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Canadian Studies as a Part of “Realia” Courses of English-Speaking Countries

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Abstract. Mária Badinská is a professor at Matej Bel University, Faculty of Political Sciences and International Affairs where she teaches at the Department of International Communication and Foreign Languages. This article deals with the state of Canadian Studies in Slovakia before and after 1989. The author also discusses the future of Canadian Studies and their contribution to mastering a foreign language in the “new” globalized world.

Keywords: Canadian Studies, English-Speaking Countries, Part of “Realia” Courses.

Introduction

Teaching language inherently implies teaching culture as well. Competent users of a foreign language do not only function *linguagewise* but, more importantly, can cross cultures on a *culturewise level* (Zelenka, 31; Zelenková, 2008). By what means, however, culture should be taught – that is a question that has been attracting scholars for decades. In this article I would like to explore the state of Canadian studies in Slovakia and to analyse it in the context of its past, present and future.

Prior to 1989, Canadian studies in Slovakia (formerly Czechoslovakia), similarly to many present-day post-communist countries, were at university level practically non-existent. English was not a priority language (Russian took the place of *lingua franca* in pro-communist Eastern Europe) and studying English was limited to few institutions (mostly universities) and few study programmes. Teaching methods that were perpetuated in the period did not stimulate the active use of the language; instead the Grammar-Translation method dominated, and other methods mostly trained receptive skills. Cultural studies of English-speaking countries were almost an oxymoron, as it was not in accordance with the official state ideology to perpetuate any positive view of culture or life in Western-bloc capitalist countries. Their culture was often presented through ideology-loaded, distorted views. For example, the course book of *English for High Schools 3* (published in 1989, prior to the Velvet Revolution) introduces New York as a large city where “...there are gangs of people who won’t hesitate to rob and beat pedestrians” (Benešová, 118). As a reading exercise, the same course book includes an article about V. I. Lenin’s Stays in London. One may rightly doubt the objective value of such information as well as their representation of the English-speaking world. Interestingly, perhaps as a counter-balance to facts about America, this course book offers two chapters related to Canada (*Talking about Canada* and *More facts about Canada*), mostly with geography-oriented content.

At universities, cultural studies were usually integrated into courses of history. Humanities and foreign-language curricula periodically covered British and American studies; however, cultural studies of Canada and other English-speaking countries (such as Australia, for example) were completely neglected.

Since 1989, the situation in teaching Canadian studies in Slovakia has gradually improved. The reasons are multiple, generally including subjective, financial and objective-political ones. Among the subjective reasons for improvement of the position of and access to Canadian studies we might include personal involvement of Canadian lecturers – native speakers teaching English in Slovakia who pushed Canadian studies forward and developed courses with Canada-based content at various levels of schools in Slovakia. Financial circumstances often affect the scope and content of courses; since 1989, however, there has been better access to Canadian literature and grants for Canada-related research available to students and scholars (many initiated by CEACS association). The political reasons relate to improved relationships between Canada and Slovakia (especially during the Visa-free period since 2003) which also gives students more opportunities to travel and get acquainted with Canada.

At present, the very first encounters of Slovak students with Canadian culture (apart from regular geography lessons) occur as early as in primary schools. Canada-related topics are included

in some primary-school English course books. These topics are mostly related to the landscape and geography; they present big cities (e.g. Vancouver, Toronto) and theme parks, a topic that is of interest to young learners. However, when presenting English-speaking countries, the Canadian element is often underrepresented or completely missing, as the predominant focus is on British and American cultural studies, i.e. *realia*. Let us take the most commonly used English course book in Slovakia, *Project Plus* (oriented at young intermediate learners at primary schools; note: Slovak schools exclusively use textbooks published in the UK), as a case study. As for American *realia*, students (thorough two or more single-paragraph articles) encounter topics such as the American education system (Hutchins, 62), a detailed comparison of the American and British governments (Hutchins, 82), as well as American wrestling, pop music and forest fires. English/British cultural studies is represented by topics such as the history of the English language (Hutchins, 22), Charles Dickens' simplified version of *A Christmas Carol* and the fictitious story *The Man Who Sold Big Ben* (Hutchins, 72). Students even encounter Australian culture through the article *Jungle Runaways* (Hutchinson, 48). However, any representation of Canadian culture (history, landscape, literature, sports or arts) is completely missing. One of the few course books that attempt to present the culture of English-speaking countries more equally, also including Canada-related content, is *Opportunities - Intermediate*.

Secondary schools also mostly recognize English and American studies. However, Canada-related topics have been gradually emerging as a part of the study of English-speaking countries. For example, the higher level of the Slovak school-leaving exam – *maturita B2* – now recognizes Australians and Canadians as representatives of the cultures of the English-speaking countries. In the course book *Novámaturita z angličtiny* (2008), one of the topics is “English speaking countries”, discussing popular beliefs and stereotypes not only related to the British and the Americans but also to the Australians and Canadians (Bathgate, 248). The Canadians are presented as having many attributes, among which we select the following hints: -[They] suffer from an intense identity crisis; -[They] still don't know who they are [...]; -[They] don't like being confused with the Americans; -[They are] very polite; -[They have] clean, ultramodern cities, a liberal attitude, an educated populace [...] (Bathgate, 248). Students are then welcomed to debate these stereotypes and compare them with the attributes of the other English-speaking nations, which not only improves their linguistic skills but also stimulates their critical thinking and cultural awareness of a larger variety of English-speaking countries.

At Slovak universities, Canadian studies are gradually attracting greater and greater attention. In Bratislava (at Comenius' University), there is a Department of Canadian Studies (first established in 1991 and re-established in 1998), which offers a variety of Canada-related university courses, spanning from general courses (such as Introduction to Canadian Literature, Modern Canadian Novel and Modern Canadian Drama) to special courses related to African-Canadian literature and Canadian legends and myths. In BanskáBystrica, the course Canadian Studies was established in 2003. Canadian studies and literature are also taught at other regional universities in Slovakia: Ružomberok and Trnava. However, many university courses are interdisciplinary or comparative and thus contain Canada-related topics.

The future of Canadian studies in Slovakia is a complex and global issue; it requires a close look at the social justification of such courses and a (re)consideration of their objectives and goals. Thus let us start with the question: why should Canadian studies be included in curricula at Slovak schools and universities (especially those teaching languages)? The answer is, again, multiple: First, there are many historical reasons to include Canada in the study of English-speaking countries. Some of the reasons include:

There has been extensive immigration of Slovaks to Canada. Slovak Canadianist Javorčíková in her study *Slovakia and Canada: Bridging Two Nations* recognizes four waves of Slovak immigration to Canada: (1) The first Slovak emigration to Canada starting at the end of the 19th century; (2) Pre-WWII immigration; (3) Post-WWII immigration and immigration after 1948; (4) Immigration after the Warsaw Pact Invasion of Czechoslovakia in 1968 and (5) Immigration and intellectual circulation after the Velvet Revolution of 1989 (Javorčíková, 327). As an inevitable result of such extensive immigration of Slovaks to Canada, there are many personal ties between the two countries and thus, Slovak history cannot omit the history of immigration. Renowned expert in cultural studies Marc Chenetier also recognizes this standpoint in his study “*New*” *American Studies: Exceptionalism redux?* (2008), where he underestimates the role of

traditional texts, *master narratives*, and their role in teaching cultural studies and wars against “the sloganization of cultural heritage” (Chenetier, 1-3). He advocates the internationalization of cultural studies and their contextualization within the students’ “mother culture”. That is, Slovak students should be provided with the cultural studies of English-speaking countries within the context of their mother country, and topics that resonate(d) in Slovakia in the past and present, such as, for example, the topic of Slovak immigration to Canada.

Another argument for integrating Canada-related content into cultural studies is the shared cultural present of both Slovakia and Canada. Many artists, sportsmen and writers have been and still are active in Canada. Literature written by Slovaks in Canada (both in English and Slovak), however, is only known to a relatively limited readership in their mother country. Otrisalová notes that several writers, for example Jaroslava Blažková, the author of *Nylon Moon* (1961) and *Lamb and Princes* (1964), have been “erased from the history of Slovak literature” (Otrisalová, 339) and very few of them have recovered their former fame after 1989. Other similar immigrant authors include famous essayist and musician Peter Breiner, literary scholar Peter Petro, Ilja Čičvák, Brigita Hamvašová and several others.

Canadian studies would also improve the linguistic competences of students, teachers and translators. Many Canadian institutions (such as the legal or school system) have merged both American and British models, borrowing their fundamentals and concepts. The Canadian system of government, for example, features both a House of Commons (of British origin) and a Senate (of US origin). Thus an awareness of Canadian systems and institutions would increase the language and cultural competence of translators and interpreters as well as of day-to-day users of language.

The last but equally important argument is practical: Both Canada and Slovakia face similar problems, for example problems with various minorities, bilingualism, and problematical national identity. Understanding how these current issues are dealt with and viewed in Canada would certainly improve their recognition in Slovakia.

Conclusion

As the historical, social and practical reasons that we have discussed in this study demonstrate, Canadian studies should become an integral part of cultural studies of English-speaking countries, which, historically, presents only or mainly English and American content. Especially in Slovakia, there are many historical and political reasons, such as Slovak immigration to Canada, that connect the two countries and provide common ground for teaching and researching in the field. Finally, teaching about a wider scope of English-speaking countries would result in a more global view of the world culture.

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Daily Occurrence of the Southern Russian Peasantry and Church Institute in the 1920th

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Abstract. In this article are considered aspects of the state Soviet policy on formation of new country daily culture in the conditions of fight against church institute, its influence on traditional society during an era of new economic policy. Means and ways of carrying out discrimination actions by the Soviet authorities of anti-church promotion in rural society of the 1920th years in the south of Russia are analyzed. Decade of preparation of active approach to church, as on institute capable to influence and form mentality of the people is considered. Results of the pursued state policy on destruction of cultural influence of church on the country mass of Kuban, Don, Stavropol Territory in vision of the concept of creation of new Soviet atheistic society are studied.

Keywords: Soviet culture, cultural revolution, fight against church, daily occurrence, leisure.

Introduction.

The daily culture of the southern Russian peasantry was based on traditional forms of patriarchal way of a life, leisure, holidays, bore in itself observance of customs, cultural paradigms of orthodox church. Great Russian revolution of 1917 in a new historical discourse of science of the XXI century allows to raise topical question of influence of church on country cultural tradition. The Soviet propaganda machine of the beginning of the 1920th years only gathered, formed and perfected future repressive methods of fight against church, being limited to approach to system of church holidays and values of the country traditional world.

Cultural atheistic revolution is a cardinal revolution for traditional country society which was not such unambiguous as it would be desirable, the Soviet ideological promotion of the 1920th years. This phenomenon is precisely noticed in the newspaper of 1924 "Hammer": "near religiousness, belief in sorcery and old ceremonialism", "new peculiar forms of a life" started developing.[1] Obviously, it turned out to be also consequence of actions of the Soviet power, but also aspiration of the most rural society to daily occurrence modernization. Such updating allows us to investigate as the church institute in the conditions of carrying out cultural atheistic innovations of a state policy was reflected in leisure of villagers of Don, Kuban, Stavropol Territory in the 1920th.

Materials and methods.

The basis of article was formed by the massif of various sources. Particular interest in narrative materials which abound with bright, live paints of the described period of the 1920th years, are rich with revolutionary lexicon. The periodic regional press reflects the southern Russian color of the Cossack, country world of Kuban, Don and Stavropol Territory, transferring revolutionary emotions of the time. Archival, statistical and standard and legal materials of the 1917-1920th years allow to carry out the comparative-historical analysis of sources and to receive an objective picture of cultural processes.

Discussion.

The atheistic culture of the new revolutionary world began to form from the first steps of formation of the Soviet state.[2] The separation of church from the state in January, 1918 became the first state act. It was much carried out actions for antireligious promotion at the level of all country, but in rural areas inactive to revolutionary changes the main preparatory work on overthrow of authority of church fell on the 1920th years of new economic policy.

In particular, in 1927 on pages of the *Communist Education* magazine was developed discussion about degree of religiousness of the peasantry. The general opinion of the local workers sending the letters and messages to editorial office of the magazine, was reduced to the following: "that the peasantry is anticlerical as a whole – it by no means can't be told. If there are the separate country units which have been adjusted sharply in opposition – to the priest, these are units... The most part of the peasantry becomes simple a little indifferent to religious questions", [3] that, however, doesn't testify to full refusal of belief and of observance of church ceremonies, including, – and from traditional holidays. The majority of local party and Soviet workers with conviction believed that the country people in the USSR still with a certain respect belong to orthodox belief, both to church, and to its representatives in a face of priests and sextons, – "the rural bell nobility". [4] The greatest commitment to religious views was shown by peasants that was a consequence of their low educational level, the belittled social status and a gender role in traditional cultural way. Noticing this fact, employees of rural district committees of Communist Party, rural correspondents, simply peasants of both sexes testified: "religiousness is observed more at women", [5] "our peasants – people are more increasing believers. Will be among them those who ceased to believe in God a little and to pray in church". [6] Moreover, authorities noted disturbing tendencies not only preservations, but also expansions of religious influence that was well noticeable and on Don, Kuban, Stavropol Territory in the village. Were fixed, for example, the facts of training of children to bases of orthodox belief in house conditions or even at underground church schools as not all inhabitants of the village were happy with absence in the Soviet educational institutions of the corresponding discipline (the staff of the Don district committee of All-Union Communist Party (bolsheviks) in 1926 indicated "class extrenity" such dissatisfied, declaring: "the prosperous complained that at schools of their children don't teach "Scripture"[7]). In particular, in the spring of 1926 in the village Krugloe the Azov region of the North Caucasian region the inspective group of the Don district RKI and district department of national education (DONO) found "in absolutely casual way ... 3 private schools with total of studying 75 people. At schools the Scripture was taught. In one of schools the whip hanging on a wall is found, according to the old man - "teacher", serving for introduction to children of bases of the God's law". [8] Naturally, schools were closed, but it caused unofficial scandal in the environment of the party and Soviet workers accusing each other of negligence and oblivion of antireligious promotion. Strictly in some days after emergence in the note Molot newspaper about a casual find of religious schools the editorial satirist under the pseudonym "Uncle Mityay" responded to this incident venomous verses in which rhetorically questioned: "on the ninth revolution to year//a Scripture, a lash in a course! // ... disturbs a question, whether//I stuck the nose//in schools local council. // Yes or no? // Where were there a cell, Komsomol, RAYONO//Or to them too all the same?". [9] Often, however, in villages and villages of the South of Russia the increase in number of followers not Russian Orthodox Church, and different sects was observed. So, on of Donskoy passing on November 17-18, 1926 *okruzhkom's* (regional commissariat *прим. перев.*) plenum to All-Union Communist Party (bolsheviks) admitted that "in the village the solid percent of more backward country youth went now through leaving to religious sects, baptists, conservatives and others which are available in the village". [10] Partly the growth of influence of sectarians was explained by the developed Bolsheviks persecutions on the orthodox church organization, partly, – that the Soviet power some time rather tolerantly treated sects as to opponents of official church. However, when sectarians, – it is free or involuntarily, – encroached on ideological monopoly of Communist Party in the village (and, in the country as a whole), the new power immediately reacted to these scandalous, in its opinion, actions.

The reasons of stability of religious views and orthodox ceremonialism in the *dokolkhozny* (before coming the kolhoz system *прим. перев.*) village are obvious. Considerably religiousness was natural result of social and economic instability of an era of the New Economic Policy. This instability caused by a social and tax policy of Bolsheviks, couldn't be compared to revolutionary shocks in any way and cruel tests of times of Civil war; nevertheless, it made oppressing impact on mentality of a great number of peasants and women peasants, especially widows. In this regard, words of one of the Russian peasants are quite clear: "priests, however, people are not absolutely honest, but after all here is how happen difficult times, when there is no anything, or still any misfortune – you will address to God, and it becomes easier at heart". [11]

It is impossible to forget that for the anti-Bolshevik adjusted inhabitants of the village (and their numbering during rather liberal period of the New Economic Policy was much higher, than in the next decade) demonstrative commitment of church ceremonialism was some kind of symbol of their anti-governmental moods opened by a call of the power. Visiting church, executing ceremonies and observing orthodox holidays, such people declared their socio-political position.

To orthodox religion in the 1920th sociocultural conservatism inherent in the country world was the most important reason of commitment of the majority of villagers of the Soviet Russia. The majority of grain-growers did not remain religious because of the deepest conviction in effectiveness of religious practices but because of the religion represented by one of the most important basic components of all rural living arrangement, a core of country traditional culture. Traditions can't be eliminated in historically minimum terms, for any 10 years, especially with one only method of promotion and administrative pressure. Moreover, during critical eras the traditional character has property to become stronger as means of counteraction to new trends which are often perceived as hostile, destructive forces. These mechanisms of commitment of tradition (and, including, religions) worked and in the Soviet village of the 1920th.

For the most acute party and Soviet workers and researchers in the USSR wasn't secret that fact that country religiousness often was a tradition tribute. M. Temkin, the author placed in 1926 in the North Caucasian Edge magazine of extensive and very substantial publication about the relation of country people of Don to the Soviet school, reasonably wrote about preservation of church ceremonialism in the village: "here "tradition", unwillingness to break off with the "starinka" (old times *нршм. непер.*), some tribute to the settled forms of an old life" allows to feel only.[12] Thus, making traditional campaigns in the church, many peasants with not smaller frequency happened in reading rooms and clubs which were positioned by Bolsheviks as an antipode of rural temples. Local Soviet workers with skill noted that country weight "goes on a habit to church on the main holidays, executes paramount demand ceremonies, as a *говение*, (religious starvation *нршм. непер.*) burial, commemoration. With "information on Sergey of Radonezh's biography "she looks by the way in a reading room to listen to the report on opening of relics of the above-mentioned miracle man".[13]The similar behavior convincingly proved that concerning the majority of villagers religiousness had external character (the ceremonialism as a tradition tribute was observed) and wasn't open the demonstration of anti-Soviet moods or the certificate on presence of those.

