English, such as inserting a /y/ sound after an initial /k/ or /g/ in words like car and garden, such that they sound a little like 'kyarr' or 'gyarrden'. Northern Irish English also has a very distinctive intonation pattern and a broad Northern Irish accent is characterized by a very noticeable tendency to raise the pitch towards the end of an utterance, even if the speaker is not asking a question.

As in Scotland, some speakers claim to speak a dialect (or language, depending on one's point of view) that traces its roots back to the earliest Scottish settlers - Ulster Scots. Ulster Scots has been recognized by the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages and, although there is no attempt to classify it as a language in The Good Friday agreement of 1998, Ulster Scots is cited as 'part of the cultural wealth of the island of Ireland'.

The linguistic landscape of Scotland is considerably more complex than it is in most of England and Wales, with a broad range of dialects and older language forms contributing to a rich and varied national voice.

As in Wales, an ethnic Celtic language exists alongside English - in this case Scottish Gaelic. Like other heritage languages, it is experiencing something of a revival as a result of a renewed sense of national identity and recent positive legislation. However, the census of 2001 re-

vealed that less than 2% of the total population of Scotland currently speak any Gaelic.

Unlike the status of Welsh in Wales, Gaelic is not a compulsory subject in the vast majority of schools in Scotland and there are very few Gaelic-medium schools at all. Moreover, Gaelic has for some time been restricted geographically to areas of the Highlands and the Western Isles; the language suffered catastrophically as a result of the Highland Clearances in the eighteenth century. Nonetheless it remains a community language in some parts of Scotland, notably in the Hebrides, and it has left its mark on the English spoken there and in other parts of the country.

The type of English spoken in Scotland is more difficult to define than elsewhere in the UK. From the time of the Union of Parliaments in 1707, the official written language of Scotland became aligned with that of England. As such, Standard English has been used as the language of religion, education and government and so it became the socially prestigious form adopted by the aspiring middle classes. Unlike in England, however, Standard English continued to be spoken with a variety of local accents.

RP - the regionally non-specific accent of the upper middle classes in England - has a negligible presence in Scotland (unlike Wales, for example, where it retains a certain degree of prestige in some areas). This means that even the most socially prestigious forms of English spoken in Scotland contain elements that are characteristically Scottish. The variety of speech we might recognize as educated Scottish English contains the occasional word - out with for 'outside' - or grammatical structure - I've not heard for 'I haven't heard' - that is distinctively Scottish.

Above all, though, Scottish English is recognizable by its pronunciation: speakers do not make the same distinctions in vowel length made by speakers

with other English accents and the vast majority of speakers in Scotland are rhotic - that is, they pronounce the <r> sound after a vowel in words like farm, first and better.

Alongside Standard Scottish English, the local vernacular language, Scots, a dialect descended from Old English and closely related to Northumbrian dialects has maintained a strong presence, especially in rural communities. There has been heated debate among linguists for many years as to whether Scots constitutes a dialect or a distinct language in its own right. It has recently been officially classified as a 'traditional language' by the Scottish Executive and recognized by the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages, but even in Scotland experts remain divided over the issue. Whatever its status - language or dialect - large numbers of speakers would certainly claim to speak Scots, not English. Indeed Scots boasts a literary tradition dating back long before Robert Burns in the eighteenth century and still thriving today, as demonstrated by contemporary authors such as Irvine Welsh.

In practice, the distinction between those who speak Scots and those who speak Standard Scottish English is rather blurred. In some cases we might instantly be able to categorize an individual according to which variety he or she speaks, but more often than not, perhaps particularly in urban areas, speakers tend to drift between the two alternatives depending on context. In other words, they might speak

a version of Standard English with a local accent, but frequently use features that we associate with Scots, such as saying wee for 'little', or using grammatical constructions like does name for 'doesn't' or simply sprinkling their speech with isolated archaic pronunciations such as rhyming house with goose or head with heed.

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TRANSLATION OF CULTURALLY COLORED WORDS: APPROACH OF THE RUSSIAN TRANSLATION SCHOOL

Borissova Anna, Gersonskaya Valentina
Kazakh American Free University, Kazakhstan

Further globalization and integration increase interest in cultures of different nationalities, and, consequently, enhance research of their peculiarities. Nowadays

we tend to learn more about other people's life by means of art, i.e. various films, books etc., showing us their mode of life and mentality. Fiction being one of the most reliable sources, shows all the mentioned above without misrepresentation. The issues of preserving ethnic "flavor" and national coloring in the translation of a book into any foreign language is relevant and even crucial for the translator. This article is dedicated to the cultural peculiarities, creating the authentic atmosphere of the text and variants of their rendering, elaborated by the Russian school of translation and implemented into the English language practice.

Literary text differs from other types of texts and is considered to be more difficult for reader's perception and full understanding of the concept due to its diverse nature. Professor L. Babenko defines the literary text as "a verbal piece of art, aiming to realize author's concept, as an individual worldview, created by his artistic imagination, and implemented in the matter of the text by means of purposefully selected linguistic means, corresponding with the author's idea, reflecting the reality and addressed to the reader who interprets all these in line with his own social and cultural competence" (Babenko, 2000, p.126). This definition proves that the literary text has linguistic and extra-linguistic connections. This idea was further developed by professor V. Vinogradov in his book "Introduction to the Translation Studies (General and Vocabulary Issues)". He notes that linguistic connections or, in other words, linguistic information carries intralingua content, reflecting objects of the linguistic system, their interrelations and existing regularities of speech (Vinogradov, 2001, p 23). Linguistic connections are equally inherent in all types of texts, but the situation is not the same with extra-linguistic ones. They are mostly common for literary texts; this feature singles them out of the other text type and

causes difficulties in literary translation. These difficulties are explained by the fact that this type of information presupposes notions and understanding of the phenomena, existing in material and spiritual cultures of other peoples (Vinogradov, 2001, p. 25).

The translation of the literary text is complicated because of figurative and associative elements, i.e. the extra-linguistic part of the text. Writing about extra-linguistic information, V. Vinogradov subdivides it into semantic information (information that denotes objects); expressive and emotional information (in other words – stylistic or connotative information); social and cultural information (including geographic information); chronological information (diachronic and monochronic); differential information (that varies in accordance with the meaning of the message, pointing either to the object or the subject, modality, etc.); background information (Vinogradov, 2001, p. 27). In "Language and Culture", E. Vereshchagin and V. Kostomarov define background knowledge as "common for all participants of communication" (Vereshchagin, Kostomarov, 1973, p. 126). Such background knowledge includes information about cultural peculiarities of other peoples, and can be seen as the result of "historical development of an ethnic community" (Vinogradov, 2001, p. 135). They suppose that authors, while writing a book, address the average reader. So they consider this type of information acceptable and appeal to it. Knowledge about the country is a key element in understanding the text (Vinogradov, 2001, p. 170). However, we must take into consideration that the reader often belongs to other culture and does not speak the language the book is written in. In such a case communication will not be successful, as the message cannot be apprehended in the correct way. It leads to the change in the aim of translation, as the translator must obtain correct

connotative meaning and thereby provide full understanding of the text. Translation of realias is the most complicated part of the process, as they reflect the social part of the language, i.e. the result of interaction between language and culture, representing the peculiarities of life style and habits (Repin, 1970, p. 88).

These issues have been analyzed by many scientists, including O. Akhmanova who writes about realia – objects (components of culture) and realia – words (vocabulary, representing realia – objects in language) (Akhmanova, 1966, p. 324). According to E. Vereshchagin and V. Kostomarov, translation of realias into other languages by means of exact match is impossible (Vereshchagin, Kostomarov, 1973, p 175); G. Tomakhin analyses different languages and cultures and writes about peculiarities of realias implementation evoked by them (Tomakhin, 1988, p 85). In our opinion, the definition given by S. Vlakhov and S. Florin fully shows the nature of realia. Thus, the realia is a word, denoting objects typical of life, culture, social and historical development of a nation and unknown for others. It represents national and historical coloring, has no exact correspondences in other languages, and so cannot be translated by means of common rules (Vlakhov, Florin, 1980, p. 265).

Having reviewed works by B. Repin, A. Reformatskiy, S. Vlakhov and S. Florin we are coming to the conclusion that classification of realias is based on different indications, such as time, place, semantics, grammar and phonetics. B. Repin, for instance, singles out five groups of realias: accomodation, clothes, jewelry; food, drinks; relations customs, plays, songs musical instruments, ethnographical; mythology and religion; onomastic phenomena (Repin, 1970, p. 92). Classifying realias, A. Reformatskiy considers not only objects, but also language. He distinguishes proper names, coins, ranks and

titles, costumes and jewelry, cuisine, direct addresses (Reformatskiy, 1967, p. 221).

The most detailed classification was done by S. Vlakhov and S. Florin. They divide realias into three groups, based on objects, place and time. To the first group they refer geographical objects, including meteorology, and endemics, the second group is ethnographical realias, describing life style, culture, money, the third group is social and political realias, describing administrative and territorial system, bodies of power, social and political life, military realias, etc. (Vlakhov, Florin, 1980, p. 268). Subdivision of realias in this classification is done taking into account not only the national origin of realias, but also translation languages. The authors consider realias as “native” and “foreign”. “Native” realia is national realia. “Foreign” realia is a phenomenon not typical for certain community of people (Vlakhov, Florin, 1980, p. 290). S. Vlakhov and S. Florin suggest subdividing all the realias for translation purposes into outer and inner. In their opinion, outer realia is a realia foreign for both languages, i.e. the language of the original text and the language of translation. Inner realia, in its turn, is native for one of the languages. Also, realias can be seen as modern, and historical ones (p. 293).

As translation of culturally colored vocabulary is one of the most difficult tasks, many scholars pay great attention to it. E. Vershchagin, V. Kostomarov, V. Vinogradov and others contributed much to the development of the Russian translation school in general and translation of realias in particular. Analyzing their works, we can conclude that there are many ways to render realias. However, the fact that no ideal way to translate them exists is obvious. The task for the translator to choose the best variant, suiting the situation, is of great difficulty. The most obvious way is not the best one. Footnotes cannot be applied in all cases, despite the great number

of its advantages. It takes a lot of place and requires reader's attention and patience to read them. It also leads to the increase of pages in translation and so cannot be accepted by many publishing houses.

Transcription and/or transliteration are also commonly used. In the first case the phonation of the word is preserved, and the translator writes it down by means of the alphabet of translation language. This way is used in translation of the W. Scott's novel «Ivanhoe»

“...to offer a hundred *zecchins* in ransom of these horses and suits of armour (Akhmanova, 1966, p. 647).

We think that transliteration is not quite good as it shows only the written variant of the word which cannot provide the reader with enough information. Transliteration was used in the translation of the Pushkin's “The Tale of the Fisherman and the Fish”. So the word «*izba*» was transliterated.

The way called “transplantation” presupposes inclusion of foreign vocabulary into the translated text. This can be only used if the vocabulary is familiar to most of the readers. But translators must remember that this way cannot make a text easy for understanding.

Loan translation is a technique that implies adoption of lexical and semantical model from the original. It was used in translation of the M. Sholokhov's short story “Herdsman”. The translator took the word *Исполком* and translated every part of it.

«So, we, the Executive Committee, propose Frolov, Grigory, in this place».

The disadvantage of this way is that translation of words parts cannot provide full understanding of culturally colored words.

Polyonization in translation consists of the search for the best suited equivalent, incorporating the whole specter of meanings and colors of the word. For instance,

in translation of the W. Scott's novel «Ivanhoe» the translator changes *baron* into *помещик*. Though such means misunderstanding and the wrong perception of the object.

Xenonymic explication, called descriptive translation by many scholars (Akhmanova, 1966, p. 691), allows us to explain the meaning of a word in the text, as it presupposes word combinations, illustrating the meaning and peculiarities of the described objects. This way was used in the translation of the «Breakfast at Tiffany's» novel by Truman Garcia Capote. The word combination

«He rang open his cash register, and produced a *manila envelope*»

was translated as

«Он с треском выдвинул ящик кассы и достал *конверт из толстой бумаги*».

Alongside all the advantages, this way has also a disadvantage, as the xenonym itself is replaced in the translated text, and the reader can't picture the object, and therefore, understand it (Tomakhin, 1988, p. 211).

Techniques employed in rendering the cultural component of a literary text can be readily seen in a typical specimen of translation made by a representative of the Russian translation school, i.e. the English version of the world-famous A. Tolstoy's novel “Peter the First” made by T. Shebunina in 1961. The choice of this literary work for our research has been predetermined by the plot of this masterpiece of Russian literature as the scene of the book is laid in Medieval Russia and acquaints the reader with many aspects of the Russian life in the XVII century. To recreate the atmosphere of the epoch, the writer intensively uses archaisms and words denoting Russian realias. Take, the first chapter of the novel. Fifty – two pages contain 194 culturally colored elements.

Realias representing social life is the

majority in the text (126 out of 194). There are realias denoting clothes, food, interior and exterior of the house, words, connected with religion, geographical names, words, describing the political and social environment of the XVII century.

The text is “overcrowded” with words, denoting objects of everyday life: clothes (*лапти, тулуп, колпак, войлочный кафтан, телегея, валенки, кушак*, food (*солонина, подовые пироги, щи, тестяные шишки, левашик, перепечи*), household items (*сени, печь, изба, кадка, волоковое окошечко, усадьба, крыша*

луковицей, подклеть, крестовая палата), religious festivals and notions (*покров, крестная сила, дьяк, подьячий, звонница, образа, патриарх*), geographical names (*Кукуй-слобода, Архангельск, Холмогоры, Река Неглинная, Яуза, Китай-город*), political and administrative realias (*дворня, боярское царство, стрельцы, ратник, кабальная запись*).

The above-mentioned words were translated in the manner, typical of the traditional Russian translation school.

Thus, the realias of Chapter I were translated in the following way:

clothes and foot ware:

<i>Лапти</i>	<i>Birch-bark shoes</i>
<i>Тулуп</i>	<i>Sheepskin coat</i>
<i>Колпак</i>	<i>Cap</i>
<i>Войлочный кафтан</i>	<i>Stiff felt coats</i>
<i>Телегея</i>	<i>Tegiley</i>
<i>Валенки</i>	<i>Boots</i>
<i>Кушак</i>	<i>Belt</i>

food:

<i>Солонина</i>	<i>Salted meat</i>
<i>Подовые пироги</i>	<i>Baked pies</i>
<i>Щи</i>	<i>Cabbage soup</i>
<i>Тестяные шишки</i>	<i>Dough-buns</i>
<i>Левашик</i>	<i>Turnovers</i>
<i>Перепечи</i>	<i>Biscuits</i>

words, describing interior, exterior of the house, and yard:

<i>Сени</i>	<i>Passage</i>
<i>Печь</i>	<i>Stove</i>
<i>Изба</i>	<i>Hut</i>
<i>Кадка</i>	<i>Butt</i>
<i>Волоковое окошечко</i>	<i>Little transom</i>
<i>Усадьба</i>	<i>Homestead</i>
<i>Крыша луковицей</i>	<i>Onion-shaped dome</i>
<i>Подклеть</i>	<i>Store-room</i>
<i>Крестовая палата</i>	<i>Audience room</i>

There is wide variety of religious words:

<i>Покров</i>	<i>Feast of the Intercession</i>
<i>Крестная сила</i>	<i>Holy powers</i>
<i>Дьяк</i>	<i>Clerk</i>
<i>Подьячий</i>	<i>Collector</i>
<i>Образ честного креста господня</i>	<i>Image of the Holy Cross</i>
<i>Звонница</i>	<i>Belfries</i>
<i>Образа</i>	<i>Icons</i>
<i>Патриарх</i>	<i>Patriarch</i>
<i>Закреститься трехперстно</i>	<i>Cross himself with three fingers</i>

The names of the cities and rivers (16 realias):

<i>Кукуй-слобод</i>	<i>Kukuy suburb</i>
<i>Архангельск</i>	<i>Archangel</i>
<i>Холмогоры</i>	<i>Holmogory</i>
<i>Река Неглинная</i>	<i>the Neglinnaya river</i>
<i>Яуза</i>	<i>the Yaouza</i>
<i>Китай-город</i>	<i>Kitay-gorod</i>

There are 54 realias, connected with social structure and political system showing political climate and governmental system of that time:

<i>Дворня</i>	<i>House serfs</i>
<i>Целовальник</i>	<i>Publican</i>
<i>Боярское царство</i>	<i>Boyars rule</i>
<i>Стрельцы</i>	<i>the Streltsi</i>
<i>Ратник</i>	<i>Men-at-arms</i>
<i>Кабальная запись</i>	<i>Serf's deed</i>

Transcription and transliteration are two the main frequently used ways of rendering realias, used by the translator.

