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EDUCATION AND EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

The section covers scientific topics in the full spectrum of education, including history, sociology and economy of education, educational policy, strategy and technologies.   The category covers also pedagogy and special education

AXIOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF THE SOCIO-CULTURAL INTERACTION OF RUSSIAN AND CHINESE STUDENTS IN THE EDUCATIONAL SPACE OF THE RUSSIAN UNIVERSITIES

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ABSTRACT

The development of cultural ties and cooperation between Russia and China in the field of education correlates with the current strategy of internationalization of Russian universities. Many Russian universities today tend to develop partnerships with Chinese universities. In particular, the number of Chinese students studying in Russian universities constantly increases; academic exchange programs are successfully implemented, the number of scientific contacts between representatives of universities of the two countries grows. The implementation of such cooperation is accompanied by problems of social and cultural interaction in the field of education of Russian and Chinese students.

General purpose of the study was identifying the axiological component in the interaction of Russian and Chinese students in the space of the Russian university.

Chinese students who study in Yekaterinburg universities (390 people), Russian students who study / live with Chinese (500 people), 10 Chinese experts, 10 Russian experts in the field of education in Russia and China were interviewed.

The results suggest that the Russian students find the values of hedonistic nature – love and pleasure – to be more important than the Chinese ones, while the Chinese students consider study and personal security to be most important (and this is determined by the goals of coming to Russia and the conditions of staying in the territory of a foreign country). Nevertheless, it cannot be said that the values of students from the Russian Federation and the People's Republic of China differ radically and may interfere with the productive socio-cultural interaction between them. Besides, the great importance of such values as world peace and love of country for Chinese students can be the basis for attracting them to participate in the activities of patriotic and cultural student associations that already exist in the Ural universities.

The practical significance of the results obtained is that the identified problems of socio-cultural interaction between Chinese and Russian students make it possible to develop technologies for optimizing the socio-cultural interaction of foreign students in Russian universities, which is especially important in the initial stages of their education in Russia. Among the recommendations for optimizing the process of entering Chinese students into Russian universities (in addition to Russian language classes) are joint Russian-Chinese leisure and holiday events, joint social student associations (volunteering, tourism, music, etc.), excursion programs aimed at

acquaintance with the culture of the host country, the joint interaction of Russian and Chinese students in social networks and messenger apps.

Keywords: *values, orientations, sociocultural interaction, adaptation, communication*

INTRODUCTION

The development of cultural ties and cooperation between Russia and China in the field of education correlates with the current strategy of internationalization of Russian universities. Many Russian universities today tend to develop partnerships with Chinese universities. In particular, the number of Chinese students studying in Russian universities constantly increases; academic exchange programs are successfully implemented, the number of scientific contacts between representatives of universities of the two countries grows. The implementation of such cooperation is accompanied by problems of social and cultural interaction in the field of education of Russian and Chinese students. In the works of Russian and foreign researchers, a large number of problematic areas of interaction between Russian and Chinese students (adaptation, communication barriers, inconsistency of the educational systems of the two countries, etc.) are considered. The study examines the axiological features of Russian and Chinese students, which are the basis for building a socio-cultural dialogue.

Many Russian and foreign studies of a social and humanitarian character are devoted to the study of the problem of Russia–China interaction. Feng Yujun considers the socio-cultural interaction of the two countries through the specifics of different political regimes in different timeperiods [1]. Qin Ming formulates peculiarities of social and cultural exchange between China and Russia: the constant expansion of the sphere of humanitarian cooperation, as well as the dominance of the state model in determining the specifics of social and cultural exchanges [2]. In their researches, Jiang Weixing [3] and Hofstede [4] focus on the civilizational similarity of the Russians and the Chinese based on the dominance of collective values of the both nations.

Russian sinologists Malyavin [5] and Maslov examine various aspects of the interaction between Russia and China, highlighting ideological, religious and value components. The works by Varlamov, Kalita, Vinichuk, Popkova, Raspertova are devoted to the problems of inculturation and worldview contradictions [6], [7], [8], [9]. Adaptation and socialization is considered as the main problem in interaction between the Russians and the Chinese in the works by Grebennikova, Danilenko, I. Ts. Li, Suy, Dementieva, Kravtsov, Larin, Modnova, Ukhova, Nikitenko, Savchenko, Sukhova [10], [11], [12], [13], [14], [15].

SOCIO-CULTURAL INTERACTION

One of the key reasons for the problems in the socio-cultural interaction of Chinese and Russian students is the discrepancy between the values of native and host cultures.

Chinese students as carriers of their culture have a strict system of norms and moral values, the leading ones being family, submission to parents, respect for elders, dominance of the needs of other people over one's own needs, modesty in presenting their achievements, and conformity. According to Varlamova, Rykova, Kirisheva, the traditional characteristics of China include: collectivism, patriotism, patience, respect for elders, excessive pragmatism, the desire to preserve the "face" (the tendency to show socially approved emotions in a conflict situation), perseverance manifested in the actualization of the strategy of "soft power", perseverance, endurance, calm, discipline, a sense of national dignity, positive ethnic identity, high self-esteem [6]. However, in our opinion, all these characteristics are continuously changing under the process of globalization and the influence of Western culture, which sets new standards of behavior and dictates new values that cannot but affect the value orientations and behavioral characteristics of representatives of the Chinese youth.

Unlike the culture of China, the Russian society combines various traditions, cultural norms and values due to the multiethnic composition of the population of Russia. Modern Russian society is characterized by the domination of individualistic values, in particular, the rigid hierarchical structure of the family and the family identity of the individual are not common. In the Russian culture, being more individualistic than the Chinese one, it is not common to perceive the interests of others above one's own; in the Chinese mentality, avoiding conflict and preserving harmony in interpersonal relations are obligatory, in Russian culture it is common to express one's thoughts directly, which may seem a manifestation of insufficient politeness when interacting with foreigners [7].

In the study, the values of Russian and Chinese students of universities in Yekaterinburg were studied, which made it possible to analyze the similarities and differences between them. The terminal values of students from the Russian Federation and the People's Republic of China have both common and different features. The leading position among the values of both groups of students belongs to both social and individualistic values of friendship, personal security, freedom, and family. The final position in the hierarchy of values in the both groups belongs to the social status, pleasure and religion / faith. Thus, the values of young people from Russia and China are in many ways similar because of their age and common interests.

However, it is possible to distinguish at least two significant differences:

1. The Russian students rank the personal security the fourth, whole the Chinese students rank it the first.

2. Love was ranked the third by the Russian students, while only the tenth by the Chinese ones. (It should be noted here that in the Chinese tradition does not conisder "love" as an obligatory condition of the family and close relationships between people).

3. The Chinese students rank studies the fifth, while the Russian ones rank it the seventh.

The results suggest that the Russian students find the values of hedonistic nature – love and pleasure - to be more important than the Chinese ones, while the Chinese students consider study and personal security to be most important (and this is determined by the goals of coming to Russia and the conditions of staying in the territory of a foreign country). Nevertheless, it cannot be said that the values of students from the Russian Federation and the People's Republic of China differ radically and may interfere with the productive socio-cultural interaction between them. On the contrary, the significance of such values as personal security, friendship, and family for both groups of students can be the basis for developing various associations related to these common points. Besides, the great importance of such values as world peace and love of country for Chinese students can be the basis for attracting them to participate in the activities of patriotic and cultural student associations that already exist in the Ural universities.

Analysis of the research results shows that at the initial stage of education, the Chinese students are characterized by an average level of information and analytical component of social and cultural interaction (M = 27.6), reflecting knowledge about the culture of their nation and other cultures; motivational and evaluative component (M = 27.9), reflecting the degree of tolerance towards people of a different culture, and social and communicative component (M = 25.3), reflecting the skills of intercultural communication. A low level was revealed in relation to the creative activity component, reflecting the desire for joint socially significant and leisure activities and communication with representatives of other cultures (M = 24.1), which shows insufficient experience of joint activities and leisure of Chinese and Russian students at the initial stages of education in Russian universities.

At the stage of graduation in Yekaterinburg universities, a different picture was revealed that demonstrates the process of enculturation of Chinese students in the process of learning in the sociocultural conditions of Russian universities. Chinese students of the 4th course, in contrast to the students of the 1-2 years of study have statistically significant high indicators of the components of sociocultural interaction within the average level of development according to statistical analysis conducted using the Student's t-criterion: information and analytical component M = 31.9; t = 4.1, p <0.01; motivation and evaluation component M = 32.2; t = 4.8, p <0.01; socio-communicative component M = 31.7; t = 59, p <0.01; creative activity component M = 32.4; t = 7.7, p <0.01.

In the group of 4th-year Chinese students, every second student showed high knowledge of their culture and the culture of other nations, can highlight the similarities and differences of their own and other cultures, strives for joint educational and leisure activities with Russian students; 55% of Chinese students showed high tolerance in relations with Russian students; 40% – high communicative and linguistic abilities in intercultural dialogue, in which they pay attention to personal qualities, and not to the national identity of the interlocutor.