Anyway, the church ceremonialism in the Soviet *dokolkhozny* village wasn't liquidated by massive antireligious actions. Religiousness of country people don't only remained, but in some cases even became stronger owing to fluctuations of domestic policy of a communistic mode. So, in the conditions of pro-country policy "facing the village" (the end of 1924 – the first half of 1926) Bolsheviks were compelled to watch with badly hidden displeasure not only functioning of rural temples or carrying out orthodox holidays, but also such defiant, from their point of view, actions as religious procession on territories of the whole areas or the detour sat down also villages church hierarches. One of participants of meeting of secretaries of rural cells of All-Union Communist Party (bolsheviks) of the Don district of the North Caucasian edge passing in January, 1926, Semenov of Novocherkassk, with disappointment told colleagues: "we had walk of an icon of the Kazan Mother of God on our villages" which "broke at us some meetings on preparation of re-elections in KOVY and council in Grushevka, and in farms".[14] The same year members of the Bagayevsky district committee of All-Union Communist Party (bolsheviks) (The Don district of the North Caucasian edge) fixed in the territory subordinated to them repeated the voyage of the archbishop on villages and *stanitsas* (small villages in the South *нршм. непер.*). Though employees of the district committee narrated about this event with displeasure, they were pleased by the fact that locals were tired of the church administration which has become constant visitor on a visit and, eventually, accorded to the hierarch quite cool welcome: "the meeting was for the first time rendered, but the second time any more there was no such congestion of the people".[15]

Even in the cities during an era of the New Economic Policy cases of demonstrative execution of religious practices unpleasant for the party and Soviet management were observed. So, according to the message in the Molot newspaper old regime experts "the Zarechny power plant in Rostov" Grigoryev, Sadchikov and Medvedev for any reason decided to serve a thankful public prayer with a wonder-working icon of the Aksayskaya Mother of God. "Not for long they thought", the author of the publication was indignant, "and on September 15 workers witnessed the following

picture. Widely, street doors of the Zarechny power plant and clergy rack with the icon uplifted on hands ahead wide open revealed, in clubs of a palmar smoke began to rise on the main ladder of power plant to apartments of specialists. And specialists, being kneeling, waited a wonder-working icon in hope that the last will help them to expel that evil spirit which was translated here from the Main Workshops in the person of companions Communards. Having served a public prayer and having sprinkled with holy water of the apartment, specialists awarded clergy rack money and solemnly carried out them by boats through Don". As one would expect, similar action caused ambiguous reaction of workers and rage of the author of the note calling local committee "to turn on this attention and to point to the gone too far specialists to that, living under one roof with the state enterprise, they would be engaged in a production raising better, instead of drove to itself through station of freeloaders".[16]

Reaction to such preservation of stereotypes of behavior in the country world from her simple members to imperious circles showed methods of aggressive behavior in fight against religious attributes, ceremonies and the church. In 1925, according to representatives of party structures of the Don district of the North Caucasian edge, "we had a case when in rural cells of Komsomol children dressed up in copes from bast mats, became on tractors, took on 5 buckets of water, did brooms of hay and started going on the village and to spray peasants".[17] In March, 1926 in the MolodoyLeninets newspaper the publication which author described at all a wild trick of Komsomol members who got into rural church at night, arranged there disorder, chopped up icons, and then got drunk.[18]

As a rule, responsible for such methods of antireligious promotion in the village wasn't exposed to any serious punishment from the Komsomol or party and Soviet administration. Similar softness testified to imperious manifestation and tendencies of a state policy. In the late twenties, when, in the conditions of policy of "*chrezvychayshchina*" (something exceeding *нр.м. непер.*) and attention strengthening to "collective-farm construction" (that brought then to continuous violent collectivization), the Bolshevik management called the supporters on places "to strengthen antireligious work among the population".[19] Activization of such work was presented to one of necessary factors of socialist modernization to create it optimum social and psychological conditions. Not incidentally in December, 1928 at the North Caucasian regional agitation and propaganda meeting about problems of antireligious work of Komsomol it was specified: "in connection with strengthening of approach of the proletariat on capitalist elements of our country in the field of economic, Soviet and cultural construction especially the importance gets strengthening of fight against religion, the religious organizations, religious ideology as the religion is the most convenient, habitual and legal form for manifestation of influence of kulak (rich peasant, using hired labor *нр.м. непер.*) and nepman (new businessman *нр.м. непер.*) on *trudyashchyeya* (working people *нр.м. непер.*) masses, for fight against socialist construction and a cultural revolution".[20]

Radical authorities in the village, members of rural cells of Communist Party and Komsomol, non-party activists heard in these appeals that wanted to hear, namely, – permission again to fall upon church and believers with the most drastic measures among which were not only mockery over religious shrines, but also closing of churches, and direct repressions against priests and the peasants who were openly showing religious commitment to Russian Orthodox Church. Similar actions didn't cause sympathy in the majority of the population of the Soviet village, including the Don, Kuban, Stavropol grain-growers. It is characteristic that at the beginning of 1930 in one of the villages of Stavropol Territory peasants in a mass order entered collective farm. But, "in the same day the group of Komsomol members of the village suited the rough antireligious performance which has offended feelings of believers, sharply changed moods of peasants, and they left on the same day collective farm".[20] However, if earlier authorities criticized Komsomol members for roughness in antireligious promotion, in the late twenties – the beginning of the 1930th similar was considered in the nature of things.

As we see, antireligious work in the village represented permanent process throughout the 1920th; methods of its carrying out changed only. As both the religion, and the church organization were not simply important compound, but also basic components of rural daily occurrence, antireligious actions of the Soviet power struck and on the traditional country world.

Conclusion.

Sources considered in article allow to emphasize that in the 1920th years the state Soviet promotion achieved modest results of antireligious policy in the south of Russia. Traditional daily culture, household way of the southern Russian peasantry were modernized slowly, without accepting at once all atheistic set of a new Soviet cultural paradigm. Undoubtedly, daily occurrence of Sovietization, as well as antireligious work on church discredit in the opinion of the country population,[22] demanded more vigorous activity of the Soviet party device in the village and, very important role was played by the relation to a new political regime.[23] The historical retrospective shows that the institute of church stood in numerous social projects of the Soviet state, revived and kept opportunities to transformation of the cultural heritage of Russian Orthodox Church.

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Subjective Factors in Natural Science Education

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Abstract.

Managing the learning process in a modern school should be based on scientific facts that show large differences in the abilities of students. For students in upper primary school, differences in certain aspects of their mental development are up to eight years of schooling. Uneven development leads to their uneven progress in education. Due to the fact, a class even approximately does not represent an equal level of knowledge, but includes the various levels of individual students. In order to insure favorable conditions for learning to all students of class, teaching adapted to the capabilities of an average student has to be completed by the procedures of individualization. Therefore, modern education can not be imagined without the procedures of individualization, because only in such conditions of education, there are opportunities for the full development of each student.

Keywords: education, student, teacher, individual differences.

Introduction

Learning theory has always sought to answer the question of what and how to teach and learn in order to acquire knowledge and develop skills, and how to organize and implement educational process (Zgonik, 1967). All these considerations refer mainly to intellectual, or cognitive - logical side of teaching (Bakovljević, 1998).

However, although the intellectual side of teaching has been largely elaborated in detail, although the didactics had answers to many questions how to perform the educational process in its macro and micro processes, however, in spite of all that we hear constantly lament that students do not like school, run away from school, they are inattentive and undisciplined, they manifest publicly their negative attitude towards school in different ways.

The causes of this situation can be found in the fact that teachers are addressed by solutions what and how they must teach students, while the issues relating to the psychological attitude of students towards everything about school are not solved. Problem is, in fact, imposed in how students perceive and experience the entire teaching process, i.e. whether they find work interesting or uninteresting, attractive or repulsive, pleasant or unpleasant, full of joy or apathy, whether teaching inspires or embitters them (Poljak, 1966; Solarević et al., 2013) .

Engagement of students, absence from school, dictation in addition to existing textbooks problematic ways of assessment, insufficient success of a large number of students, the discontinuity between success in elementary and secondary schools, negative personal status of students in the school, spreading of new, often problematic patterns of behavior from the environment into school, poor cooperation with families and the local community - these are questions that are being posed today as one of the central problems of modern teaching (Tate, 2008).

Student as a subjective factor of teaching

Conceptions of the role of teachers and the role of students in the learning process derive from the concept of the teaching. The concept of education is determined by the concept of school as a core institution of the education system. The education system should be based on the concept

of education as an activity which has certain social and individual functions (Bandur, Potkonjak, 1999). Thus, in the range between teacher – student relation, on one hand, and society - education system relation, on the other hand, there is a very large number of important issues that are not decided by a teacher or a student, which largely determine their position and role in educational process, and their overall social status (Apple, 2012).

At the center of the school life and work is the student. Around him, like concentric circles, it is developed a network of labor and social relations involving many stakeholders - teachers, parents, support staff and school principal, school council members and experts from the local community, experts and officials in the administrative institutions of school system (Popov, Jukić, 2006). Everything that exists in the educational system, either directly or indirectly is a function of education students. The whole work of the school is focused on planning, organizing, directing, articulating and monitoring the effectiveness of students' activities (Jovičić, 1971). Hence, the only authentic and valid measure of the quality of functioning of the school, and through it, the whole educational system, is real structure of student activities (Hoz et al., 1990). Making certain type of environment, school establishes the conditions for the development of a wide range of activities for students that are known or assumed to lead to significant educational and developmental achievements (Žderić, Miljanović, 2001).

Given the multitude and variety of achievements to which should lead, the school activities are numerous and varied in terms of objectives, content, organization, degree of formalization or degree of spontaneity. All of these activities and their effects get pedagogical, psychological and social meaning to the extent where they encourage, support, guide and cultivate the development of students' personality (Milošević, 2010). Schools are expected to provide a gradual and synchronized development of two closely inter-related processes - the process of individualization of student's personality and the process of his social integration by shaping their interior environment and communication with the local community. This expectation is, among other things, based on the fact that the students form many years covered by the primary (mandatory) and secondary (practically unavoidable) education, go through periods of their most intense physical, mental, and psychosocial development. Researches of students' perceiving of school indicate the need for redefining the efficiency of schools and social- psychological effects of schools (Havelka, 2000). Since the entire program is subordinated to the student, of great importance is the knowledge of his general properties characteristic for a given level of mental and physical development, but also individual differences, starting with the positive to the deviant ones. Although the one age level of children has common traits, though among them there are individual differences that may be of importance in the educational process. Hence, if one of relevant characteristics in the hierarchy is more important, inasmuch a teacher is obliged to take them into account when selecting modes (Romelić, 2003).

Some authors highlight the following individual differences among students that are crucial for success in learning:

- Level of knowledge and experience
- Learning abilities, i.e. cognition
- Interests
- Motivation for learning
- Health and functioning of the nervous system
- Environmental conditions.

In addition, the success of students' work is influenced by various traits. Of particular interest are: perseverance, diligence, initiative, hard work, laziness, accuracy, consistency, discipline, willpower, affection or fear of overcoming difficulties, irresponsibility or responsibility to this obligation (Romelić, 2003).

Differences in physical characteristics of students

Even the most superficial observation of students of a class will show us that it contains physically unevenly developed students. Some students are significantly taller than their classmates in the classroom, and some are much shorter than the average high. Between the tallest students in the class and the shortest, there is the whole gradation with respect to the height of individual students. The most frequently we meet the grades in which, given the height, there are

approximately equal numbers above-average and below-average students (Đorđević Potkonjak, 1988).

More accurate answer, however, to the question of the size in differences in some physical properties of the students can be given by the measurements of these properties in a number of subjects. Based on these measurements it was found that the differences in height and weight in children of school age are the largest in fourteenth year of life - in height is 38 cm, and in weight is 37.5 kg. It was also found that the differences in height and weight increases with age, and at fourteen reach climax. As children get older, the differences in their body height and weight are increasing. After fourteen years of age and these differences are reduced, but still are higher than in the nineteen than in the eight (Vilotijević, 1999). The uneven pace of physical development leads to large individual differences in other physical properties, such as the vital capacity of the lungs, chest circumference and others. It is quite understandable that the differences in the physical properties of the students must affect not only the organization and teaching of physical education, but also the organization of other life and work of students at the school. The specificity of geographical teaching process is lessons in nature and field studies. Such teaching must be adapted to students with certain physical problems. If it is a seriously ailing health, students should be free of field work related to the teaching unit of orientation in space or relief, because these classes usually require a lot of great physical effort (Orion, Hofstein, 1994). Overcoming differences in the physical properties of the students to some extent is done by distribution of students sitting in a classroom. Shorter students sit in the front seats and taller ones sit in the back. Thus, the objective conditions of teaching are adapted to physical abilities of students. From the back seats taller students will easier follow the teaching process than the shorter ones.

Similarly to this is the adjustment of working conditions to students who see and hear weaker. Putting them in the benches near the board, we create favorable conditions for them to effectively follow teaching. This also improves the health conditions of their workplace. But while in the students of uneven height it is relatively easy to match their state of development with condition of teaching by distribution of seating and appropriate furniture, in the students of uneven vision and hearing it is much more difficult to achieve (Poljak, 1990).

In order to determine, for every student who has bad eyesight or poor hearing, the most appropriate distance from the table to the seating position, we should have data of medical examination of students. Unfortunately, in our country such examinations are not made regularly, and where there are the occasional examinations, results are not use sufficiently. Distance between the student seating and table usually is set in students with very poor eyesight. Students with minor visual impairments mostly do not receive adequate assistance, and to an even greater extent it applies to students with hearing impairments (Markovac, 1970).

The differences in the mental development of students

Much greater difficulties arise when the conditions of teaching should be adapted to the characteristics of their mental development. The difficulties stem primarily from the fact that differences in the development of psychological characteristics of students are not directly observable, such as height of students. Individual differences in intellectual development of students can be judged objectively only on the basis of results achieved by individual students.

Every teacher knows from his experience that the students from one class have differences in reading, writing, in reading comprehension, in observation, description, etc. However, such data relating to the size of individual differences are not entirely accurate. More accurate data on the size of the differences in students can be given by an objective test. Using the results of various tests, today we can quite accurately determine how students differ in the same class (Popov, Jukić, 2006).

The general picture of mental development of children shows that all children do not develop at the same rate. Because of the uneven rate of mental development of students there are big individual differences between them. It is important that individual differences in mental development increase with age: as students get older, the differences in their mental development are increasing (Bakovljević, 1983). Among eleven years old children it can be found children with a mental age of six years and those with a mental age of sixteen. The difference between the most developed children and those with slow development, therefore, is ten years of mental development. Such differences are in children whose development is considered as normal. We see,

therefore, that children of the same chronological age are very much different in mental abilities. As the grouping of students in grades is usually done according to chronological age, we should expect the same range of individual differences in mental age in each individual class. The higher mental development means a higher degree of intellectual work, and it is therefore illusory to expect that the students of a class in which intellectual abilities are so different to be capable of the same classes and the same tasks (Monk, Stallings, 1975).

Unequal mental development leads to unequal rate of students' progress in the classroom. Mentally more advanced students can progress in their education much more progress than those who are underdeveloped. Such students are prepared for higher requirements than those which are placed upon them by teaching of their class. These are students who could finish school in less than prescribed. That is why these students need to be provided with more knowledge in the form of work in geographical sections or additional classes (Ormrod, Cole, 1996). In contrast, there are students that are mentally underdeveloped. Their progress during education is significantly slowed, and requirements placed upon them, often exceed their capabilities. Among these students are potential candidates for grade repetition. The difference in the rate of students' progress during the school could actually be much higher than what we encounter in schools. The reason is that intellectually more developed students have no possibilities for rapid transitioning from class to class. This creates the illusion of equal advancement of students of the same chronological age.

The analysis of the students of the same chronological age shows that according to certain properties there are large individual differences. This situation exists, if we look at a group of students according one aspect of their development. If we look at students of a class according to many aspects of their development, the situation in terms of individual differences becomes much more complicated (Rudić, 1991). Namely, those students who are at the same level of mental development substantially differ in other properties. There are large differences in the development of certain mental factors in students with the same IQ. Thus, individual differences in memory in students with equal IQ are about five years. For students with lower IQs, we find even greater differences in memory, reasoning, verbal skills, etc. (Markovac, 1970).

The differences in chronological age of students

The differences in the chronological age of students of the same class are also an important factor of unequal students' progress in lessons. Certain studies suggest that age differences in the tested classes are 3.6 years. It is characteristic that the differences in the age of students are the highest in the fourth and seventh grades and amount five years, and the lowest in the third and eighth grades, and amount three years (Trnavac, Đorđević, 2002).

As in every class there are plenty of students younger and older than their age, which is required for a particular grade, we can ask what is the relation between the success of younger and older students, on the one hand, and the success of students of appropriate age, on the other. Are the age and greater experience of older students of a class an equivalent for bigger and better success, and vice versa?

The difference between the average success of older and younger students increases from grade to grade in favor of younger students. If we compare in individual classes the results of older students with students of appropriate age, we see that the older students achieved lower results. In contrast, the younger students in all grades achieved better success than students of appropriate age (Griffin, 1953). Older students of one class consistently achieved lower scores than younger students of the same class. In addition, older students of class also consistently achieved lower scores than students of appropriate age, required for the respective class.

If we ask ourselves which students are older the age of a class, we will find that these are mostly repeaters. Therefore, consideration of success of older students raises the question about the effectiveness of repetition as a measure for raising student achievement. The placement of students in grade repetition bases on the assumption that in the repeated grade student's knowledge will significantly increase and so the gaps in his knowledge will be eliminated. It would therefore be necessary to consider what kind of relationship exists between success and repeaters and those students who according to the existing criteria must repeat grades, but they moved to higher grades.

Bearing in mind the large differences in the individual characteristics of the students of the same class, we can ask ourselves what actually remains from the usual concept of a class as a group

of students of equal knowledge? It can be concluded that a class should be seen as a group of students with very unequal knowledge and capabilities. Large differences among students necessarily lead to limiting the application of the teaching process equal for all students. Appropriateness of teaching to abilities of students is one of the most important factors for the success of the acquisition of knowledge, but where for all the students it is applied the same teaching, adapting education to students remains only wishful thinking. If we want to adapt teaching to students, it is important to get rid of the shackles that force us to look at the class as a group of students of equal knowledge and capabilities (Trnavac, Đorđević, 2002). Class does not even approximately represent a certain level of knowledge, but different, unequal levels, corresponding to the individual students. Therefore, students should be accepted as they are, and teaching should be adjusted to them, not the other way around, to set them to teaching (Markovac, 1970).

ADAPTING TEACHING TO INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES OF STUDENTS

In our schools we encounter most often the teaching, which is the same for all students in the class. This means that it is assumed that all students of the class can be equally successfully take part in such teaching and that they are capable of the same teaching. Due to the fact that the students from one class there are big differences, it is conceivable that the same teaching will not ensure favorable conditions for learning to all categories of students. It is common that in our schools teaching is adjusted to abilities of average students. All other students who are according to their success in a teaching area above or below the average of class remain aside in teaching process implemented in that manner. Their active participation in class is hindered by unsuitable teaching for them. In this teaching, many students of the class come under very unfavorable conditions in contact with the teaching material that they study, between them and the material there is no optimal communication that enables successful learning. Students who are below the level of teaching can not successfully adopt new skills because of too big gap between their old knowledge they possess and the new knowledge they must adopt (Milošević et al., 2013). Those students who are above the level of teaching are slowed in learning because their abilities are much greater than such teaching assumes (Miljanović, 2004). Both, however, they lose the optimal communication with material given by teaching. Some research suggests that only about 25 % of students are at level of grade in which they are. Thus the level of teaching provided for the some class is appropriate only for one quarter of the students while the majority is outside of the maximum effectiveness of such teaching (Markovac, 1970).

Given the fact that in our country individual differences in knowledge of students have not been systematically studied, it is understandable that it could not be any significant attempts to adapt teaching to individual students' abilities. It would be wrong if you thought that in our schools there is no form of individualized teaching. There are such forms, but because of some subjective and objective reasons they do not apply enough. There is individualization by educational leaflets, which is the most common form of adapting teaching to individual differences of students (Miljanović, Topić, 2010).

An individualization through additional class also allows adjusting teaching to the individual needs of individual students. These classes are intended not only to those students who can successfully follow the course of teaching in the class, but also to those students who find such teaching too easy. Task of additional teaching is to ensure the adoption of the subject matter in a way that best suits their individual abilities (Westerback et al., 1984).

In addition to use of educational leaflets and supplementary education, teaching can be adapted to individual differences of students through group classes. Well-organized and student's opportunities based group classes can contribute much to involve each student appropriately in the teaching process (Markovac, 1970).

Grouping the students into classes based on their abilities

The first attempts that have been undertaken in order to group in the same class pupils with equal abilities and equal knowledge led to the division of students into classes. This is how the school is organized by grade. In the same grade were students born in the same year as it was assumed that students of equal age have the same knowledge. Hence there was a conclusion in that

way grouped students would be able to follow the same classes. Later intensive studies have shown that students of equal age are not nearly so much like each other as had been assumed.

Contrary to attempt to mitigate individual differences dividing students into classes on the basis of chronological age is an attempt to divide students into classes based on abilities. The criterion of division in such a case is intellectual development of students.

The protagonists of this idea believe that an organization, teaching can be more appropriate for the students because among students of each group there are apparently large individual differences. Each of these groups has organized a curriculum adapted to students' abilities of the group.

Attempting to mitigate individual differences dividing students into classes based on abilities has several disadvantages. Grade assembled in this way, although more homogeneous than unselected groups, it is heterogeneous in other properties. The division of students into classes based on their abilities has the disadvantage of creating a gap between "smart" and "dumb" students. Want to admit it or not, the fact is that children who are in the group of weak perceive inconvenience that usually manifest in mental disorders (Romelić, Ilić, 2011).

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AND TEACHER

Socio-cultural, systemic, organizational and group factors, conceptualize the role of teacher and the role of students generally as two asymmetric and by the principle of complementarity tightly linked action systems. However, differences within the personal factors contribute to large qualitative differences between the roles of teacher and student, and the asymmetry of these roles is manifested not only in complementarity but in certain contradistinction and even antagonism.