В стрельцы пойти?

Join the *streltsi*?

In many cases the translator had to describe the meaning, but not to translate the given realia:

Под черным потолком клубился теплый, сухой дым, уходил в волоковое окошечко над дверью: избу топили *по-черному*.

Warm, dry smoke curled up to the blackened ceiling and made its way out of the little transom over the door— *there was no chimney*.

One of the most frequently used way to render the realias in the translation of the novel is to change them by neutral

words:

Один, рослый *холоп*, бросив карты, обернулся.

One of the *men*, a tall fellow, flung down his cards and turned round.

The translator preferred not to miss the realias out, however some examples of this mean can be found in the text:

Володька Чемоданов с *челобитной* до царя дошел, два сельца ему в вечное владенье дано.

Volodka Chemodanov reached the Tsar himself with his *petition* and got two tidy villages in perpetual ownership.

Loan translation is the other way of rendering, implemented by the translator:

“Oh, they *'veki-i-i-lled* me!” and dragged him out of the house, pushing through the crowd towards *the Red*

Square, to show him to others.

Footnote is the way of rendering used only twice in the first chapter, and can be considered as the least implemented.

The choice of ways of realias rendering made by the translator can be explained by great amount of culturally colored words in the text. Transliteration and transcription are used to preserve national coloring of the text; explanation of the words, used instead of their translation, helps the reader to understand the nature of the phenomenon described. The best ways of rendering, i.e. footnotes and comments in the text cannot be used very frequently as they increase the number of pages and require the reader to be very attentive and patient to read extra amount of text. The translation reviewed reveals the problems that literary translators face and the way they try to deal with them.

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TEACHING SPEAKING IN AN EFL CLASSROOM

Kyzykeyeva Almagul

Kazakh-American Free University, Kazakhstan

Speaking is "the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts" (p. 13). Speaking is a crucial part of second language learning and teaching. Despite its importance, for many years, teaching speaking has been undervalued and English language teachers have continued to teach speaking just as a repetition of drills or memorization of dialogues. However, today's world requires that the goal of teaching speaking should improve students' communicative skills, because, only in that way, students can express themselves and learn how to fol-

low the social and cultural rules appropriate in each communicative circumstance.

Many language learners regard speaking ability as the measure of knowing a language. These learners define fluency as the ability to converse with others, much more than the ability to read, write, or comprehend oral language. They regard speaking as the most important skill they can acquire, and they assess their progress in terms of their accomplishments in spoken communication.

Language learners need to recognize that speaking involves three areas of knowledge:

- Mechanics (pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary) - using the right words in the right order with the correct pronunciation;

- Functions (transaction and interaction) - knowing when clarity of message is essential (transaction / information exchange) and when precise understanding is not required (interaction/ relationship building);

- Social and cultural rules and norms (turn-taking, rate of speech, length of pauses between speakers, relative roles of participants) - understanding how to take into account who is speaking to whom, in what circumstances, about what, and for what reason.

In the communicative model of language teaching, instructors help their students develop this body of knowledge by providing authentic practice that prepares students for real-life communication situations. They help their students develop the ability to produce grammatically correct, logically connected sentences that are appropriate to specific contexts, and to do so using acceptable (that is, comprehensible) pronunciation.

The goal of teaching speaking skills is communicative efficiency. Learners should be able to make themselves understood, using their current proficiency to the fullest. They should try to avoid confusion in the message due to faulty pronunciation, grammar, or vocabulary, and to observe the social and cultural rules that apply in each communication situation.

To help students develop communicative efficiency in speaking, instructors can use a balanced activities approach that combines language input, structured output, and communicative output.

Language input comes in the form of teacher talk, listening activities, reading passages, and the language heard and read outside of class. It gives learners the material they need to begin producing language themselves.

Language input may be content-oriented or form-oriented.

- Content-oriented input focuses on information, whether it is a simple weather report or an extended lecture on an academic topic. Content-oriented input may also include descriptions of learning strategies and examples of their use.

- Form-oriented input focuses on ways of using the language: guidance from the teacher or another source on vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar (linguistic competence); appropriate things to say in specific contexts (discourse competence); expectations for rate of speech, pause length, turn-taking, and other social aspects of language use (sociolinguistic competence); and explicit instruction in phrases to use to ask for clarification and repair miscommunication (strategic competence).

In the presentation part of a lesson, an instructor combines content-oriented and form-oriented input. The amount of input that is actually provided in the target language depends on students' listening proficiency and also on the situation. For students at lower levels, or in situations where a quick explanation on a grammar topic is needed, an explanation in English may be more appropriate than one in the target language.

Structured output focuses on correct form. In structured output, students may have options for responses, but all of the options require them to use the specific form or structure that the teacher has just introduced.

Structured output is designed to make learners comfortable producing specific language items recently introduced, sometimes in combination with previously learned items. Instructors often use structured output exercises as a transition between the presentation stage and the practice stage of a lesson plan. Textbook exercises also often make good structured output practice activities.

In **communicative output**, the learners' main purpose is to complete a task, such as obtaining information, developing a travel plan, or creating a video. To complete the task, they may use the language that the instructor has just presented, but they also may draw on any other vocabulary, grammar, and communication strategies that they know. In communicative output activities, the criterion of success is whether the learner gets the message across. Accuracy is not a consideration unless the lack of it interferes with the message.

In everyday communication, spoken exchanges take place because there is some sort of information gap between the participants. Communicative output activities involve a similar real information gap. In order to complete the task, students must reduce or eliminate the information gap. In these activities, language is a tool, not an end in itself.

In a balanced activities approach, the teacher uses a variety of activities from these different categories of input and output. Learners at all proficiency levels, including beginners, benefit from this variety; it is more motivating, and it is also more likely to result in effective language learning.

Developing Speaking Activities

Traditional classroom speaking practice often takes the form of drills in which one person asks a question and another gives an answer. The question and the answer are structured and predictable, and often there is only one correct, predetermined answer. The purpose of asking and answering the question is to demonstrate the ability to ask and answer the question.

In contrast, the purpose of real communication is to accomplish a task, such as conveying a telephone message, obtaining information, or expressing an opinion. In real communication, participants must manage uncertainty about what

the other person will say. Authentic communication involves an information gap; each participant has information that the other does not have. In addition, to achieve their purpose, participants may have to clarify their meaning or ask for confirmation of their own understanding.

To create classroom speaking activities that will develop communicative competence, instructors need to incorporate a purpose and an information gap and allow for multiple forms of expression. However, quantity alone will not necessarily produce competent speakers. Instructors need to combine structured output activities, which allow for error correction and increased accuracy, with communicative output activities that give students opportunities to practice language use more freely.

Structured Output Activities

Two common kinds of structured output activities are **information gap** and **jigsaw** activities. In both these types of activities, students complete a task by obtaining missing information, a feature the activities have in common with real communication. However, information gap and jigsaw activities also set up practice on specific items of language. In this respect they are more like drills than like communication.

Information Gap Activities

- Filling the gaps in a schedule or timetable: Partner A holds an airline timetable with some of the arrival and departure times missing. Partner B has the same timetable but with different blank spaces. The two partners are not permitted to see each other's timetables and must fill in the blanks by asking each other appropriate questions. The features of language that are practiced would include questions beginning with "when" or "at what time." Answers would be limited mostly to time expressions like "at 8:15" or "at ten in the

evening".

- Completing the picture: The two partners have similar pictures, each with different missing details, and they cooperate to find all the missing details. In another variation, no items are missing, but similar items differ in appearance. For example, in one picture, a man walking along the street may be wearing an overcoat, while in the other the man is wearing a jacket. The features of grammar and vocabulary that are practiced are determined by the content of the pictures and the items that are missing or different. Differences in the activities depicted lead to practice of different verbs. Differences in number, size, and shape lead to adjective practice. Differing locations would probably be described with prepositional phrases.

These activities may be set up so that the partners must practice more than just grammatical and lexical features. For example, the timetable activity gains a social dimension when one partner assumes the role of a student trying to make an appointment with a partner who takes the role of a professor. Each partner has pages from an appointment book in which certain dates and times are already filled in and other times are still available for an appointment. Of course, the open times don't match exactly, so there must be some polite negotiation to arrive at a mutually convenient time for a meeting or a conference.

Jigsaw Activities

Jigsaw activities are more elaborate information gap activities that can be done with several partners. In a jigsaw activity, each partner has one or a few pieces of the "puzzle," and the partners must cooperate to fit all the pieces into a whole picture. The puzzle piece may take one of several forms. It may be one panel from a comic strip or one photo from a set that tells a story. It may be one sentence from a written narrative. It may be a tape recording of

a conversation, in which case no two partners hear exactly the same conversation.

- In one fairly simple jigsaw activity, students work in groups of four. Each student in the group receives one panel from a comic strip. Partners may not show each other their panels. Together the four panels present this narrative: a man takes a container of ice cream from the freezer; he serves himself several scoops of ice cream; he sits in front of the TV eating his ice cream; he returns with the empty bowl to the kitchen and finds that he left the container of ice cream, now melting, on the kitchen counter. These pictures have a clear narrative line and the partners are not likely to disagree about the appropriate sequencing. You can make the task more demanding, however, by using pictures that lend themselves to alternative sequences, so that the partners have to negotiate among themselves to agree on a satisfactory sequence.

- More elaborate jigsaws may proceed in two stages. Students first work in input groups (groups A, B, C, and D) to receive information. Each group receives a different part of the total information for the task. Students then reorganize into groups of four with one student each from A, B, C, and D, and use the information they received to complete the task. Such an organization could be used, for example, when the input is given in the form of a tape recording. Groups A, B, C, and D each hear a different recording of a short news bulletin. The four recordings all contain the same general information, but each has one or more details that the others do not. In the second stage, students reconstruct the complete story by comparing the four versions.

With information gap and jigsaw activities, instructors need to be conscious of the language demands they place on their students. If an activity calls for language your students have not already practiced, you can brainstorm with them when set-

ting up the activity to preview the language they will need, eliciting what they already know and supplementing what they are able to produce themselves.

Structured output activities can form an effective bridge between instructor modeling and communicative output because they are partly authentic and partly artificial. Like authentic communication, they feature information gaps that must be bridged for successful completion of the task. However, where authentic communication allows speakers to use all of the language they know, structured output activities lead students to practice specific features of language and to practice only in brief sentences, not in extended discourse. Also, structured output situations are contrived and more like games than real communication, and the participants' social roles are irrelevant to the performance of the activity. This structure controls the number of variables that students must deal with when they are first exposed to new material. As they become comfortable, they can move on to true communicative output activities.

Communicative Output Activities

Communicative output activities allow students to practice using all of the language they know in situations that resemble real settings. In these activities, students must work together to develop a plan, resolve a problem, or complete a task. The most common types of communicative output activity are **role plays** and **discussions**.

In role plays, students are assigned roles and put into situations that they may eventually encounter outside the classroom. Because role plays imitate life, the range of language functions that may be used expands considerably. Also, the role relationships among the students as they play their parts call for them to practice and develop their sociolinguistic competence. They have to use language that is

appropriate to the situation and to the characters.

Students usually find role playing enjoyable, but students who lack self-confidence or have lower proficiency levels may find them intimidating at first. To succeed with role plays:

- Prepare carefully: Introduce the activity by describing the situation and making sure that all of the students understand it;

- Set a goal or outcome: Be sure the students understand what the product of the role play should be, whether a plan, a schedule, a group opinion, or some other product;

- Use role cards: Give each student a card that describes the person or role to be played. For lower-level students, the cards can include words or expressions that that person might use;

- Brainstorm: Before you start the role play, have students brainstorm as a class to predict what vocabulary, grammar, and idiomatic expressions they might use;

- Keep groups small: Less-confident students will feel more able to participate if they do not have to compete with many voices;

- Give students time to prepare: Let them work individually to outline their ideas and the language they will need to express them;

- Be present as a resource, not a monitor: Stay in communicative mode to answer students' questions. Do not correct their pronunciation or grammar unless they specifically ask you about it;

- Allow students to work at their own levels: Each student has individual language skills, an individual approach to working in groups, and a specific role to play in the activity. Do not expect all students to contribute equally to the discussion, or to use every grammar point you have taught;

- Do topical follow-up: Have stu-

dents report to the class on the outcome of their role plays;

- Do linguistic follow-up: After the role play is over, give feedback on grammar or pronunciation problems you have heard. This can wait until another class period when you plan to review pronunciation or grammar anyway.

Discussions, like role plays, succeed when the instructor prepares students first, and then gets out of the way. To succeed with discussions:

- Prepare the students: Give them input (both topical information and language forms) so that they will have something to say and the language with which to say it;

- Offer choices: Let students suggest the topic for discussion or choose from several options. Discussion does not always have to be about serious issues. Students are likely to be more motivated to participate if the topic is television programs, plans for a vacation, or news about mutual friends. Weighty topics like how to combat pollution are not as engaging and place heavy demands on students' linguistic competence;

- Set a goal or outcome: This can be a group product, such as a letter to the editor, or individual reports on the views of others in the group;

- Use small groups instead of whole-class discussion: Large groups can make participation difficult;

- Keep it short: Give students a defined period of time, not more than 8-10 minutes, for discussion. Allow them to stop sooner if they run out of things to say;

- Allow students to participate in their own way: Not every student will feel comfortable talking about every topic. Do not expect all of them to contribute equally to the conversation;

- Do topical follow-up: Have students report to the class on the results of their discussion;

- Do linguistic follow-up: After the

discussion is over, give feedback on grammar or pronunciation problems you have heard. This can wait until another class period when you plan to review pronunciation or grammar anyway.

Through well-prepared communicative output activities such as role plays and discussions, you can encourage students to experiment and innovate with the language, and create a supportive atmosphere that allows them to make mistakes without fear of embarrassment. This will contribute to their self-confidence as speakers and to their motivation to learn more.

Strategies for Developing Speaking Skills

Students often think that the ability to speak a language is the product of language learning, but speaking is also a crucial part of the language learning process. Effective instructors teach students speaking strategies -- using minimal responses, recognizing scripts, and using language to talk about language -- that they can use to help themselves expand their knowledge of the language and their confidence in using it. These instructors help students learn to speak so that the students can use speaking to learn.

1. Using minimal responses

Language learners who lack confidence in their ability to participate successfully in oral interaction often listen in silence while others do the talking. One way to encourage such learners to begin to participate is to help them build up a stock of minimal responses that they can use in different types of exchanges. Such responses can be especially useful for beginners.

Minimal responses are predictable, often idiomatic phrases that conversation participants use to indicate understanding, agreement, doubt, and other responses to what another speaker is saying. Having a stock of such responses enables a learner to focus on what the other participant is saying, without having to simultaneously

plan a response.

2. *Recognizing scripts*

Some communication situations are associated with a predictable set of spoken exchanges -- a script. Greetings, apologies, compliments, invitations, and other functions that are influenced by social and cultural norms often follow patterns or scripts. So do the transactional exchanges involved in activities such as obtaining information and making a purchase. In these scripts, the relationship between a speaker's turn and the one that follows it can often be anticipated.

Instructors can help students develop speaking ability by making them aware of the scripts for different situations so that they can predict what they will hear and what they will need to say in response. Through interactive activities, instructors can give students practice in managing and varying the language that different scripts contain.

3. *Using language to talk about language*

Language learners are often too embarrassed or shy to say anything when they do not understand another speaker or when they realize that a conversation partner has not understood them. Instructors can help students overcome this reticence by assuring them that misunderstanding and the need for clarification can occur in any type of interaction, whatever the participants' language skill levels. Instructors can also give students strategies and phrases to use for clarification and comprehension check.

By encouraging students to use clarification phrases in class when misunderstanding occurs, and by responding positively when they do, instructors can create

an authentic practice environment within the classroom itself. As they develop control of various clarification strategies, students will gain confidence in their ability to manage the various communication situations that they may encounter outside the classroom.