Students with an absolutely low level of sociocultural interaction at the stage of graduation at the university were not identified. Thus, at the statistically significant level, Chinese students at the stage of university graduation, unlike those of the 1st –

2nd years of study, are characterized by high tolerance, high awareness of the similarities and differences of different cultures, proficiency in communicative and linguistic skills and skills in social and cultural interaction in Russian universities.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Socio-cultural differences in the cultural environment of the host society make it difficult for Chinese students to interact, taking into account how much they are fluent in information about the new cultural environment, how well they understand the foreign (Russian) language, behave adequately in situations of communication and interaction with representatives of the new culture. A comparative analysis of the cultural characteristics of Russia and China makes it possible to identify the difficulties that Chinese students may experience in the process of social and cultural interaction in the new cultural environment of Russian universities: lack of knowledge of the social normative-ethical attitudes of the new social and cultural environment; discrepancy in some cultural values; problems of understanding and ambiguous decoding of the Russian speech. In the field of the educational interaction they face differences in the methods of training in higher education institutions of Russia and China; lack of awareness of the requirements of the Russian universities [6].

Most of the Russian students interviewed believe that Chinese students are not familiar with the history, cultural traditions of Russia, the style of behavior of speakers of Russian culture, as well as with the proverbs and sayings of the Russian language. In the absence of basic language training, Chinese students have difficulty in communicating with Russian students and teachers, and this causes their social isolation. The main reason for this is the lack of everyday interpersonal communication, the inability to decipher information encoded in non-verbal communication signals, the difference in value orientations with Russian students. According to the Russian students who study together with Chinese students, at the end of their studies, two thirds of Chinese students do not reach the level of mastering Russian culture and language necessary for the development of a bicultural personality (Grebennikova 2010).

A comparative analysis conducted in the study showed that the problems of interaction between Russian and Chinese students manifest themselves in the context of the adaptation of foreign students to new sociocultural and organizational conditions of the universities of the host society, during which students enter the new culture, gradually mastering its norms, values patterns of behavior and other cultural elements.

The adaptation of foreign students at the university includes the universal stages inherent in any intercultural interaction: the experience of autonomy, assimilation and integration, each of which reflects the degree of awareness and assimilation of the sociocultural values of the new community, allowing it to conform to the parameters of a different socio-cultural environment [6].

The socio-cultural interaction of students is determined, on the one hand, by cultural interaction, on the other, by a set of socio-psychological factors of interaction: the intensity of interaction, the number of representatives of the group of foreign students, official university policies and many others. In practice, according to Kravtsov, there are "various types of interrelationships between groups of students and the mutual influence of the cultures which they represent. Some groups of foreign students completely lose their cultural uniqueness, others, on the contrary, retain their cultural identity and even spread their own cultural patterns among the representatives of the dominant culture of the university in which they study" [13].

The fundamental factors of social and cultural interaction of foreign students in Russian universities, according to Sukhova, are communication skills, including communication in a foreign language, the willingness to be flexible to the requirements of the host society, the desire to preserve their own cultural identity [15]. Each participant of the intercultural interaction has his/her own unique social attitudes, value orientations, aesthetic feelings, communicative manifestations associated with ethnic and national identity, as well as his/her own perception of the other side of the interaction. Besides, representatives of the Chinese side have their own stereotyped ideas about the Russian youth. Moreover, these stereotypes on both sides of the interaction may not always have a positive character, objectively reflect reality, which may complicate the establishment of contacts and effective interaction between representatives of two cultures. Thus, the study of differences in social stereotypes, perceptions and value orientations of Russian and Chinese students makes it possible to identify problems in social and cultural interaction.

CONCLUSION

The practical significance of the results obtained is that the identified problems of socio-cultural interaction between Chinese and Russian students make it possible to develop technologies for optimizing the socio-cultural interaction of foreign students in Russian universities, which is especially important in the initial stages of their education in Russia. Among the recommendations for optimizing the process of entering Chinese students into Russian universities (in addition to Russian language classes) are joint Russian-Chinese leisure and holiday events, joint social student associations (volunteering, tourism, music, etc.), excursion programs aimed at acquaintance with the culture of the host country, the joint interaction of Russian and Chinese students in social networks and messenger apps.

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BLENDING MOOC AND ON-CAMPUS LSP COURSE

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ABSTRACT

Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) have been challenging the traditional model of higher education since their appearance in 2008. Nowadays they draw a great deal of attention from all the parties involved: students, teachers, administrators and investors. Although such courses offer a wide range of possibilities and hold considerable potential, a number of issues have already emerged. In particular, the majority of MOOCs are criticized for being focused on knowledge transition without skills development. The objective of the action research described in this paper is to demonstrate that blending MOOC (Marketing Coursera course) and on-campus LSP (Language for Specific Purposes) course produces unexpected results from obtaining knowledge in the subject to acquiring skills of network collaboration and autonomous learners. The action research was carried out at Business School of Lomonosov Moscow State University, the participants were twenty three second-year bachelor students. The post-intervention questionnaire was used to collect the students' perceptions.

Keywords: LSP, MOOC, blended learning, connectivism, competence-based learning

INTRODUCTION

MOOCs are transforming our perceptions of higher education, making it accessible to students all over the world. They also offer new opportunities for campus faculty to upgrade their traditional educational models. Engaging such courses, instructors create an authentic educational environment in which learners not only acquire knowledge from leading universities but also develop new skills. MOOCs contribute to increasing students' motivation by involving them in on-line discussions with the course participants.

One of the areas within language learning where MOOCs are effectively used is Language for Special Purposes (LSP). [3]. According to Godwin-Jones, MOOCs are "a convenient vehicle for reaching professionals or trainees who need specialized language skills". Many educators state [10], [1] that in spite of the fact that MOOCs have been have been evolving since 2008 and have drawn much attention from academic and public spheres, there is still a lack of empirical data and research to support the effectiveness of blending MOOCs and on-campus language courses.

The action research presented in this paper aims at analyzing the results of integrating MOOC (Marketing on Coursera platform) in the on-campus LSP course. The results confirm the feasibility of such a model and the practicality to implement it on a regular basis.

Following the frontrunners of distance education Russia has also entered the race for on-line courses and in 2013 the market started growing rapidly. However, according to the research carried out by the Higher School of economics in 2017 based on the survey of 101 Russian universities, the use of online learning technology is not massive and restricted to top universities where professors are actively involved in academic research. The authors found out that nearly three in every four students have never heard about MOOCs, 26 per cent know about their existence, 15 per cent have heard but never taken interest in them, 8 per cent have shown interest but never tried to complete a course. Only 2.3 per cent have tried learning in MOOCs, only 1 per cent have obtained the certificate [7]. Thus, the integration of MOOCs into the Russian higher education is very insignificant.

Many Russian [10] and foreign [4] researchers acknowledge, on the one hand, the benefits and considerable potential of MOOC platforms, but on the other hand, they point out a number of challenges they face assimilating the technology. In particular, the majority of MOOC platforms are criticized for concentrating on knowledge transition, not on skills development [1].

METHODOLOGY

This study relies on connectivism and competence-based learning approaches, MOOC theories. The instructional model includes an on-campus LSP course of Business English which is blended with a Marketing Coursera course where the MOOC serves as an additional learning resource. Such an educational model exposes the learners to a great variety of teaching content delivered in different forms and contributes to developing collaborative skills.

Connectivism approach

This action research considers learning as a result of social interaction, when students acquire skills and competences from the connections made with outside resources (such as blog and forum discussions with peers and tutors). The pedagogical model of Connectivism, suggested by Siemens in 2005, is the most adequate for the 21st century educational environment [8]. It can be used as a theoretical basis to create innovative pedagogical models for the digital age.

MOOC theories

In the framework of this action research we look at the instructional design model of cMOOCs (where c stands for connectivism) [2], [9]. This model relies on connectivist pedagogy and follows the principle of learner-centered approach, in contrast to the design of xMOOCs (or extended MOOC) which focuses mostly on content rather than social networking. The latter MOOCs are based on cognitive-behaviorist pedagogy where the focus is on the teacher [6]. However, today teacher is not the only source from which learners derive knowledge and competencies.

Competence-based learning approach

Integrating MOOCs into traditional classrooms, instructors enable students to engage in meaningful learning environments [5]. Competence-based learning approach helps to construct learners' own knowledge by interaction with their environment. There is a focus on outcomes (competencies), what learners know and are able to do. Here MOOCs serve as a great example of programmes that allow students to learn in a variety of formats, to develop skills outside classroom, at their own pace.