Given the implications arising from the position that the student has in school and the developmental period in which he is, we can distinguish three main areas of his activities:

1. activities in the classroom and in relation to teaching,
2. activities in the class and other school groups,
3. activities that contribute to the satisfaction of age and developmental needs.

Asymmetry of the role of teachers and students is quite natural, and their complementary is logical and obvious. The teacher is an adult and teacher - the one who knows and who teaches, the student is a person in the development and "learner" - one who develops and who is taught (Havelka, 2000).

Under the guidance of the teacher students in teaching process acquire the knowledge, skills and habits - a teacher is a direct supervisor of their learning (Kundačina, Bandur, 2003). He manages not only the learning that takes place in the class, but partly the learning out of those classes. Because of the large role of the teacher in the teaching process it has is a large responsibility for the success of this process. The success of the acquisition of knowledge, skills and habits in the teaching process depends, among other things, on the compliance of teaching with individual students' abilities. A degree of compatibility of classes and individual students' abilities largely depend again on the teacher who is the most direct organizer and executor of the teaching process. His understanding of the nature and size of individual differences ultimately decides on whether he will want and know to fulfill a condition of success of teaching referring to the unequal opportunities of students (Gojkov, 2002).

The most important question that arises here is the question of how the teacher knows the basic facts about the differences in students. Full awareness of teachers about the size of these differences will affect primarily the change in his thinking about the value of education equal for all students. Such a teacher, that's for sure, will much faster than the others feel the need to individualize the learning process and thus adapt to students' abilities (Öztürk, 2012).

Awareness that students differ exists in most teachers. The situation, however, is different when it comes to a full understanding of the size of these differences. Very few teachers that based on the experience can assume that individual differences among students in higher grades of primary school amount in all subjects seven, eight or more years of schooling. The reason is that the size of individual differences can not be reliably judged solely on the basis of experience, but it is required for this precise scientific research. If we bear in mind that understanding the importance of individualized teaching stems primarily from the knowledge of individual differences, it is understandable that teachers who do not know them will not understand the need to adapt teaching to students. One can not, in fact, feel and understand the importance of what

they do not know and the classes that are taught by teachers who do not know enough about individual differences will be more or less the same for all (Milošević et al., 2013).

In relation to student, the teacher is not only an adult, experienced and educated person. Position that he has objectively puts him in a role that is very normatively defined - in the role of representative of the adult world. In doing so, the teacher is a special kind of representative - he is professional, specially trained representative, a professional representative of the world. Teacher is authorized representative, and he can always be replaced by any person who has the same powers. When a teacher is sick, he can be replaced by another teacher, when he goes to another job in his place come another teacher etc. Thereby, the role of the teacher does not much change. Student in the school does not represent anyone because he personally came to school to be educated. He personally is "responsible" for his role and he can not be replaced at the school when he is sick, no one takes over his role when he leaves school. Thus, the role of the student is fully personalized, and the role of the teacher is only partially (Nikodinovska-Bančotovska, 2006).

This asymmetry in the degree of personalization of roles brings in the relationships between teachers and students the germ of an impersonal, bureaucratic, authoritarian, inhuman feeling and behavior. The teacher can always pull behind a secure fence of his formal role, his legal status, rules that determine his rights and obligations. In his decisions and actions a teacher can always rely on the regulations, those "above" himself, the circumstances and the like. The student, however, no matter what he does, always is alone with his actions and their effects. What does happen happens to him, under his name, he sees with his own feelings and temperament, he links to his abilities and his character, and his personality.

Conclusion

Better and intense knowing students revealed large differences in the development of their mental and physical properties. These studies have shown that large differences in the development of their properties are the rule and extent of these differences is very large. In students in upper primary school, differences in certain aspects of their mental development amount up to eight years of schooling.

Uneven development leads to their uneven progress in the classes. Due to the fact that class does not even approximately represent equal level of knowledge, but also includes the various levels at which there are individual students. Viewed from this perspective, class is a group of students of unequal opportunities and unequal knowledge.

Teaching adapted to the capabilities of the average student can never be appropriate for all students of class. Terms of learning and progress in such teaching are unfavorable to below average and above average students. To ensure to all students of class favorable conditions for learning, teaching adapted to the capabilities of the average student should be completed by procedures of individualization. Group of students should be taken for what it is and should be teaching should be adapted to students, not students to teaching. Because the principle of individualization can be successfully achieved by adjusting the teaching to abilities of students, not by grouping the students into classes formed on the basis of talent of students.

Managing the teaching process in a modern school should be based on scientific facts that show large differences in the abilities of students. Therefore, modern education can not be imagined without the procedures of individualization, because only in conditions of such teaching, there are opportunities for the full development of each student.

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Cumulative Training Effect in an Annual Training Cycle of Female Competitors in the Long Jump

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Abstract

This contribution deals with cumulative training effect in two periods of an annual training cycle: 1st period - the summer preparatory period and II. summer racing period, 2nd period: the winter preparatory and indoor competition period in 16-17 years old female competitors in the long jump. We monitored the changes in the level of reactive strength of the lower limbs using a test of 10 repetitive plyometric jumps on the jump ergometer Myotest PRO. The test was performed at the beginning of each monitored weekly microcycle. We monitored the following parameters: height of the jump, duration of the contact, reactivity and stiffness. The performance of the athletes in monitored parameters had a fluctuating course during the monitored periods. The results have confirmed the correctness of composition of the training. Therefore, the long cumulative training effect positively reflected in an increase of the performance at the schedule time, at the end of monitored period in the indicators of reactive strength. The research has demonstrated the need for ongoing diagnostics of key indicators when manipulating with a training load.

Keywords: long jump, training load, microcycle, cumulative training effect, reactive strength.

Introduction

Athletic jumps are specific group of athletic disciplines of the speed-strength character. The performance depends on many factors, especially the maximum running speed and reactive strength. In the past there were many authors dealing with training for jumping events. But now there is a lot of new information reached by the authors dealing with training for jumping events e.g. Velebil, Krátký, Fišer, Priščák (2002); Bora, Ozimek, Staskiewicz (2005); MacKenzie (2006); Klimczyk (2008); Čillík (2010); Čillík (2011) and others.

Sport training is based on repeating of training stimulations. It is one of the requirements for achieving expected changes in the level of adapting processes. However, the relation between training load - effect cannot be understood mechanically. According to different authors (Neumann, 1993; Dovalil et al., 2002; Volkov, 2002; Moravec and others, 2007 and others) the following division of training effects is distinguished: immediate training effect, delayed training effect, cumulative training effect. The cumulative training effect shows up through the relatively permanent change of the conditions of athletes. Achieving the cumulative effect depends on many factors that characterize the training load (volume and intensity, frequency of stimulations, type of stimulation, sequence of stimuli, variability and others). Training effect also depends on other out-of-training factors that influence the course of recovering processes. The cumulative training effect is divided into short, middle, long. The short cumulative training effect reflects in weekly mezocycle. The middle cumulative effect is evaluated on the basis of changes in the performance in mezocycle. The long cumulative training effect shows up in a longer period of time such as training mezocycle (at least 2 mezocycles), e.g. the period of an annual training cycle, biannual and annual macrocycle, possibly some annual training cycles, e.g. four-year Olympic cycle. The main objective of the training is to reach a cumulative training effect during the most important competitions.

Long-term monitoring of the response to training load is possible on the basis of regularly repeated measurements in a test that reflects some of the important factors of the structure of sport performance in athletic discipline. In this contribution we deal with monitoring the body response to a training load in terms with the cumulative training effect of competitors in the long jump.

Purpose

The main purpose of this thesis was to follow the cumulative training effect during two periods of annual training cycle: 1st period: summer preparatory period and II. summer competition period, 2nd period: winter preparatory period and indoor competition period. We evaluated the training effect of two competitors in the long jump on the basis of the changes in the level of reactive strenght of the lower limbs always at the beginning of weekly microcycle.

Methods

The characteristic of monitored female competitors:

Two female athletes were monitored:

K.K., 16 years old, body height 172 cm, weight 58-60 kg, sport specialization: the long jump (personal record 522 cm), triple jump (personal record 11.48 m).

E.J., 16 years old, body height 163 cm, weight 51 kg, sport specialization: the long jump (personal record 556 cm), 100 m hurdles (personal record 15.32 s), Heptathlon (personal record 4362 pts).

We used the Myotest PRO device to find out the training effect. The Myotest PRO device is scientifically proven and researched instrument that provides accurate information about the current state of explosive strength of lower limbs, which is detected in our case by plyometric jumps. The authors Bampouras et al. (2010) confirmed the validity and reliability of the Myotest PRO device. Tested athletes performed 10 repetitive plyometric jumps on the jump ergometer Myotes PRO at the beginning of the main part of a training unit after the warm-up, general and specific warm-up. On myotest this test is labeled with the name "Jump - plyometrics".

Plyometrics uses a cycle of stretching and shortening, so called accumulative-recuperation cycle, from English SSC (Slamka, 2000). This principle is used for example even when running and reflections that are critical indicators for the performance in the long jump. Therefore, we consider this test to be appropriate for the detection of the body response to a training load in the level of special preparedness among the female competitors in the long jump. The exercise called repeated take-offs, used in the test, is used by the female competitors as a part of the jumps preparation as so called ankle jumps in the number of jumps 10-20 and volume preparation even more. Therefore, we chose the number of repetitions 10, although the myotest measures an average of 3 best jumps based on the height of the jump.

The aim of the test is to achieve the highest height of the jump (h - cm), without creasing lower limbs in the knee joint, with a commitment to achieve the shortest possible contact time with the floor (t_c - ms). The comprehensive indicator is reactivity (index = time of flight / contact time), which expresses the proportion of the height of the jump and duration of the take-off. The fourth examined indicator is stiffness ($kN.m^{-1}$), muscle-tendon stiffness. It expresses the size of the produced strength at the stage of an excentric contraction. It is actually a preparadnes of musculo-tendon apparatus for performing the take-off, so called muscle bias.

We have included all monitored indicators in this contribution: height of the jump – h (cm), contact time – t_c (ms), reactivity (index = flight time/contact time), stiffness ($kN.m^{-1}$) (www.verticaljumping.com).

The test was performed always on Monday at the beginning of the 1st training unit in a week. Weekly distance between measurements was selected on the basis of the structure of a training divided into microcycles and in an effort to get enough objective ongoing information about the current state during the monitored periods. The measurement was performed during training units in the season 2011/2012, in summer preparatory period and II. summer competition period from 6.8. to 3.10.2012 – 1st period, in winter preparatory period and indoor competition period from 29.10.2012 to 3.3.2013 – 2nd period.

The structure of monitored training periods:

1st monitored period (6.8.– 3.10.2012) 9 microcycles:

6. - 26.8. (3 microcycles) – training period

27.8. - 2.9. (1 microcycle) – competition period
3. - 16.9. (2 microcycles) – training period
17.9. - 7.10. (3 microcycles) – competition period, planned peak performance of II. summer competition period – The Slovak Championships of junior teams
2nd monitored period (29.10.2012 – 3.3.2013)
29.10.2012 – 22.1.2013 (11 microcycles) – training period
23.1. – 3.3.2013 (6 microcycles) – competition period

Results

1st monitored period

The height of the jump of the athlete K.K. has a fluctuating course with a gradually increasing level and the highest value was achieved at the time of planned peak performance (fig. 1). Fluctuation of values is very regular – higher level during one week alternates with lower level during the second week, however, it does not correspond with the graduation of load. The athlete E.J. achieved fluctuating changes in the height of the jump (fig. 1). She achieved the highest values during the last monitored weeks. The lowest value is achieved after the competition week as a result of fatigue caused by big racing load; two races within 3 days. Both athletes achieved similar course of the height of the jump, mainly during the 2nd part of monitored period.

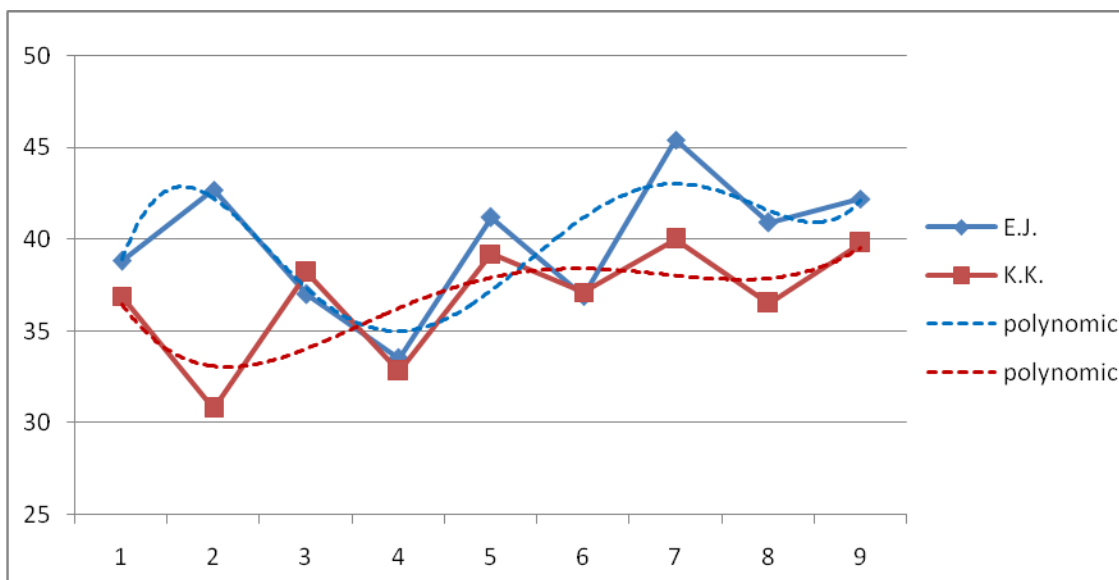


Fig. 1 Height of the jump – 1st monitored period

The athlete K.K. achieved the lowest duration of the contact time during a week before the most important competitions (fig. 2) and that is the correct trend. The duration of the contact time significantly extended during the second week of summer preparatory period under the influence of fatigue at the beginning of training, but then a decline occurs in a fluctuating course. The athlete E.J. gradually reduced the duration of the contact time towards the planned peak performance (fig. 2). The course is fluctuating and the shortest time is achieved during the 4th and 8th week. Both athletes achieved significantly shortest duration of the contact time at the end of the period than at the beginning of summer preparatory period.

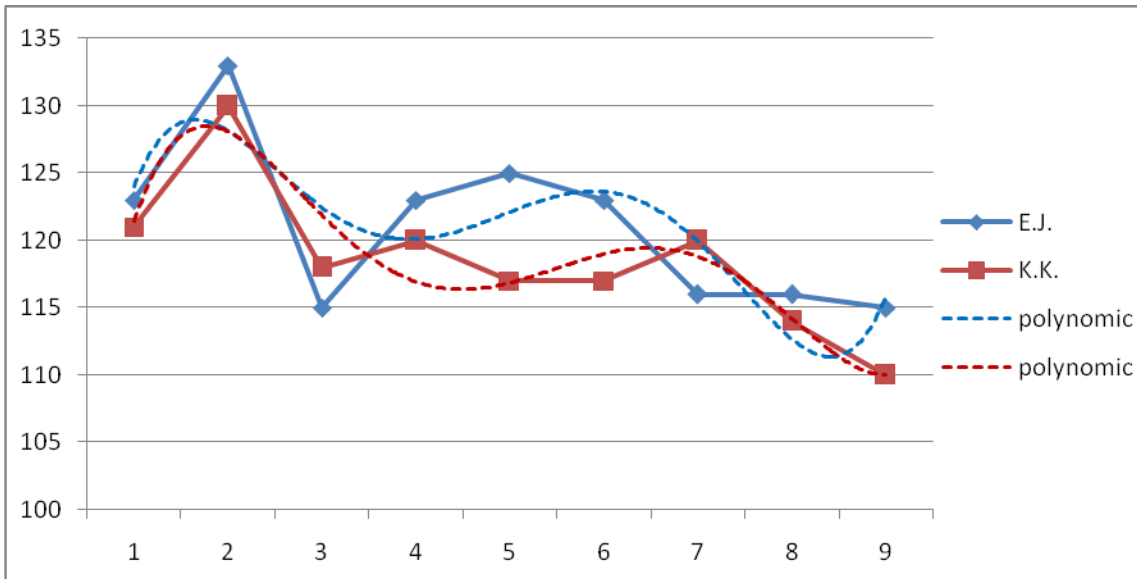


Fig. 2 Duration of the contact time – 1st monitored period

Reactivity of the take-off of the athlete K.K. has similar course as the height of the jump – slight rising with a fluctuating course and the highest value during the last week (fig. 3). Decrease in the reactivity during the second week of preparatory period is the result of fatigue from the beginning of training. The athlete E.J. achieved slightly increasing course of reactivity (fig. 3). The changes are fluctuating but the highest values were achieved during the last 3 weeks. Both athletes achieved significantly higher reactivity at the end of monitored period than at the beginning – approximately about 10 %.

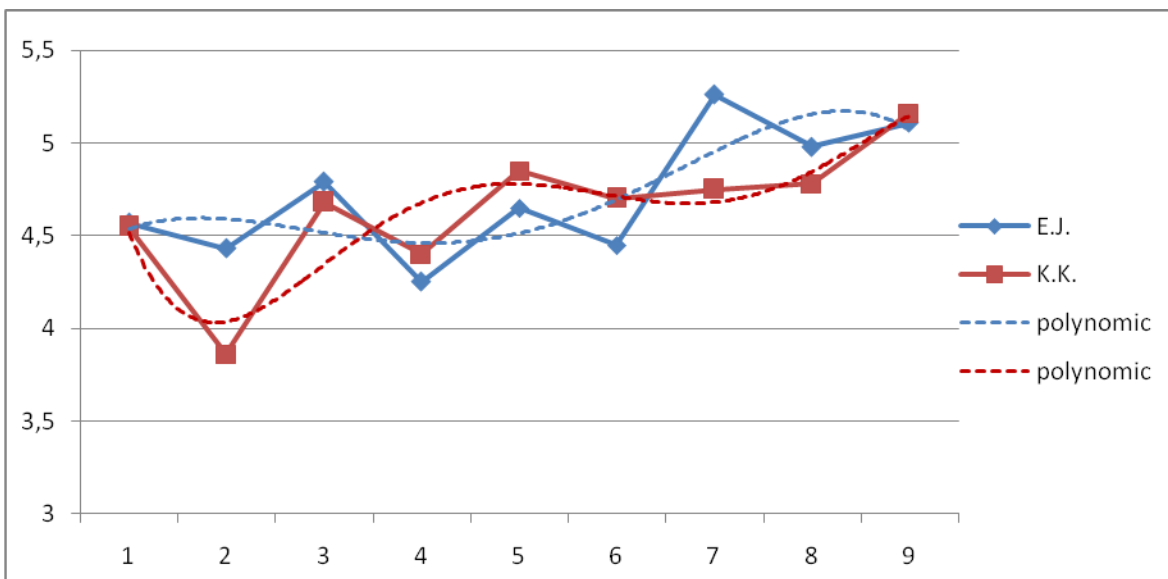


Fig. 3 Reactivity of the take-off – 1st monitored period

Also stiffness of the athlete K.K. very slightly increases (fig. 4). More than 50 % of improvement was achieved during the last week; therefore a tuning week had significant immediate effect also cumulative effect on the level of muscle stiffness as a demand for jumps. Stiffness of the athlete E.J. has a fluctuating but slightly increasing course (fig. 4). The values achieved at the end of the period are higher than at the beginning. The most significant decrease was achieved during the second week of the preparatory period due to the influence of fatigue at the beginning of the preparation.