Teaching speaking is a very important part of second language learning. The ability to communicate in a second language clearly and efficiently contributes to the success of the learner in school and success later in every phase of life. Therefore, it is essential that language teachers pay great attention to teaching speaking. Rather than leading students to pure memorization, providing a rich environment where meaningful communication takes place is desired. With this aim, various speaking activities such as those listed above can contribute a great deal to students in developing basic interactive skills necessary for life. These activities make students more active in the learning process and at the same time make their learning more meaningful and fun for them.

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USING THE MEDIA IN TEACHING LISTENING IN UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOL

Samoilova-Tsyplakova Inna

Kazakh-American Free University, Kazakhstan

Language is an essential means of communication, which is essential to the existence and development of human society. Expanding and measuring the quality of the nature of international relations of our state, the internationalization of all spheres of social life make foreign languages, particularly English, really popular in practical and intellectual human activities.

In connection with the practical foreign language orientation of the school learning process the listening problem is increasingly attracting the attention of training specialists. Therefore, a serious theoretical search in the study of this complex process is conducted.

As you know, speaking and listening are interdependent concepts. In order to achieve even development of these skills the application of a specially designed system of exercises for the development of the understanding of speech in natural communication is necessary.

Currently teaching listening, as the ability to perceive and understand speech in a foreign language, namely English, becomes more and more important, because along with speaking it provides an opportunity to communicate. Communication is a two-way process: it is impossible without the ability to understand a speech of others, as by direct contact or by telephone, television, radio and other media. Underestimation of the significance of teaching listening can very negatively affect the language training of students. In addition, listening is the most difficult skill to teach, due to the fact that we should be able to understand the full speech at different paces, different intonation and different levels of correctness [1, p. 18].

The current stage of development of foreign language teaching is characterized by the formation of a number of trends, among which there is an important place trend of using audio-visual aids in foreign language teaching. At the same time audiovisual means are considered not in isolation, but as one of the necessary components of the didactic system.

One of the most effective ways of teaching a foreign language is the use of mass media (television and radio), which allows us to give students a visual representation of life, traditions, linguistic realities of English-speaking countries and diversify the process of a foreign language learning.

The above-stated led to the choice of the research work theme - "Using the media in teaching listening in upper secondary school."

The object of the research is teaching listening through the media at the lessons of a foreign language.

The subject of the study is peculiarities of the use of media in a foreign language.

The aim of the research work is to develop a set of exercises using media in teaching listening in English by the example of the use of television commercials in the upper secondary school.

The hypothesis of the study is the assumption that learning a foreign language will be more efficient and effective if the use of media is integrated in conjunction with the developed teaching materials drawn up and used in accordance with the proposed methodology.

Based on the goal, the object of the research subject and the hypothesis, the following research objectives are set:

- 1) to consider listening as a type of

verbal activity;

2) to study the characteristics of training listening in a foreign language at the senior stage in secondary school;

3) to identify the features of training listening by the use of the media;

4) to create a set of exercises for teaching listening, using television materials (commercials) for upper secondary school students.

The relevance of the study is due to the fact that the peculiarities of using media in the process of training listening in secondary school are not completely studied and require more attention and methodological development.

The novelty of the research is predetermined by the study of theoretical and methodological features of the use of media in teaching listening in a foreign language and the development of this technique.

The theoretical significance of this paper gives systematization of theoretical material on teaching listening with the use of media.

The practical significance of the work lies in the possibility of using work materials at the lessons of the practical course of English.

The main methods of the research are: analysis and systematization of the regulations of the current scientific literature on the research topic; observation in the classroom; the study and compilation of the best teachers' practices; designing (modeling) a fragment of the lesson.

With the development of intercultural cooperation and the media, the importance of practical language skills increased; consequently, the international requirements for proficiency in a foreign language have appeared. The demands on the quality of education, training and retraining, educational programs, material and technical resources, educational environment have been increasing.

Ever since mankind has realized the

need and necessity of learning foreign languages, there is a question about the effectiveness of teaching foreign languages. "It is known that the methodical nature of a modern lesson should be communicative. Teaching a foreign language, we teach to communicate in this language. It is possible only in terms of communication, i. e., the training process should be organized so that it is similar to the process of natural communication, and only in this case it will be possible to transfer the generated skills in the real world" [3, p. 16].

The media are a rich source of additive and audiovisual materials, the use of which contributes to the further rationalization of the educational process and intensification of activities. As a result, it brings the process of teaching to listening and speaking to the real language communication, enhances the interest and motivation of students' speech activity in a foreign language.

Television has a great potential in teaching a foreign language due to the fact that it is generally a special emotional and sensitive form of human development in general, and plays the social functions of the spectacular art forms. According to UNESCO, when a person listens, he/she remembers 15% of speech information, when he/she looks - 25% of the visible information, and when he sees and hears - 65%. "Television programs attract by the following features such as entertainment, a high degree of aesthetic expression, sharpness, and bright presentation. The given peculiarities provide high popularity of television among people of all social and age groups, and different professional directions" [4, p. 40].

Information facilities of television allow us to study a foreign language using the authentic ways to communicate with native speakers. They promote to simulate the natural language environment, reflect changes in the structure and semantics of linguistic phenomena, and others. Televi-

sion reflects the social life of the society, especially the national mentality, national stereotypes, so, TV-messages can serve as a source of information in the study of contemporary cultural background of the English-speaking countries in the classroom communication. When organizing training on the contrastive basis (socio-cultural comparison of portraits, political context, etc.) the forming ability to adequately understand the TV-messages becomes an effective means of motivating students in their learning activities.

Thus, the use of television as a medium of instruction in foreign languages allows to realize the following learning objectives: practical (language acquisition as a means of communication), educational, developmental and educational.

It should be mentioned that one of the most popular television resources is advertisement. Any typology of advertising depends primarily on the aspect, which deals with the advertised item. In its objectives advertisement is divided into:

- informative goal - the creation of the primary demand, the formation of the company image;
- persuasive goal - the creation of the selective demand, the formation of preferences in the trade mark);
- reminding goal - maintaining awareness of the product at the stage of maturity of the advertising campaign).

The use of television commercials for foreign language lessons has several advantages for teachers.

Firstly, commercials are shorter in duration from 30 to 50 seconds on average. Such volume is ideal for beginning students [4, p. 13]. The brevity of their content makes the selection process easier. Finding a good passage of a movie or television program usually requires a more thorough and long preparation. Due to the volume of the advertising video content, the pros of its use are obvious: it is much easier to find the right material to prepare

and apply it. In addition, advertisement always attracts attention, as it is created in order to entertain the audience [4, p. 8].

There is a quite common phenomenon among viewers to observe themselves and others hearing motives and phrases from the famous commercials.

Second, the advertisement content is always authentic [4, p. 9] because it is written for native speakers, for residents of the country of a certain language, and always recited in an authentic foreign language. Speaking about English, the commercials are created in different English-speaking countries, making it possible for pupils and students to be immersed in a variety of the English language. Thus, using commercials of various English-speaking countries such as the United Kingdom (Great Britain and Northern Ireland), the US, Australia, etc., teachers can introduce to students the variation of accents, dialects, i.e. different types of English. This approach allows students to expand the hearing ability. An additional advantage here is the diversity of voices that can be played with in an advertisement, and it provides a much greater impact than the typical material for listening from textbooks.

The third advantage of using television commercials is the presence of visual elements that contribute to a fuller understanding of the meaning. According to some studies, there was an improvement in hearing abilities and increasing motivation to learn of the students "exposed" to the advertisement [5, p. 14]. Visual messages of the commercial help students understand its language content. Also, the teacher has an opportunity to use the genuine intention of advertising and its cultural elements to achieve educational goals simultaneously. In any educational content the key point is that whatever a teacher uses is based on the achievement of well-defined goals that directs them to search for the corresponding material, methods

and forms of assessment.

A further advantage of the use of commercials in teaching is the strength of their influence. Commercials are funny, interesting and bright, with the laconic rhyming or otherwise balanced text. Thanks to the support of visual and musical basis it is easy to remember texts of advertisements for a long time, that is why, they were created. Children sing advertising jingles even without understanding their meaning, and adults use slogans that have become familiar clichés.

The last important fact, which is noted by scholars and practitioners: the commercials are extremely rich authentic elements of the modern speech. Processing of advertisement samples helps students learn about different levels of the language, reduced forms (*wanna, gonna, gotta*), idiomatic expressions, and intonation patterns. Owing to advertisements students learn vocabulary that is not found in textbooks, abbreviations and acronyms (AT & T, MCI, "Let's have subs and suds") [6, p. 14].

The search of the commercial is determined by the objectives of the lesson. Teachers should distinguish between cultural, linguistic and logical aspects that need to be emphasized while searching the corresponding advertisement. If a teacher defined specific goals first and then began to search for material, he / she face difficulties. In this case, many teachers tend to rely on common objectives in selecting advertisements, which allow them to expand the options in the preparation of the lesson. In any case, which way a teacher chooses, it is necessary to learn to choose the material and determine the objectives of the class.

To date, there are some websites that can help in the search and selection of good commercials, commercial parodies and short amateur videos. The reference presents the most popular sites are now used to search for commercials [7].

Having selected the objectives of the lesson and found the clip, the next step is to develop activities. The participants of «The Internet TESL Journal» presented a standard approach in the development of complex tasks using the TV ad:

- 1) Pre-viewing activities
- 2) Viewing the TV commercial;
- 3) Securing adequate comprehension;
- 4) Exploring the linguistic components;
- 5) Discussing cultural and values laden components;
- 6) Practicing critical thinking skills by examining the TV commercial critically.

It should be noted that work on the development of listening skills using movies allows reducing the fear of foreign students before listening to speech. It happens due to the relevant interesting information and visualization. In addition, visualization can help students understand the basic content of the story, which also leads to the reduction of the stress level. It is possible to work on the development of speaking skills on the ground of the movie using its contents as a basis.

Thus, the use of television and the Internet resources for the development of listening skills, the following positive results can be marked out:

- reduction of the fear of listening to a foreign speech through the use of videos, which can serve as a support for the understanding of the basic content of the statement;
- increase of interest in the subject, as the information is relevant and constantly updated;
- opportunity for teachers to create self-exercises for students with different levels of language proficiency;
- opportunity for students to choose for themselves, perform and create a set of exercises independently or on the instructions of the teacher;

- opportunity for students to manage independently the time devoted to the fulfillment of the exercise and the number of listening / viewing the material;

- opportunity for students to learn not to pay attention to the acoustic background and, conversely, to take into account body language, facial expressions and tone of the speaker;

- development of the phonemic hearing and ability to understand non-adapted utterances of different character and style, as well as the ability to imagine and understand the overall meaning of the text.

On the basis of the foregoing, it is surely considered that the hallmark of a modern foreign language teaching is the desire to approximate the conditions of the educational process to the conditions of natural communication. The communicative method of teaching a foreign language involves reliance on the principles of activity-based training, complexity, functionality, authenticity. Students master the language means, cognitive and speech activities in the process of solving communication problems. The interrelated development of skills in all kinds of speech activity is considered methodologically appropriate.

The situations underlying the creation of commercials describe the real life that also helps to cause the motivation of students to the study of a foreign language. Different topics are relevant to students at this age, especially the media, namely television and the Internet are an integral part of the lives of adolescents. Advertisement takes a huge range in the Internet as well as in the air space.

The selected video for the listening activity consists of three television commercials. The duration of each one is 30-35 minutes (video 1 and 2) and 2:54 minutes (video 3). By virtue of the plot and the type of each video, the first two ones have an average duration of a movie similar to the easily perceived short video. The

last clip is on a level above in terms of both the semantic content and the duration of the video.

The elaboration of each episode for a lesson is planned. An additional lesson or time is allocated for preparation at home when parallel issues can be discussed which have arisen during the viewing. The methodical development of the class was carried out for grade 9, but it can also be used in 10, 11th grades of the upper secondary school.

By taking into account the theoretical and methodological provisions of psychological training of listening guidelines for working with the above television commercials were developed in this work.

A set of exercises presented below is aimed at school senior students. The purpose of the present methodological development is to demonstrate the types of activities on the basis of which the teacher will be able to plan and organize a lesson for teaching listening and critical thinking skills to students. The presented TV commercials are used in the context of the lesson "Advertising". This complex of tasks based on certain advertising videos can be viewed as a model that can be used while working with any other advertising videos.

The general format of the methodological development plan is due to the organization of three-phase tasks.

1. Performing preliminary activities (previewing).

2. Performing activities while listening to the text and viewing the video (viewing).

3. Performing activities after listening to the text and watching the video (post viewing).

During the lesson all three phases of the work are organized. However, in this complex of tasks different videos for each step are presented in order to provide the ability to use critical thinking skills.

Stage 1. Previewing: performing preliminary activities aimed at identifying

students' understanding of the contents of this advertisement. This kind of job helps to activate students to use background knowledge and to encourage interest in watching the video.

Stage 2. Viewing: working on tasks while listening and viewing the video is aimed at trying to focus students' attention on some aspect of the advertising scene, which in turn coincides with the content of classes, thematic vocabulary lesson or educational purpose.

Stage 3. (Post viewing): the final step is aimed at achieving students' interest in the use of the information obtained from the movie in order to verify the understanding of its semantic content, integration of information and judgment of the product as the consumers.

By the time of this stage, students are supposed to have viewed and listened to the video several times, taken the opportunity to ask questions related to the vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar and cultural characteristics of the commercial.

The main challenge the teacher faces at this stage is checking students' understanding of the fragment content and effectiveness of the proposed guidelines on the stage in the process of watching a video. Also it is necessary to monitor the understanding of the content, language and speech means used in the film. It is also advisable to use the question-answer work, dramatization, role-playing of the text (particularly dialogues), the subsequent film dubbing, reproduction and implementation of the communication situations shown in the video, their expansion, addition, comparing with everyday life situations of the students. After watching the fragment and performing series of exercises it can be used further to develop skills in speaking and writing.

Thus, a number of actions have been performed that teachers can use in the classroom. Using promotional videos in teaching foreign languages can signifi-

cantly increase the effectiveness of the teacher's training activities as videos are samples of the authentic language communication. So, they create the atmosphere of a real language communication, make the process of mastering a foreign language material more lively, interesting, challenging, compelling and emotional.

It is necessary to emphasize the importance of the use of video ads in the learning process in teaching listening of the sounding speech. First, the screen means for today's teenagers are common and loved ones, and meeting with them at English lessons is a kind of entertainment. Secondly, the use of on-screen tools helps the teacher to expand the range of situations within the course topics presenting new material during each particular class that excites students' interest and encourages them to speak out and, therefore, allows to implement the communicative orientation of the learning process in full.

The process of teaching listening on the basis of TV - commercials consists of three stages (previewing, viewing and post viewing) when various and specific for each stage types of assignments and exercises are used, allowing as to simplify the process of perception and understanding as to control understanding.

Thus, the listed advantages of using commercials characterize the new trends in the development of the communicative method of teaching foreign languages.

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USING INFORMATION TECHNOLOGIES IN TEACHING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Larina Marina

Kazakh-American Free University, Kazakhstan

Our century is a century of polyglots. This means the recognition of the fact that knowledge not only one, but several foreign languages becomes necessary term of being educated. It is a factor that significantly affects the successful progress in different fields of activity in the new post-industrial society. Knowledge of foreign languages and computer technology are most important requirements for the level and quality of education of any specialist, in addition, of course, the professional field. In recent years, more issues are dedicated to the use of new information technologies in teaching foreign languages. It is not only new hardware, but also new forms and methods of teaching, a new approach to learning.

In the information-oriented society, knowledge and skills become priorities in human life. To keep abreast of the scientific world, it is necessary to study first-hand language of the authors. Therefore the increasing importance of foreign language, its relevance, had an impact on the content, objectives and dynamics of learning.

In the twenty-first century, the intensification and modernization of education requires the introduction of innovative technologies that aim to educate a person in the creative intellectual and emotional

way. These innovative technologies are developing training, planning, problem-based learning, level differentiation, the test system, the game training, immersion in a foreign culture, cooperative learning, as well as - research, information - communication and personality - oriented technologies. With this target setting universal cognitive actions are one of the leading components of the educational standard. This is due to the fact that one of the components of mental development is learning the knowledge, implying the forming of scientific picture of the world, the ability to manage their intellectual activities, learning methodologies, strategies and ways of learning, development, symbolic, logical, creative thinking, productive imagination, memory, attention and reflection.

In this regard, the universal cognitive actions include:

- actions retrieval of information;
- ability to navigate the system of knowledge and recognize the need for new knowledge;
- the ability to make a preliminary selection of information sources to search for new knowledge.