DATA COLLECTION

The second year bachelor students of Lomonosov Moscow State University Business School were offered the opportunity to enroll in one of Marketing courses on Coursera platform. They were given autonomy to regulate their learning journey. As it was the fourth semester of taking Business English classes, the language competence was adequate to complete the course successfully, which is B2 (according to the Common European Framework of Reference). The action research was carried out from February, 2019 to April 2019. The students were introduced to Coursera platform, the majority had never heard about the resource before. There were two months to complete the chosen course, and prepare a report in the form of an interactive presentation for the groupmates. Those who accepted the challenge got an excellent mark for the mid-term assessment (were extrinsically motivated). The choice of the topic Marketing was not random. It has always aroused much interest among the students. The Coursera platform offers more than 300 programmes in Marketing. The most popular choices were "Introduction to Marketing", "Digital marketing", "How to create a contagious content" and "Sports Marketing".

To collect the students' opinions about their MOOC experience we used a post-intervention questionnaire, which contained ten questions (See Appendix 1). There were eight questions in the format of a five-point Likert scale and two open-ended questions. Twenty three participants took part in the survey (56 per cent of the respondents were males, 44 per cent of females). The answers were given anonymously.

DISCUSSION

It is premature to talk about the large-scale use of MOOC in the Russian education system, but the results of this action research indicate that there is interest in such integration.

The findings of the survey demonstrated that the overwhelming majority of students (82 per cent) had a positive attitude to the MOOC integration. 83 per cent of the learners agreed that their digital literacy and collaborative skills improved as they took their network skills to the next quality level. The survey found that 78 per cent obtained new in-depth knowledge in Marketing, moreover, 93 per cent acquired new thematic vocabulary in the mentioned professional field.

More than half of the respondents (52 per cent) developed the skills of autonomous learners, which meant understanding the purpose of their learning, the ability to set learning goals and plan the activities to achieve them, mastering a range of learning strategies and skills, etc. However, every forth student did not indicate it as a positive outcome. It is worth mentioning that the participants were more engaged in the process of undertaking the course than in the process of setting goals, completing tasks and achieving results. This is evidenced by the fact that many learners (49per cent) failed to articulate in a concise way the main points of the completed course in their final presentations. This finding suggests the students need the teachers' assistance in developing analytical and critical thinking skills.

Almost half of the respondents (namely 44 per cent) identified themselves as a member of peer community learning, while approximately a quarter perceived it as a problem. Answering the question about their readiness to enroll in another MOOC, 44 per cent responded positively which is another proof of their positive experience. See Figure 1.

The most frequent answers to the open-ended question "What tangible benefits of taking a MOOC can you point out?" included the possibility of self-paced learning thanks to flexible class schedules, the free access to educational material not depending whether the course was free of charge or not. Some respondents mentioned resume enhancement, further professional interest in Marketing, personal challenge and their first experience of studying in a foreign language. Such an aspect as "peer mentorship" was noticed as both an advantage and disadvantage.

The answers to the second open-ended question "Which expectations have not been met?" can be grouped in the following way: lack of opportunity to get immediate feedback from the on-line course tutor and the necessity to review the peers' works which they found time-consuming.

Figure 1. Results of the post-intervention questionnaire.
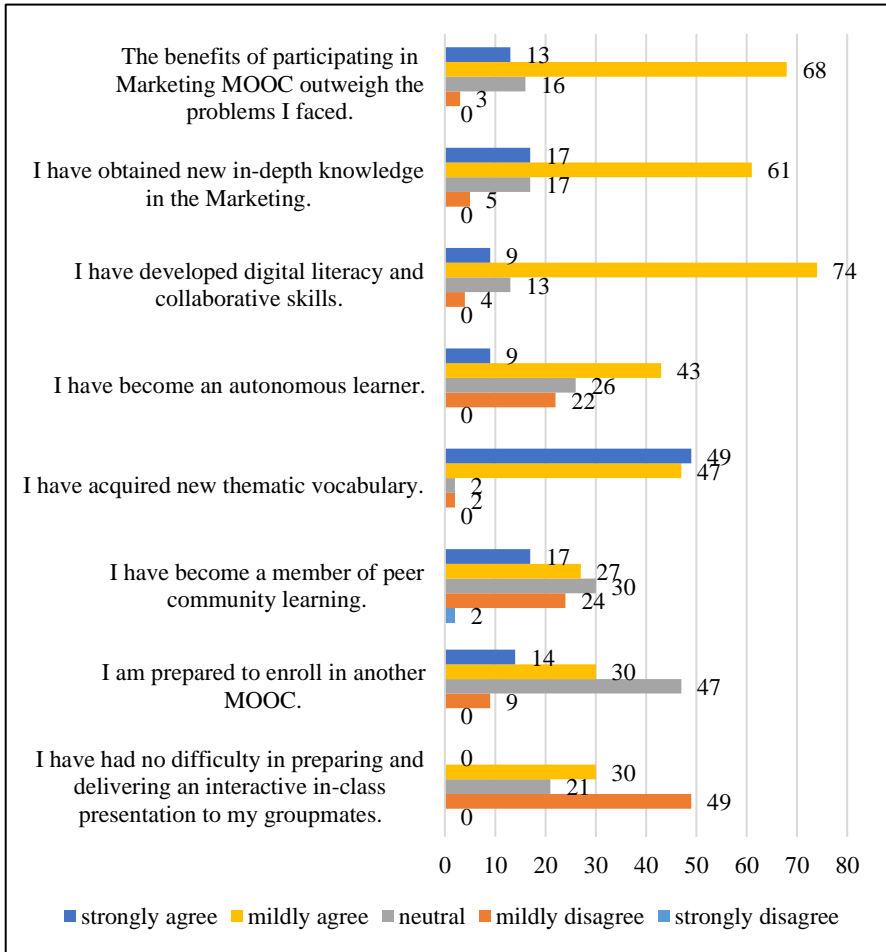
CONCLUSION

The comprehensive systemic approach of integrating MOOCs into traditional classes can contribute to improving the efficiency of traditional methods of language education. Blending a MOOC and on-campus LSP course should be viewed as a means of addressing the problems of learners' motivation by actualizing the possibility of knowledge and skills acquisition both in language learning and in the professional field. Integrating the advanced technologies of MOOCs into traditional language learning and teaching opens up to all the parties involved unlimited opportunities that are impossible to ignore.

The success of the introduction and implementation of mass open online courses in the educational process largely depends not only on the motivation of students, but also on the teachers, who should be ready to provide methodological assistance to

students and be able to include these courses in their curricula. In turn, it will allow more Russian universities to join this process of implementing the approaches of connectivism and competence-based learning.

The participants of this action research, including the instructors, have considerably changed their perceptions of online and blended learning. At the same time, however, the learning outcomes and the students' opinions of this integration require further studies.

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Appendix 1. Questionnaire to assess the students' perceptions of the MOOC experience.

Dear student,

we kindly ask you to assess your experience of taking a Marketing Mass Open Online Course along with the course of Business English. Please, check the response that best expresses the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement.

Your opinion is very important to us and will be taken into consideration in our future work.

1. The benefits of integrating Marketing MOOC into on-campus course outweigh the problems I faced.

O————O————O————O————O
strongly disagree   mildly disagree   neutral   mildly agree   strongly agree
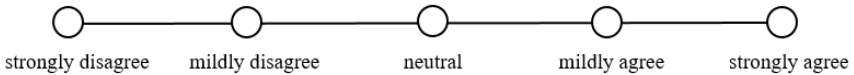
2. I have obtained new in-depth knowledge in Marketing.

O————O————O————O————O
strongly disagree   mildly disagree   neutral   mildly agree   strongly agree
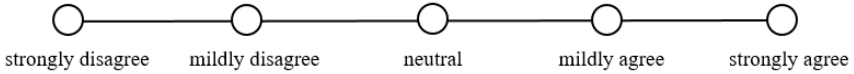
3. I have developed digital literacy and collaborative skills.

O————O————O————O————O
strongly disagree   mildly disagree   neutral   mildly agree   strongly agree
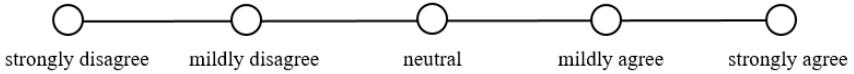
4. I have become an autonomous learner (I understand the purpose of the learning, I can set learning goals and plan activities to achieve them, I know a range of learning strategies and skills, etc.).

O————O————O————O————O
strongly disagree   mildly disagree   neutral   mildly agree   strongly agree
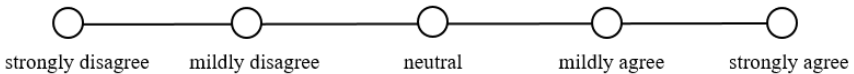
5. I have acquired new thematic vocabulary.