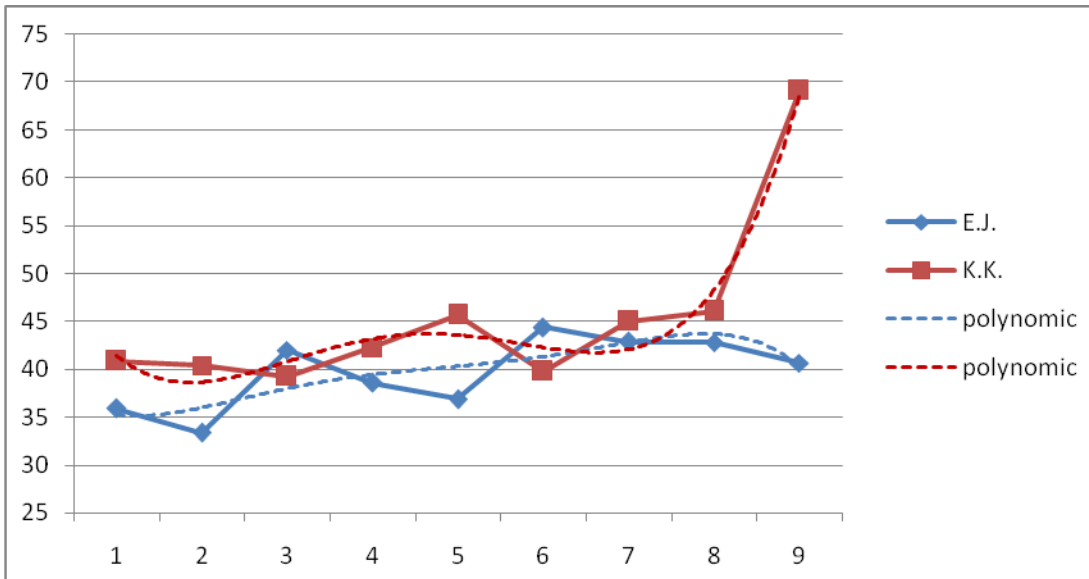


Fig. 4 Stiffness – 1st monitored period

2nd monitored period

The height of the jump of the athlete K.K. had a fluctuating course with a gradually increasing level and the highest value was achieved a week before the planned peak performance (fig. 5). The athlete E.J. achieved fluctuating changes of the height of the jump (fig. 5). The highest values are achieved during the week of planned peak performance. Both athletes achieved the lowest values during a period of general preparation as a result of fatigue from the training. Considering both athletes, we have observed a positive trend of gradual increasing of the height of the jump.

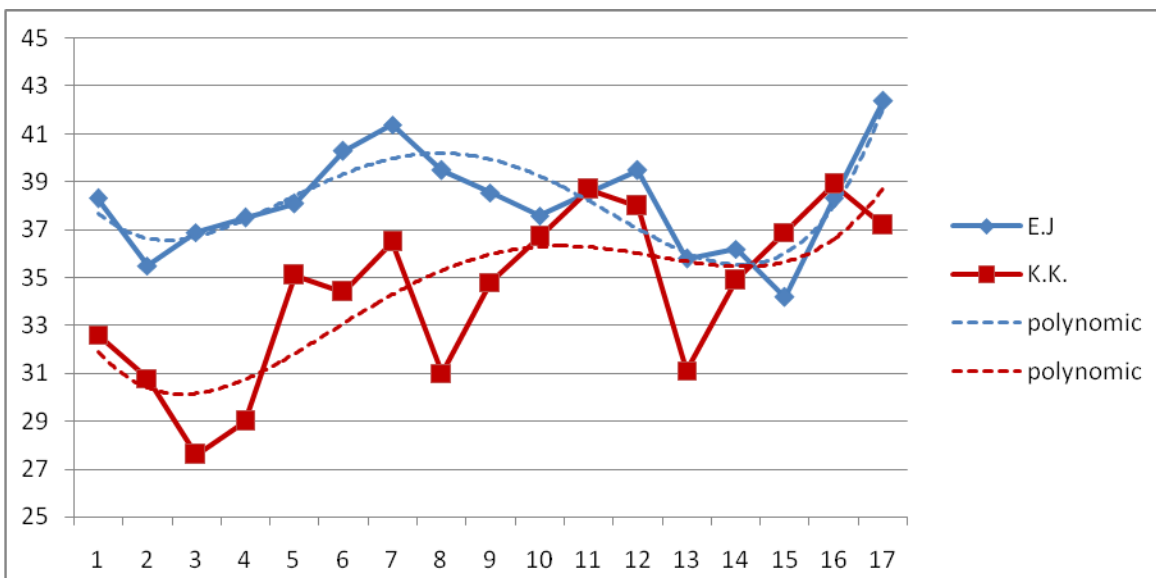


Fig. 5 Height of the jump – 2nd monitored period

Length of the take-off of the athlete K.K. was the lowest 2 weeks before the most important competition (fig. 6) and that is the correct trend. The contact time during the take-off significantly extended during the 6th week due to the influence of fatigue caused by general preparation but then decreasing occurs in a fluctuating course. The duration of the contact time of the athlete E.J. is

gradually reduced, the shortest time was achieved during the 3rd week of the period (fig. 6). Other course is fluctuating and the shortest time is achieved 2 weeks before the planned peak performance. Considering both athletes, the duration of the contact time is slightly shorter at the end of the period than at the beginning of the 2nd monitored period.

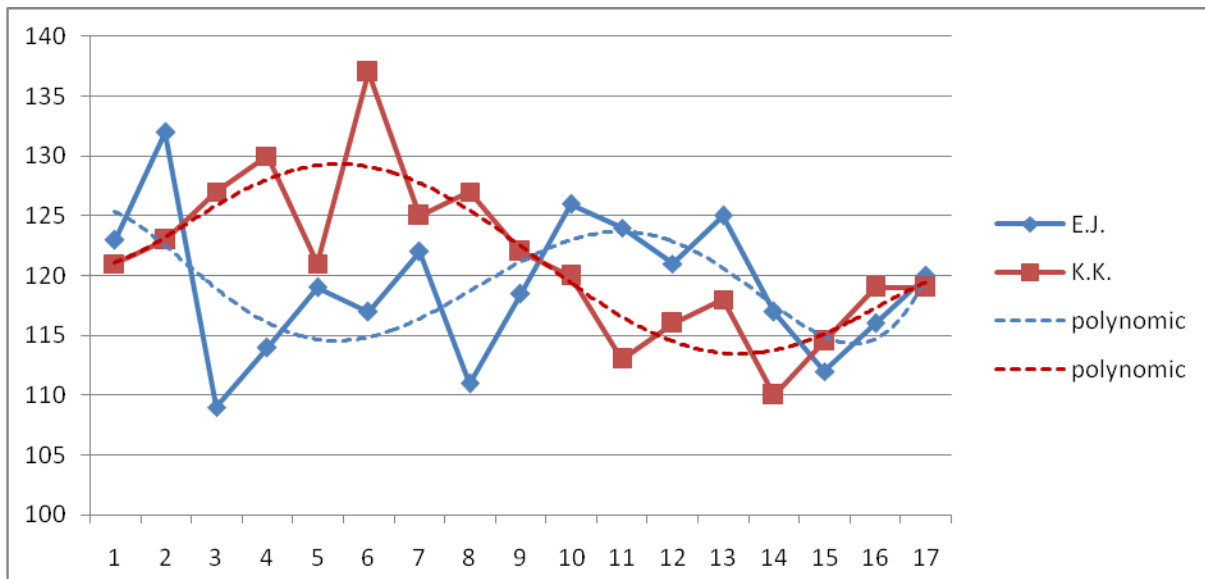


Fig. 6 Duration of the contact time - 2nd monitored period

Reactivity of the take-off of the athlete K.K. slightly increases with a fluctuating course and the highest value is achieved at the beginning of the competition period (fig. 7). Reactivity of the athlete E.J. has slightly increasing course (fig. 7). The changes are fluctuating but the highest values were achieved during the period of specific preparation and we have observed an increase at the end of the competition period. Considering both athletes, reactivity is higher at the end of the monitored period than at the beginning – about 10 %.

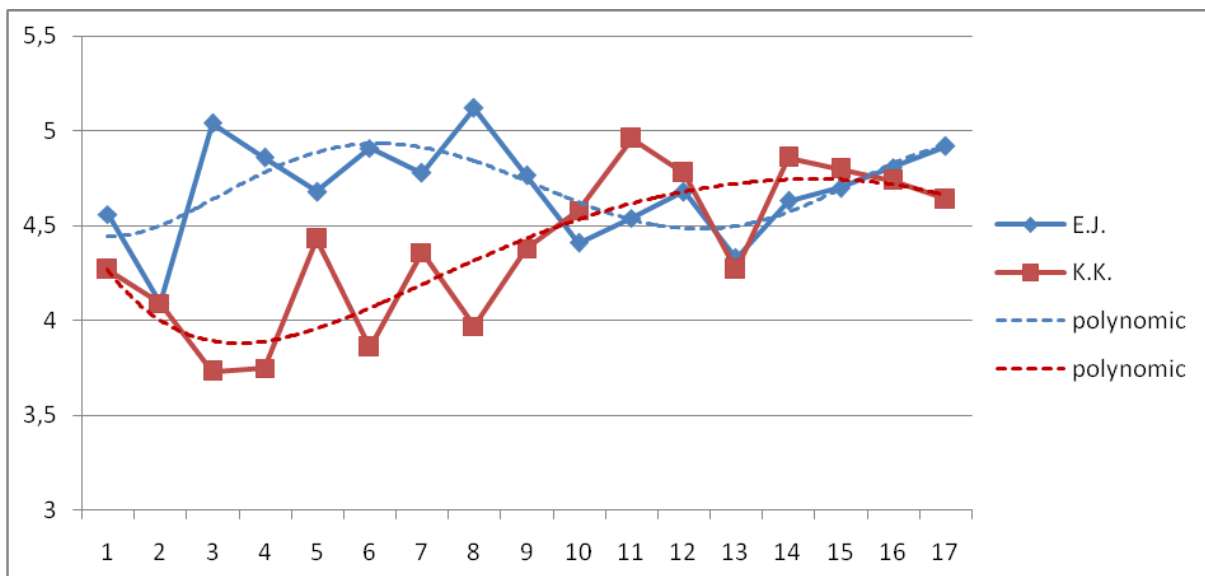


Fig. 7 Reactivity of the take-off – 2nd monitored period

Stiffness of the athlete K.K. gradually increases (fig. 8). The highest values are reached at the beginning of a competition period. A decrease was monitored at the end and values were lower than at the beginning of the period. Stiffness of the athlete E.J. has a fluctuating course and the highest values were recorded during the period of specific preparation (fig. 8). The values are higher at the end of the period than at the beginning.

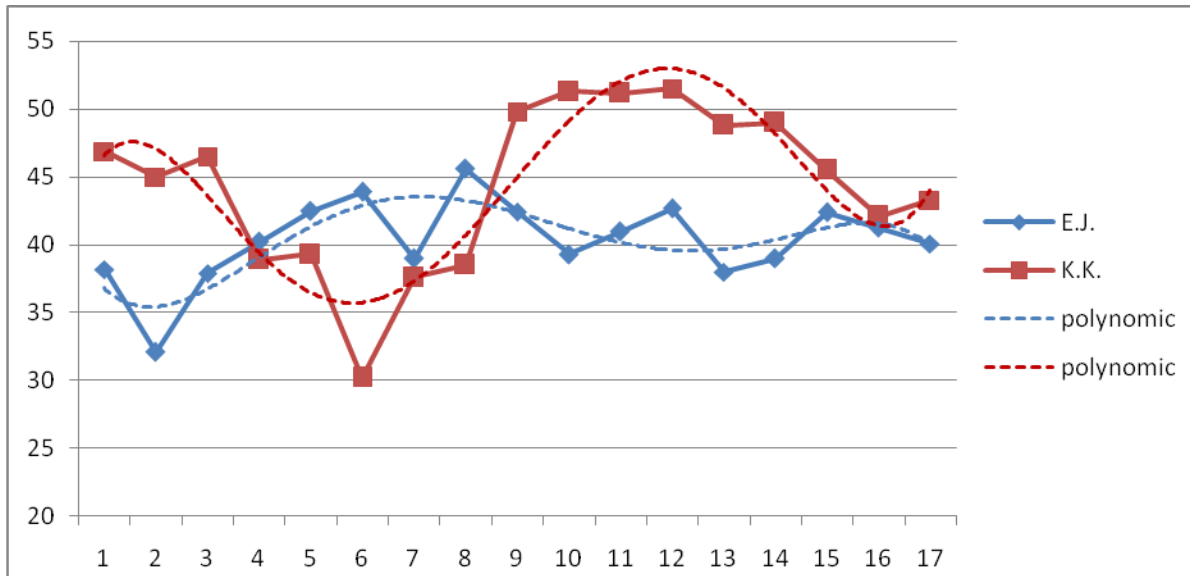


Fig. 8 Stiffness – 2nd monitored period

Discussion

The structure of an annual training cycle depends on several factors. One of the decisive factors is a calendar for competition dates. In the case of the planned second peak performance in the summer competition period is important to include the summer preparatory period as well. Its length depends on the time remaining into the peak season. Individual authors e.g. Suslov (2000); Ter-Ovanesjan (2000); have mentioned 3-5 weeks. Monitoring both athletes, we consider 4-5 weeks long summer preparatory period to be suitable and next 4 weeks focused on the planned peak performance at the end of the II. summer racing period. The athletes were 4 weeks without training in order to have active rest before the monitored period. Considering the age category and the performance of athletes, we consider this to be acceptable. Moreover, the athlete E.J. was longer time without the training due to the injury. Therefore, she was 9 weeks without training. Number of starts during the racing period was also suitable as the authors (e.g. Dovalil et al., 2002) mention 2-4 cumulative starts during the planned peak performance.

In the Slovak athletics the indoor competition period is mostly only the part of the preparatory for the summer competition period. Therefore, winter preparatory period is usually significantly longer than the indoor competition period. In such a case the proportion of general and specific preparation is in the benefit of the general preparation. The preparatory period of monitored competitors was 11 weeks long and the indoor competition period was 6 weeks long. The preparatory period consisted of 6 weeks long general preparation and 5 weeks long specific preparation. It also involved the Christmas period during which the training had been significantly limited for 2 weeks. Longer preparatory period and larger proportion of general preparation would be more suitable for this age category. The athletes took part in 5-6 competition during the competition period. Several authors (e.g. Čillík, 2004 and others) have considered this to be suitable and optimal number for achieving athletic shape and expressing of performance potential in technical disciplines.

Monitoring reactive strenght of the lower limbs is important for these athletes because this indicator is decisive for the long jump. It's appropriate considering the valuation statement, the time but also undemanding energy. So that during the regular testing there is neither significant disruption of training nor the exhaustion of the competitors, which could cause the restriction of the following training. Intensification of training and information about the current condition of

the athletes is positive. The problem was that we investigated only one of the indicators and not also e.g. the level of speed abilities.

Monitoring the effect of a training microcycle at the beginning of the following week is an established procedure. It should be emphasized that there is manifested not only training effect of the previous microcycle but also cumulative effect of training and competition load from the previous microcycles, respectively mezocycles. Therefore, we have observed temporary reduction of the level of individual indicators in the preparatory period, as well as the decisive ones which are a prerequisite for the following supercompensation wave. From this perspective it is important to monitor the changes of states not only in microcycles but also in longer period of time. Achieving the optimal training effect during the competition period is essential for the growth of sports shape, especially during the most important competition. The structure of training of the monitored athletes was in accordance with the generally accepted principles of the training loads, which resulted in a temporary reduction of monitored indicators and their subsequent increase. The course of cumulative training effect was very similar during the 1st monitored period as the monitored indicators improved to compare them to the original ones about 5-10 %. More significant improvement was achieved by the athlete K.K. in the indicator of stiffness, due to the efficient tuning before competition. The cumulative training effect showed up through the performance of the athletes during the competition at the end of monitored period when they achieved the results on the level of personal best. The athlete E.J. achieved her personal best in the long jump. The course was similar during the 2nd monitored period even though more significant interindividual differences occurred. The course is quite positive but not as clear as in the previous period. The cumulative training effect of the athletes showed up positively through their performance during the competition at the end of monitored period. The female competitors, comparing to the Representative of the Slovak Republic in short distance runs, achieved in the category 1-2 years younger more than average levels of height of the jump, comparable values of the duration of contact time, higher levels of reactivity of the take-off and stiffness (Čillík et al., 2013). Both female competitors reached, at the end of the monitored period in the long jump, the performances at the level of their personal best.

Conclusion

Considering both competitors, we observe a different response to training load. Overall, we conclude a favorable response to training load during the 1st monitored period for both athletes. We have recorded an adequate cumulative training effect at the time of planned peak performance – an improvement of indicators of reflective explosiveness about 5-10 % during the 1st monitored period. The athlete K.K. gradually improved in all of the monitored indicators of reactive strenght. The immediate effect of a pre-competition microcycle and the cumulative training effect of the preparatory and competition period brought the best values during the last week. This was expressed particularly in the athlete by stiffness. The cumulative training effect of the athlete E.J. positively showed up through an increasing of the performance during the last 3 weeks. This focus showed to be correct when considering her participation in the Slovak Championship in multi-event disciplines – 2 weeks before the end of the monitored period.

2nd monitored period did not produce such a clear improvement of the monitored indicators. The course is generally positive but not as clear as during the previous period. Only the height of the jump and reactivity of the take-off improved about 5 - 10 %. Shortening of the contact time was only minimal and only the athlete K.K. achieved an increasing of muscle stiffness. Considering both athletes, the missed training during the Christmas season reflected negatively. Therefore, the compactness of the preparation was disrupted. Ultimately it has brought less significant cumulative effect in the reflective expressiveness and long jump during the competition than during the 1st monitored period.

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The Role, Methodological Basis and the Subject of Cultural Studies in the Globalized World

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Abstract

The article entitled *The Role, Methodological Basis and the Subject of Cultural Studies in the Globalized World* analyses the essentials of the academic subject of Cultural Studies in the Globalized World. The article analyses reasons why acquiring culture is equally important to becoming linguistically competent for any language user (a regular user of language as well as professional translator and interpreter). The author provides evidence from various areas of linguistics where cultural background of a linguistic phenomenon is as relevant as its translation. Finally, the author provides a synthesis of several current definitions of the notion “cultural studies”.

Keywords: Globalized World, Methodological Basis, Subject of Cultural Studies.

Introduction: The Role of Cultural Studies

The process of learning and teaching language inherently implies acquiring and sharing culture as well. Many professional scholars as well as language learners understand it is impossible to learn a foreign language without acquiring the culture it embraces. Even by teaching the first words and the simplest conversational patterns, teachers perpetuate different cultural concepts and modes of behaviour. For example, the basic concept *lunch* has a very different meaning in Slovakia (where it usually means a two-dish meal, served at a table), in Britain (where it could refer to a bag of vinegar-flavoured crisps) and in the USA (where it often means a quick stop at a fastfood restaurant). A response to the question *How are you?* also differs from country to country. In some countries, the only socially acceptable answer is simple and pre-formatted (*I'm fine*); in others it is almost impolite not to go into great length, and not to mention individual members of one's family, their medical condition, job and social life. Thus, proper functioning in the new culture might be even more important than mere mastering the linguistic rules of a foreign language.

Needless to say, such social competencies expand regular day-to-day informal situations. In business, closing a contract often depends on prompt, properly formulated and culturally sensitive reactions to various proposals. Interpreters also greatly profit from cultural awareness; they often function not only as transmitters of the discourse but also as cultural “bridges”, merging two or more different cultures. For example, the direct and brief answer “no” may in some cultures sound impolite and disrespectful. It is the interpreter's task to re-formulate it into a socially more palatable style and form of response.

Competent users of a foreign language do not only function *linguagewise* but, more importantly, can cross cultures on a *culturewise level* (Zelenka, 31; Zelenková, 2008). By what means, however, culture should be taught – that is a question that has been attracting scholars for decades.

Therefore, a competent language speaker has to be both “linguagewise” and “culturewise” in order to understand the multiple forms of use of a foreign language in various unrehearsed situations and to be able to react spontaneously yet appropriately. Therefore some scholars speak about “the art of crossing cultures.” Whether culture can be taught is an unresolved question. Some believe acquiring a new culture is a life-long process; however, selected cultural maxims can be transmitted to professional linguists in cultural studies courses. In this article I would like to

explore the philosophical essence of cultural studies and to analyse cultural studies in the context of its role and legacy.