Technology of problem-based learning involves independent decision of cognitive and creative problem solving

through a critical rethinking and increase knowledge and skills. It allows to realize the conditions of formation of students' cognitive universal action: creating an atmosphere of co-creation in communication, including the emotional sphere of the child, student self-interest, a joint search for truth, self-assessment, self-correction, self-sufficiency.

One way to activate students in learning foreign languages is the design (project method), when the student independently plans, creates, protects his\her project, that is actively involved in the process of communicative activity. Training project is a set of search, research, settlement, graphics and other types of work performed by students independently for practical or theoretical solution of a significant problem.

The main objectives of the project methodology are:

1) self-expression and self-improvement of students, increasing the motivation of learning, the formation of cognitive interest;

2) the practical implementation of acquired skills, language development, ability to competently and convincingly present the material under study, lead the discussion controversy;

3) demonstrate the level of culture, education, social maturity.

Types of projects:

1) role- playing, dramatization, staging (fairy tales, TV shows, festivals, musical performances, etc.);

2) research (country studies, synthesis of scientific knowledge, historical, environmental, etc.);

3) creative (composition, translation, script, wall newspapers, etc.);

4) multimedia presentations.

Project method helps develop language and intellectual skills, strong interest in learning the language, the need for self-education. Ultimately, it is assumed the achievement of communicative com-

petence that is a certain level of language, country studies, socio-cultural knowledge, communication skills and language skills that allow for foreign communication.

Implementation of project and research methods in practice leads to a change in the position of teacher. From the carrier of definite knowledge he\she turns into an organizer of cognitive activity. From an authoritative source of information the teacher becomes an accomplice of the research, creative cognitive process, mentor, consultant, organizer of independent activity of students. Project-based learning is considered one of the most powerful incentives for motivating language learning. It is the most creative activity, all students are involved in the work on the project, regardless of ability and level of language training. They put into practice the knowledge acquired and generated speech skills, creative rethinking and multiplying. In addition, the problem and the variety of forms and types of this technology implies interdisciplinary connections, which allows the student to give a vivid picture of the world in which he lives, interconnection of events and subjects, mutual assistance, the diversity of material and artistic culture. The main emphasis is on the development of creative thinking, understanding causality and logic of events, to self-actualization and self-expression, not only students, but also teachers. The project technique requires teachers to be thorough trained, and having professional skills and knowledge. One of the main conditions for the effectiveness of training activities is the atmosphere of goodwill, mutual understanding, trust, creativity, promotion of cognitive student activity.

In the modern sense the training project is an integrated didactic tool development, training and education, which allows you to generate and develop specific skills:

1) problematization;

- 2) planning;
- 3) introspection and reflection;
- 4) presentation;
- 5) research.

Using the project methodology is one of the components of the educational process, as students with different levels of language training are involved in the work according to their capabilities. In my opinion along with group projects should be used individual tasks, especially in the preparation of the final lesson. It is a unique opportunity for a truly communicative language teaching. Such lessons take off stress and fatigue of students dramatically improve cognitive interest, develop students' imagination, thought, speech, memory, and can be performed on almost any topic within the framework of the program material.

The results are obvious. This technique makes it possible to further explore the topic, develop creative abilities of students. It teaches communication, the ability to use grammatical structures and the fear of conversation in a foreign language disappear. In addition the project technology is effective and exciting for teachers because it helps to open up as a creative person involved in the research work alongside their students. Of course, the project is not a panacea for all problems, but it is a step forward in the teaching of a foreign language.

Information and communication technologies are a powerful learning tool, control and management of the educational process. It is the most important parameter of contemporary socio-cultural system. Online Resources are familiar and convenient means of exploring the culture of other countries and peoples, communication, information, inexhaustible source of educational process. That is why, based on a systematic approach to reforming the methods of learning a foreign language using the new information technologies based on the concept of information and

learning environment, which is seen in close connection with the system of developmental education. Information - learning environment is a set of conditions that not only let you create and develop language skills, abilities and skills, but also promote the development of the individual student. Learner, as more and more active, deep and full participation in the process of self-learning activities on mastering a foreign language, is transformed from a passive object of influence of the teacher in a full partner of the educational process. Pedagogical relevance formed in information - learning environment of linguistic knowledge and skills is that the student should be offered for the assimilation of such a system of knowledge that he needs at this stage of its development, subsequently enabling to solve problems of increasing complexity.

Active introduction of the Internet reveals the following areas of work:

- 1) The use of Skype;
- 2) The use of a number of Internet - sites for training FL;
- 3) The use of blog -technologies;
- 4) The use of distance education system.

In this article we would like to give special consideration to the peculiarities of using blog- technologies in teaching foreign language students. Also, this area is called the Internet blog -Personal page in the form of a diary or journal. Blog is one of the most popular Web 2.0 services. The popularity of this technology is determined by the following didactic characteristics: ease of use and accessibility; the effectiveness of the organization of information space; Interactive and multimedia; reliability and safety.

Blog (blog, or weblo) (from English it is understood as "network" journal or diary "events". For example, [www. blogger.com](http://www.blogger.com), [www. livejournal.ru](http://www.livejournal.ru)) is a web - site, the disclosure of which regular add notes, images and media. Weblog is a so-

cial network that is best suited for didactic purposes. It allows you to store and classify necessary and redundant information in any form (graphs, maps, drawings, photographs, videos) to create open and closed Internet - community to discuss issues and tasks and implementation of group projects; learning to control information through the online tests, interviews and discussions, book reviews, and others.

Development stages of Web 2.0 technologies have formed four broad forms of influence, which can be defined as research, language literacy, collaboration and publication. From a cognitive point of view, Web 2.0 invites users to develop skills in the use of new types of research and forms of computer literacy. Web 2.0 is a component of the research process on the Internet, and in particular for educational purposes and putting into practice.

Information learning environment tasks for learning a foreign language are:

- Creating conditions for the development of creative writing, and verbal skills;

- Integration of various forms and strategies for the development of independent cognitive learning activities in the process of individual and group work of students;

- Increasing motivation saturation of the educational process

- Organization of informative communication activities with native speakers and members of the community network who learn a foreign language;

- Formation on the basis of linguistic knowledge of modern information culture, allowing working in the computer and telecommunication environment.

At the heart of this innovative technology, there are principles such as openness, integrative, systematic and consistent, interactivity, clarity of presentation, multifaceted and redundancy of all components of the environment. They reflect

the specific subject under study and the learning environment.

Effective functioning of the Information learning environment depends on the level of development of information and telecommunications infrastructure of education and interaction with the trainees of this infrastructure; from a whole range of psychological - pedagogical conditions; from the control of the background and motivation of its development; taking into account the individual characteristics of the students; from the language of co-creation of all the participants of the educational process.

Structurally Information learning environment is organized as a model, which is a set of participators in learning subjects, the relationship between which is realized with the help of information flows organized in accordance with the goals and objectives of the educational process in the functional blocks.

Each of the blocks (software - training, information - methodical, communications, instrumentation, socio-cultural, motivational and identification - controls) is aimed at implementing strategies for mastering a foreign language, as well as control over the learning process. The environment is in constant development, which is due to the dynamics of the inclusion of new forms and pedagogical techniques of foreign language teaching, as well as the development of the participants in the process.

Participation in information - communication pedagogical activity promotes the integrated development of all aspects of communicative competence: linguistic, socio-cultural, cognitive, linguistic-country study; as well as related cognitive -communicative abilities of pupils (search and selection of relevant information, its analysis, synthesis and classification). Modeling of real authentic environment by attracting Internet - resources is not only a successful development of the language,

but also allows you to understand the fundamental laws of the unity and diversity of culture.

Thus, the innovative technologies that we reviewed today, significantly enrich and diversify the teaching of foreign languages. In place of the monotonous work comes intelligent creative search, during which formed a new type of personality, active and purposeful, focused on constant self-education and development.

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THE SIGNIFICANCE OF CONTENT AND LANGUAGE-INTEGRATED LEARNING OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Oskolkova Anna

Kazakh-American Free University, Kazakhstan

In the strategy of Kazakhstan -2050 the trilingual policy emphasized equal acquisition of the third English language in the bilingual country. It is supposed that through learning subject content in three languages students will get access to additional information, new perspectives, and deeper understanding of other cultures [4, p. 5]. The created trilingual environment increases students' potential, develops their flexibility, critical and creative thinking, and ability to cross-cultural cooperation, fosters respect towards themselves and others, and increases their willingness and skills to learn the languages. In this regard CLIL approach in education might be the nearly single solution which combines the content of the training curriculum and teaching in a foreign language.

“CLIL is an umbrella term covering a dozen or more educational approaches (e.g. immersion, bilingual education, multilingual education, language showers and enriched language programs). If learning content through languages has been practicing in Kazakhstani tertiary education, for secondary schools it still needs developing and determining ways of implementation [4, p. 543]. According to the last elaborated curriculum for these schools, History of Modern Kazakhstan, Kazakh language and Literature are taught in Kazakh, the language of instruction for Russian language and Literature is Russian, subjects like Visual Arts, Global Perspectives, Economics lessons, half of Chemistry, Biology, Mathematics, and Physics are taught in English [2, p. 21].

The other reason to state that CLIL approach is able to bring our country trilingualism is based on recently held international practice results. In 1998 the European Platform, in cooperation with the CLIL schools network, laid down a standard for bilingual VWO [3, p.130]. In 2003, a quality project was launched to monitor the development of CLIL in individual schools. This standard is considered to be the guideline for new schools and underlies school efforts to secure a CLIL quality guarantee. The standard recognises four components, namely 'results', 'educational process', 'quality' and 'preconditions'. The first component, 'results', describes the final aims of the CLIL streams for students to study not only for language purposes, but also with a view to preparing themselves for an international future. Knowledge of English and the ability to live and work in an international environment are considered to be important aspects of CLIL. Today schools are main providers of learners to universities and by the results of obligatory IELTS exam for school-leavers; they have an opportunity to study overseas too.

The second component, 'educational process', defines quantitative and qualitative requirements. Quantitative requirements include the number of hours taught and the subjects to be taught using CLIL. English as the second or third language is specifically mentioned as having a similar status to that of first language.

The 'quality' component includes teaching skills and human resources, required language proficiency to at least B2 according to Common European Framework level, native speakers to support the CLIL stream, etc. Undoubtedly, teachers are informed about the work expected of them and how they are meant to carry it out, for example a didactical profile of teachers is given. CLIL makes demands on teachers that differ somewhat from those experienced in mainstream educa-

tion [1, p. 143]. They are meant to encourage their students to actively use the target language as often as possible. In this way knowledge of specialist terminology in each subject is acquired. Naturally, a lot of attention is paid to communication skills. The second component also includes internationalization, which is meant to play a central role in the school's policy and curriculum.

The third and fourth components include measures to ensure that the school pays attention to the quality of its CLIL stream and the preconditions for setting it up. In this respect, it is important to mention that teachers have special pedagogical development courses or sharing workshops. Like other language teachers we are encouraged to make contribution in developing subject course plans, enriching it with supplementary materials on CLIL. Teacher is allowed to fulfill the course plan with other relevant material according to the new integrated curricular.

Theoretically, experienced teachers can teach English without a textbook. However, it is not easy to do it all the time, though they may do it sometimes. Many teachers do not have enough time to make supplementary materials, so they just follow the textbook. Textbooks therefore take on a very important role in language classes, and it is important to select a good textbook or be collateralized with a data base of supplementary materials.

Next moment is that during English lessons, students need to activate their ability to apply English in the context of core curriculum subjects. Further it is projected that all elaborated and selected materials will be applied in designing of new textbooks based on CLIL approach. Therefore, every teacher should be a specialist and be able to modify not only teaching process but also teaching materials in terms of to meet today's students' need.

If to analyze the background of teaching materials development experi-

ence, it can be found that critical distinguishing of materials development from a holistic methodology sub-section started to raise the interest of educators from the middle of 1990s. Before, materials usually served as examples of a particular method but it was little said about the principles and procedures of *materials development*. There were only some publications reflect the questions of how to evaluate, select materials on practical way.

Language policy is Kazakhstan's path of integration into the world community. Today in Kazakhstan society, it is carried out the policy of trilingualism which aimed in acquiring by the population Kazakh, Russian and English languages. Secondary schools in Kazakhstan make contributions on realization of the policy in different levels. In schools Kazakh, Russian and English languages are taught not only as language subjects but also as a medium of instruction for content subjects to give an incentive to academic language as well as content learning. The significance of shifting the focus from a language as a subject to a language as a tool is that through learning subject content in these three languages students will get access to additional information, new perspectives, and deeper understanding of other cultures. The main reason why CLIL has become essential to Kazakhstan is that it might be the way of State Language Policy implementation.

Schools work on implementation of this policy in a curricular level. The content language integrated curricular and other supporting documents developed together with the University of Cambridge Faculty of Education.

For carrying out this issue, it was necessary to consider CLIL because it has lots of verges and interpretations. The European Commission gives the next definition "*Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), in which pupils learn a subject through the medium of a*

foreign language....." this explanation proves CLIL is perceived as a part of a Curricular, which is true but is not precise about the level of students and to what extent should be the language immersion. The other definition is more detailed "*CLIL refers to situations where subjects, or parts of subjects, are taught through a foreign language with dual-focused aims, namely the learning of content, and the simultaneous learning of a foreign language*". Content and Language Integrated Learning: The European Dimension - Actions, Trends and Foresight Potential). This citation emphasises the 'dual-focused' objective of CLIL and justifies its importance within the implementation of bilingual or trilingual policies. Moreover, observations showed that CLIL based curricular is able to lead to several of benefits. Coyle wrote that CLIL is "... *an approach to bilingual education in which both curriculum content (such as science or geography) and English are taught together. It differs from simple English-medium education in that the learner is not necessarily expected to have the English proficiency required to cope with the subject before beginning study*" [4, p.546]. These observations once again demonstrate us that CLIL is much more powerful in terms of improving of language skills, and the most essential consideration is that learners of different levels in a foreign language can be involved to do their 'CLIL-ing'. This sounds fabulously, but there several reasons to state that relying on the practice of introduction of CLIL.

- Teachers consider carefully their teaching methodology from both content and language in order to learners understanding the content properly and are able to apply English;

- CLIL input requires careful lesson planning starting from introducing key terms, usually science subjects' vocabulary, encouraging students to work in groups, eliciting appropriate tasks which

would result in an increase of the skill-based focus of the learning;

- As CLIL involves curricular it goes without saying that the educational materials need to be elaborated;

- Language learning is likely to be more clearly focused and seen from different sides, for example science terminology is studied equally as common widely used vocabulary.

All these bullet-points are desirable, in educational terms. Ensuring that students understand the content, reducing teacher-talk, increasing the focus on skills, making students to learn language items that are always contextualized are always functionally necessary in the classroom. Undoubtedly, there are many pros which school administration, students and teachers can face in implementation of this policy. First of all, students are motivated in not only learning English as a foreign language with a set of grammar and vocabulary but in acquiring it through the relevant and realistic meaning. If students cannot relate a studied foreign L2 or L3 to their own life and the L2 or L3 is not taught in connection with authentic context, students might have problems. They may find it difficult to understand why they need to learn the foreign language if it is not related to their lives in any way. However, if language and also content learning demonstrated more relevance to the everyday lives of students, their motivation for learning an L 2,3 and their general interest in a particular subject might increase [1, p. 112]. Therefore, introduction of CLIL in Kazakhstani secondary education in the scope of implementation of the trilingual education comes in handy forcing the policy to teaching and learning methods. However, regarding secondary and high schools there is little experience and outcomes' analysis of content language integrated learning or one can find examples of their overlapping in teaching and learning English as a temporary phe-

nomenon. Therefore, CLIL in English class still needs developing and determining ways of implementation.

New developed English course plans require from an English teacher to teach content through language regarding some topics and facilitate student's progress on science subjects. Up-to-date requirements to the implementation of this policy gave rise to many questions in teaching and learning language. From one hand, students with different language levels (L3) have to understand the appropriate grammar and vocabulary structures and on the other hand, they must memorize and retain more specific information, specific vocabulary of Science subject. Observation and discussion between academic and linguistic subjects' teachers determined students' poor performance in English takes place in the learning of Science subjects. That's why CLIL is becoming a call of the time in the Science lessons as well as in English.