O————O————O————O————O
strongly disagree   mildly disagree   neutral   mildly agree   strongly agree
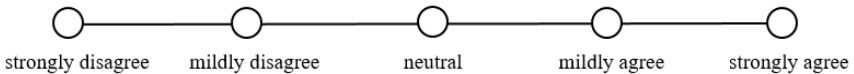
6. I have become a member of peer community learning (by exchanging opinions on forums and blogs).

strongly disagree   mildly disagree   neutral   mildly agree   strongly agree
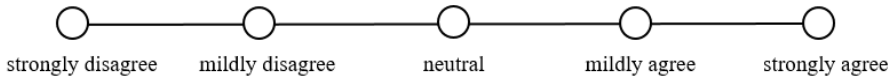
7. I am prepared to enroll in another MOOC (with no extrinsic reward).

strongly disagree   mildly disagree   neutral   mildly agree   strongly agree
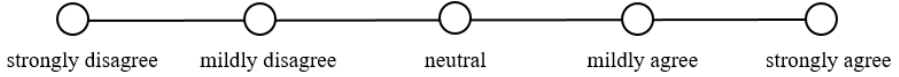
8. I have had no difficulty in preparing and delivering an interactive in-class presentation to my groupmates.

strongly disagree   mildly disagree   neutral   mildly agree   strongly agree
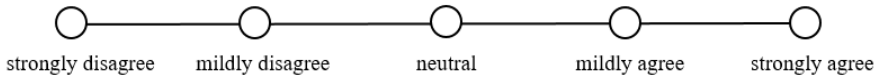
Open-ended questions:

9.   What tangible benefits of taking a MOOC can you point out?

_____

10. Which expectations have not been met?

_____

CULTURAL AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AMONG ASIAN STUDENTS IN RUSSIA

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ABSTRACT

Emotional and cultural intelligence are very important for foreign students during cross-cultural adjustment. Asian students from China, Vietnam, South Korea and Mongolia face different problems during their stay in People's Friendship University of Russia (RUDN University). In this intercultural context of living and studying they learn to communicate and interpret facial expressions not only of Russian people, but also students from all over the world.

The main purpose of this study was to investigate differences in Emotional and cultural intelligence among Asian students from China, Vietnam, South Korea and Mongolia, who study in Russia. We used two questionnaires: Emotional Intelligence Test developed by D.V. Lusin and Cultural Intelligence Scale developed by S.Ang et al. We conducted Kruskal-Wallis H-test, Mann-Whitney U-test and Spearman's rho test.

Results indicate the following. Vietnamese students have the highest level of cultural intelligence and its metacognitive, cognitive and behavioral dimensions and lowest level of emotional intelligence namely expression and emotion control, managing their own emotions and intrapersonal emotional intelligence. Chinese students have the highest level of emotional intelligence and all its aspects. Mongolian and Chinese students have the highest level of emotion control. Mongolian students have lowest level of cultural intelligence namely in its metacognitive, and behavioral dimensions. South Korean students have the lowest level of cultural intelligence motivation dimension.

Emotional intelligence has negative weak correlation with cognitive dimension of cultural intelligence. Cultural intelligence correlates positively with understanding others emotions, emotion control, interpersonal emotional intelligence and negatively with expression control, intrapersonal emotional intelligence, emotion control.

Keywords: *emotional intelligence, cultural intelligence, Asian students*

INTRODUCTION

Our research touches upon a problem of main psychological resources of acculturation during educational migration. We consider cultural and emotional intelligence very important for our students from Asia. For instance students from China, Vietnam, South Korea and Mongolia have varying degrees of closeness to

Russian culture. Mongolian students usually know Russian culture and Russian language quite well. Mongolia and Russia had a common history. As for the students from China, Vietnam, South Korea their culture differs very much from Russian culture and they usually don't have any common cultural background with Russian students that could help them in preparing to acculturation.

According to Hofstede's cultural dimension scores (Culture Compass at Hofstede Insights) and Rarick's research for Mongolia (see Table 1) we can see that Mongolia differs in all dimensions from other countries except high scores in Uncertainty Avoidance which are close to South Korean results. China, Vietnam and South Korea unlike Mongolia have high scores in Power Distance, Collectivism, Long Term Orientation and Restraint Index. Mongolia and China are masculine countries. China and Vietnam have little Uncertainty Avoidance Index [4], [6]. Culture dimension and cultural intelligence allowed us to describe the problem of acculturation from different points of view. But what differences have students from these countries in cultural and emotional intelligence? Will Mongolian students outstand in our survey too or not?

Table 1. Hofstede's cultural dimension scores for China, Vietnam, South Korea and Mongolia.

	China	Vietnam	South Korea	Mongolia
Power Distance	80	70	60	18
Individualism - Collectivism	20	20	18	71
Masculinity	66	40	39	103
Uncertainty Avoidance	30	30	85	92
Long Term Orientation	87	57	100	41
Indulgence - Restraint Index	24	35	29	56

We assumed that students from Asian countries had differences cultural and emotional intelligence. Also we wanted to understand how cultural and emotional intelligence and their aspects correlate.

MATERIALS AND METHODOLOGY

Emotional intelligence was measured with the help of Emotional Intelligence Test developed by D.V. Lusin [5]. It includes 46 sentences in Russian language. Each respondent was asked to rated them in a four-point scale (1 = "completely agree" to 4 = "completely agree"). The procedure allowed us to measure 5 aspects of emotional intelligence: *Understanding other people's emotions, Managing other people's emotions, Understanding your emotions, Manage your emotions, Expression Control*. They can be combined into several scales: *Interpersonal Intelligence, Intrapersonal Intelligence, Emotion understanding, Emotion Control* and *Emotional Intelligence Index.*

Cultural intelligence was measured with the help of Cultural Intelligence Scale developed by S.Ang et al. The questionnaire was administrated in Russian using adopted version develop by Belovol et al. [1], [2], [3]. It includes 20 sentences that

measure 4 components of cultural intelligence: *Metacognitive Dimension, Cognitive Dimension, Motivational Dimension* and *Behavioral Dimension of Cultural Intelligence*. Each respondent was asked to rated 20 sentences in a four-point scale (1 = "completely agree" to 4 = "completely agree").

All 172 students were from RUDN University (Peoples' Friendship University of Russia) and participated in paper-pencil testing and on-line testing. We tested 48 Mongolian students, 44 Chinese, 40 South Koreans and 40 Vietnamese.

We analyzed parameter distribution in the student groups with the help of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z-test. Though some parameters had normal distribution, we decided to use non parametric tests. In order to evaluate differences between samples we used Kruskal-Wallis H-test for all groups and Mann-Whitney U-test for pairs of groups. The Spearman's rho test allowed us to evaluate correlations between cultural and emotional intelligence among Asians.

RESULTS

Kruskal-Wallis H-test showed us significant differences in every aspect of emotional and cultural intelligence (see table 2).

Table 2. Kruskal-Wallis H-test results.

	Mean range				H-test	p-value
	Mongolia	China	South Korea	Vietnam		
Understanding other people's emotions	44,4	126,6	88,8	90,7	64,0	0,000
Managing other people's emotions	67,2	138,4	89,3	49,8	77,9	0,000
Understanding your own emotions	71,5	112,2	96,7	66,1	24,7	0,000
Managing your own emotions	96,3	119,0	74,2	51,3	44,5	0,000
Expression Control	120,6	112,8	79,9	23,2	101,2	0,000
Interpersonal Intelligence	47,8	138,1	89,7	73,1	79,8	0,000
Intrapersonal Intelligence	102,5	115,9	85,2	36,3	61,3	0,000
Emotion understanding	47,2	122,7	99,0	81,4	56,5	0,000
Emotion Control	101,3	135,2	77,8	24,0	111,0	0,000
Emotional Intelligence	72,2	134,1	92,8	24,0	72,8	0,000
Metacognitive Dimension	61,1	83,9	88,1	24,0	29,2	0,000
Cognitive Dimension	57,3	77,4	101,2	24,0	36,5	0,000
Motivation Dimension	99,8	88,1	39,2	24,0	54,2	0,000
Behavioural Dimension	31,1	105,6	98,4	24,0	86,9	0,000
Cultural Intelligence	40,7	94,7	96,5	24,0	64,6	0,000

In order to specify these results we used Mann-Whitney U-test. It showed us the following.

Understanding other people's emotions. There are differences between all groups except South Korea and Vietnam. Chinese students have higher results than Vietnamese ($U_{0,000}$=489, m_{China}=51, $m_{Vietnam}$=33), South Koreans ($U_{0,000}$=278,5, m_{China}=54, $m_{S.Korea}$=30) and Mongolian ($U_{0,000}$=185, $m_{Chinese}$=66, $m_{Mongolia}$=28). Mongolian students

have lower results than Vietnamese ($U_{0,000}$=518, $m_{Mongolia}$=35, $m_{Vietnam}$=56), South Koreans ($U_{0,000}$=250, $m_{Mongolia}$=30, $m_{S.Korea}$=62).