1.1 The Notional Context and Methodological Basis of Cultural Studies: What is a culture?

Etymologically, the word “culture” comes from Latin word *to cultivate*, meaning improvement and enrichment*. Cicero, a Roman philosopher, political theorist and orator, is believed the first who used the phrase “cultivation of the soul” (*cultura animi*) in his *Tusculanae Disputationes* (45 BC) in the metaphorical sense of the word. In modern times, the Cicero’s original use of the term “culture” has been extended to “all the ways in which human beings overcome their original barbarism, and through artifice, become fully human.” Nowadays, the term “culture” encompasses the teachings of many theorists and philosophers (e.g. Jean Jacques Rousseau and Emanuel Kant). In common speech “culture” usually refers to (1) identity (e.g. of a region, group of people, nation) or (2) cultivation of the original, authentic “self”.†

Culture, however, is also a subject of professional research for many disciplines such as anthropology (the study of mankind, its origins, development and customs), ethnology, (the study of different human races), sociology, political sciences and many others.

Modern definitions of “culture” are vast. Some scholars recognize over 200 definitions of the term “culture”. Let us explore three of these—a linguistic (dictionary) one, a sociologic and a political definition:

1. Linguistic (dictionary) definition: A. S. Hornby (1989): “Culture [means]:

- 1 ...a refined understanding and appreciation of art, literature, etc. (for example: a university should be the centre of the *culture*).
- 1 ...the state of intellectual development of a society (for example: the mass culture, the 20th-century culture).
- 1 ...a particular form of intellectual expression, e.g. in arts and literature (for example: the Greek culture).
- 1 ...the customs, arts, social institutions, etc. of a particular group of people (for example: the Eskimo culture)[‡].

2. Sociologic (anthropologic) definition: R. Murphy (1986): “Culture means the total body of tradition borne by a society and transmitted from generation to generation. It thus refers to the norms, values, and standards by which people act, and it includes the ways distinctive in each society of ordering the worlds and rendering it intelligible. Culture is [...] a set of mechanisms for survival, but it provides us also with a definition of reality. It is the matrix into which we are born, it is the anvil upon which our persons and destinies are forged.”§

3. Political definition: The official UNESCO definition (2002): “...culture should be regarded as the set of distinctive, material, intellectual and emotional features of society or a social group, and that it encompasses, in addition to art and literature, ways of living together, value systems, traditions and beliefs.”**

All these definitions, the linguistic, sociological and the political one, each broaden the core of the term “culture” from their own perspective. Thus, studying culture from a political perspective (focused on fundamental documents, institutions and mechanisms of the examined society) inevitably differs from studying the same culture from the perspective of literature, education or the fine arts.

* Barker, p. 96.

† Based on: Barker, pp. 96-97.

‡ Hornby, p. 291.

§ Murphy, p. 14.

** UNESCO DEFINITION OF CULTURE, p. 1.

Not only the focus of attention of cultural studies but also the method of acquiring cultural information differs from other academic subjects. According to M. Byram, the study and acquisition of culture includes information gathered consciously (by learning, practicing), but also subconsciously (by experience, imitating).^{*} Byram writes, “[Mastering culture] reaches from the commonest greetings through conversational rules of turn-taking and general politeness to non-verbal behaviour and is as significant for successful communication as the native speakers’ conscious knowledge (historical, geographical, sociological, etc.) about their society along with linguistic knowledge.” (Ibid.).

What is more, some scholars point out that culture is not an “invariant and static entity made up of accumulated, observable, thus eminently teachable and learnable facts but a variable entity, changing with times and new social phenomena”[†]. As a result, cultural studies differs from all other academic disciplines: its subject of research is interdisciplinary and modified by the purpose of the study; unlike other disciplines, cultural studies examines both conscious and unconscious cultural knowledge of the target country and its inhabitants, and the focus of research is changeable and needs perpetual upgrading.

1.2 The Legacy of Cultural Studies: Why do linguists and philologists study culture?

Studying foreign languages inherently incorporates the study of culture of the respective language. In this observation we rely on the research of M. Byram, who observes that language has no function independent of the context in which it is used, and thus always refers to something beyond itself: the cultural context.^{*} Slovak scholars Otrísalová and Gazdík also observe that “translations are not made in a vacuum but arise in a given culture at a given time.”[§] Here are some examples:

- **Historical and geographical cultural context:** The lexica of many languages contain words that have rich and interesting historical backgrounds. Many of these words were originally borrowed from other languages and, therefore, often lack a Slovak (or European language) equivalent. For example, the first settlers in America borrowed many Indian words (mostly referring to regional flora, fauna and the way of life in America) which completely lacked any equivalent in Slovak (or any other European language). Instead of being translated, the original word has been used up to the present. For example: *catalpa* (a Catawba Indian word for a specific plant^{**}) is referred to in Slovak as *katalpaobyčejná*. Mere translation thus does not help to understand the meaning of the word; we need to learn more about American flora to know its shape, colour or flavour and use.

- **Linguistic-cultural context** (grammatical, phonetic, morphological etc.): As the English language “travelled” across oceans to America, Australia, Africa and many other regions of the world, many grammatical, phonetic, morphological and other types of changes occurred. For example, the pronunciation of the final “r” sound in the word “car” depends on the region where the word is used. Morphological and lexical changes also occurred, both internationally and nationally. For example, in most of the USA you stand *in the line* but in New York you stand *on the line*.

- **Social-cultural context:** mastering a foreign language means more than mastering its linguistic rules. As I. Zelenka and A. Zelenková^{††} note, it is equally important to master the “culturewise” (i.e. cultural) level of the language. That incorporates many verbal and non-verbal

^{*} Byram, p. 48.

[†] Moore, p. 1.

[‡] Byram, 1988, p. 1.

[§] Otrísalová-Gazdík, 2012, p. 116.

^{**} Cothran, p. 171.

^{††} Zelenka, p. 31.; Zelenková, 2009.

elements (including proximity, gestures and movements, facial expressions and many others), social skills, codes and taboos, for example:

- proximity: how close people stand to each other,
- how loudly or softly someone speaks;
- when to and when not to make eye contact;
- socially acceptable and unacceptable topics for formal/informal situations;
- formulations of excuses, how to respond to feedback;
- how directly or indirectly one may ask for help or clarification of instructions, how to treat people of a different gender, sexual orientation, race, culture or age;
- how to say no;
- in what manner (tone, pitch, style) to criticize or praise other people's performance and many others;
- when to be casual and when to be formal;
- how to interpret the meaning of others' behaviour.*

Mastering non-verbal communication is also essential for successful use of a foreign language. R. M. Paige introduces the term "cultural effectiveness" referring to one's ability to function in the foreign culture. That is the major aim of students of cultural studies. †

1.3 Conclusion: What is cultural studies? What is American studies?

Paige and Jorstad define culture learning as "the process of acquiring the culture-specific and culture-general knowledge, skills, and attitudes required for effective communication and interaction with individuals from other cultures. It is a dynamic, developmental, and ongoing process which engages the learner cognitively, behaviourally, and affectively."[‡]

Cultural studies (in Europe also known as "realia courses" and country studies) is an interdisciplinary subject that integrates information from many fields of research, such as sociology, politics, economics, geography, history, and the arts, as well as literature, philosophy, law, photography, gender studies and many others.

In 1994, M. Byram formulated so-called *Minimal Content*, i.e. the minimal scope of culture-based information and data that would provide the learner with the minimum necessary extent of data needed to successfully function in a new culture. These are:

- a) social identity, social groups (age, sex, class, region, profession);
- b) social interaction (verbal and non-verbal behaviour, familiarity);
- c) faith and behaviour (routine, natural group behaviour, moral and religious faiths);
- d) social and political institutions (state institutions and their values, law, health care);
- e) social and public life (family, schools, professions, religion, military service);
- f) national history (including present and historical events that are regarded as important by the members of the society);
- g) national geography;
- h) national cultural heritage;
- i) stereotypes and national identity (roots for stereotypes, their comparison).

American studies is thus an intercultural discipline that explores many fields of the American political, social, cultural and daily life. American studies does have its own terminology (e.g. the term *Americanization*); however, it also borrows some terminology and research methods from other disciplines such as law, economics, political sciences, arts, and many others.

French Americanist Marc Chenetier, however, warns against merely accumulating data from various fields; instead he advocates the internalization of cultural studies and the necessity of a

* Adopted from: Gardenswartz – Rowe, 1990.

† Paige, p. 171.

‡ Paige–Jorstad, p. 1.

comparative approach.* We in accordance with notable Slovak and international scholars[†] also understand cultural studies as an interdisciplinary and comparative discipline, exploring a broad scope of USA-related data such as main historical and political events, the structure and functioning of fundamental institutions and organizations, the significance of major American documents, artistic, literary and technological achievements, nationally recognized holidays, famous American people in history and many other areas. Understanding these concepts will help the students to better and more competently use the English language in practical use as well as in translating. Furthermore, through this wide spectrum of related information, language learners will develop the ability to become linguistically competent but, what is more, they train their ability to become culturally competent and to be able to “cross cultures. Finally, teaching culture as an integrated part of language acquisition will help learners to acquire better understanding of the world culture.

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The “Three Presidents’ Declaration” as a Project for Post-Conflict Peace-Building in the Southern Caucasus

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Abstract. This article examines issues relating to the present-day geo-policy of the Southern Caucasus and the process of emergence of new unrecognized states: Abkhazia, South Ossetia, and Nagorno-Karabakh. The author defines the role of Russia in the process of settling the Nagorno-Karabakh conflict and providing assistance to Abkhazia and South Ossetia in terms of gaining recognition as independent states. The article also outlines the major dimensions to resolving political conflicts, set out in the Meindorf Declaration.

Keywords: Five-Day War, Russia, Abkhazia, South Ossetia, Nagorno-Karabakh, Meindorf Declaration.

Introduction.

The new situation that emerged in the Southern Caucasus after the August 2008 Five-Day War created both potential opportunities and prospects and new threats and challenges in respect of regional security and stable development. Generally, this kind of crisis situations, military conflicts, and force majeure circumstances always up the ante in the regional political game, where the degree of possible losses and gains for the parties involved rises substantially. Incidentally, the overall configuration and geo-political distribution of internal and external factors in the region pretty much reminds one of the situation in the Southern Caucasus in the early 1990s.

The situation around settling the Karabakh conflict proved no exception either. After the Five-Day War, the situation in the zone of the Karabakh conflict in many respects demonstrated a novel dynamics; along with that, with the common interests and priorities of the main and interested parties being preserved, it came to symbolize a general shift in the regional background around Nagorno-Karabakh and the development of the talk process and other concomitant factors.

It is quite likely that a situation is emerging in the midterm geopolitical perspective in the Southern Caucasus, when Georgia, weakened after its military defeat, will attempt (and, apparently, not without success) to garner yet greater political and economic support from the West, Azerbaijan will be in a state of a sort of dismay, projecting the results of the August warfare on the Karabakh conflict, fearing a real threat to the country's oil communications, and reviving the realness of the “Russian threat”, while Armenia will try to find its own place in the new situation, attempting to get something out of regional political processes.

On the other hand, there has been a situational boost in the role of Russia in the region, which rather has been in a state of a sort of euphoria for the time being. Furthermore, in the short- and mid-term perspective Russia has shored up its position and presence in the Southern Caucasus – suffice it to take account of the outcomes of its war against Georgia, the recognition of the independence of Abkhazia and South Ossetia by the Kremlin, and the open dislocation of Russian military bases in these once Georgian autonomies. Nonetheless, in the long-term perspective the deterioration of relations with the West and creation (or restoration) of a new aggressive image of Moscow in Western political consciousness are likely to lead to new serious problems in implementing Russian policy in the Southern Caucasus.

There was a consistent role of the EU in the August crisis around South Ossetia as well: Brussels is trying to occupy its own niche in regional politics and is seeking out novel formats for institutionalizing its presence in the Southern Caucasus. In point of fact, the deployment of

European observers in buffer zones around the borders of South Ossetia and Abkhazia was the European Union's first serious initiative in terms of projecting its political and partially military potential in effecting its peace-keeping operations beyond its own pale and with no direct support from NATO or the US for that matter. Although, surely, the coordination of the positions of the European Union on the Southern Caucasus with those of the North Atlantic Alliance and the US is effected under a very tight regimen.

Despite the West's deepening anti-Russian rhetoric, there is a precipitous drop in the likelihood of Georgia joining NATO real soon. In spite of all the optimistic statements by Georgian officials and quite successful for Tbilisi outcomes of the international donors' conference on providing war-torn Georgia with financial aid, held in October 2008 under the aegis of the EU, it is apparent that a number of key Western European members of the North Atlantic Alliance are clearly against Georgia joining NATO in a fast-track manner.

Amid the changed circumstances, Turkey is also trying to play its geopolitical game, having brought forward a novel initiative concerning the stabilization of the Southern Caucasus situation. Although politologists have been somewhat pessimistic over the prospects and feasibility of the regional initiative proposed by Ankara, this might be one of those frequent cases in politics when the political process itself gets more important than its forecasted results.

In this light, it is not yet clear how much the role of the United States has changed in respect of the region: are we dealing with a situational drop in the weight of the US subsequent to the events in Georgia, or will things go back to the way they were, or will what happened become the beginning of more profound processes that will cause a shift in the Southern Caucasus's standing in American policy? In any case, experts are unanimous in believing that a "riposte" by Washington will take place in the Southern Caucasus under Barack Obama already. Nonetheless, whether the US will become more active in the Southern Caucasus or whether a change of common political priorities will diminish the significance of this region in Washington's plans will depend not so much on the actions of new faces in the Democrat administration but rather on global financial, economic, and political developments across the world. Still, it is not likely that among multiple live global issues the Southern Caucasus is going to become a major issue on the American agenda in the light of the global economic crisis, the country's own economic problems, and B. Obama's promises to launch thorough changes inside the US itself.

One of the most important outcomes of the August conflict was a substantial boost in the appraisal of Georgia's risks as a transit-communications country, an energy and transport corridor especially due to the precedent set by the subsequent invasion of the territory of Georgia by Russian troops, seizing and establishing of control over strategically crucial, communications-wise, Georgian localities, such as Poti, Gori, Senaki, and Hashuri. There was irretrievable damage done to the image of Georgia, the region's "beacon of democracy" and, in general, a decent and predictable country with an efficient system of governance in place.

With different intervals of time during and after the warfare in the conflict zone, virtually all large-scale international energy and communications projects going through Georgia's territory ceased to operate. To a standstill was brought the operation of the Baku-Tbilisi-Ceyhan and Baku-Supsa oil pipelines and the Baku-Tbilisi-Erzurum natural gas pipeline; no oil was transported over the Baku-Batumi rail route; the construction of the Kars-Akhalkalaki railway was suspended indefinitely. Kazakhstan elected to opt out of building a large oil refinery in the Batumi area. As a consequence, as of August, 2008, the State Oil Company of the Republic of Azerbaijan (SOCAR) was able to use none of the transportation routes and, in point of fact, exported no oil overseas during that month. In August, 2008, the Azerbaijan International Operating Company (AIOC), in turn, had to exclusively use the Baku-Novorossiysk pipeline and reorient its oil streams onto the Russian route [1].

The situation around Georgia and the downtime of the Caspian oil and natural gas pipelines running through the country also had a substantial toll on the overall financial-economic situation

in Azerbaijan [2]. Considering Baku's major dependence on oil and gas exports, the August events not only had a negative effect in terms of meeting the 2008 state budget but caused substantial corrections to be made in forming the country's budget for the next year.

Among the major political consequences for the actual participants in the warfare – Georgia, Abkhazia, South Ossetia, and Russia – one should stress the total liquidation of Georgian-populated enclaves in South Ossetia (Tamarasheni, Kekhvi, Eredvi), deportation of the local Georgian population, and establishment of Tskhinval's control over the entire former South Ossetian Autonomous Oblast, including Akhlagori Municipality (formerly known as Leningor District), which since 1992 had virtually been under the control of the Georgian administration [3].

In Abkhazia, the major outcome of the swift-passing warfare was the establishment of complete control of the Abkhaz authorities over the territory of the entire former Abkhaz Autonomous Republic following the seizure of the Kodori Valley (so-called Upper Abkhazia) by Abkhaz troops with the support of the Russian army.

Thus, having achieved factual ethnic uniformity, South Ossetia (even amid total Russian political control) has currently turned into a real ethno-political factor in the Southern Caucasus region, having considerably shored up the parameters of its physical security. Abkhazia, in turn, having gained control over the Kodori Valley, has resolved the issues of its independent economic and political development for the long run.

It is quite natural that the “factual ethnic division” situation which has formed in South Ossetia will create in the foreseeable future serious obstacles in the way of the Georgian side's efforts to ensure a development of events in South Ossetia that would suit Tbilisi and Abkhazia too for that matter. It is possible that after a certain recovery period Tbilisi will again try to revive the “alternative governments of Abkhazia and South Ossetia in exile” projects – however, now they will indeed be in exile, i.e. beyond the pale of all the former administrative borders of these former Georgian autonomies.

Another important outcome of the new geopolitical situation, even regional status-quo rather, was the shift in the overall political and psychological background around the Karabakh conflict. A considerable correction was also undergone by the perception of future processes around Karabakh peace-building among the political elites and societies of the conflicting sides. Above all, this was indicated by a considerable drop in the likelihood of military action in Karabakh on the part of Azerbaijan and the realization of this fact by the country's political elite. This was especially influenced by the projection by Azerbaijani politicians and experts of the military operation aimed at regaining South Ossetia as unsuccessful for Georgia as the parent state.

Of course, initially on August 8, 2008, many in Azerbaijan took with satisfaction the news of the commencement of the siege of Tskhinval by the Georgian army, perceiving it as a logical example for carrying out a similar operation in Nagorno-Karabakh. In fact, we must acknowledge that one of the most significant elements of Azerbaijan's so-called “Karabakh strategy” had long been its open and public threat to resume warfare in the conflict zone. Its power blackmail was both reflected in statements by different-level Azerbaijani government officials and political figures and prevailed in the sentiment of the majority of the Azerbaijani political elite and general public. Additional argumentation of Azerbaijan's said policy in the eyes of its leadership and political elite also came from indefinitely high expectations over the role of the oil factor and the desire to impose on Armenia and Nagorno-Karabakh an economically emaciating arms race “spiral”.

Therefore, it is quite natural that in Azerbaijan's information-propaganda field this sentiment reached each acme specifically on August 8-9, 2008, when the entire Azerbaijani information field was filled with reports and commentaries by Baku experts, politologists, and even official representatives of the Azerbaijani Ministry of Internal Affairs, who eagerly backed the actions of the Georgian leadership, spoke of Moscow's inability to do anything against steps taken by M. Saakashvili, and constantly drew analogies with the same kind of operation by Azerbaijan aimed at

getting Karabakh back “now coming soon” [4]. And then in the following days things suddenly got quiet ...

For, virtually, the whole two weeks, approximately starting from the second half of August 8, when it conclusively became clear that Russia had but already engaged in warfare, none of Azerbaijani top government officials made any statements or commentaries concerning the warfare in Georgia. And even experts and politologists kept silent or just limited themselves to general words in their commentaries on the situation in the region subsequent to the shocking conclusion of the Five-Day War.

The August “blitzkrieg the other way round” and an unexpectedly quick defeat of the Georgian army, which again had undertaken to get back by force the breakaway mutinous autonomy, South Ossetia (and, apparently, Abkhazia next), produced quite a clear and predictable impression in Baku. The analogies Azerbaijan’s political elite had in mind were more than mirrored. The apparency of Georgia’s entire loss in the mid-term perspective of even a hope of restoring its jurisdiction over Sukhumi and Tskhinval, the juridical recognition of the independence of these former Soviet autonomies by even if just one influential actor, multiple casualties in and the virtual demoralization of the Georgian army, the threat of loss of power in the country by M. Saakashvili’s team – all these considerations were hardly a desirable prospect for the government of Ilham Aliyev should warfare resume in the Karabakh conflict zone.