In spite of counted above advantages of CLIL approach, teachers today face the main hindrance to implement this approach into practice, the shortage of materials. Moreover according to the new curricular there is no tie to the course book and teachers are free to use any relevant materials, especially with CLIL input. Therefore the central issue of the thesis became the consideration of possibilities for materials development with CLIL approach. The first taken action was the research of the theory on teaching materials development.

Materials include textbooks, video and audio tapes, computer software, and visual aids. They influence the content and the procedures of learning. The choice of deductive versus inductive learning, the role of memorization, the use of creativity and problem solving, production vs. reception, and the order in which materials are presented are all influenced by the materials. The overview of literature on EFL ma-

materials development shows the significance of the topic for linguistics and reflects its way during the last forty decades. As it is seen, now it is focusing less on ways of selecting materials and more on the application of theory to practice and practice to theory. But there are still little investigation's results about their actual communicative effectiveness. For this sphere to become more valuable and credible it needs to become more empirical. There might be an investigation which compares the long term effect on students' communicative competence of various materials applied by one and the same teacher to 'instruct' the same theme to equivalent learners. Or it would be interesting to give learners of equal competence to choose different materials to the same communicative aims, and compare their achievements. Likewise, comparison of the effects of materials produced in different ways for example, text driven vs. teaching point driven to achieve the same objectives would be also important.

Overall, development materials is now not only undertaken by practitioners but is also is a field of academic study. In spite of its great importance, materials development and evaluation has been a new trend in the process of language teaching. It does not have a long history. Tomlinson explains that the study of materials development was not given any real importance until the 1990s when books on this subject started to be published. Literature analysis behind teaching materials development determined main authors like Tomlinson, Masuhara and Harwood who are not only practicing writers of language-learning materials but also academics theorizing about materials development.

This findings gave us reasons to examine the process of teaching materials development which is consist of selecting, evaluation, adapting and production. Especially we paid attention to evaluation's two stages: External and Internal. Evalua-

tion of the material is decisive stage in material development process and needs attentive consideration including the selecting of generated materials too. After going through these stages teacher comes to a conclusion to develop this material into a teaching material or to get rid of it even after the internal evaluation.

Next important part is materials adaptation. It is a part where teachers consider how to adapt materials systematically or intuitively every day. The analysis of references about materials adaptation is surprisingly little. In one of the main early publication on materials development, Madsen and Bowen, paid attention to adaptation process. They came to the important feature that considerate teachers are always adapting the materials they are using to the context in which they are using them in order to achieve the optimal harmony between materials, methodology, learners, objectives, the target language and the teacher's personality and teaching style. In order to achieve this harmony Madsen and Bowen proposed an example of reasons for adaptation [1, p. 250]. The purpose of material adaptation is so that to make material meaningful and interesting for learners. Haines believes that the purpose of adaptation is render materials 'more relevant and effective and effective' [3, p. 56]. About the purpose of adaptation is to cater the heterogenic class mentioned in the works of Gibbons he acknowledges that adapted in so way materials can be 'more engaging, achievable, and memorable [2, p. 67]. As a matter of fact, teaching materials analysis and evaluation assist teachers to gain good and useful insights into the nature of the material. In fact, it is extremely important for us as teachers to evaluate, select and adapt teaching materials to meet our teaching and students' learning needs in order to get the most out of learning potentials.

We found that CLIL-specific learning materials support the creation of en-

riched learning environments where students can simultaneously learn both content and language, whilst becoming more adept learners of both. CLIL class structure was taken as the base for developing sequenced material for teaching and below there are generally approved considerations which teaching with CLIL lesson should follow:

- activating prior knowledge;
- input and output;
- wait time;
- collaborative tasks;
- cognitive challenge;
- developing thinking skills.

According to these stages sample of materials and tasks were described in the thesis. Appropriate CLIL materials are cognitively highly demanding for learners who need to assume the additional challenge of learning through an L2 or L3. However, excessive cognitive load can be avoided by incorporating enhanced scaffolding and other learner support mechanisms to help students reach well beyond what they could do on their own. In turn, incorporating scaffolding means developing them as materials which is an extra challenge for teacher, efforts and extra time is devoted to materials development.

Appropriate learning materials help students build a sense of security in experimenting with language, content, and the management of their own learning. In addition, quality CLIL materials are highly integrative and multilayered and they help increase the likelihood that both content and language learning will be meaningful. However, to prepare this type of material and to cover complex content by scaffolding it language teacher should study the material and find the most appropriate ways to present the material to learners. This process might challenge language teachers either. To go through the whole process of materials development and not to give up will challenge a teacher's stamina as well. For example, in order to select

CLIL appropriate text or an authentic material teacher should have an access first to the resources and to some extent to be familiar with available text books.

The outcomes are unquestionably against the textbook as a teaching material because it needs huge amount of supplementary materials development with thinking of using CLIL in teaching aids. In materials development we should include requirements to meet students' needs so that tasks must involve student into process by the gradual rise of task's complexity from the easy task to the questions of higher thinking order and to push student to develop their thinking and communicating skills through collaboration and interaction. In addition, the peculiarities of CLIL materials were considered and were taken into consideration while example materials development. While the process the main challenges were listed and recommendation for teachers were provided.

Theoretically, experienced teachers can teach English without a textbook and develop materials with CLIL. However, it is not easy to do it all the time, though teachers may do it sometimes. Many teachers do not have enough time to make supplementary materials, so they just follow the textbook. Textbooks therefore take on a very important role in language classes, and it is important to select a good textbook or be collateralized with a data base of supplementary materials.

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MAIN READING STRATEGIES IMPROVING EXTENSIVE READING SKILLS

Murumbayeva Aliya, Chzhan Yelena

Kazakh-American Free University, Kazakhstan

Reading is an incredibly active occupation in which people extract meaning from the discourse they see. It is not a passive skill. To do it successfully, we have to understand what the words mean, see the pictures the words are painting, understand the arguments, and work out if we agree with them. If we do not do these things then we just scratch the surface of the text and we quickly forget it [1; p. 89]

Researches make difference between “extensive” and “intensive” reading. Many academicians suggest “extensive” reading as reading at length, often for pleasure and in a leisurely way, while “intensive” reading tends to be more concentrated, less relaxed, and often dedicated not so much to pleasure as to the achievement of a study goal [4; p. 199].

Extensive reading – especially where students are reading material written specially at their level – has a number of benefits for the development of a student’s language. This kind of reading makes students more positive, improves their overall comprehension skills, gives them a wider passive and active vocabulary, enables students to read without constantly stopping and provides an increased word recognition. It is the best possible way for them to develop automaticity.

When we read a story or a newspaper, we employ our previous knowledge as we approach the process of comprehension [4; p. 202]. Reading comprehension is defined as the level of understanding of a

passage or text. Reading at the rate of 200 to 220 words per minute is considered as a normal speed of reading. For normal reading rates, 75% is an acceptable level of comprehension. That means if a reader can understand the meaning of at least 75% of the total text given, then it is regarded as acceptable limits for reading comprehension.

Comprehension is the only reason for reading, especially extensive reading. Without comprehension, reading is a frustrating, pointless exercise in word calling. It is no exaggeration to say that how well students develop the ability to comprehend what they read has a profound effect on their entire lives. A major goal of teaching reading comprehension, therefore, is to help students develop the knowledge, skills, and experiences they must have if they are to become competent and enthusiastic readers.

For many years, teaching reading comprehension was based on a concept of reading as the application of a set of isolated skills such as identifying words, finding main ideas, identifying cause and effect relationships, comparing and contrasting, and sequencing. Teaching reading comprehension was viewed as a mastery of these skills. Comprehension instruction followed what the study called mentioning, practicing, and assessing procedure where teachers mentioned a specific skill that students were to apply, had students practice the skill by completing workbook

pages, then assessed them to find out if they could use the skill correctly. Instruction neither did little to help students learn how or when to use the skills, nor was it ever established that this particular set of skills enabled comprehension.

Latest research indicates that comprehensions built through the teaching of comprehension strategies and environments that support understanding of a text. It is important for educators to teach students active strategies and skills to help them become active, purposeful readers. Teaching reading comprehension is an active process of constructing meaning, not skill application. The act of constructing meaning is:

interactive– it involves not just the reader, but the text and the context in which reading takes place.

strategic – readers have purposes for their reading and use a variety of strategies as they construct meaning.

adaptable – readers change the strategies they use as they read different kinds of text or as they read for different purposes [8].

Various methods are used to improve reading comprehension that include training the ability to self-assess comprehension, actively test comprehension using a set of questions and by improving metacognition. Theoretical teaching (teaching conceptual) and a better knowledge of language can also prove of immense help. Practice plays more pivotal part in development and honing the skills of reading comprehension. Self-assessment with the help of elaborate interrogation and summarizing also helps.

Effective reading comprehension is the culmination of mastering vocabulary, phonics, fluency and reading comprehension skills. Person having good comprehension skills is considered as active reader, with an ability to interact with the words by understanding its complete meaning and the concept behind it. Thus,

skill of reading comprehension distinguishes an active reader from a passive reader who just read the text without getting its meaning.

There is much difference between good readers and poor (passive) readers.

What do usually good readers do?

Before reading, good readers tend to set goals for their reading.

During reading, good readers read words accurately and quickly, while dealing with meanings of words.

Good readers are selective as they read.

Good readers use their background knowledge (schema) to create mental images, ask questions, and make inferences.

Good readers monitor their comprehension as they read.

How Do Poor Readers Differ From Good Readers?

Poor readers do not have sufficient awareness to develop, select, and apply strategies that can enhance their comprehension.

Poor readers rarely prepare before reading.

During reading, poor readers may have difficulty decoding, reading too slowly, and lack fluency.

Poor readers often lack sufficient background knowledge and have trouble making connections with text.

Some poor readers are unaware of text organization.

After reading, poor readers do not reflect on what they have just read.

To main reading comprehension strategies, we can refer the following:

1. *Making Connections*

We make personal connections with the text by using our schema. There are three main types of connections we can make during reading:

Text-to-Self: Refers to connections made between the text and the reader's personal experience.

Text-to-Text: Refers to connections

made between a text being read to a text that was previously read.

Text-to-World: Refers to connections made between a text being read and something that occurs in the world.

2. *Creating Mental Images (Visualizing)*

This strategy involves the ability of readers to make mental images of a text as a way to understand processes or events they encounter during reading. This ability can be an indication that a reader understands the text. Some research suggests that readers who visualize as they read are better able to recall what they have read than those who do not visualize.

3. *Questioning*

This strategy involves readers asking themselves questions throughout the reading of text. The ability of readers to ask themselves relevant questions as they read is especially valuable in helping them to integrate information, identify main ideas, and summarize information. Asking the right questions allows good readers to focus on the most important information in a text.

4. *Inferring*

Authors do not always provide complete descriptions of, or explicit information about a topic, setting, character, or event. However, they often provide clues that readers can use to “read between the lines”— by making inferences that combine information in the text with their schema.

5. *Evaluating (Determining Importance)*

Determining importance has to do with knowing why you’re reading and then making decisions about what information or ideas are most critical to understanding the overall meaning of the piece.

6. *Synthesizing*

Synthesizing is the process of ordering, recalling, retelling, and recreating into a coherent whole the information with which our minds are bombarded everyday.

Synthesizing is closely linked to evaluating. Basically, as we identify what’s important, we interweave our thoughts to form a comprehensive perspective to make the whole greater than just the sum of the parts [5; 6; 7].

It’s hard to teach reading comprehension strategies without teaching students about metacognition and schema (background knowledge). Although “metacognition” and “schema” aren’t comprehension strategies, they are very important for teaching reading comprehension strategies [3]. Simply put, metacognition means “to think about your thinking”. Mathematical equation can be used to teach this concept to students: Text + Thinking = Real Reading. When we read the text and think at the same time, we are “real reading”...or being metacognitive! [5]

Scholars define schema (background knowledge) as the meaning you get from a piece of literature that is intertwined with the meaning you bring to it. A layering occurs, a weaving of past and present, an amalgam of old and new ideas and experiences. When you read, sometimes you activate your schema or you build upon it. One student described schema simply as “everything that is stuck in your brain”... A reader who hasn’t such pre-existing knowledge would find the reading task more difficult. It means that understanding a piece of discourse involves much more than just knowing the language [7; p. 216].

However, it is not enough to tell students “to read a lot”; we need to offer them a program, which includes appropriate materials, guidance, tasks, and facilities such as permanent or portable libraries of books, in other words to create appropriate environments for reading [4; p. 204].

One of the fundamental conditions of a successful extensive reading program is that students should be reading material, which they can understand. If they are

struggling to understand every word, they can hardly be reading for pleasure – the main goal of this activity. This means that teachers need to provide books, which either by chance, or because they have been specially written, are readily accessible to students.

Specially written materials for extensive reading may be called “language learner literature” and are often referred to as “readers” or “simplified readers” [2; p. 7].

They can take the form of original fiction and non-fiction books as well as simplifications of established works of literature. Such books succeed because the writers or adaptors work within specific lists of allowed words and grammar. This means that students at the appropriate level can read them with ease and confidence. At their best, such books, despite the limitations on language, can speak to the reader through the creation of atmosphere and/or compelling plot lines.

Another thing is that in order to set up an extensive reading program, we need to build up a library of suitable books. Although this may appear costly, it will be money well spent.

We need to devise some way of keeping track of the books in the library.

The role of the teacher in extensive reading programs is crucial. Most students will not do a lot of extensive reading by themselves unless they are encouraged to do so by their teachers. Perhaps, for example, teachers can occasionally read aloud from books they like and show, by their manner of reading, how exciting the books can be.

Having persuaded the students about the benefits of extensive reading, teachers can organize reading programs where they indicate to students how many books they expect them to read over a given period. They can explain how students can make their choice of what to read, making it clear that the choice is theirs, but that they

can consult other students’ reviews and comments to help them make that choice. They can look for books in a genre (be it crime fiction, romantic novels, science fiction, etc.) that they enjoy, and that they make appropriate level choices. Teachers can act throughout as part organizer, part tutor.

Before starting extensive reading, the tasks should be set. Because students are allowed to choose their own reading texts, following their own likes and interests, they will not all be reading the same texts at once. For this reason, and to prompt students to keep reading, teachers should encourage them report back on their reading in a number of ways.

One approach is to set aside a time at various points in a course – may be every two weeks – at which students can ask questions and/or tell their classmates about books they have found particularly enjoyable, or noticeably awful. However, if this is inappropriate because not all students read at the same speed – or because they often do not have much to say about the books in front of their colleagues, we can ask them each to keep a weekly reading diary either on its own, or as a part of any learning journal they may be writing. Students can also write short book reviews for the class notice board. At the end of a month, a semester, or a year, they can vote on the most popular book in the library.

Teachers can also put comment sheets into the books for students to write in (with giving rating and comments about books).

It does not really matter which of these tasks students are asked to perform if that what they are asked to do helps to keep them reading as much and often as possible.

Though, the ability to read is considered one of the most important skills that learners of English as a Second Language and English as a Foreign Language need to acquire, extensive reading is still most

often seen as additional or supplemental to the main program, which can be omitted if time does not allow. However, it should be a core part of every language program's curriculum, and all language programs should have an extensive reading component to deepen and enrich the language the learners meet in their coursework.

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THE CONTENT OF TEACHING GRAMMAR IN THE EFL CONTEXT

Kamzina Zhannur

Kazakh-American Free University, Kazakhstan

New time and new conditions of professional activity required not only a revision of the general methodology, but also the content of the courses in teaching English.

The President of Kazakhstan N.A. Nazarbaev in his address “New Kazakhstan in the New World” said: “... I propose to begin phased implementation of “Unity of Three Languages” cultural project. Kazakhstan must be perceived worldwide as a highly educated country which uses three languages. That is why it is important consistently to develop Kazakh as the state language, Russian as the language of international communication and English as the language of successful integration into global economy and consider it one of the main priorities of the state language policy” [1].

The project “Unity of three languages” implies the creation of conditions for learning English by all citizens of the Republic of Kazakhstan: improving the

quality of English language teaching in all schools, special and higher educational institutions, which brings certain changes related to the language instruction and methodology used in educational institutions [1].

According to the State Overall Compulsory Educational Standard of 5B011900 “Foreign Language: Two Foreign Languages” 5.04.019-2011, during the first year at the University students of the major take “English language” (A1, A2, B1- levels) course, which forms an adequate social and educational level of proficiency in a foreign language. During the first year “English language” (A1, A2, B1- levels) course is studied 2 semesters, with the amount of hours in each semester – 75 [2].