Managing other people's emotions. There are differences among all groups. Chinese students have higher results than Mongolian ($U_{0,000}$=212, $m_{Chinese}$=66, $m_{Mongolia}$=29), South Koreans ($U_{0,000}$=204,5, m_{China}=58, $m_{S.Korea}$=26) and Vietnamese ($U_{0,000}$=116, m_{China}=60, $m_{Vietnam}$=23). South Koreans have higher results than Mongolian ($U_{0,008}$=647, $m_{S.Korea}$=52, $m_{Mongolia}$=38) and Vietnamese ($U_{0,000}$=325, $m_{S.Korea}$=52, $m_{Vietnam}$=29). Mongolian have higher results than Vietnamese ($U_{0,05}$=730, $m_{Vietnam}$=39, $m_{Mongolia}$=49).

Understanding your own emotions. There are differences among all groups except Mongolian and Vietnamese. Chinese students have higher results than Mongolian ($U_{0,000}$=608, $m_{Chinese}$=57, $m_{Mongolia}$=37), South Koreans ($U_{0,025}$=631,5, m_{China}=48, $m_{S.Korea}$=36) and Vietnamese ($U_{0,000}$=448, m_{China}=52, $m_{Vietnam}$=32). South Koreans have higher results than Mongolian ($U_{0,001}$=580, $m_{S.Korea}$=54, $m_{Mongolia}$=37) and Vietnamese ($U_{0,007}$=525, $m_{S.Korea}$=47, $m_{Vietnam}$=34).

Manage your emotions. There are differences among all groups. Chinese students have higher results than Mongolian ($U_{0,006}$=710, $m_{Chinese}$=54, $m_{Mongolia}$=39), South Koreans ($U_{0,000}$=410,5, m_{China}=53, $m_{S.Korea}$=31) and Vietnamese ($U_{0,000}$=264, m_{China}=57, $m_{Vietnam}$=27). Mongolian surpass South Koreans ($U_{0,013}$=670, $m_{S.Korea}$=37, $m_{Mongolia}$=51) and Vietnamese ($U_{0,000}$=434, $m_{Vietnam}$=31, $m_{Mongolia}$=55). South Korean surpass Vietnamese ($U_{0,008}$=534, $m_{S.Korea}$=47, $m_{Vietnam}$=34).

Expression Control. There are differences among all groups except Chinese and Mongolian students. Chinese students have higher results than South Koreans ($U_{0,001}$=528, m_{China}=51, $m_{S.Korea}$=34) and Vietnamese ($U_{0,000}$=104, m_{China}=60, $m_{Vietnam}$=23). Mongolian surpass South Koreans ($U_{0,000}$=255, $m_{S.Korea}$=27, $m_{Mongolia}$=59) and Vietnamese ($U_{0,000}$=0, $m_{Vietnam}$=21, $m_{Mongolia}$=65). South Korean surpass Vietnamese ($U_{0,000}$=4, $m_{S.Korea}$=60, $m_{Vietnam}$=21).

Interpersonal Intelligence. There are differences between all groups except South Korean and Vietnamese students. Chinese students have higher results than Mongolian ($U_{0,000}$=118, $m_{Chinese}$=68, $m_{Mongolia}$=27), South Koreans ($U_{0,000}$=216, m_{China}=58, $m_{S.Korea}$=26) and Vietnamese ($U_{0,000}$=212, m_{China}=58, $m_{Vietnam}$=26). Mongolian have lowers results than South Korean ($U_{0,000}$=295, $m_{S.Korea}$=61, $m_{Mongolia}$=31) and Vietnamese ($U_{0,031}$=704, $m_{Vietnam}$=51, $m_{Mongolia}$=39).

Intrapersonal Intelligence. There are differences among all groups. Chinese students have higher results than Mongolian ($U_{0,024}$=768, $m_{Chinese}$=53, $m_{Mongolia}$=41), South Koreans ($U_{0,003}$=551,5, m_{China}=50, $m_{S.Korea}$=34) and Vietnamese ($U_{0,000}$=201, m_{China}=58, $m_{Vietnam}$=26). Mongolian surpass South Koreans ($U_{0,008}$=647, $m_{S.Korea}$=37, $m_{Mongolia}$=51) and Vietnamese ($U_{0,000}$=218, $m_{Vietnam}$=26, $m_{Mongolia}$=60). South Korean surpass Vietnamese ($U_{0,000}$=212, $m_{S.Korea}$=55, $m_{Vietnam}$=26).

Emotion understanding. There are differences between all groups except South Korea and Vietnam. Chinese students have higher results than Mongolian ($U_{0,000}$=241, $m_{Chinese}$=65, $m_{Mongolia}$=30), South Koreans ($U_{0,001}$=509,5, m_{China}=51, $m_{S.Korea}$=33) and Vietnamese ($U_{0,000}$=475, m_{China}=52, $m_{Vietnam}$=32). Mongolian have lowers results than South Korean ($U_{0,000}$=199, $m_{S.Korea}$=64, $m_{Mongolia}$=29) and Vietnamese ($U_{0,000}$=648, $m_{Vietnam}$=52, $m_{Mongolia}$=38).

Emotion Control. There are differences among all groups. Chinese students have higher results than Mongolian ($U_{0,000}=393$, $m_{Chinese}=62$, $m_{Mongolia}=33$), South Koreans ($U_{0,000}=233$, $m_{China}=57$, $m_{S.Korea}=26$) and Vietnamese ($U_{0,000}=49$, $m_{China}=61$, $m_{Vietnam}=22$). Mongolian surpass South Koreans ($U_{0,000}=526$, $m_{S.Korea}=34$, $m_{Mongolia}=54$) and Vietnamese ($U_{0,000}=488$, $m_{Vietnam}=33$, $m_{Mongolia}=54$). South Korean surpass Vietnamese ($U_{0,000}=69$, $m_{S.Korea}=59$, $m_{Vietnam}=22$).

Emotional Intelligence. There are differences among all groups. Chinese students have higher results than Mongolian ($U_{0,000}=257$, $m_{Chinese}=65$, $m_{Mongolia}=30$), South Koreans ($U_{0,000}=280$, $m_{China}=56$, $m_{S.Korea}=28$) and Vietnamese ($U_{0,000}=184$, $m_{China}=58$, $m_{Vietnam}=25$). Mongolian have lowers results than South Korean ($U_{0,002}=601$, $m_{S.Korea}=53$, $m_{Mongolia}=37$) and Vietnamese ($U_{0,000}=378$, $m_{Vietnam}=59$, $m_{Mongolia}=32$).

Metacognitive Dimension of Cultural Intelligence. Vietnamese students have higher results than Chinese ($U_{0,003}=547$, $m_{China}=35$, $m_{Vietnam}=15$), Mongolian ($U_{0,000}=386$, $m_{Vietnam}=59$, $m_{Mongolia}=33$) and South Korean ($U_{0,001}=447$, $m_{Vietnam}=49$, $m_{S.Korea}=32$). Mongolian have lower results than Chinese ($U_{0,048}=805$, $m_{Chinese}=52$, $m_{Mongolia}=41$) and South Koreans ($U_{0,001}=574$, $m_{S.Korea}=54$, $m_{Mongolia}=36$).

Cognitive Dimension of Cultural Intelligence. Vietnamese students have higher results than Chinese ($U_{0,002}=538$, $m_{China}=35$, $m_{Vietnam}=51$), Mongolian ($U_{0,018}=680$, $m_{Vietnam}=52$, $m_{Mongolia}=39$) and South Korean ($U_{0,004}=504$, $m_{Vietnam}=48$, $m_{S.Korea}=33$). South Korean have higher results than Chinese ($U_{0,029}=637$, $m_{China}=37$, $m_{S.Korea}=49$) and Mongolian ($U_{0,000}=318$, $m_{Mongolia}=31$, $m_{S.Korea}=61$).

Motivational Dimension of Cultural Intelligence. Vietnamese students have higher results than Chinese ($U_{0,019}=622$, $m_{China}=37$, $m_{Vietnam}=49$), Mongolian ($U_{0,000}=72$, $m_{Vietnam}=67$, $m_{Mongolia}=26$) and South Korean ($U_{0,000}=156$, $m_{Vietnam}=57$, $m_{S.Korea}=24$). Chinese have higher results than South Korean ($U_{0,000}=413$, $m_{China}=53$, $m_{S.Korea}=31$). Mongolian surpass South Korean ($U_{0,000}=179$, $m_{Mongolia}=61$, $m_{S.Korea}=25$).

Behavioral Dimension of Cultural Intelligence. Vietnamese students have higher results than Mongolian ($U_{0,000}=168$, $m_{Vietnam}=64$, $m_{Mongolia}=28$) and South Korean ($U_{0,012}=543$, $m_{Vietnam}=47$, $m_{S.Korea}=34$). Mongolian have lower results than Chinese ($U_{0,000}=161$, $m_{Chinese}=67$, $m_{Mongolia}=28$) and South Koreans ($U_{0,000}=85$, $m_{S.Korea}=66$, $m_{Mongolia}=26$).