They must have also managed to assess on time that the continuation of power blackmail in respect of Armenia and Nagorno-Karabakh could lead to really dire consequences for Azerbaijan itself should warfare resume. This resulted in a radical change of the rhetoric of statements by Azerbaijani leaders concerning the prospects of the Karabakh conflict, which started in late August, 2008 – there appeared a sort of “constructiveness” and a mention of the need for the sides to continue the peace talks process, there disappeared mandatory mentions of a quick and inevitable restoration of “constitutional order” by Azerbaijan in Karabakh at all costs, etc.

Yet, we should add to all this a precipitous worsening over the period of September-October, 2008, of the anti-West sentiment on the part of the Azerbaijani elite and the further deepening of the process of the country’s islamization, which had been conspicuous for a long time already, as well as a surge of pro-Russian orientation among a part of Azerbaijan’s public. But these are rather the costs or, more truly, outcomes of carrying into effect “Azerbaijani complementarism” – for it is much more pleasant and safer to be friends with Russia, which won (even if quite unexpectedly) a regional war than keep going against it in the Southern Caucasus in tandem with the US and European states, which have not yet recovered after the August events. And this was vividly demonstrated by the outcomes of the early September 2008 blitz-visit to Baku by the US Vice-President D. Cheney, which proved unsuccessful for the American side [5].

This argument was to yet a greater extent substantiated by Ilham Aliyev’s subsequent signature under the text of the “Three Presidents’ Declaration” signed on November 2, 2008, through the intermediary of Moscow and virtually implying official Baku’s declarative refusal from attempts to resolve the Karabakh conflict militarily.

Yet, this shift in Azerbaijan’s political orientation might have been triggered not only by the realization of the Russian threat. In new conditions, Baku finds itself in a patently disadvantageous position as the initiator of resuming warfare in Karabakh. Politicians and experts engaged in exploring issues related to the regional policy and security of the Southern Caucasus have already long been clearly realizing that Armenia under any external circumstances will always be more “pro-West” than Azerbaijan and at the same time perceived by Moscow as the closer regional partner and ally than Azerbaijan. Thus, under any geopolitical lay of the land, the hypothetical commencement of a military operation against Karabakh and Armenia will be taken with greater displeasure in the West than Georgia’s attempt in South Ossetia, and Azerbaijan will not be able to garner Moscow’s support in the struggle against Russia’s military-political Southern-Caucasus ally and a CSTO (the Collective Security Treaty Organization) member. Moreover, Baku will by no

means be able to present the situation in the conflict zone to the West as a direct clash between “pro-Russia” Armenia and “pro-West” Azerbaijan. The political perception of Nagorno-Karabakh existing in the West is absolutely different from the West’s perception of Abkhazia and all the more so South Ossetia amid the absence in the zone of any peace-keepers or troops from third countries, the fact that the US Congress annually provides Stepanakert with direct financial aid, active contacts between the Karabakh authorities and public and various European institutions and establishments, etc.

Following the warfare in South Ossetia, there was a considerable boost in intra-political risks for Azerbaijan in case of initiating a war in Karabakh. Losing in a new war will mean for Azerbaijan the effective loss of Karabakh. Baku’s new defeat in the war for Karabakh could result in the fall of the ruling regime of the Alievs, the replacement of Azerbaijan’s entire present-day political elite, the destruction of the oil-and-gas and communications sectors, and possibly other losses.

Based on the outcomes of the August 2008 Five-Day War, to Moscow Abkhazia and South Ossetia turned into a sort of “continuation” of the Northern Caucasus and, therefore, a part of the Southern Caucasus Russia has access to is, in point of fact, limited to Armenia and Azerbaijan. To be able to administer an active policy in the region, Moscow can now use only its sway over Yerevan and Baku, and just in the framework of issues “common” to these conflicting sides at that. Perhaps, it is on account of realizing this fact and, concurrently, in an attempt to keep Georgia out of the common political processes in the Southern Caucasus (particularly, in the context of Turkey’s regional initiative coordinated with Moscow) that the Russian leadership activated the process of Karabakh peace-building in the fall of 2008.

Moscow’s technological and initially these initiatives were almost a mirrored reflection of the previous settlement attempts by Washington and Brussels. However, in the fall of 2008 it was now not the Western initiative that was met with counteraction on the part of Russia – the West was doing all it could to impede Moscow’s efforts to push through some kind of an agreement whereby the role of peacekeepers dividing the Azerbaijani, Armenian, and Karabakh sides would be performed by Russian troops.

However, the primary aim of the Kremlin’s “Karabakh initiative” seems to still have been disowning in the eyes of the West the negative political-psychological consequences of the August war with Georgia and Moscow’s recognition of the independence of South Ossetia and Abkhazia. That is, by getting active in Karabakh peace-building the Kremlin pursued, in reality, quite a pragmatic, if a bit limited, goal – creating in the mind of the West and global information-propaganda space some sort of a semblance of “constructive” actions by Russia, capable of not just waging and winning wars against “small countries” over the post-Soviet space (like in August, 2008, against Georgia) but of settling, and, above all, controlling, regional ethno-political conflicts, the Karabakh and Transnistrian ones serving as an example. It was the Meiendorf Declaration signed in Moscow Oblast on November 2, 2008, by the presidents of Armenia, Azerbaijan, and Russia that all this resulted in.

Conclusion.

Such are the major parameters in the development of political processes from the standpoint of the primary global centers of power in the Southern Caucasus subsequent to the August war between Russia and Georgia. One can believe that after the Five-Day War the dynamics of processes around Karabakh remains the same, but the regional background and political components around the parties involved in the conflict have somewhat changed. Political preconditions for resuming warfare in the Karabakh conflict zone have also depreciated and, consequently, common military risks in the South Caucasus region have declined.

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Sustainable Development of Sochi as a World-Class Tourist Destination

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Abstract. Following the 2014 Winter Olympics in Sochi, our top-priority objective aimed toward sustainable development of this resort city is turning Sochi into a center of international tourism, capable of presenting to the global market of tourist services an integrated competitive tourism product.

The article examines the major dimensions to developing the city in present-day conditions based on research conducted at the Sochi State University over the period of preparing and staging the 2014 Olympics.

Keywords: tourism, seasonality, accommodation, Sochi, resort city

Introduction.

The Greater Sochi resort-tourism complex is the leading city- and budget-forming type of activity in the resort city's economy and social sphere. Currently, there are 23.4 thousand people engaged in the tourism industry of Greater Sochi (during the summer resort season – up to 26.5 thousand); but if we take into account the employment level in the industries which are partners with the city's resort-tourism complex, this figure increases to 90 thousand people. The number of tourists to have visited the city in 2006 was 2.7 million; in 2010, Sochi received for leisure and treatment 3.3 million tourists, and in 2011-2013 about 4 million (inclusive of Krasnaya Polyana – 4.5 million people). A third of those were staying in Sochi on vouchers; almost as many were unaffiliated tourists, while the rest were either one-off visitors or construction workers involved with Olympic sites. As of March 2014, the number of tourists to have visited Sochi during the period the Olympics were staged (February 7 through February 23) was 1.4 million people.

Materials and Methods.

This work's methodological basis is the dialectical method. It also employs general scientific methods, such as systemic and comparative analysis, observation, and comparison.

Discussion.

Our current top priority is turning Sochi into a center of international tourism, capable of presenting to the global market of tourist services an integrated competitive tourism product [G.M. Romanova, G.D. Nubaryan, 2010].

According to data from the Ministry of the Economic Development and Trade of Stavropol Krai (MEDTS), based on an optimistic variant, the average annual increase in tourist flows to Sochi will be 11%, while starting from 2015 tourist flows to Sochi will stabilize at 6 million people per year. The existing estimates of the marginal capacity of Krasnaya Polyana are based on a one-time anthropogenic load of no more than 30 thousand people, including the local population (4 thousand people). If we take the minimum estimate of 250 thousand people and consider that not all of them will go to Krasnaya Polyana, we get a multifold increase in the marginal rate of anthropogenic load in the period of staging the 22nd Olympics-2014.

An increase in tourists' expenditures by 2015 (by 50% compared with 2005 as forecasted by the MEDTS) brings about the need to carry out goal-oriented work toward developing the leisure industry, streamlining the distribution of investment in the sphere, and putting together a system of enterprises engaged in providing additional service and leisure activities for tourists.

All tourists staying within the littoral zone consider beach tourism the primary purpose of their trip. That said, a considerable number of tourists have several purposes for their trip, including treatment – 14% (Figure 1). The balneotherapy association “Matsesta” has 924 baths with an annual throughput of about 3 million hydrotherapeutic procedures. In addition to “Matsesta”’s own waters, Sochi possesses reserves of table mineral waters such as “Narzan” and “Borzhomi”. With its hydro-mineral resources, the subregion has the potential to provide up to 500 thousand people at a time with balneological therapy, which is almost 4 million people in the cold period.

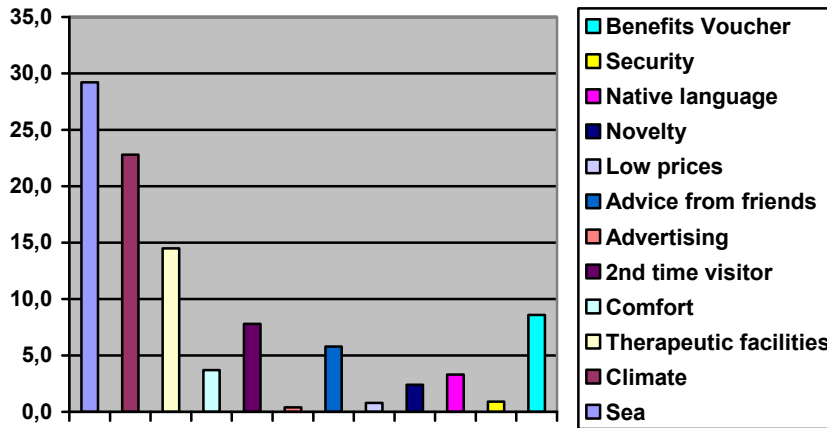


Figure 1. Factors behind one’s decision to come to Sochi (%)

Among the positive factors behind the tourism demand of those who come to Sochi for leisure, the top position is held by the city’s unique natural-climatic conditions and the opportunity to get relatively inexpensive treatment. As a positive factor in choice, “Matsesta” drew 0.7% of responses, Krasnaya Polyana – 0.9%; overall, Sochi’s natural-climatic conditions were specified in 81.1% of responses.

The fact that Sochi’s unique natural-climatic conditions and the opportunity to get relatively inexpensive treatment lead the table of positive factors behind tourism demand has been substantiated in a number of studies conducted in recent years [2] (Table 1).

Table 1. A comparison of the costs of a tour’s program

Position by popularity	Resort	Air travel + rail travel, round trip*	Spa Accommodation 3*	Visa, ruble to euro exchange rate - 41 rubles per euro	TOTAL
1.	Karlovy Vary (Czech Republic)	18561	2644*7=18508	2460	39529
2.	Baden-Baden (Germany)	12494	2806*7=19642	2460	34596
3.	Nice (France)	19213	6468*7=45276	2460	66949
4.	Biarritz (France)	23478	6224*7=43568	2460	69506
5.	Netanya (Israel)	11830	3282*7=22974	950	35754
6.	Eilat (Israel)	12314	3906*7=27342	950	40606
7.	Sochi (Russia)	9599	2440*7=17080		26679

*data as of July, 2013

Sochi's factual recreation-tourism capacity is limited by the capabilities of the resort-tourism complex engaged in the actual servicing of visitors. Sochi's resort-tourism complex can be nominally divided into two component parts:

- the official sector of affiliated visitors;
- the unofficial sector (about 27 thousand suites), where unaffiliated visitors are accommodated in private recreation and retreat centers, city apartments, and dachas owned by the locals.

Due to differences in hotel profile and location, there are different ways to divide the calendar year into seasons. For all hotels, regardless of their profile, the "high season" is the period from mid-June to September. During these months, hotel suites are filled to 98-100% of capacity. During the rest of the months, the suite occupancy of hotels with a poorly developed infrastructure remains at a level of 50-60%, and that of private hotels – 40%. Analysis of occupancy during the week indicates that peak occupancy occurs on weekends and occupancy drops on weekdays. According to statistical data, Sochi's average annual hotel occupancy rate is 36-42%; it reaches 95-97% in the second ten-day period of July, 86-92% in August, and 72-79% in September. The average hotel occupancy declined in 2010, which may indicate the return of tourists to global foreign resorts as well as other resorts in Krasnodar Krai. Having said that, during the "high season" occupancy is also 98-100%. By charging high prices during the period of high demand for hotel suites, hotels are trying to make up for their losses in the low season. In this context, the major vector of development lies in expanding the bounds of seasonality. In building enhanced comfort hotels, seasonality can be smoothed out through putting together a developed infrastructure that would include spa-centers, aquatic parks, convention areas, a developed network of restaurants, a spacious park, and a well-developed beach. Over the last years, Sochi's leisure infrastructure has gone through positive changes, with several retail-and-entertainment and sports-and-fitness centers launched in the City. [2]

Based on data from the Department of Resort Business and Tourism of the administration of the city of Sochi, today there are almost 57 000 suites in hotels, spas, recreation and retreat centers, and vacation houses. About 35 hotels with 20 thousand suites were built by the beginning of the Olympics. These resources will allow the city to receive 4.5-5 million people annually. As of now, the occupancy of Sochi's hotels in the summer season is 70%.

The cost of hotel accommodation varies quite widely depending on the following factors: seasonality, the day of the week, the length of stay, the number of occupants, the size of the suite, the number of rooms and the suite's interior, the hotel's location relative to the beach, the city center, and sights, services included and provided additionally, etc. At the moment, accommodation in Sochi hotels costs from 350 (no-star category) to 17.5 thousand rubles per night.

An analysis of the present situation in Sochi may lead us to conclude that turning Sochi into a world-class tourist destination is associated, apart from traditional beach tourism, with the following fundamental dimensions:

– Developing Sochi as a balneological and rehabilitation center, competitive in the international arena, including thanks to relatively low costs of service, which presupposes a more active and rational use of climatic treatment and thalassotherapy, organization of balneological and SPA centers on the basis of hydro-mineral resources, and development of the system of sports and recreation complexes;

– Developing various types of alpine tourism based on the "Krasnaya Polyana" resort-tourism complex;

– Developing business tourism.

Developing these dimensions will help smooth out the factor of seasonality, which lately has shown a trend towards growth (70% of tourist flows fall on 3-4 summer months (June-September)), expand the limits of the high season, and unplug the beach area.

Among measures capable of boosting the competitiveness of the Sochi tourism product, we can also look at organizing regular scenic world-level cultural-and-sporting festivals with a view to establishing the so-called date calendar and developing new tourist routes. This dimension is reflected by the Cultural Olympics staged in Sochi as part of preparing and staging the 2014 Winter Olympics.

Event tourism activities would include a number of other major events. Thus, for instance, the “Sochi-2014” investment forum will be held in the resort in September. Last year, it gathered 8.5 thousand guests and 1.2 thousand journalists. According to data from FINAM analysts, the number of visitors increased 13% compared with 2012. In October, 2014, the sixteenth race of the 2014 Formula One season will take place at the Sochi Olympic Park Circuit. The “Royal Race” is one of motorists’ most prestigious events. The event is expected to gather around 100 thousand guests.

Conclusion.

One should keep in mind that all activities conducted in Sochi will no longer be funded by the government and should become efficient commercial projects. The positioning of Sochi as an international resort requires a special approach to developing an urban-planning strategy for the development of the resort-tourism complex, putting together and implementing a human resources policy that is aimed toward, above all, boosting the city’s human resources potential and the potential of academic institutions in the Sochi region, and, finally, bringing the strategy for the city’s development in line with the idea of creating an ecologically clean world-class tourist destination.

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Professional Linguistic Personality as Subject of Discursive Processes: Conception of Linguistic Rhetorical Culturological Education

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Abstract. The problems of optimization of cross-cultural communication in the mainstream of improving the training of professional linguistic personality (LP) of any profile in the sphere of foreign languages are considered in this article. From the standpoint of linguistic and rhetorical (L&R) paradigm a hierarchically dominant monoposition of category "linguistic personality" is substantiated, while such concepts as "speech personality", "communicative personality," etc. represent only certain aspects of L&R functioning. The essence of cross-cultural dialogue as a discursive process in multiethnic sociocultural and educational space is algorithmized. Formulations of strategy and tactics of linguistic rhetorical culturological (LRC) education are offered in the form of theses of the research program.

Keywords: linguistic & rhetorical (L&R) paradigm, cross-cultural communication, professional linguistic personality (LP), discursive processes, multiethnic sociocultural and educational space, linguistic rhetorical culturological (LRC) education, algorithm, strategy and tactics.

Introduction.

The purpose of the article is to present the variant of the conception of continuous L&R education with the introduction of culturological component from the standpoint of linguistic and rhetorical (L&R) paradigm. This variant is relevant for multiethnic sociocultural and educational space that is actively formed both at the state-local level (Russia, Kazakhstan and other countries) and at the global level of the world community, the generalized subject of which is "a planetary linguistic personality" (LP). We consider linguistic rhetorical culturological (LRC) aspect of professional training of LP in relation to a specialist of any profile for whom high level, quality and efficiency of foreign language, foreign culture communication are relevant, see [1–6].

We stipulate that when selecting one of two close and often competing terms – intercultural / cross-cultural communication – we choose the second term as a wider one. According to V.I. Goncharov, "cross-cultural level" <...> not only helps to communicate with speakers of other languages, but also through the common and different things enriches linguistic culture of a bearer with all ethnic spectrum of reflection of the world in the language" [7].

Materials and methods.

The approaches and conceptions in the field of linguistics, cross-cultural communication, linguoculturology, cross-cultural linguistics, theory and methods of teaching foreign languages, education and psychology, the data of the experimental work with students of different fields of training served as the material of our research work. We used the methods of analysis, comparison, generalization, observation, questioning, pilot experiment, interpretation.

Discussion.

As it is known, a wide range of international cooperation, the need for a qualitative breakthrough in the professional training of specialists in the context of integration into the global community nominated foreign languages in the educational priorities. The solution of problems in

ensuring the compliance of the quality level of foreign language teaching to modern rates of the country's development naturally necessitates a radical revision of the methodology of foreign language education.

The subject of scientific cognition in the system of foreign language education is an interdisciplinary construct "language – culture – personality" in close relation of its parts. Cross-cultural communicative theory of foreign language teaching, aimed at integrated teaching of language and culture, serves as the leading modern conception of foreign language education. This theory reflects its focus on integrated teaching of language and culture, providing the disclosure of language as a translator of socio-cultural specificity of national language communities in the communication that facilitates mutual understanding and cooperation in an open world [8]. Thus, the full use of a foreign language as a means of communication involves not only the acquisition of integral linguistic and rhetorical (L&R) competence [9], but the linguoculturological one.

There must be an immersion in another culture that requires a certain degree of identification with the representatives of a given language community world [10]. However, in the theoretical and methodological terms it can be discussed with the following statement: "Polylinguistic personality is an active carrier of several languages, which is: speech personality – a complex of psycho-physiological properties, allowing the individual to exercise speech activity simultaneously in several languages; communicative personality – a set of abilities of verbal behavior and the use of multiple languages as a means of communication with people of different linguistic societies; ethno-semantic personality – a symbiosis of worldviews, value orientation, behavioral experience, integratively reflected in the lexical system of multiple languages" [11]. In our opinion, it is necessary to hierarchize the concept '*linguistic personality*' and numerous terms-variations appearing in the scientific literature: *verbal personality*, *communicative personality*, *ethno-semantic*, *textual*, *discursive personality*, etc. These concepts are used as a substitute, contextual synonym to 'LP', and independently, with an indication of their difference from the language personality. However, it is necessary to withstand the principle of monoanthropocentrism: linguistic personality of the subject of discursive processes is always the same in all types of speech events; while speech, communicative, textual, discursive ones, etc. are not the personalities in its composition, but hypostases of functioning and development of linguistic personality.