This course requires students to acquire grammatical material on a functional basis with its further systematization. Linguistic material of the 1st year of study is characterized by normative correctness

and includes the most common grammatical phenomena, to ensure the practical mastery of oral and written communication within the limits of the course themes in accordance with the sphere and situa-

tions of communication are covered by A1, A2, B1 levels [3].

The course content consists of the following grammatical themes during the first year:

Table 1. The requirements of language means acquisition [3]

Level	A1	B1	B2
	I'm /Are you...? my / your he's / she's, his / her it's ... , Write / Don't write we're/you're/they're yes, please / No, thanks a / an, this / these + hours the, that / those Present simple : I/you/we/They a / an + jobs How much...? Can I have...? Present simple: he /she / it Do/does...? What...? / Where...? Can/can't It's + time Would you like...? (not) very / quite + adjectives Possessives its / our / their Have you got...? Some/any Like / love / hate + (verb) - ing Could I have...? No article, After that / then Always/usually etc. Once / twice / every, in / on / at + time I'd like... Me / him, etc Why? Be- cause ... There is / are, some / any Past simple: was / were There was / were ... What time...? Past simple: go / have Past simple: regular / ir- regular	Revision: Tenses, questions What's the weather like? It's...? Revision present / past, ad- verbs of frequency Revision Present simple (rou- tines), expressions of fre- quency Revision past simple (regular / irregular) -Present perfect, past partici- ples Have you ever...? Present per- fect or past simple? Have to / don't have to (obligation) Can / can't (permission), you ... Relative pronouns Possessive pronouns Present continuous (future), invitations: Would you like to ...? How long does it take? It takes ..., prepositions of movement Past continuous or past sim- ple? as ... as ..., comparative adverbs, revision comparative adjectives- first conditional something / anything / nothing etc superlative adjectives, article the Present perfect + for / since, revision How long...? Verb + to + infinitive, would you like to or like + in a? So / because, had to / didn't have to	Question formation present perfect or past simple Reflexive pronouns Present perfect con- tinuous or simple yet, just, already both, neither, either Present simple, or continuous Adverbs of fre- quency: usually etc. How often? Once a week, etc. Quantifiers: a few, a little etc. Gerund or to + inf. Question tags / short answers Used to + infinitive not ... any more / any longer Make, let, allow to + inf. Definite article: the Can / could / be able to Future forms: will / going to, present continuous might / may + inf When / as soon as, etc. First conditional Second conditional Modals of obliga- tion: must, have to, should Past perfect simple Defining and non- defining relative clauses

<p>Was born (in / on / at) Past simple: pronunciation Could you tell me the way to...? Present continuous: I'm listening Present simple or continuous? Future plans: (se) going to ... Could I speak to...? Comparative adjectives + than Predictions: (be) going to ... Adverbs: slowly / quickly, etc. Countable / uncountable nouns It's / They' re too (big) Revision: Past simple Revision: All tenses Revision: Preview Present perfect: Have you ever...?</p>	<p>Questions with / without auxiliaries Verb + ing (= gerund), gerund or infinitive? Look or look like? A lot of/ much etc. Revision countability Too much (many, not) enough Present perfect + yet/already/just Why...? To + Verb / For + Noun Should / shouldn't (advice / opinion) Phrasal verbs + object Echo questions. So / Neither do I. Uses of will / won't, future forms Present passive Past passive + by Revision: All tenses Preview: Second conditional</p>	<p>Indirect questions The passive voice Comparatives and superlatives as ... as Narrative tenses: past simple, past continuous, past perfect Modals verb: might / could, must, can't Connectors: although, however... Reported speech: statements and questions Reported speech: imperative and requests, in case Third conditional</p>
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The requirements, mentioned in the State Overall Compulsory Educational Standard of 5B011900 “Foreign language: two foreign languages” 5.04.019-2011, suggest that the graduate of the given specialty are the following:

- to be able to perform professional activity properly both psychologically and methodologically aimed at developing students’ ability to learn foreign language as means of intercultural communication;

- to be able to design methodological model of foreign language communication mastering closed to the conditions of real communication; to be able to define the category as an object of didactic learning, synthesizing into single unit “foreign language-foreign culture-identity”;

- to be able to be able to pick out lingvoculturally and socioculturally oriented authentic teaching materials; to use standard authentic vocabulary in the classroom; to be able to create and encourage

interest for foreign language acquisition as means of intercultural communication;

- to be able to use technologies, methods and techniques ensuring the formation of the subject of cross-cultural communication; to be able to use pedagogical and information technologies efficiently in the sphere of educational activities[2].

As a result of studying subjects of core disciplines the graduate of the given specialty should acquire:

- knowledge and skills to implement all kinds of professional activities in the field of foreign language education (to know the main stages of development and current state of linguistic sciences);

- laws and regularities of linguistic science, its conceptual and categorical apparatus; modern scientific and theoretical views of linguistic theories;

- basic techniques of linguistic analysis and description; system of lan-

guage and speech realization of linguistic categories;

- spelling, orthoepic, grammatical and stylistic rules of the studied languages [2].

Students of the given specialty should be able:

- to interpret critically and creatively various areas of linguistic theories;

- to analyze the specific language material; interpret independently linguistic phenomena; compare and identify similarities and differences corresponding to subsystems of comparing languages to predict possible interference or transfer; - to apply their knowledge in speech situations to solve problems of teaching;

- to carry out investigation linguistic phenomena of foreign and native languages independently [2].

All of these above-mentioned requirements to students cannot be achieved without grounded knowledge of English grammar, because only grammar gives strict rules of writing and speaking correctly.

“The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English” defines grammar as the rules by which words change their forms and are combined into sentences [4].

According to H.D. Brown, grammar is the system of rules governing the conventional arrangement and relationship of words in a sentence [5].

Whitney considered English grammar to be a description of the usages of the English language by good speakers and writers of the present day [6].

Patterson defined that grammar teaches the laws of language, and the right method of using it in speaking and writing [7].

K. Lynn Savage supports the view of grammar as a skill to be taught and examines three roles that underlie the importance of grammar in ESL education:

1) Grammar as an enabling skill;

2) Grammar as a motivator;

3) Grammar as a means to self-sufficiency [8].

First of all, considering grammar as an enabling skill K. Lynn Savage states that, though a skill in its own right, grammar can also be regarded as a necessary “master” skill that enables competence to develop in the areas of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. When grammar is incorrect or misunderstood in any of these areas, communication may be disrupted [8].

Secondly, considering grammar as a motivator, K. Savage states that the great amounts of students firmly believe that knowledge of grammar is essential to their being able to acquire a new language. Students who have studied English in their own countries often equate language learning with learning grammar. Students who have acquired English imperfectly in this country through interactions with native speakers also recognize the importance of grammar, as they may have encountered misunderstandings because of their grammar errors. It means that if ESL courses include a strong grammar component in the curriculum, both of these groups of students may be more motivated to attend or return to classes. As a result, as many students are motivated to learn grammar, many teachers are strongly motivated to teach it [8].

Thirdly, considering grammar as a means to self-sufficiency, he states that that most students expect teachers to correct their grammar errors, but a more practical goal is for students to learn to correct their own mistakes. Grammar instruction assists English learners in becoming aware of a structure and then continuing to notice it in subsequent encounters. Once students have internalized the structure through repeated exposure, they can use this knowledge to monitor their own language use. The ability to self-correct is particularly desirable for students with job-related or

educational goals [8].

According to Woods, different types of grammar illustrate different approaches towards analysis and description of language. That is why it is essential to explain students which type of grammar they are taught.

He enumerates five different types of grammar:

- prescriptive and descriptive grammar,
- traditional grammar,
- phrase structure grammar,
- transformational- generative grammar
- functional - systemic grammar [9].

In prescriptive grammar the correct use of language is prescribed by a set of fixed rules. In descriptive grammar language is constantly changing which means that certain utterances that were considered incorrect grammatically at one time are now accepted as correct.

Traditional grammar based on the parts of speech: nouns, verbs, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections, and they are accepted as a central component of a language and these parts of speech make up a sentence.

Phrase structure grammar based on the relationship of words and phrases in a sentence, which helps to support the meanings, attempting to convey through language. It is usually presented graphically using substitution tables.

Transformation-generative grammar based on syntax, which can be generated by means of a system of formal transformational rules.

Functional-systemic grammar based on the interaction between syntax, semantics and pragmatics, it deals with how people use language and looks at how language is structured for use, which is constrained by the social context [9].

The practical mastery of the elements of English Grammar is supposed to

have been gained by the students at the earlier stages of tuition in order to bring forth in the students a steady habit of trying to see into the deeper implications underlying the outward appearances of lingual correlations bearing on grammar; to teach them to independently improve their linguistic qualifications through reading and critically appraising the available works on grammatical language study; to foster their competence in facing academic controversies concerning problems of grammar.

So, analyzing requirements of the State Overall Compulsory Educational Standard of 5B011900 “Foreign Language: Two Foreign Languages” 5.04.019-2011 and Basic Work Program in “Basic English Language” we have come to the conclusion that grammar plays an increasingly important role at the earlier stages of learning. First of all, grammar is regarded as a necessary “master” skill that enables competence to develop in the areas of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, secondly, including a strong grammar component in ESL courses curriculum is more motivated students of these groups, thirdly by understanding grammar and the meaning of grammatical structures students will be able to communicate accurately which ensure their self-sufficiency.

All above mentioned describes grammar’s three important roles: grammar as an enabling skill, a motivator and a means of self efficiency, which underlie the importance of grammar in ESL education. Also, it is essential to explain students which from five types of grammar (prescriptive and descriptive, traditional, phrase structure, transformational- generative and functional – systemic) they are taught, which purpose is to illustrate different approaches of teaching grammar.

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USING GAMES TO PROMOTE COMMUNICATIVE SKILLS IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Melnikova Tatyana

Kazakh-American Free University, Kazakhstan

We will consider why communicative games serve as a very useful activity when teaching English. The use of games is definitely a powerful language learning tool. On one hand, the aim of all language games is to make student (learners of English) use the language; on the other hand, during the game learners also use the language they are learning to persuade and negotiate their way to desired results. This process involves both the productive and receptive skills.

Recently language researchers and those practitioners who are involved in teaching English have changed their focus from developing individual linguistic skills to the use of language to achieve the speaker's objectives. This new area of focus is known as communicative competence. This kind of communicative competence leads English teachers to look for task-oriented activities in order to involve all their students in creative language use. According to Saricoban and Metin, those games, that are task-based and have a purpose beyond the production of correct

speech, may serve as very good and useful communicative [1, p. 154]. As well known, the aim of all language games is to make the language learner use the language they are studying to communicate their thoughts and ideas with the desired results.

Why should the games be used when teaching any foreign language? The first reason is that games can offer students a fun-filled and relaxing atmosphere for learning and practicing. Uberman proves that after learning and practicing new vocabulary, students have great opportunity to use the language in a non-stressful way. When the learners of English are playing games, their attention is generally on the message, not on the language. In most cases the participants try to do everything to win the game. At the time they forget about the language, don't pay attention to correct use of the language, its different forms [2, p. 21]. As Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope note this method can ease the fear of negative evaluation, the concern of being negatively judged in public (that is a real

problem for some language learners), and which is one of the main factors inhibiting language learners from using the target language in front of other people. In a game-oriented context, anxiety is reduced and speech fluency is generated [1, p. 158]. Thus, communicative competence is achieved.

The second reason says that games are motivating. Games introduce an element of competition into language-building activities. According to Prasad, this provides valuable impetus to a purposeful use of language. In other words, these activities create a meaningful context for language use. The competitive ambiance also makes learners concentrate and think intensively during the learning process, which enhances unconscious acquisition of inputs [3, p. 247]. Most students who have experienced game-oriented activities hold positive attitudes towards them. An action research was conducted by Huyen and Nga in 2003. The results of the survey say that students said that they liked the relaxed atmosphere, the competitiveness, and the motivation that games brought to the classroom. On the effectiveness of games, action research reported that their students seem to learn more quickly and retain the learned materials better in a stress-free and comfortable environment [2, p. 46].

According to Lloyd Rieber, author of *Seriously Considering Play: Designing Interactive Learning Environments Based on the Blending of Microworlds, Simulations and Games*, 'it is somewhat surprising that one of the most fundamental and important concepts of human interaction has received so little attention.' He goes on to explain how the misconceptions surrounding play foster this attitude. For example, people view work as respectable and play as easy – even though many of the things we "play" are actually quite difficult (such as chess, sports and music) [4, p. 59]. This is why many people balk at the

thought of pupils playing games in the classroom – it is not respectable or rigorous enough to be useful. Nguyen Thi Thanh Huyen and Khuat Thi Thu Nga, authors of *Learning Vocabulary Through Games: The Effectiveness of Learning Through Games*, conducted a study exploring just how successful games are in terms of helping pupils learn vocabulary. During this study, they gathered pupil reactions to using games in the classroom and found that they were positively received for various reasons. They 'like the relaxed atmosphere, the competitiveness and the motivation that games brought to the classroom'. Pupils also reported that they like using their imagination and creativity and that they learned new vocabulary during that games 'but also were forced to recall existing knowledge and put it to use.' [5, p. 107].

The benefits of using games in language-learning can be summed up in nine points. Games...

- 1) are learner centered.
- 2) promote communicative competence.
- 3) create a meaningful context for language use.
- 4) increase learning motivation.
- 5) reduce learning anxiety.
- 6) integrate various linguistic skills.
- 7) encourage creative and spontaneous use of language.
- 8) construct a cooperative learning environment.
- 9) foster participatory attitudes of the students [6, p. 194].

The game method as a part of language education is thought to be a free learning activity that certainly gives students opportunity to train and use the languages they are learning with practical purpose and to use their creative skills in joyful atmosphere. Mostly for that reason students of almost all ages like games. On the base of school observation and discussion with teachers researchers consider

that a great number of learners and teachers underestimate game as a useful activity just for relaxing. Some methodologists, for example Richard and Rodgers, do not examine a game as a method in language education, on the other hand, others think that games should only be considered as an additional device for building up the basic skills in language education at primary school. But in our opinion and in many others' opinion, games are very useful as a method of teaching a foreign language not only at primary school but at any age and in any group of student. Many different surveys show that all learners of English are willing to play games during their lessons.

Enjoyment of games is never restricted by age. Some individuals may be less fond of games than others. But very much depends on the appropriateness of the games and the role of the player. In most cases it is accepted that young learners want to play games. Sometimes teenage learners might be reluctant to do it. Games which can be played in pairs or groups may be particularly useful for them [2, p.48]. Some problems can occur when a group of adult learners are reluctant to play games, as they consider game not useful and appropriate. The aim of adult learners is to learn the language for a particular purpose, to pass an exam to get promotion or to be able to work in a new office abroad, to be more competitive for example. The teacher has to respect their point of view and be able to justify the use of each game in terms of meaningfulness of practice it provides.

Grozdanova mentioned that "second language learning is a continuous process of discovery, checking out and proving/disproving the hypothesis; it is related to problem-solving and decision-making. L2 system has to be in meaningful context" [3, p. 106]. Games can help a teacher to create contexts in which the language is useful and meaningful. The learners gen-

erally want to take part and in order to do so have to understand what others are saying or have written, and they have to speak or write in order to express their own point of view or give information. Sometimes games can encourage many learners to sustain their interest and work. Sometimes games reinforce student motivation and form creative and positive emotional atmosphere in learning process.

Games are one of the best training activities and at the same time an active break. A great number of games provide repeated use of certain language forms. By making the language convey information and opinion, games provide the key feature of drill, that gives the opportunity to sense the working of language as living communication. We must agree with Wright, Betteridge and Buckby that language games can be regarded as central to a teacher's repertoire [6, p. 42].

Games provide practice in all the skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking), in all the stages of teaching/ learning (presentation, repetition, recombination and free use of language) and for many types of communication tasks (encouraging, criticizing, agreeing, explaining etc.).