Cultural Intelligence. Vietnamese students have higher results than Chinese ($U_{0,007}=580$, $m_{China}=36$, $m_{Vietnam}=50$), Mongolian ($U_{0,000}=438$, $m_{Vietnam}=58$, $m_{Mongolia}=34$) and South Korean ($U_{0,001}=452$, $m_{Vietnam}=49$, $m_{S.Korea}=32$). Mongolian have lower results than Chinese ($U_{0,000}=447$, $m_{Chinese}=60$, $m_{Mongolia}=34$) and South Koreans ($U_{0,000}=160$, $m_{S.Korea}=65$, $m_{Mongolia}=28$).

The Spearman's rho test allowed us to evaluate correlations between cultural and Emotional intelligence among Asians. *Emotional intelligence* has negative weak correlation with *Cognitive dimension of cultural intelligence* ($r_{s\,0,02}=-0,177$). *Cultural intelligence* correlates positively with *Understanding others emotions* ($r_{s\,0,000}=0,48$), *Interpersonal emotional intelligence* ($r_{s\,0,000}=0,377$) and *Emotion understanding* ($r_{s\,0,000}=0,398$). It correlates negatively with *Expression control* ($r_{s\,0,000}=\square0,423$), *Intrapersonal emotional intelligence* ($r_{s\,0,007}=\square0,206$) and *Emotion control* ($r_{s\,0,002}=\square238$).

CONCLUSION

Results indicate the following. Vietnamese students have the highest level of cultural intelligence and its metacognitive, cognitive and behavioral dimensions and lowest level of emotional intelligence namely expression and emotion control, managing their own emotions and intrapersonal emotional intelligence. Chinese students have the highest level of emotional intelligence and all its aspects. Mongolian and Chinese students have the highest level of emotion control. Mongolian students have lowest level of cultural intelligence namely in its metacognitive, and behavioral dimensions. South Korean students have the lowest level of cultural intelligence motivation dimension.

Chinese and South Korean students have differences in every aspect of *Emotional intelligence*. South Korean students surpass others in *Cognitive dimension of Cultural Intelligence* and Chinese in *Motivational Dimension of cultural intelligence.*

Chinese students surpass Mongolian in *Emotional intelligence* except *Expression control* and *Cultural Intelligence* namely in its *Metacognitive* and *Behavioural dimensions.*

Chinese and Vietnamese students differ in *Emotional Intelligence* and its aspects and almost in every aspect of *Cultural Intelligence* except *Behavioural Dimension.* Namely Chinese student surpass in *Emotional Intelligence* whereas Vietnamese in *Cultural Intelligence.*

Vietnamese students surpass Mongolian students in *Cultural Intelligence* and its *Metacognitive, Cognitive* and *Behavioural dimensions* and *Emotional Intelligence* namely *Emotion Understanding, Understanding other people's emotions, Interpersonal Emotional Intelligence*. Mongolian students surpass Vietnamese in *Managing other people's and their own emotions, Intrapersonal Emotional Intelligence, Emotion Control* and *Motivational Dimension of Cultural Intelligence*.

Vietnamese students surpass South Korean students in *Cultural intelligence* whereas inferior in *Emotional Intelligence* namely in *Emotion Managing, Managing their own and others emotions, Understanding their own emotions, Expression Control, Intrapersonal Emotional Intelligence.*

Mongolian and South Korean students have differences in every aspect of *Cultural and Emotional Intelligence*. South Korean students have higher results in *Emotional Intelligence* namely *Understanding and Managing other people's emotions, Interpersonal Emotional Intelligence, Emotion Understanding* and *Cultural Intelligence* namely in its *Metacognitive, Cognitive, Behavioural Dimensions* and lower results in *Managing their own emotions, Emotion Managing, Intrapersonal Emotional Intelligence* and *Motivation Dimension of Cultural Intelligence.*

Emotional intelligence has negative weak correlation with *Cognitive dimension of cultural intelligence*. *Cultural intelligence* correlates positively with *Understanding others emotions, Interpersonal emotional intelligence* and *Emotion*

understanding. It correlates negatively with *Expression control*, *Intrapersonal emotional intelligence* (and *Emotion control.*

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DRIVERS OF ENGAGEMENT FOR THE PHD STUDENTS WHO PERFORM TEACHING ACTIVITIES

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ABSTRACT

PhD students are a valuable asset for universities as they are able to perform a varied number of activities. Moving on from their basic role of students, their main focus becomes researching on their theses' topics, however a PhD student life does not happen only between the walls of a library. Sometimes, PhD students perform in a benevolent or mandatory way teaching activities within their universities, which upgrades their status to collaborators of the university. However, this sort of activities bring along serious responsibilities which might require the diminishing of time dedicated for the thesis' writing. This paper's aim is to investigate which are the factors that contribute to the engagement PhD students feel for their work as teachers. According to the found driving elements, we intend to define the levels of engagement teachers-PhD students show and to layer them down in a structured way. As the research work is a complex enough work by itself, adding an activity such as the teaching one in the life of a PhD student might affect the well-run of the PhD program. Hence, a second objective of this paper is to determine if the teaching experience helps the students to cope better with the PhD requirements. Overall, the contributions of this paper can be of important value firstly for the PhD students that want to seek academic career opportunities during their PhD degree. Secondly, the paper can as well as benefit the universities that would like to manage better their PhD students and learn how to integrate them in their organizational teaching charts. Learning about their engagement drivers can lead to designing fitted win-win partnerships between the university and the PhD students that could bring added value for both sides.

Keywords: engagement, teaching, PhD degree, PhD student, drivers of engagement

INTRODUCTION

People management went through a revolution when the notion of "Personnel Management" was transformed into that of "Human Resource Management" (HRM). This reconfigured and acknowledged the major importance of the people as an indispensable resource of any organization.

HRM practices involved new concepts such as strategic integration and development, thus perceiving HRM issues as an important part of any business strategy and one of the five functions of any organization. As a result, the progress of human resource (HR), from transactional to strategic means that organizations must ensure that employees are not only physically present at their job but also mentally and emotionally. In other words, organizations desire personnel engagement and use

it as a tool of strategic competence. The absence of engagement impacts among other things a person's morale and productivity therefore the "backbone" of good working environments where workers are accountable for their actions and behave ethically.

The same concept is applicable to the staff involved in teaching activities within universities, among which PhD students also have this role.

During their doctoral studies, students experiment emotionally and intellectually intensive processes involving a wide range of positive and negative experiences [1]. Developing professional identities as both researchers and teachers is core to doctoral students' growth. Recent studies [2] evidence the fact that PhD students might identify themselves more strongly with their researcher role than with the teacher role. So it is of importance to determine what drives PhD students when performing the teacher role. In Romania, the role of a PhD students is not limited solely to their research activities for completing their thesis, but to some extent it also requires involvement in teaching activities. However, the degree to which a PhD student decides to get involved is not specified, as some may choose to dedicate only 2-3 hours per week for these teaching activities while others may engage in these teaching activities over 30 hours of their weekly time-frame.

Hence, this paper's aim is made of two major objectives, each and one of them setting another two research hypotheses.

O1: To investigate which are the factors that contribute to the engagement PhD students feel for their work as a teacher.

H1: PhD students feel engaged to the teaching activities they perform.

H2: Both intrinsic and extrinsic factors contribute to the engagement PhD students have for the teaching activities they perform.

O2: To determine if the teaching experience helps students to cope better with the PhD requirements.

H3: Performing teaching activities during the PhD studies help students explore better their field of study.

H4: Performing teaching activities during the PhD studies decreases the students' time for research and work for the thesis itself.

From the above mentioned objectives and hypotheses, it can be noticed that various facets of PhD students' engagement are intended to be explored through this research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Throughout the literature the concept of "engagement" or "people engagement" has received various definitions based on the culture and organization that it was

referred to. In 1990, Khan was the first to propose the use of such concept as he tied it to one's physically employment, expression, cognition and emotion in a person's work life. Starting with that moment, researchers have argued weather the concept as defined by Khan [3] can be applicable to all type of organizations thereby generating confusion in business management. In 2004, [4] it was declared that engaging workers of an organization is not solely including the cognition but also they considered the flexibility provided by people's behaviour and emotions. Later on, [5] engagement was defined as a mixture of productivity, ownership, loyalty and commitment whereas Cha [6] see's engagement as the worker's active involvement in the activity, psychology, cognition and emotions of the working environment. All these researchers along with Liu [7] who defined engagement as a five dimension concept namely organizational identity, dedication, absorption, vigour, pleasant and harmony, have in commune the way they approached human's engagement in work: as a multi-faced construct.

Other researchers defined person's engagement in work as a dedicated willingness, such as Hewitt Organization explained in 2001, employees will work hard for the organization as reflected by what they say, by their decision to remain loyal to the organization and by the way they will strive for its success. Therefore, people's engagement in work is highly related to their satisfaction and sense of achievement [8].