Thus, the category of "linguistic personality" is not just the top of the hierarchy, but the category-monopolist in this conceptual row. In L&R paradigm only title term of anthropological linguistics – "LP" is traditionally used; levels of LP structure – verbal and semantic (verbal associative network), linguistic and cognitive (thesaurus), motivational (pragmatics) [12] are involved in the three groups of universal LR parameters. The last ones form a complex research prism: ethos-motivational-dispositional, logo-thesaurus-intentional, paphos-verbal-elocutive parameters of the text, discourse-practice, discourse-ensemble, literary work, etc.

In the works of the Sochi L&R school different types of LP are categorically postulated and developed, including collective, group, regional and others [13–20]. In the educational and applied aspect LP of a learner is studied in its formation as a strong linguistic personality of dialogical, democratic, multicultural type; definitions of secondary LP, poly-lingual LP are clarified. The empirical material was studied in the speech, discursive, communicative, cognitive, cultural, pedagogical aspects and others, but the basic term – LP – remained a universal matrix, with respect to which the rest of the nuances of state and functioning (see above) of the communication subject, the producer and the recipient of discursive processes acquire the status of modes, registers, forms, aspects of LP functioning.

Secondary linguistic personality is defined in LR paradigm as the subject of discursive processes in a foreign language, implemented in psycho-linguistic continuum of foreign cultural mentality during the speech-mental activity on the perception, processing and production of information about the world and the man in the form of a stream of coherent speech – discourse-practices of different types, that are fixed in texts of different genre-styles as semiotic results of discursive text-forming process. Polylingual LP is distinguished by the presence of primary LP in its core structure on the basis of the native language and two or more secondary LP by the number of language-codes through which this LP can participate in cross-cultural communication as an active, conscious and creative subject of discursive processes.

Thus, LP is the subject of cross-cultural communication, the optimization of which is particularly relevant in the early twenty-first century, when the dynamics of diverse discursive processes is implemented at the global level of multiethnic sociocultural and educational space, in the presence of a single semiotic Internet. In L&R paradigm verbal communication is considered as the interaction of two or more linguistic personalities – their pragmatics, thesauri, and verbal associative networks. It is intentionally, dispositionally, elocutively organized, instrumented from the standpoint of ethos, logos and pathos, implemented with varying degrees of harmonization.

Full speech communication particularly envisages harmonization of productive and receptive registers of speech-mental activity, so surface, actional and as deep, emotional and intellectual processes at all levels of structural levels of LP communicants. Ideally, it requires the unity of not only linguistic, but also the L&R world pictures of communicants [21].

Individual L&R picture of the world is a verbalized worldview, the result of interaction between motivational and cognitive levels of LP structure, organizing its verbal associative network according to the ideologically-hierarchical principle and predetermining discursive textual strategy. Any statement is a structuring of universum by the addressee (linguistic personality¹) within its L&R picture of the world and a kind of "imposition" of the model of reality to addressee (linguistic personality²). Specificity of communication as an equal "harmonizing dialogue" [22] is in a double construction of a single, common for communicants of mental sub-space, as a result of achieving L&R consensus, communicative consent. Thus, harmonically dialogized communication appears as a joint production of mutually acceptable ethos-logos-pathos structure by the subjects of this discourse in verbal modeling of "variative interpretation of reality" [23]. This task is much more complicated in the situation of cross-cultural communication. Striving for consensus and the ability to harmonize dialogue, organizing the work of mechanisms for implementing L&R competence of LP, are a criterion of the high culture of speech, intelligence of verbal behavior in communication as in the mother tongue, as in a foreign language, foreign cultural communication. We explain that the mechanism of realization of integrated L&R competence is a psycholinguistic formation in the structure of linguistic personality, a complex of interrelated thought-speech abilities by means of which various aspects of communicative, textual and linguistic sub-competencies are implemented.

Eight mechanisms for implementing L&R competence that allows LP effectively to implement speech activity are allocated based on the five parts of classical rhetoric and the four psychological stages of activity (Table 1):

Table 1. Mechanisms of implementation of integrated linguistic and rhetorical competence of linguistic personality.

<i>Classic rhetorical canon</i>	<i>Psychological stages of activities</i>	<i>Mechanisms of implementation of linguistic and rhetorical competence</i>
	1) orientation;	1. Predispositional orientation mechanism for implementing L&R competence
	2) planning;	2. Inventional paradigmatic mechanism for implementing L&R competence (content)
1) Invention	3) implementation;	3. Dispositional syntagmatic mechanism for implementing L&R competence (composition)
2) Disposition		4. Elocutive-expressive mechanism for implementing L&R competence (language and style)
3) Elocutio		

4) Memory		5. Mnemonic mechanism for implementing L&R competence
5) the Action (pronouncing, spelling)		6. Actional mechanism for implementing L&R competence
		7. Psycho-rhetorical mechanism for implementing L&R competence (feedback)
	4) control	8. Editorial-reflexive mechanism for implementing L&R competence

1. The orientation mechanism for implementing L&R competence provides a common orientation in the speech event: clarification of purposes, conditions of communication, psychological portrait of the recipient; style, the type of speech, the genre of planned discourse:

<i>productive register:</i>	<i>receptive register:</i>
skills: – to navigate in communication situation, i.e. aware about what will be the statement, to whom it is addressed, in what circumstances, why it is created (to share something, to express feelings, to inform, to explain, to influence the interlocutor, etc.)	skills: ▪ realize the communicative task; ▪ assume on the title, beginning as well as other external signs (on the illustrations in the book, over look, mimics of the speaker, the general nature of the message, its subject, purpose, further continuation)

2. Inventional mechanism for implementing L&R competence provides cognitive strategy that singles out micro-themes in discourse making up together the whole theme:

<i>productive register:</i>	<i>receptive register:</i>
skills: - aware of the subject and the main idea of the utterance, possible micro-themes, their approximate content and semantic hierarchy	skills: ▪ understand the basic idea of the author, his speech problem; ▪ distinguish between known and new, primary and secondary information, theoretical material and facts specifying them; ▪ allocate micro-themes, blocks of statements.

3. Dispositional mechanism for implementing L&R competence provides compositional and communication strategy that builds the logic of the subject of speech and genre according to the laws of perception of oral (written) language and features of the addressee:

<i>productive register:</i>	<i>receptive register:</i>
skills: - outline the course of thought, plan the sequence of micro-themes	skills: - understand the course of the development of an addresser's thought, the logic of constructing another's statements

4. Elocutive mechanism for implementing L&R competence provides the corresponding language strategy, adequate verbalization of the referent according to specific speech situation:

<i>productive register:</i>	<i>receptive register:</i>
<p>skills:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ formulate thought; ▪ ensure the development of thought from sentence to sentence and the relationship of individual proposals among themselves; ▪ observe the norms of the literary language; ▪ choose language means taking into account the problem of speech, an addressee, terms of communication, the main idea and content of the given part of the statement 	<p>skills:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - understand the meaning of words, contextual semantic meaning of words, word forms, syntactic constructions, intonations

5. Editorial-reflexive mechanism for implementing L&R competence edits statements: current (inventional, dispositional, elocutive) final, actional (in the oral presentation and the act of writing the text), the post-communicative:

<i>productive register:</i>	<i>receptive register:</i>
<p>skills:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - control the conformity of the utterance to the plan, communicative situation; - evaluate the content in terms of topics, speech problems, the main idea, sequence of presentation; - estimate language means in terms of speech problem, the basic idea, the requirements of speech culture; - evaluate the ethical side of verbal behavior; make the necessary adjustments 	<p>skills:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ understand the author's position and the relationship to it; ▪ realize the degree of understanding of other people's statements, the penetration depth of their meaning; ▪ use techniques in order to improve understanding of the message (asking for the meaning of unfamiliar words, asking questions, return to the read materials, etc.)

6. Mnemonic mechanism for implementing L&R competence provides effective interaction of operational and long-term memory, the optimal use of memorization techniques developed in the mnemonics' technique.

7. Actional mechanism for implementing L&R competence provides adequate articulatory-behavioral strategy and the strategy of writing in a particular speech situation:

<i>oral form of speech:</i>	<i>written form of speech:</i>
<p>ability to speak in public, optimally using verbal and nonverbal means of communication, observing ortho-epic and other linguistic norms</p>	<p>ability to express their own thoughts, observing the rules of graphics and calligraphy, spelling and punctuation</p>

8. Psycho-rhetorical mechanism for implementing L&R competence provides feedback to the addressee on the basis of skills:

- take into account the peculiarities of an addressee's perception, analyze his response in the communication;
- correct his own verbal behavior according to the strategic purpose of the communication – communicative effect.

With the subject-object type of relationship (agonal type of communication) communicative effect as the impact on the recipient in his own interests, the suggestion to him his own L&R picture of the world is recognized as the planned result of linguistic interaction. In contrast, with the subject-subject type, constitutive for a genuine, full human communication, it is understood primarily as a communicative consonance, the product of setting up all levels of structure of linguistic personality¹ and linguistic personality², primarily motivational, cognitive and proper verbal-semantic. Communicative dissonance, leading to communication failure, acts respectively as a negative result of a joint dialogical discursive process.

Effective verbal interaction in terms of cross-cultural communication of LP – representatives of different ethnic societies – should be considered within the overall strategic goal of learning a foreign language. It is important and legitimate to include the learner into the global linguistic and rhetorical hermeneutic circle, which organizes the intellectual-speech culture of the studied language's country, i.e. to include the learner in the foreign-language discourse-interpretive and text-forming processes undertaken by the comprehensive linguistic personality of an ethnic society.

Accordingly we can not do without methodological comprehension and didactic interpretation of the above mentioned category of "L&R picture of the world", serving a kind of dynamic realization of the language's conceptual sphere. Namely LR picture of the world, i.e. hierarchy of value judgments, under which linguistic units function and gain contextual semantization, determines the most important parameters of the receptive and productive speech-mental activity in this language and acts as its implicit framework. Only on the basis of its assimilation full perception, adequate understanding, production of idio-discourse, specific texts, quite organically including into foreign language, foreign-cultural discourse-practices and discourse-ensembles, are possible. Foreign-cultural L&R picture of the world is implicitly absorbed through the reception and ideological transcoding of typologically diverse texts in this language being sprayed also explicitly in the array of cultural information. Under the ideological components of the speech act in the broad sense we mean the embodiment of the ethos, logos and pathos, in the narrow sense – an account of political specifics of a state system, for example, in a totalitarian one, transitional to democracy and traditionally democratic types of the society.

In expanded form the adaptive algorithm of the mechanisms for the implementation of integrated L&R competence in foreign cultural communication (with the introduction of culturological component when its transformation into LRC competence) is represented by the following steps, which are particularly important for professional linguistic personality – future specialist:

I. Pre-preparatory stage (preverbal, inner speech):

1. Formation of the clearest understanding of the structure of L&R picture of the world, prevailing over the linguistic personality of a learner as a future communicant, i.e. knowledge and understanding of the ethnic and cultural specifics of their own mentality and mindset caused by the prism of a native language.

2. Getting acquainted with the ideology of ethnic society, with a representative of which is expected to start communication, awareness of spiritual priorities of the given ethnos' collective LP (through the media, artistic and belletristic literature of the country of the studied language, intensification of the experience of personal contact, etc.).

3. A comparison of L&R picture of the world and the predictable one – future partner in foreign-cultural communication – in order to identify: a) the total, invariant b) distinctive features, and c) the opposite in value hierarchies, argumentative strategies, and interpretation of the main cultural concepts.

II. Directly-preparatory stage (with partial verbalization of problematic nodal points, rehearsal):

4. Consideration of future communication's strategy, which is primarily based on common items and reference points of two (or several) L&R pictures of the world, smoothing differences and

bypassing "sharp ideological corners" of future communication; forecasting of possible L&R conflict and discretion of reserve compromise moves.

The above mentioned items 1-4 correspond to the work of predispositional and orientational mechanism for implementing LRC competence relying on mnemonic mechanism, as well as a partial actualization of other mechanisms – depending on the degree of expansion of predictable idio-discourse at this preparatory phase.

III. Communicative stage:

5. Designing in the course of real dialogue (at the intersection of prepared speech and impromptu) of dispositive frame, inventional rod and elocutive filling of idio-discourse in dialogic mode, with permanent self-correction of idio-discourse.

The work of inventional, dispositional, elocutive-expressive mechanisms for implementing LRC competence is carried out in spontaneous mode, i.e. simultaneously with the work of mnemonic, actional and psycho-rhetorical (feedback) mechanisms.

In parallel there is a current self-control and a corresponding adjustment of the speech act in the communication process.

IV. Post-communicative phase:

LRC reflection of professional LP:

6. Subsequent analysis of the content, composition and formal language parties of communication, taking into account, along with personal characteristics of an interlocutor, the nature of the interaction of different L&R pictures of the world – conflictual, consensual, etc.

The work of editorial and reflective mechanism of LRC competence that is differentiated in aspects of each of the other mechanisms.

7. Formulation of conclusions about the admitted mistakes and miscalculations of communication, strategy and tactics of communication with representatives of this ethnic society, bearers of the L&R picture of the world in the future.

Building of secondary discourse-interpretant on the results of culturological introspection of communicative foreign language behavior; involving major mechanisms for implementing LRC competence in terms of auto-communication (internal speech or pronunciation aloud).

Of course, in a systematic dialogue with representatives of one or another national-cultural community, social and political system, particular ideology, algorithm steps of speech-mental preparation and implementation of cross-cultural communication, the current self-correction strategy and tactics of communication can be automated quickly enough. Coagulation of the algorithm happens then and individual features of future companion come to the foreground. However, in preparation for the first contacts with representatives of other ethnic society, carriers of another culture the substantive analysis of alien L&R picture of the world, including its variations depending on the social status of an alleged partner in dialogue, again becomes necessary.

In conclusion, in thesis form we submit a program of integrated LRC education in aspects of its strategy and tactics' submission.

A. Strategy of linguistic rhetorical culturological (LRC) education in the former Soviet multiethnic sociocultural and educational space (for example, Russian as a native language, the state language, the "second native"):

1. Strong LP of dialogic, democratic, multicultural type possessing ethical responsibility, cultural, general-subject training and high L&R competence as a modern modification of Russian (Russian-speaking) speech ideal in conditions of competition and mixing of three basic elements of speech-mental activity during the post-perestroika period: Soviet ideologized model, Americanized pragmatic communicative model, the domestic Russian Orthodox-Christian model of communication.

2. Education of strong LP of dialogic, democratic, multicultural type in the process of learning Russian language, foreign languages and humanities subjects as a means of qualitative transformation of post-Soviet linguistic and cultural situation in Russia and the CIS in a truly democratic one.

3. The formation of integral LRC competence in humanities subjects as means of education of a strong LP of dialogic, democratic, multicultural type taking into account the leading trends of linguodidactics, enriched with the achievements of rhetoric and linguoculturology at the beginning of the twenty-first century:

- Ritorization of language – and more broadly – philological education, the integration of culturological component at a new level of research achievements;
 - Creation of "a theory of man's relationship with the mother tongue", as well as foreign languages, as the gnostic and operationally-activity basis of self-projection of strong LP of dialogic, democratic, multicultural type, ideally – bilingual or polylingual LP;
 - Learning the language – native, state, foreign languages as an effective speech-mental activity: organic fusion of language (systematic and structural) and speech (communicative and rhetorical) sections of each of the educational programs. The establishment of ground control points of interdisciplinary interaction for coordinated formation of the core of the primary LP and the substructure of the secondary LP in case of bilingual LP and also synergistic complex of several substructures of the secondary LP in case of polylingual LP;
 - "The dispensation of the personality of a learner" in the teaching of the native / foreign language as the pedagogical dominant and important task of a holistic educational process at all levels of continuous LRC education;
 - Designing of content and instrumental support for training programs of different levels in linguistic rhetoric and culturology for all levels of school and higher education, and their close relationship with the studied language courses;
 - Classification of culturological knowledge, skills and habits, specific competences, together forming a complex LRC competence of the learner; and designing of effective methods of their coordinated formation.
4. Software of the system of primary, general, vocational (secondary and higher) and additional LRC education, corresponding to the world standards, modern educational technologies, competence approach.

B. Tactics of linguistic rhetorical culturological (LRC) education includes four aspects that correspond to the linguistic, rhetorical and cultural components of the integrated LRC competence and its psycho-physiological support.

1. Linguistic component of integral LRC competence:

Formation of language subcompetence of a learner:

- development of individual language ability and optimization of the process of mastering language knowledge, abilities and skills, competences, experience of solving problems and creative activities in the ethnic and socio-cultural context in order to automate speech-mentality activity at the level of linguistic operations corresponding to the literary norm (phonetic graphic, lexical and phraseological, morphemic and derivational, morphological, syntactic, stylistic operations);
- study of the system and the structure of language – native, state, foreign – on discursive textual basis and in the process of communicative application within the culturological typology of speech events of different types in the receptive and productive registers, dialogic and monological modes, oral and written forms of implementation of integral LRC competence.

2. Rhetorical component of integral LRC competence:

2.1) Formation of textual subcompetence of LP of a learner:

- Development of individual text-forming ability and optimization of the process of mastering speech-forming knowledge, abilities and skills, competences, experience of solving problems and creative activities in culturally deterministic text-education. Support of learners with models of effective text actions: intensional (content- semantic), dispositional (structural and compositional) elocutive (figurative- expressive) – with allowance for the situationally determined functional and semantic type of speech (description, narrative, reasoning, value judgment), functional style of speech (spoken and book: scientific (scientific and popular, official business, journalistic, preaching, art), speech genre (review, report, announcement, article in the newspaper, writing, talking on telephone, essays and literary text, etc.) as LRC constructs;
- Methods and techniques for enhancing the implementation of text mechanisms of LRC competence's realization: intensional, dispositional, elocutive-expressive in productive and receptive registers, monologue and dialogue modes, oral and written forms of speech activity;

2.2) Formation of communicative subcompetence of LP of a learner:

- Development of individual communicative ability and optimization of the process of mastering speech-forming knowledge, abilities and skills, competences, experience of solving problems and creative activities in the field of communication as ethnic and sociocultural deterministic phenomenon. Support of learners with models of effective communication:

orientational, actional, psycho-rhetorical – specific to the speech situation (social roles, relationships, communicants' goals, terms of communication) and discourse as a stream of verbal behavior (verbal, acoustic, sign-mimic, spatial), forming the structure of socially meaningful speech event – the basic unit of communication;

– Methods and techniques for enhancing the implementation of communicative mechanisms of LRC competence's realization: predispositional, actional, psycho-rhetorical (feedback from the addressee) in productive and receptive registers, monologue and dialogue modes, oral and written forms of speech activity;

– Problems of learning optimal speech behavior as the result of LRC reflection, the aggregate of speech acts, consisting of the sum of the individual speech acts in the light of the typological characteristics of strong LP of dialogic, democratic, multicultural type. This striving for the subject-subject speech relations, communicative cooperation and harmonizing dialogue as a prerequisite for achieving communicative consonance in social and cultural micro-, meso-, macrospace.

3. Culturological component of integral LRC competence:

– development of cultural outlook and erudition as the integrative basis of mastering an interdisciplinary content of all academic disciplines;

– formation of the aggregate of culturological knowledge, skills, competencies, the experience of solving problems and creative activity of the teaching subject in their hierarchical relationship;

– formation of the system of culturological orientations of an individual, optimal for the society, as a project basis for his self-projection, self-education and self-education.

4. Psycho-physiological maintenance of functioning of LRC competence:

– improvement of editorial-reflective mechanism based on mastering orientation basis of errors and defects' typology of speech-mental activity, which has been developed in L&R paradigm and represents "a model of a weak LP" possessing a low LRC competence, i.e. a model of speech anticulture;

– improvement of mnemonic mechanism and the problem of optimization and development of philological and culturological memory.

Conclusion.

The proposed strategy and tactics of LRC education concisely fix the key points of the formation of high integral L&R competence with reinforced culturological component. It serves the essential correlate of speech-mental culture of LP – the subject of discursive processes of cross-cultural communication – in conditions of globalization and in world multiethnic sociocultural and educational space. This is a scientific-methodical program and simultaneously a justification of educational policy in the field of interconnected and coordinated study of native and foreign languages. Such an orientation framework (made in the form "cell" structure) of restructuring the national language education in the sphere of formation of speech-mental culture of younger generations should be implemented simultaneously at all levels with regard to their specificity. Optimization problems of cross-cultural communication acquire particular importance in higher education – for training specialists of any profile in the sphere of foreign languages. At the forefront of scientific and methodical program there are such categories as "professional LP", "integral L&R competence", "LRC education", "LRC competence".