The essential ingredient of a game is challenge. It is very important for games to be based on speech and reflection activity. For instance, if the teacher asks students to describe a house in the forest (given on a picture) it does not stimulate them for speaking activity because there is no challenge to student's imagination and thinking. This is not an ordinary communicative task. If the teacher says: Imagine who lives in this house and what is happening there now – it is a communicative task based on thinking and speaking challenge and activity. It is typical for a language game then. Challenge is not a synonym to competition but many of the games are competitive and need cooperation or team work to solve problems. This kind of games provides an opportunity to develop

speaking skills as well as students' social skills especially in group work. The problems should better be related to the students' age and interests.

Different kinds of game may be examined as a variant of cognitive functional approach, a realization of usage-based theory [7, p. 21]. For example, Tsvetkova shares this approach and suggests a simple English structure with present continuous tense as a cognitive model. This model consists of the parts of the cat – head (that is for the subject that is moving), neck (for the finite verb form in the sentence), body (for the verb itself) and tail (for the ending – ing). It is always attached to the body, to the basis of the verb to form the present participle. This way is appropriate to acquire linguistic information by young learners at primary school. This approach demonstrates an hierarchical relationship in English sentence in images and facilitates a learning process [7, p. 22].

It is essential to note that new educational resources in the Internet are game based in most cases. They are shown in bright image context, which has a nice music background, playful word and phrase repetition in different situations and very often there are typical cultural elements [8, p. 302]. All these things are components of any game as a strategy and these resources will develop more and more in the future. In a present language learning process e-resources should be examined as an important part of the learning process that has to be combined with traditional resources.

In which ways games can help the teachers and the learners in the classroom?

First of all, we must say that games not only help, but also encourage many learners to sustain their interest and work. Secondly, they help teachers to create contexts in which the language is useful and meaningful. Thirdly, they create a friendly and more relaxed atmosphere. It is that learners respond to the content in a defi-

nite way. Some of them are amused, some are angered or surprised.

When teaching a foreign language through games it is important to speak about so-called method "break the ice". Breaking the ice is important on many situations and it leads to more productive and more comfortable conversations.

Icebreakers are structured activities which are designed to relax learners, introduce them to each other, and energize them in what is normally an unduly formal atmosphere or situation. Icebreakers are not usually related to the subject matter, where as "openers" are related to the subject matter that is to be discussed. In addition, they help to break up the cliques and invite people to form random groupings in a non-threatening and fun way.

The term "icebreaker" comes from "break the ice," which in turn comes from special ships called "icebreakers" that were designed to break up ice in the arctic regions. And just as these ships make it easier for others to travel, an icebreaker helps to clear the way for learning to occur by making the learners more comfortable by helping to bring about conversation.

It is essential that the learners are totally familiar with the games they are asked to play. It might be helpful if they are familiar with the rules of the game in their own language. New games are normally introduced in the following way:

- 1) explanation by the teacher to the group or class;
- 2) demonstration of parts of the game by the teacher and one or two learners of the language;
- 3) trial by a group in front of the group/class;
- 4) any key language or instructions might be written on the board;
- 5) first try by groups;
- 6) key language should be removed from the board;

If the teacher is unfamiliar with the use of language teaching games then it is

advisable to introduce them slowly as supplementary activities. When the teacher is familiar with a variety of games, they can be used as a substitute for parts of the course.

Many teachers sometimes believe that competition should be avoided. It is possible to play the majority of games with a spirit of challenge to achieve some results, rather than "to do someone else down." It can also be wrong to compel an individual to participate. Those learners who are reluctant to do this might be asked to act as a judge and scorers.

It is always advisable to stop a game and change to something else before the learners become tired of it. In this way, their good will and concentration are retained.

The teacher's attitude and language are important in the process of any communicative game. The teacher must never interrupt a game which is flowing successfully in order to correct a mistake in language use. It would mean that the teacher is more concerned with form than the exchange of ideas. In general, it is better to note the error and to comment on it later, when a game is finished.

In order to use game as an effective strategy in the process of language teaching/learning every teacher should answer the following questions.

- 1) Will the game be relatively easy for you to organize in the classroom?
- 2) Is it likely to interest the particular group of learners you have in mind?
- 3) Are you forcing language activity into the game?
- 4) Is the amount of language and the type of use enough to justify the use of the game?

If your answer is yes to each of these questions, then the game you have in mind is a highly efficient means of satisfying learners' needs.

The teacher has to decide which form of interaction during games is the

most appropriate and structure them effectively.

Game strategy may be considered as a basic element of conceptual matrix of communicative language teaching [2, p. 239]. Game is one of the basic communicative methods in language education. Lozanov's Suggestopedia is a perfect illustration of a game based education that develops hidden human reserves and creative skills.

In present language methodology it is necessary to realize a role of game in language education. A perfect example of game philosophy in education is the Suggestopedia method. The process of learning in it is motivating and interesting both for students and teacher. The reason is special game strategy and the atmosphere it can create. According to Lozanov "the whole process of learning is a game, special, pleasant, game of two plans (conscious and unconscious). Play this game! Life is a game with its emotions and ambitions!" [6, p. 85].

The author of this article believes that game in its traditional and e-version has to be considered and explored not as an additional device but as a main strategy in language education both for children and adults. Because the game maintains learners' interest and motivation, facilitates the process of teaching and learning and converts language education into real intellectual and emotional experience developing student personality.

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THE CONCEPT OF LINGUISTIC RELATIVITY

Goncharov Anton

Kazakh-American Free University, Kazakhstan

Since its inception in the 1920s and 1930s, the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis has caused controversy and spawned research in a variety of disciplines including linguistics, psychology, philosophy, anthropology, and education.

Edward Sapir and Benjamin Lee Whorf brought attention to the relationship between language, thought, and culture. Neither of them formally wrote the hypothesis nor supported it with empirical evidence, but through a thorough study of their writings about linguistics, researchers have found two main ideas.

1) a theory of linguistic determinism that states that the language you speak determines the way that you will interpret the world around you.

2) a weaker theory of linguistic relativism that states that language merely influences your thoughts about the real world.

Edward Sapir studied the research of Wilhelm von Humboldt. About one hundred years before Sapir published his lin-

guistic theories, Humboldt wrote in *Gesammelte Werke* a strong version of linguistic determinism:

“Man lives in the world about him principally, indeed exclusively, as language presents it to him.”

Sapir took this idea and expanded on it. Although he did not always support this firm hypothesis, his writings state that there is clearly a connection between language and thought.

“Human beings do not live in the objective world alone, nor alone in the world of social activity as ordinarily understood, but are very much at the mercy of the particular language which has become the medium of expression in their society. It is quite an illusion to imagine that one adjusts to reality essentially without the use of language and that language is merely an incidental means of solving specific problems of communication or reflection: The fact of the matter is that the ‘real world’ is to a large extent unconsciously built up on the language habits of the group. No two

languages are ever sufficiently similar to be considered as representing the same social reality. The worlds in which different societies live are distinct worlds, not merely the same world with different labels attached...Even comparatively simple acts of perception are very much more at the mercy of the social patterns called words than we might suppose... We see and hear and otherwise experience very largely as we do because the language habits of our community predispose certain choices of interpretation.

Benjamin Lee Whorf was Sapir's student. Whorf devised the weaker theory of linguistic relativity:

"We are thus introduced to a new principle of relativity, which holds that all observers are not led by the same physical evidence to the same picture of the universe..."

"We dissect nature along lines laid down by our native languages. The categories and types that we isolate from the world of phenomena we do not find there because they stare every observer in the face; on the contrary, the world is presented in a kaleidoscopic flux of impressions which has to be organized by our minds—and this means largely by the linguistic systems in our minds. We cut nature up, organize it into concepts, and ascribe significances as we do, largely because we are parties to an agreement to organize it in this way—an agreement that holds throughout our speech community and is codified in the patterns of our language. The agreement is, of course, an implicit and unstated one, but its terms are absolutely obligatory; we cannot talk at all except by subscribing to the organization and classification of data which the agreement decrees."

Both Sapir and Whorf agreed that it is our culture that determines our language, which in turn determines the way that we categorize our thoughts about the world and our experiences in it.

For more than fifty years researchers have tried to design studies that will support or refute this hypothesis. Support for the strong version has been weak because it is virtually impossible to test one's world view without using language. Support for the weaker version has been minimal.

Problems with the hypothesis begin when one tries to discern exactly what the hypothesis is stating. Penn notes that the hypothesis is stated "more and less strongly in different places in Sapir's and Whorf's writings". At some points, Sapir and Whorf appear to support the strong version of the hypothesis and at others they only support the weak version. Alford (1980) also notes that neither Sapir nor Whorf actually named any of their ideas about language and cognition the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis. This name only appeared after their deaths. This has led to a wide interpretation of what researchers consider to be the one and only hypothesis.

Another problem with the hypothesis is that it requires a measurement of human thought. Measuring thought and one's world view is nearly impossible without the confounding influence of language, another of the variables being studied. Researchers settle for the study of behavior as a direct link to thought.

If one is to believe the strong version of linguistic determinism, one also has to agree that thought is not possible without language. What about the pre-linguistic thought of babies? How can babies acquire language without thought? Also, where did language come from? In the linguistic determinist's view, language would have to be derived from a source outside the human realm because thought is impossible without language and before language there would have been no thought.

Supporters of the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis must acknowledge that their study of language in the "real world" is

not without doubt if their language influences how they categorize what they seem to experience. Penn writes, "In short, if one believes in linguistic relativity, one finds oneself in the egocentric quandary, unable to make assertions about reality because of doubting one's own ability to correctly describe reality".

Yet another problem with the hypothesis is that languages and linguistic concepts are highly translatable. Under linguistic determinism, a concept in one language would not be understood in a different language because the speakers and their world views are bound by different sets of rules. Languages are in fact translatable and only in select cases of poetry, humour and other creative communications are ideas "lost in the translation".

One final problem researchers have found with the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis is Whorf's lack of empirical support for his linguistic insights. Whorf uses language nuances to prove vast differences between languages and then expects his reader to infer those differences in thought and behavior. Schlesinger attacks Whorf's flimsy thesis support: "... the mere existence of such linguistic diversities is insufficient evidence for the parallelist claims of a correspondence between language on the one hand and cognition and culture, on the other, and for the determinist claim of the latter being determined by the former". Schlesinger also fails to see the connection between Whorf's linguistic evidence and any cultural or cognitive data. "Whorf occasionally supplies the translations from a foreign language into English, and leaves it to the good faith of the reader to accept the conclusion that here must have been a corresponding cognitive or cultural phenomenon".

One infamous example Whorf used to support his theory was the number of words the Inuit people have for 'snow.' He claimed that because snow is a crucial part of their everyday lives and that they have

many different uses for snow that they perceive snow differently than someone who lives in a less snow-dependent environment. Pullum has since dispelled this myth in his book *The Great Eskimo Vocabulary Hoax* (1991). He shows that while the Inuit use many different terms for snow, other languages transmit the same ideas using phrases instead of single words.

Despite all these problems facing the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, there have been several studies performed that support at least the weaker linguistic relativity hypothesis. In 1954, Brown and Lenneberg tested for colour codability, or how speakers of one language categorize the colour spectrum and how it affects their recognition of those colours. Penn writes, "Lenneberg reports on a study showing how terms of colours influence the actual discrimination. English-speaking subjects were better able to re-recognize those hues which are easily named in English. This finding is clearly in support of the limiting influence of linguistic categories on cognition".

Schlesinger explains the path taken in this study from positive correlation to support for linguistic relativity: "...if codability of colour affected recognisability, and if languages differed in codability, then recognisability is a function of the individual's language".

Lucy and Shweder's colour memory test also supports the linguistic relativity hypothesis. If a language has terms for discriminating between colour then actual discrimination/perception of those colours will be affected. Lucy and Shweder found that influences on colour recognition memory is mediated exclusively by basic colour terms—a language factor.

Kay and Kempton's language study found support for linguistic relativity. They found that language is a part of cognition. In their study, English speakers' perceptions were distorted in the blue-

green area while speakers from Tarahumara – who lack a blue-green distinction – showed no distortion. However, under certain conditions they found that universalism of colour distinction can be recovered.

Peterson and Siegal's "Sally doll" test was not intended to test the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis specifically, but their findings support linguistic relativity in a population who at the time had not yet been considered for testing–deaf children. Peterson and Siegal's experiment with deaf children showed a difference in the constructed reality of deaf children with deaf parents and deaf children with hearing parents, especially in the realm of non-concrete items such as feelings and thoughts.

Most recently, Wassman and Dasen's Balinese language test found differences in how the Balinese people orient themselves spatially to that of Westerners. They found that the use of an absolute reference system based on geographic points on the island in the Balinese language correlates to the significant cultural importance of these points to the people. They questioned how language affects the thinking of the Balinese people and found moderate linguistic relativity results.

There are, on the other hand, several studies that dispute the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis. Most of these studies favour universalism over relativism in the realm of linguistic structure and function. For example, Osgood's common meaning system study found that "human beings the world over, no matter what their language or culture, do share a common meaning system, do organize experience along similar symbolic dimensions".

In his universalism studies, Greenberg came to the conclusion that "agreement in the fundamentals of human behaviour among speakers of radically diverse languages far outweighs the idiosyncratic differences to be expected from a radical theory of linguistic relativity".

Alford's interpretation of Whorf shows that Whorf never intended for perception of the colour spectrum to be used to defend his principle of linguistic relativity. Alford states, "In fact, he is quite clear in stating that perception is clearly distinct from conception and cognition, or language-related thinking".

Even Dr. Roger Brown, who was one of the first researchers to find empirical support for the hypothesis, now argues that there is much more evidence pointing toward cognitive universalism rather than linguistic relativity.

Berlin and Kay's colour study found universal focus colours and differences only in the boundaries of colours in the spectrum. They found that regardless of language or culture, eleven universal colour foci emerge. Underlying apparent diversity in colour vocabularies, these universal foci remain recognizable. Even in languages which do not discriminate to eleven basic colours, speakers are nonetheless able to sort colour chips based on the eleven focus colours.

Davies' cross-cultural colour sorting test found an obvious pattern in the similarity of colour sorting behaviour between speakers of English which has eleven basic colours, Russian which has twelve (they distinguish two blues), and Setswana which has only five (grue=green-blue). Davies concluded that the data showed strong universalism.

Culture influences the structure and functions of a group's language, which in turn influences the individual's interpretations of reality. Whorf saw language and culture as two inseparable sides of a single coin. According to Alford, "Whorf sensed something 'chicken-and-egg-y' about the language-culture interaction phenomenon". Indeed, deciding which came first the language or the culture is impossible to discern. Schlesinger notes that Whorf recognized two directions of influence—from culture to language and vice versa. How-

ever, according to Schlesinger, Whorf argues that “since grammar is more resistant to change than culture, the influence from language to culture is predominant”.

Language reinforces cultural patterns through semantics, syntax and naming. Grammar and the forms of words show hierarchical importance of something to a culture. However, the common colour perception tests are not strongly linked to cultural experience. Schlesinger agrees: “Whorf made far-reaching claims about the pervasive effects of language on the mental life of a people, and all that experimental psychologists managed to come up with were such modest results as the effect of the vocabulary of a language on the discriminability of colour chips”.

In 1955, Dr. James Cooke Brown attempted to separate language and culture to test the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis. He suggested the creation of a new language—one not bound to any particular culture—to distinguish the causes from the effects of language, culture, and thought. He called this artificial language LOGLAN, which is short for Logical Language. According to Riner, LOGLAN was designed as an experimental language to answer the question: “In what ways is human thought limited and directed by the language in which one thinks?”

Today with the help of the Internet, many people around the world are learning LOGLAN. Riner appears positive in the continuing work with LOGLAN to test the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis:

“As far as we can yet know, LOGLAN can accommodate precisely and unambiguously the native ways of saying things in any natural language. In fact, because it is logically rigorous, LOGLAN forces the speaker to make the metaphysical (cultural, worldview) premises in and of the natural language explicit in rendering the thought into (disambiguated) LOGLAN. Those assumptions, made explicit, become propositions that are open

for critical review and amendment—so not only can the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis be tested, but its details can be investigated with LOGLAN”.

The linguistic relativity principle, or the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis is the idea that differences in the way languages encode cultural and cognitive categories affect the way people think, so that speakers of different languages think and behave differently because of it. A strong version of the hypothesis holds that language determines thought that linguistic categories limits and determines cognitive categories. A weaker version states that linguistic categories and usage influence thought and certain kinds of non-linguistic behaviour.