Still, other authors [9] define engagement as a positive state of mind characterized by absorption, vigor dedication and a deep pervasive affective-cognition which is not focused on a specific event, person or behavior. Among all the three ways engagement was defined in the literature throughout the years there can also be identified a fourth approach, that is defining a person's engagement in work as the opposite of Burnout. Thus, engagement becomes the opposite of reduces professional engagement and efficacy, exhaustion or cynicism. It becomes the other end of the Burnout dimension like participation, effectiveness and energy [10], [11], [12].

METHODOLOGY

In order to answer the research questions, it has been used a qualitative approach for developing the data collection. The selected participants have been given an online form with open-ended questions. The answers have been carefully analyzed and patterns have been identified in order to draw conclusions according to the research's objectives.

Sample description

The research is based on the answers of 15 PhD students from various study years, most of them belonging to the management and economics fields of research. All of them perform teaching activities within their home universities in parallel with the research activities for their PhD thesis. Almost 80% of the participants had teaching activities because they volunteered to or because the opportunity has been offered and they did not want to miss it. In most of the cases, 40%, the course

coordinator is the same as the thesis coordinator, PhD students teach only one subject taught in one of the semesters and they perform a total of two to five teaching activities per week, on average. The majority of the participants answered that they started to teach from their very first year of PhD studies and more than half of them get paid for the work done, either for all the hours, or after they had taught a mandatory number of hours. The work they are requested to do includes in most of the cases the design of the seminar classes, including presentations and researching for case studies, the design of test papers and marking them. In almost all the cases, the PhD students are involved also in other activities besides the teaching ones, most of the times a full-time or part-time job in a company.

Since the study has been conducted in Bucharest, Romania and the answers have been given by PhD students in Bucharest, Romania, the later on discussed results might illustrate better a reality that belongs to the Romanian academic space and be of more significance to the Romanian universities. However, Romania is a country with Central and Easter European specificities and that belongs for more than twelve years now to the European Union. Moreover, given the fact we all live in a digitalized society with similar conditions for the formal education recognition and professional route in the universities' environment, it is not forced to assume that the results obtained in this study could characterize PhD students from many countries and could give useful hints for stakeholders that aren't necessarily belonging to the Romanian space.

The data gathering tool's description

The designed instrument for collecting the data of this study consists of five sections. The first section was designed to gather general identification information of the participants. The next four sections have each comprised questions especially designed to obtain data for the purpose of each of the set hypotheses. However, the questions have been imagined in such a way that the respondent would find a logical sequence between them and that the answering of one question could facilitate the process of answering for the next one.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

This section of the research paper focuses on delivering an interpretation on the results that have been obtained after analyzing the answers offered by the participants. It is of great importance to interpret the results in the context of the actual scientifically knowledge available so that they can help other researchers and different other stakeholders of the topic to better understand the issues and to further develop it.

The first hypothesis explores whether PhD students feel engaged to the teaching activities they perform.

Having in mind the engagement's definition proposed by Schaufeli [9], that engagement is a positive state of mind related to work characterized by vigor,

dedication and absorption, we analyzed whether the participants' answers expressed any of these feelings.

Nevertheless, before proceeding to a further analysis, it is of worth to reinforce that the teacher role for a PhD student must be seen in the labor's paradigm. Even though 80% of the people involved in the study volunteered to teach, almost 70% of them get a form of remuneration for the work done and they are fully responsible for the activity with the students. Hence, the analysis of their engagement is studied as for any other form of work with its specific drivers.

Being asked what they mostly enjoy about the teacher role, most of the PhD students' answers indicated the interaction with students and the possibility to witness their progress. Additionally, PhD students also enjoy the feeling they have when they are able to teach students something useful for their future careers. On the other hand, at the question what they dislike, people's drawbacks vary from the lack of flexibility in arranging the teaching schedule to the lack of updated course materials and a rather poor payment. Overall, keeping in mind both the positive aspects PhD students enjoy about their teaching roles and the negative ones, one very important question for the study purpose was how do they feel about the teaching role. 80% of the answers contained adjectives such as *great, very good* and *excited.* Most of them described the teacher role as a *great experience, fulfilling, rewarding* or even *a must during the PhD years.* 13% of the answers contained the word *challenging.*

In conclusion, it can be stated that the first hypothesis is confirmed, so PhD students feel engaged in the work they do as teachers.

The second hypothesis investigates if both intrinsic and extrinsic factors contribute to the engagement PhD students have for the teaching activities they perform.

Table 1 – The relationship of PhD students related to different university characters

Relationship with:	1- very weak	2- weak	3- indifferent	4- good	5- very good
Thesis coordinator	-	-	6.7%	13.3%	80.0%
Other PhD students	-	-	20%	26.7%	53.3%
Members of the same teaching department	-	-	20%	60%	20%
Secretary stuff	-	-	20%	40%	40%
Other professors from other departments	-	-	33.3%	40%	26.7%
The dean	-	-	40%	33.3%	26.7%

Source: Authors' own results

We choose to consider the engagement drivers as the key factors that incentive and boost the feeling of engagement. These factors can be of both intrinsic and extrinsic nature. Regarding the extrinsic factors we considered that of great importance in the analysis process is looking at the relationship PhD students have during their teacher role with the university figures mentioned in table 1. We can notice that the best relationship PhD students have is the one with their thesis coordinator and with other PhD students. We can advance the idea that they are their main source of information regarding their preparation as teachers. The other university figures such as other professors, the dean, and the support stuff seem to make their positive contribution or at least not one that has a negative impact. As a matter of fact, more than 80% of the participants at this research mentioned there was no change of attitude towards them after taking the role of teachers.

In terms of intrinsic factors that could make a contribution to the engagement PhD students feel for their teacher work, we asked them to describe their feelings before, during and after completing the teaching activity. The range of emotions experienced before starting a teaching activity is wide and PhD students feel from *nothing in particular* to anxiety or optimism and confidence. On the other hand, during the class, more the 35% of the participants feel a form of *excitement* described through words such as *happy, optimistic*, *confident*. In their majority, the answers contain words that describe positive feelings. Regarding the feelings experienced after the class is complete, the PhD students answered in more than 35% of the cases they feel a form or another of *pride and satisfaction, related to a feeling of happiness.* Answers also indicate they feel energetic and ready to continue the work. In 27% of the cases, PhD students indicate a state of exhaustion and a feeling of relief which can be seen of normal if considering 90 minutes of deep state of concentration.

In conclusion to hypothesis two and the paper's first objective, we can state that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors contribute to the engagement PhD students feel for their teacher role.

In addition to this, we can name among the engagement drivers:

- the interaction with the students
- the observation of the students' progresses
- the feeling of doing a meaningful work
- the passion about the taught topic
- the good interaction with the thesis' coordinator.

The third hypothesis, under the second paper's objective, explores whether performing teaching activities during the PhD studies help students explore better their field of study.

Regarding our research's participants, in more than 86% of the cases, the subjects they teach are strongly related to the topic of their thesis. This first information could lead us to the conclusion that researching about the classes' materials overlaps with researching for the thesis itself, even though it could be at a much lower information level. The average research time for the teaching topic is of 4-6 hours/week and the main sources of information include in more than 50% of the situations the Internet,

the textbooks and the most important journals such as Harvard Business Review or the Economist, in order to extract study cases.

Hence, it can be drawn the conclusion that the teaching activities PhD students perform do help them explore better their research field.

The forth hypothesis intents to investigate if performing teaching activities during the PhD studies decreases the students' time for research and work for the thesis itself.

For this purpose, participants were asked to describe how their lifestyle and work style change after having started to take the teacher role. In 60% of the cases they described major changes in their lives, especially in terms of becoming more organized due to the diminishing of their free time. In 13.5% of the cases, the PhD students accused a negative change of their personal life as well as and in 20% of the cases, the PhD students affirmed they became happier.

On the other hand, in terms of how the teaching role affects the activities of research for the thesis topic, the situations have wide variations and it cannot be drawn a conclusion based on this sample. It appears as if each case is different according to the thesis topic, side activities, such as a job and every person's capacity to organize its work.

In conclusion, based on the questions that explored the fourth hypothesis it can be said that the teaching role does affect the PhD students' life and focus on the thesis' activities. However, further research is needed in order to make affirmations related to its positivity or negativity.

CONCLUSION

This research paper had as objective to determine the engagement drivers for the PhD students that perform teaching activities. Additionally, it investigated whether the teacher role influences the researcher role for the thesis purpose.

Our results show the fact that the interaction with the students, the observation of the students' progresses, the feeling of doing a meaningful work, the passion about the taught topic and the good interaction with the thesis' coordinator are all drivers that engage the PhD students with their teacher role. Moreover it can be noticed these drivers belong to both the intrinsic and the extrinsic sphere so, a first recommendation we could make for a future research would be to determine in what amounts and in which ways, each category of factors contribute to the engagement.

Secondly, regarding the interference between the teacher role and the PhD requirements regarding the thesis' writing, our results show the fact that most of the times the taught topic is related to the thesis topic. Hence, the research done by the PhD students to prepare their classes adds up to the research needed for the thesis itself. In addition to this, regarding the organization of time and personal resources, our present results show a significant change in the personal and professional life that

could lead to a diminishing in the time allocated for the thesis' research. Consequently, a second recommendation we would like to make regarding a future research regards an investigation searching a deeper connection between the teacher role and the researcher role.