In relation to the linguistic situation of modern Kazakhstan two stages of its understanding in educational and applied aspects can be distinguished.

In the first phase (90th – beginning of the 2000) the preservation of ethnic and cultural identity of the person through the initiation to the native language and culture while mastering values of world culture is recognized as the strategic objective in keeping with the conception of ethno-cultural education [24–26].

The second phase (2004 to present) characterizes the cultural project "Trinity of languages", stated as a separate domestic policy. Its conception and gradual implementation are set out in the Letter and Decrees of President of the Republic of Kazakhstan N.A. Nazarbayev: we need to develop the Kazakh as the state language, Russian as a language of international communication and English as the language of successful integration into the global economy [27–28].

Our proposed conception, algorithm, strategy and tactics of language education as the linguistic rhetorical culturological one, systematically implemented in terms of mono-, bi- and

polylingual education are justly regarded as the orientation basis, also relevant for the implementation of the above mentioned project. At each educational stage they consistently contribute to the establishment of strong linguistic personality of dialogic, democratic, multicultural type in the new paradigm of success – personal, social and professional. Bi- and polylingual personality of such kind becomes a conscious and creative subject of discursive processes of multiethnic sociocultural and educational space of the XXI century at the state-local levels, and global level as well, being the active cell of the collective "planetary linguistic personality".

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Free Verse as Active Discursive Process of Literary Belletristic Communication: Linguistic & Rhetorical Approach

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Abstract. From the perspective of linguistic & rhetorical (L&R) paradigm the paper proposes a conception of research into free verse discourse as an active component of contemporary Russian multi-ethnic socio-cultural educational space in the sphere of Literary Belletristic Communication. The authors interpret the positions of "linguistic & rhetorical hermeneutical circle", define principles of L&R research into free verse discourse, propose corresponding definitions.

Keywords: linguistic & rhetorical (L&R) paradigm, free verse discourse, discursive processes, multi-ethnic socio-cultural educational space, literary belletristic communication.

Introduction.

The problem of this research derives from the anthropocentric approach as the mainstream trend in philology in general and a megaparadigm in linguistics in particular. In this paper we focus on free verse discourse, or free verse, which as the product of the creative idea-to-speech process is popular in Russian multi-ethnic socio-cultural educational space of the late 20th – early 21st century. The mass audience treats this kind of poetry as vividly innovative with a touch of elitism. The perception of free verse as artistic poetry gives an aesthetic enjoyment and a sense of "pleasure of the text", indicating a high level of the recipient's general and reading culture. Modern Russian free verse discourse as a complex of individual discourse practices (in Foucault's terms [1]) is represented by anthologies and free verse festivals contributing to an essential dynamicity of the current discursive process. Accordingly, it is heuristically significant to comprehend and examine it systematically from the perspective of linguistic & rhetorical (L&R) paradigm [2] as an integrative approach in the theory of linguistics, discourse, text, and belletristic studies.

Sources and methods.

The material of the study covers entries of reference books and dictionaries, literary critical articles, research papers on free verse interpretation, anthologies and collections of contemporary Russian free verse festivals of the 1990-2000s. The paper employs the following analytical procedures: systematic analysis, concept categorization, modeling, contextual, conceptual, hermeneutic interpretational etc.

Discussion.

The empirical material of the study includes Russian contemporary free verse discourse treated as an aggregate discourse practice of Russian free verse poets registered in the anthologies of the 1990-2000s and embodied in current discursive process of Russian socio-cultural and educational space. Free verse (French *vers libre* – "free verse") is a term of Western poetics, which

since the early 20th century has been defined in Russia as “a number of specific verse formations differing from parasyllabic and syllabic-tonic verse” [3]. Originally, free verse developed in German and French versification (19 c.), later in Russia and England (20 c.). The contemporary Russian socio-cultural educational space witnesses a growth in the interest in free verse as a poetic phenomenon, though its specificity is not sufficiently studied by specialists in rhetoric. Literary scholars paid more attention to free verse: the theoretical and methodological basis of free verse research is constituted by the works of a number of famous Russian scholars: M.L. Gasparov, A.L. Zhovtis, A.P. Kvjatkovskij, Ju.B. Orlickij, Ju.N. Tynjanov etc.

Forming a general theoretical basis for the functioning of productive register of idea-to-speech activity of the linguistic personality as a subject of literary belletristic communication, we perform a general description of the psychological aspects of creativity, treated as process and result (R. Arnheim, A. Maslow, B. Edwards and others); establish the specificity of literary belletristic creativity in general (Aristotle, M.M. Bakhtin, Yu. M. Lotman) and of poetic text making discursive process in particular treating it as a unity with respect to the free verse discourse.

We analyzed ancient rhetoricians' definitions of the poetic inspiration phenomenon as well as the alternative conceptions of Plato and Aristotle. The well-known ancient thesis is that the genuine creativity of a poet is inspired by the divinity called Muse. However, Plato imparts this thesis with a more radical understanding: he talks about a state of holy madness since a truly inspired poet is insane and creates his works in a state of obsession with "transfusion" of energy from a hierarchically higher being to the lower. In his turn, Aristotle thinks that art is created not in the heaven but by a more simple ingenious imitation of Mother Nature's laws, i.e. a more down-to-earth conception. We stick to the intermediary view supported by the analysis of works by free verse poets: inspiration comes from Muse as well as requires hard work.

Our research has clarified the process of creating belletristic text from the standpoints of text linguistics, cognitive paradigm, rhetoric and new rhetoric etc. We study the free verse discourse through the prism of L&R paradigm as a product of idea-into-speech transformation cycle of a special type bordering between prose and poetry. The L&R paradigm offers a system of terminological coordinates, formed at the crossroads of the following three categories: levels of linguistic personality structure (*verbal associative network, thesaurus, pragmatic field*) [4]; stages of universal idea-into-speech transformation cycle (*invention, disposition, elocution*) [5]; rhetorical concepts of belletristic speech act ideology (*ethos, logos, pathos*) [6, 7] etc. Within the last triad we identify: *ethos*, i.e. an ethical, moral philosophical foundation of speech performed through analysis of the value content of free verse conceptual field; *logos* as a verbal, idea-speech foundation resting on the analysis of the conceptual content of free verse concept; *pathos* as an emotional speech foundation linked to the images of free verse conceptual field.

The center of the communication model [8], treated as a "linguistic & rhetorical hermeneutic circle", is occupied by **the (belletristic) message component**, a unity of two dimensions: discourse and text as its semiotic embodiment. This is a synergistic product of five other basic components of communication: producer, recipient, referent, contact and code. Unlike the communication model of R. Jakobson with six equal components, the Liege school of new rhetoric [9] hierarchizes them from the synergetic aspect as was shown above.

The producer and recipient of discourse – "living elements" of linguistic & rhetorical hermeneutical circle – appear as linguistic personality¹ and linguistic personality² with specified levels of their structure. The anthropolinguistic basis of the free verse communication process is presented by the dynamic lines of psychoenergetic interaction on structural levels of linguistic personality of the free verse producer and recipient (verbal associative network, thesaurus, pragmatic field); by denotative moves within “logos – thesaurus – invention” communication parameters (*logos*); modus – connotative injections within “ethos – motivation – disposition” and “pathos – verbal – communicative parameters” (*ethos, pathos*).

The free verse discourse is formed in the productive register of producer's creative idea-to-speech activity (writing, speaking) with **the contact** being established via the channel of complementary types of recipient's idea-to-speech activity (reading, listening).

Besides literature and generative poetics, the process of creating a belletristic text is known to be studied by various approaches: aesthetics, psychology, rhetoric. Any message carrying aesthetic information, understood in a most general sense, is treated as a belletristic text by modern aesthetics. All forms of art create their own semiotic systems providing for their existence. Besides

the primary code of natural language, the language of art also requires a belletristic code, a dynamic system of rules for sign use to create a work of art, forming a special mental construct called referent-2, i.e. the belletristic referent of fictitious reality. Consequently, **the code** as a communication component is represented at two levels: 1) natural language common for the producer and the recipient, and 2) aesthetic code proper with its "phonetics, vocabulary and grammar" supplemented by the system of cross-textual references, allusions, hints requiring a well-prepared recipient who as a "skilled reader" can fully comprehend the artistic effect and form a complex of psycho-energetic impulses, generating a feeling of "pleasure of the text".

The referent is a fragment of reality, belletristically reinterpreted by the producer through ethos, logos and pathos into the "possible world". The act of perceiving the latter by linguistic personality² has two consequences: either a communicative effect with the richness of belletristic impression, the strength of aesthetic impact, the brightness of experience, high literary emotion, or a communicative failure when a free verse leaves the reader indifferent.

The belletristic text appears to be a set of images (belletristic utterances) forming a belletristic message. Being of semiotic origin, the belletristic image is not a sign itself: it is a minimal unit of a belletristic text which is to be recognized before the image is to be understood. The system of expressions constitutes a text, whose semantic content – the belletristic conception – is to be interpreted and evaluated" [10] by **the recipient** with the "addressee factor" (N.D. Arutyunova) performing a perspective role and serving as a discourse trigger. The approach offered here is exemplified by a free verse written by Vera Lipatova:

ADDRESSING THE READER:

I live for my pleasure
my pleasure
is you

In this aspect of the model the recipient as linguistic personality² plays a significant role, since s/he produces a "mental product" making an interpretative presentation of discourse.

The "addressee factor" is specifically transformed with respect to the linguistic personality of free verse recipient; his / her main characteristics, reconstructed from the genre stylistic peculiarities of free verse discourse and its texts in modern anthologies and collections, appear to be intelligence, penetration into word, creative approach to life and innovations, the complexity of the psychological nuances of feelings and emotions. The recipient interprets discourse moving along the idea-to-speech cycle stages: pre-disposition, elocution, disposition, invention, understanding, interpretation, memory.

Drawing on the discourse study of contemporary Russian free verse (1990-2000s) we defined the following principles of L&R approach to the study of this genre as a specific type of discourse:

1) principle of incorporation into a general socio-cultural context: treatment of the discursive formation under study as a process and product of idea-to-speech activity within the framework of the relevant supersphere (socio-cultural, literary belletristic, epistemologically oriented etc.) of socio-cultural educational space at a particular chronological stage of its development;

2) principle of reliance on all components of L&R hermeneutical circle, the definition of speech production as a synergistic product of other five communication factors: producer, recipient, referent, code, contact;

3) principle of a new research prism: placing the studied discourse, embodied in texts, into the terminological coordinates of L&R paradigm, 9-dimensional space of three categories (linguistic personality levels, ideological components of a speech act, idea-to-speech cycle stages), investigating discourse-text through the prism of three groups of universal parameters: ethos-motivation-disposition, logos-thesaurus-invention, pathetic-verbal-elocution (for literary belletristic communication as a sphere of art the reverse order of study is more appropriate);

4) internal and external typology: drawing classifications which rest on the axioms and principles of dialectical logic: "general – specific", "genus – species – variety", "general – specific – separate", "historical – logical";

5) establishing the essential signs and typological features with the aim of formulating a detailed definition of the discourse under study as a specific idea-to-speech cycle construct characterized by L&R specificity at all levels of its formation, organization, functioning;

6) establishing positions and features of the discourse under study from the perspective of textual implementation of the universals of discourse paradigmatics, discourse syntagmatics,

discourse epigramatics in the global space of functioning and interaction of discourse processes of socio-cultural discourse educational space.

Conclusion.

The theoretical analysis revealed *that free verse discourse* is an active discursive process in the field of literary and belletristic communication of Russian multi-ethnic socio-cultural educational space of the 1980–2000s. Modern free verse discourse ensemble is a systematically organized unity of individual discourse practices registered in a number of publications and anthologies of recent decades. It is a process and product of idea-into-speech transformation cycle of a special type which can be called syncretic complex ("intermediate", "marginal") with the domination of poetic idea-into-speech transformation cycle as the basis of literary personality perception. At the formal level the free verse text has features of prosaic discourse, being at its core poetry of world perception and verbalization of the results through the prism of discourse producer's linguistic literary personality. The fixed number of syllables per line as a metric unit is replaced by the "phrasal dominant" principle (hence the phenomenon of "nervous verse", "broken verse"); on the discursive level of articulation the free verse method of versification is opposed to the canonical one as an alternative discourse mode and a specific construction type of methodology of belletristic verbalization of reality [11, 12].

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Intercultural Communication and Winter Olympic Games 2014: Consequences of Cultural and Language Space

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«... And, of course, to all the residents of Sochi, thank you, and Krasnodar region - thank you for your patience, thank you for understanding that you have displayed. Only 7 years. And now you live in the Olympic region...»

IOC President Thomas Bach

(from a speech at the opening ceremony of the XXII winter Olympic games in Sochi)

Abstract. The article is devoted to aspects of language communication and a cultural exchange during the host Winter Olympic Games 2014 in Sochi. The processes of an exchange are analyzed between cultural paradigms of foreign guests, tourists from various regions of the Russian Federation and volunteers of the Winter Olympic Games, residents of Great Sochi and Krasnodar Region and all Southern federal district. The paper touches upon actual problem of formation of integration intercultural space in the conditions of continuous improvement of processing methods of communications.

Keywords: communication, intercultural exchange, language communication, Winter Olympic Games 2014.

Introduction.

Intercultural communication has become the modern information spacean integral part of the formation of linguistic communication models for its participants, and in particular the role played by elements of hospitality, volunteerism, and mutual assistance. The preparation for the Olympic movement, was the particular interest to the study of the languages and cultural traditions of other peoples. All these aspects are underlinedby the linguistic component of intercultural exchange - at least the language of stock for communication of the participants of communication. It predefines the relevance the study of the cultural heritage for a region of GreatSochiininterlanguage communication. The study of the Olympic legacy for the language and cultural landmark, the new challenge for the polyethnic space of the region - Krasnodar region, Kurortny district of Great Sochi to preserve and to develop the phenomenon of cross-cultural communication.

Materials and methods.

Material of research is the volume of information of the sources of intercultural exchange, which occurred in the space of communicative interaction. Methods of this study of the complex of diverse sources, their savings become the selection and differentiation of language units, the general and specialized sources analysis intercultural virtual contacts, exchange of cultural paradigms. The basis of this methodological approach is the combination of the deductive and inductive methods.

Discussion.

The Winter Olympic Games 2014 became the property not only for the world community, but especially for the region of Great Sochi which from summer local resort object became the world center of winter sports events 2014. Today, when the Winter Olympic Games already have become the part of historical cultural and sport's space, we see not only transformations of city-planning components, but also cultural changes of the country and the region. Undoubtedly, the consequence of a cross-cultural exchange of participants of sport's and volunteer's movements, the effect from arrival of numerous guests from various countries of the world became the most actual.

Great Sochi is a classic example of provincial thinking of its residents prior to carrying out and its results, summing up and expected heritage of events of the international scale. Approximately in a year of 2013 across all Russian Federation started the large-scale educational project – began the training of volunteers for the Sochi Winter Olympic Games of 2014. 25 thousand of volunteers examined history of the Olympic Games, the city of Sochi, and also decided to learn English – most of them had to meet foreign delegations and work as translators. In February of the 2014th – volunteers started the Olympic voluntary responsibilities. They became conductors both for athletes and for fans: to reach a place, to understand the schedule of competitions, to translate requests into a foreign language. By the way, lessons of English [1] just have become the first occupations.

In Sochi were carried out public actions (with support of mass media and other electronic resources of the city) on English studying, for example, "One day – one English word or the phrase". And the city began to change strongly: besides the infrastructure expansion, practically all inscriptions in the city (names of streets, city schemes, the traffic schedule) began to be duplicated in English. English words and phrases of the substantial block were picked up by the expert of Cambridge ESOL Tracey Sinclair. It was possible to master English bases thanks to Efkate TV company, radio stations "Autoradio Sochi", "Max. FM", "FM Retro", "Europe Plus of Sochi", to sites of city administration and the Olympic department, social networks.

The fullness of groups testifies to the growth of interest for studying of English on short-term courses for residents of Sochi on practicing foreign language on the basis of educational institutions and to increase the number of the citizens who have addressed the courses on paid and in language centres.

Language first of all serves for individual knowledge of world around, for the transfer of mental processes and the creation of the available to society. But, language also defines category of culture and historical and semantic levels of development of interlocutors, through thinking first of all, and through behavior speaking in society. And if, participants of communication speak all different languages – that means for mutual understanding comes historically checked way – *lingua franca* – in our time – English. At a minimum of a language stock for communication of participants of intercourse (photo, Russia, Japan, Canada, America, food, go-go-go, Coca-Cola, hockey, ski, friend, street, etc.) comes to the rescue of a smile, flags of the countries, understanding/misunderstanding gestures, but, always, there is a wish to emphasize, goodwill and hospitality (by the way, it is one of the best features of Russian nation). It is necessary to add to comparative easiness of cross-cultural communication of representatives of various cultures such aspects as euphoria from victories of the athletes and teams in sport competitions, the atmosphere of general enthusiasm, the feeling, full of fans, also an appreciation of leading sportscasters and experts about the enthusiastic audience occurring before their eyes. Yes, similar situations promote the establishment and adjustment of interlingual contacts and serve activation of further interlocutor communication.

There is such indifferent and conformist by the nature a social group of people which doesn't accept, and often rejects any innovations, changes, and, especially doesn't accept the possibility of any large-scale change. For such social group some insignificant deviation from existing dogmatic norms, as a rule, acquired as a result of sociohistorical stereotypes of education, is problematic, and, therefore, negative to perception and understanding. As a result, the relation to acceptance of ethnographic foreign culture, and furthermore foreign language and its carriers as threats for possible, further influence on already developed schemes of vital behavior – cause the extremely negative relation.

The socio-cognitive perception of strange habitual cultures and, therefore, from D. Gayms's linguistic differentiation suggests to allocating in a certain categorization, trying to explain and bring a conditional phenomenon of a dialectic phenomenon into three conditional groups of participants:

- ethic (far from perception of foreign culture and language);
- emic (accepting foreign culture and the language, wishing to be trained);
- perspectic (in principle I am ready to innovations, but when monitoring favorable for and sounding other cultures) [2].

In actic (urgently and quickly to study and master languages skills of cross-cultural communication) (*it is added by the author*) it would be very desirable to write down that huge

number of young people who worked at the XXII Winter Olympic and XI Paralympic Games in Sochi as volunteers.

Within last two decades the European commission and the Council of Europe assumed political initiatives of development of a multilingualism of the population, and, the main assumption for encouragement of multilingualism the requirement to find balance between the integrated identity of the European citizen and need of maintenance of linguistic and cultural national diversity that move forward. There are national, international and geopolitical visions of the world of the people occupying Europe [3].

Regionalists, supporting preservation and development of national languages, support receiving the equal status of existence of all local languages, but state fear that the political affairs concerning these territories, will be solved by not in the native language for citizens living on space [4].

From the international point of view it should be noted that the number of the people using for cross-cultural communication of foreign languages (in the conditions of a territorial favor, for commercial purposes, and, in general, for integration into interlingual world space) constantly is growing [5].

From the geopolitical party there is a wish to note that for multilingualism in Europe and in Russia there are many prerequisites:

- the sure advance of NATO to the East promotes the corresponding changes in education. The number of schools with profound learning of foreign languages increases every year;
- the experts knowing the main European languages are required;
- more and more commercial contracts and economic relations occur in English, German, French and Spanish languages;
- English becomes the language *lingua franca* on the territory of Europe and Russia.

Conclusion.

The cross-cultural exchange in modern space became a major factor of development of the international communication not only among the highest political, economic elite, but also a necessary component of interlanguage communication of versatile groups. English became such mean for cross-cultural communication. By means of English language (at a minimum level) there were communications between practically all guests, volunteers and the personnel of XXII Winter Olympic Games in the city of Great Sochi.

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