The idea was first clearly expressed by 19th century national romantic thinkers, such as Wilhelm von Humboldt who saw language as the expression of the spirit of a nation. The early 20th century school of American Anthropology headed by Franz Boas and Edward Sapir also embraced the idea. Sapir’s student Benjamin Lee Whorf came to be seen as the primary proponent of the hypothesis, because he published observations of how he perceived linguistic differences to have consequences in human cognition and behaviour. Whorf’s ideas were widely criticized, and Roger Brown and Eric Lenneberg decided to put them to the test. They reformulated Whorf’s principle of linguistic relativity as a testable hypothesis, now called the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, and conducted experiments designed to find out whether color perception varies between speakers of languages that classified colors differently. As the study of the universal nature of human language and cognition came in to focus in the 1960s the idea of linguistic relativity fell out of favor. A 1969 study by Brent Berlin and Paul Kay showed that colour terminology is subject to universal semantic constraints, and the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis was seen as completely discredited.

From the late 1980s a new school of linguistic relativity scholars have examined the effects of differences in linguistic categorization on cognition, finding broad support for weak versions of the hypothesis in experimental contexts. Effects of linguistic relativity have been shown particularly in the domain of spatial cognition and in the social use of language, but also in the field of colour perception. Recent studies have shown that colour perception is particularly prone to linguistic relativity effects when processed in the left brain hemisphere, suggesting that this brain half relies more on language than the right one.[3] Currently a balanced view of linguistic relativity is espoused by most linguists holding that language influences certain kinds of cognitive processes in non-trivial ways but that other processes are better seen as subject to universal factors. Current research is focused on exploring the ways in which language influences thought and determining to what extent. The principle of linguistic relativity and the relation between language and thought has also received attention in varying academic fields from Philosophy to Psychology and Anthropology, and it has also inspired works of fiction and the invention of constructed languages.

The idea that language and thought are intertwined goes back to the classical civilizations, but in the history of European philosophy the relation was not seen as fundamental. St. Augustine for example held the view that language was merely labels applied to already existing concepts. Others held the opinion that language was but a veil covering up the eternal truths hiding them from real human experience. For Immanuel Kant, language was but one of several tools used by humans to experience the world. In the late 18th and early 19th century the idea of the existence of different national characters, or "Volksgeist", of different ethnic groups was the moving force behind the German school of

national romanticism and the beginning ideologies of ethnic nationalism.

In 1820 Wilhelm von Humboldt connected the study of language to the national romanticist program by proposing the view that language is the very fabric of thought, that is that thoughts are produced as a kind of inner dialog using the same grammar as the thinker's native language. This view was part of a larger picture in which the world view of an ethnic nation, their "Weltanschauung", was seen as being faithfully reflected in the grammar of their language. Von Humboldt argued that languages with an inflectional morphological type, such as German, English and the other Indo-European languages were the most perfect languages and that accordingly this explained the dominance of their speakers over the speakers of less perfect languages.

The German scientist Wilhelm von Humboldt declared in 1820:

The diversity of languages is not a diversity of signs and sounds but a diversity of views of the world [5].

The idea that some languages were naturally superior to others and that the use of primitive languages maintained their speakers in intellectual poverty was widespread in the early 20th century. The American linguist William Dwight Whitney for example actively strove to eradicate the native American languages arguing that their speakers were savages and would be better off abandoning their languages and learning English and adopting a civilized way of life. The first anthropologist and linguist to challenge this view was Franz Boas who was educated in Germany in the late 19th century where he received his doctorate in physics. While undertaking geographical research in northern Canada he became fascinated with the Inuit people and decided to become an ethnographer. In contrast to Humboldt, Boas always stressed the equal worth of all cultures and languages, and

argued that there was no such thing as primitive languages, but that all languages were capable of expressing the same content albeit by widely differing means. Boas saw language as an inseparable part of culture and he was among the first to require of ethnographers to learn the native language of the culture being studied, and to document verbal culture such as myths and legends in the original language.

According to Franz Boas:

It does not seem likely [...] that there is any direct relation between the culture of a tribe and the language they speak, except in so far as the form of the language will be molded by the state of the culture, but not in so far as a certain state of the culture is conditioned by the morphological traits of the language”.

Boas’ student Edward Sapir reached back to the Humboldtian idea that languages contained the key to understanding the differing world views of peoples. In his writings he espoused the viewpoint that because of the staggering differences in the grammatical systems of languages no two languages were ever similar enough to allow for perfect translation between them. Sapir also thought because language represented reality differently, it followed that the speakers of different languages would perceive reality differently. According to Edward Sapir:

No two languages are ever sufficiently similar to be considered as representing the same social reality. The worlds in which different societies live are distinct worlds, not merely the same world with different labels attached.

On the other hand, Sapir explicitly rejected pure linguistic determinism, by stating that:

It would be naïve to imagine that any analysis of experience is dependent on pattern expressed in language.

While Sapir never made a point of studying how languages affected the

thought processes of their speakers the notion of linguistic relativity lay inherent in his basic understanding of language, and it would be taken up by his student Benjamin Lee Whorf.

More than any other linguist, Benjamin Lee Whorf has become associated with what he himself called “the principle of linguistic relativity”. Instead of merely assuming that language influences the thought and behavior of its speakers (after Humboldt and Sapir) he looked at Native American languages and attempted to account for the ways in which differences in grammatical systems and language use affected the way their speakers perceived the world. Whorf has been criticized by many, often pointing to his ‘amateur’ status, thereby insinuating that he was unqualified and could thereby be dismissed. However, his not having a degree in linguistics cannot be taken to mean that he was linguistically incompetent. Indeed, John Lucy writes “despite his ‘amateur’ status, Whorf’s work in linguistics was and still is recognized as being of superb professional quality by linguists”. Still, detractors such as Eric Lenneberg, Noam Chomsky and Steven Pinker have criticized him for not being sufficiently clear in his formulation of how he meant languages influences thought, and for not providing actual proof of his assumptions. Most of his arguments were in the form of examples that were anecdotal or speculative in nature, and functioned as attempts to show how “exotic” grammatical traits were connected to what were apparently equally exotic worlds of thought. In Whorf’s words:

We dissect nature along lines laid down by our native language. The categories and types that we isolate from the world of phenomena we do not find there because they stare every observer in the face; on the contrary, the world is presented in a kaleidoscope flux of impressions which has to be organized by our

minds—and this means largely by the linguistic systems of our minds. We cut nature up, organize it into concepts, and ascribe significances as we do, largely because we are parties to an agreement to organize it in this way - an agreement that holds throughout our speech community and is codified in the patterns of our language [...] all observers are not led by the same physical evidence to the same picture of the universe, unless their linguistic backgrounds are similar, or can in some way be calibrated.

Among Whorf's well known examples of linguistic relativity are examples of instances where an indigenous language has several terms for a concept that is only described with one word in English and other European languages (Whorf used the acronym SAE "Standard Average European" to allude to the rather similar grammatical structures of the well-studied European languages in contrast to the greater diversity of the less-studied languages). One of Whorf's examples of this was the supposedly many words for 'snow' in the Inuit language, which has later been shown to be a misrepresentation but also for example how the Hopi language describes water with two different words for drinking water in a container versus a natural body of water. These examples of polysemy served the double purpose of showing that indigenous languages sometimes made more fine grained semantic distinctions than European languages and that direct translation between two languages, even of seemingly basic concepts like snow or water, is not always possible.

Another example in which Whorf attempted to show that language use affects behavior came from his experience in his day job as a chemical engineer working for an insurance company as a fire inspector. On inspecting a chemical plant he once observed that the plant had two storage rooms for gasoline barrels, one for the

full barrels and one for the empty ones. He further noticed that while no employees smoked cigarettes in the room for full barrels no-one minded smoking in the room with empty barrels, although this was potentially much more dangerous due to the highly flammable vapors that still existed in the barrels. He concluded that the use of the word 'empty' in connection to the barrels had led the workers to unconsciously regarding them as harmless, although consciously they were probably aware of the risk of explosion from the vapors. This example was later criticized by Lenneberg as not actually demonstrating the causality between the use of the word empty and the action of smoking, but instead being an example of circular reasoning. Steven Pinker in *The Language Instinct* ridiculed this example, claiming that this was a failing of human sight rather than language.

Whorf's most elaborate argument for the existence of linguistic relativity regarded what he believed to be a fundamental difference in the understanding of time as a conceptual category among the Hopi. He argued that in contrast to English and other SAE languages, the Hopi language does not treat the flow of time as a sequence of distinct, countable instances, like "three days" or "five years" but rather as a single process and consequentially it does not have nouns referring to units of time. He proposed that this view of time was fundamental in all aspects of Hopi culture and explained certain Hopi behavioral patterns.

Whorf died in 1941 at age 44 and left behind him a number of unpublished papers. His line of thought was continued by linguists and anthropologists such as Harry Hoijer and Dorothy D. Lee who both continued investigations into the effect of language on habitual thought, and George L. Trager who prepared a number of Whorf's left-behind papers for publishing. Hoijer, who was one of Sapir's students, was also the first to use the term

“Sapir-Whorf hypothesis” about the complex of ideas about linguistic relativity expressed in the work of those two linguists. The most important event for the dissemination of Whorf’s ideas to a larger public was the publication in 1956 of his major writings on the topic of linguistic relativity in a single volume titled “Language, Thought and Reality” edited by J. B. Carroll.

In 1953 psychologist Eric Lenneberg published a detailed criticism of the line of thought that had been fundamental for Sapir and Whorf. He criticized Whorf’s examples from an objectivist view of language holding that languages are principally meant to represent events in the real world and that even though different languages express these ideas in different ways, the meanings of such expressions and therefore the thoughts of the speaker are equivalent. He argued that when Whorf was describing in English how a Hopi speaker’s view of time was different, he was in fact translating the Hopi concept into English and therefore disproving the existence of linguistic relativity. He did not address the fact that Whorf was not principally concerned with translatability, but rather with how the habitual use of language influences habitual behavior. Whorf’s point was that while English speakers may be able to understand how a Hopi speaker thinks, they are not actually able to think in that way.

“Early in the twentieth century, American anthropologist Franz Boas (1858-1942) inaugurated an important expansion of scientific investigation of the languages of native North America. As part of a broad critique of nineteenth-century evolutionary arguments he stressed the equal value of each language type and their independence from race and cultural level. He argued that each language necessarily represents an implicit classification of experience, that these classifications vary across languages, but

that such variation probably has little effect on thought or culture.

His student Edward Sapir (1884-1939) accepted the main thrust of Boas’ position but came to feel that the closely knit system of categories in a language could represent incommensurable analyses of experience with effects on speakers’ conceptual view points and aesthetic interpretations. Gestalt and psychoanalytic psychology and Sapir’s own literary efforts also played a role in his thinking on this issue. Sapir’s concern was not with linguistic form as such (for example, whether a language uses inflections or not), nor with linguistic content or meaning as such (for example, whether a language could refer to a particular referent), but rather with the formal organization of meaning characteristic of a language, the regular ways meanings are constructed (for example, grammatical categories and patterns of semantic composition). Despite the suggestiveness of his formulation, Sapir provided few specific illustrations of the sorts of influences he had in mind.

Benjamin Lee Whorf (1897-1941), a gifted amateur linguist independently interested in these issues as they related to the nature of science, came into contact with Sapir in 1930 and began developing these views to a more systematic way. He analysed particular linguistic constructions, proposed mechanisms of influence, and provided empirical demonstrations of such influences on belief and behavior. However, his views on this issue are known to us largely through letters, unpublished manuscripts and popular pieces, which has led to considerable debate about his actual position. In this context, the one article on this issue prepared for a professional audience must be given special weight. Whorf argued that each language refers to an infinite variety of experiences with a finite array of formal categories (both lexical and grammatical) by trouping experiences together as analogically ‘the

same' for the purposes of speech. These categories also interrelate in a coherent way, reinforcing and complementing one another, so as to constitute an overall interpretation of experience. Languages vary considerably not only in the basic distinctions they recognize, but also in the assemblage of these categories into a coherent system of reference. Thus the system of categories which each language provides to its speakers is not a common, universal system, but one peculiar to the individual language, and one which makes possible a particular 'fashion of speaking'.

But speakers tend to assume that the categories and distinctions of their language are natural, given by external reality. Further, speakers make the tacit error of assuming that elements of experience which are classed together on one or another criterion for the purposes of speech are similar in other respects as well. The crux of Whorf's argument is that these linguistic categories are used as guides in habitual thought. When speakers attempt to interpret an experience in terms of a category available in their language they automatically involve the other meanings implicit in that particular category (analogy) and in the overall configuration of categories in which it is embedded. And speakers regard these other meanings as being intrinsic to the original experience rather than a product of linguistic analogy. Thus, language does not so much blind speakers to some obvious reality, but rather it suggests associations which are not necessarily entailed by experience. Ultimately, these shaping forces affect not only everyday habitual thought but also more sophisticated philosophical and scientific activity. In the absence of another language (natural or artificial) with which to talk about experience, speakers will be unlikely to recognize the conventional nature of their linguistically based understandings".

"The original idea, variously attrib-

utable to Humboldt, Boas, Sapir, Whorf, was that the semantic structures of different languages might be fundamentally incommensurable, with consequences for the way in which speakers of specific languages might think and act. On this view, language, thought, and culture are deeply interlocked, so that each language might be claimed to have associated with it a distinctive world view.

These ideas captured the imagination of a generation of anthropologists, psychologists, and linguists, as well as members of the general public. They had deep implications for the way anthropologists should conduct their business, suggesting that translational difficulties might lie at the heart of their discipline. However, the ideas seemed entirely and abruptly discredited by the rise of the cognitive sciences in the 1960s, which favored a strong emphasis on the commonality of human cognition and its basis in human genetic endowment. This emphasis was strengthened by developments within linguistic anthropology, with the discovery of significant semantic universals in color terms, the structure of ethno-botanical nomenclature, and (arguably) kinship terms.

However, there has been a recent change of intellectual climate in psychology, linguistics, and other disciplines surrounding anthropology, as well as within linguistic anthropology, towards an intermediate position, in which more attention is paid to linguistic and cultural difference, such diversity being viewed within the context of what we have learned about universals (features shared by all languages and cultures). New work in developmental psychology, while acknowledging underlying universal bases, emphasizes the importance of the socio-cultural context of human development. Within sociolinguistics and linguistic anthropology there has also been increasing attention to meaning and discourse, and con-

comitantly a growing appreciation of how interpretive differences can be rooted as much in the systematic uses of language as in its structure.”

“The boldness of Whorf’s formulation prompted a succession of empirical studies in America in the 1950s and early 1960s aimed at elucidating and testing what now became known as the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis.

Anthropological and linguistic studies by Trager, Hoijer, Lee, Casagrande, and others have been well reviewed elsewhere. These studies hardly touched on cognition, but in the same period a few psychologists (notably Lenneberg, Brown, Steffler) did try to investigate the relation between lexical coding and memory, especially in the domain of color, and found some significant correlations. This line of work culminated, however, in the celebrated demonstration by Berlin & Kay of the language-independent saliency of “basic colors,” which was taken as a decisive anti-relativist finding, and effectively terminated this tradition of investigations into the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis. There followed a period in which Whorf’s own views in particular became the butt of extensive criticism.

It is clear from this background that the “Sapir-Whorf” hypothesis in its classical form arose from deep historical roots but in a particular intellectual climate. Even though (it has been closely argued by Lucy op. cit.) the original hypothesis has never been thoroughly tested, the intellectual milieu had by the 1960s entirely changed. Instead of empiricism, we now have rationalistic assumptions. Instead of the basic tenets of structuralism, in which each linguistic or social system must be understood first in internal terms before comparison is possible, modern comparative work (especially in linguistics) tends to presume that one can isolate particular aspects or traits of a system (e.g. aspect or

subject hood) for comparison. The justification, such as it is, is that we now have the outlines of a universal structure for language and perhaps cognition, which provides the terms for comparison. It is true that the assumption of unconscious processes continues, but now the emphasis is on the unconscious nature of nearly all systematic information processing, so that the distinctive character of Whorf’s habitual thought has been submerged.

In this changed intellectual climate, and in the light of the much greater knowledge that we now have about both language and mental processing, it would be pointless to attempt to revive ideas about linguistic relativity in their original form. Nevertheless, there have been a whole range of recent intellectual shifts that make the ground more fertile for some of the original seeds to grow into new saplings. It is the purpose of this volume to explore the implications of some of these shifts in a number of different disciplines for our overall view of the relations between language, thinking, and society.

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