However, it must be acknowledged the fact that this research has some major limitations and its discoveries cannot be given the rank of general truth. First of all, the sample of participant PhD students is rather small (i.e. 15 people) and their fields of research is rather limited (i.e. the study has been conducted in only one big university of Bucharest) There are great chances that a replication of this study on a bigger sample or in a different geographical area leads us to slightly different results and observations and a greater variety of perspectives.

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EDUCATION, LOCAL GOVERNMENTS AND THEIR ASSOCIATION: THE CASE OF ESTONIA

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ABSTRACT

The aim of the article is to analyse the dual role of Estonian local governments and their associations – as providers of educational services and as customers of educational services. This is primarily a qualitative case study, which employs comparative and historical methods. Legislation, case law and relevant scientific literature, as well as practical experiences, are incorporated in this analysis. The key issues considered are the inadequacy of the legal framework, as well as insufficiency of coordination and financing. The article consists of three parts. Firstly, managing general education as the most important task of Estonian local government will be analysed from a legal perspective. Secondly, the role and functions of local governments and their associations in providing various educational services will be analysed. The role of the state and local governments in establishing and maintaining basic schools and upper secondary schools are of key interest. In particular, their financing model. Thirdly, in-service training of local governments in Estonia and its situational aspects are analysed. Finally, the authors make suggestions on how to resolve the identified problems in the complex sphere of local governments and their associations as providers and customers of educational services.

Keywords: *Education, Estonia, Law, Local Government, Local Government Associations*

INTRODUCTION

Estonia is a small country in the Baltic region (45 339 km²; population: 1.3 million), which declared its independence in 1918, lost it in 1940 and regained it in 1991. The Constitution of the Republic of Estonia was adopted by referendum in 1992. Estonia is a member of the Council of Europe since 1993 and a member of the European Union (EU) since 2004.

Today, educational problems are at the centre of (often heated) public debates in almost any country. Estonia is not an exception in this respect. Jakob Hurt (1839-1907), a prominent historical-cultural figure in Estonia has said: "Even if we as a

nation shall not be great in a number of populations, we should become great in spirit!" [1].

The aim of the article is to analyse the dual role of Estonian local governments and their associations – as providers and customers of educational services. This is primarily a qualitative case study, which employs analytical, comparative and historical methods. Legislation, case law and relevant scientific literature, as well as practical experiences, will be used to deal with such a complex subject. Key problems, such as specific inadequacies of the legal framework as well as insufficiency of coordination and financing, are identified and some solutions are proposed.

The article consists of three parts. In the first chapter managing general education as the most important task of Estonian local government will be analysed from a legal perspective – the legislative framework being outlined and key problems identified.

In the second chapter, the role and functions of local governments and their associations in providing various educational services will be analysed. The role of the state and local governments in establishing and maintaining basic schools and upper secondary schools will be of primary interest for authors. Also, the problems with the financing model of local governments as institutions responsible for these schools will be dealt with.

The development of cooperation between central authorities, local governments, their associations, universities and NGOs are a corollary for the sustainable development of education. In the third chapter, various aspects of in-service training of local governments in Estonia will be analysed and also a brief look back into recent history undertaken. The Association of Estonian Cities and Rural Municipalities – recently formed a national association of Estonian local governments – has a central role to play through negotiations with the Estonian Government to determine the financing of the tasks performed by local governments, including education. To provide sustainability of the educational system, the authors will make some suggestions on how to resolve the identified problems in the complex sphere of local governments and their associations as providers and customers of the educational services.

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MANAGING GENERAL EDUCATION AS THE MOST IMPORTANT TASK OF ESTONIAN LOCAL GOVERNMENT FROM A LEGAL PERSPECTIVE.

Organization of general education is an essential task for Estonian local governments. As a constitutional duty of local governments, it accounts for 40% of local budgetary costs and a substantial number of municipal personnel is involved.

The first sentence of Article 37 (2) of the Constitution establishes that in order to make education accessible, the national government and local authorities maintain a requisite number of educational institutions [2] (Constitution). On the legislative level, the most important laws are the Republic of Estonia Education Act, [3] Basic Schools and Upper Secondary Schools Act and [4] Local Government Organization Act (LGOA). Pursuant to Article 6 (2) of the LGOA, it is mandatory for local governments to organize the maintenance of pre-schools, primary and middle schools, secondary schools, schools offering after-school programs.

Relations between local government bodies and state government agencies are based on law and contract. According to the State Budget Act (§ 46. The connection between the state budget and local government budgets) the representatives of the local governments and national associations of local governments and the representatives of the Government of the Republic shall annually conduct negotiations with the objective to agree upon the [5] financing of public tasks performed by local governments (incl. general education) and other relevant matters.

The local government associations are, by nature, a bridge between the local and central governments, representing the interests of the local governments and thus providing extra power at the local level. The so-called cooperative associations play a significant role in harmonizing differences between the local governments and in facilitating joint activities. In Estonia, the local government associations predominantly have the coordinating and planning role, and aim at developing regional, nationwide and international cooperation, while also acting in the advisory capacity. The purpose of the associations is, above all, to support the local governments. Unlike in Finland, Sweden, Denmark and Germany where cooperative associations have quite a lot of public tasks delegated to them, the cooperative associations predominantly represent the local governments in Estonia.

The annual negotiations between the cooperation assembly and the central government are still important. Unlike on some occasion in the past, in recent years, increasingly more common ground has been found, and leaders of the associations and the public administration minister signed a protocol [6].

In 2017. administrative reform (mainly administrative-territorial) was held where local government units were reduced from 213 to 79 municipalities. Predominantly it has increased administrative capacity, but this is not created a new quality in itself. To this end, there is a need to modernize in-depth training and collaborative projects in Local governments the taking into account of decentralization principle.

The legal area concerning local and national tasks are inadequate and need to be modernized as the next phase after administrative reform. Suggestions about potential changes have been made by local governments and their associations. However, the procedure has not reached the appropriate legislation. The current local governments financing framework does not offer a holistic model of funding for education. It is not guaranteed that all the municipality educational services are financed. In some cases, it is divided into the state, others to the local government. This affects the fiscal autonomy of the local governments which has also been highlighted in 2019

government's coalition agreement. The Government of the Republic has an assignment to the Ministry of Finance and stakeholders to review the LGOA. However, its results are unknown at the time of writing [7].

The future negotiations for the educational costs budget are assembled in the commission of Education- and Youth Work where the funding for assignments of the Local governments are discussed. It is up for the local governments to decide which are the funding priorities locally. In 2019 budget negotiations have been focusing on increasing the revenue base. The solution is to allocate extra funding for new infrastructure investments, teachers and support specialist, youth workers funding schemes which then are invested according to the educational needs in local government. Technical solutions such as less project-based funding and the change of funding through confident distribution should be changed in order to increase the autonomy of local government [8].

The problem of ensuring local government fiscal autonomy is still a problem. There is an active discussion of how to expand substantially the financial autonomy of the local governments; for example, by creating a system of local taxes. The local tax law has been subject to great criticism so far. There is still a discussion between state and local government representatives on how to ensure that the principles of democracy and decentralization are adhered to and the principle of subsidiarity is applied, while considering the provisions of the Constitution and the European Charter of Local Self-Government, and the historical experience in organizing open government; to involve the local governments and their associations, universities and representatives of the third sector in the shaping and implementation of regional and local self-government policies. The above basic principles of development need to be further clarified and developed. There are many new forms of cooperation in local government, state and universities relations in the field of education.

Local government conferences have become an annual study event for hundreds of politicians, civil servants and others. In 2019, the 15th conference took place. Politicians, officials and experts take the floor at the conferences. A discussion of representatives of political parties has also become a tradition.

Assemblies of the state, the local governments and universities have become a new form of cooperation on the initiative of NGO Polis. Research-driven decisions, analyses of activities and their outcomes have become increasingly important for local government. For example, a discussion on state and local government partnerships was jointly prepared for the parliament to ponder as a matter of national importance. The Assembly of Local Governments has become a new form of cooperation. The First Assembly of Local Governments took place in the parliament building on October 4, 2016, when a resolution addressed to the leaders of the country and local governments were adopted [9]. A bill, which introduced October 1st as Local Self-Government Day, which also made it a national holiday was adopted in the parliament on May 2018. The Fourth Assembly of Local Governments will be organized in Pärnu on September 19, 2019, and the main topic will be "Education, Science and Entrepreneurship – The Way to the Future."

Estonia is very well known for its public IT services. For local governments, the IT sector is becoming increasingly important. The Association of Municipalities recently started to offer information technology-related services and the services will be provided under the new association, too.

At the same time, IT services are not accessible to all and their quality is different in local governments. This is also linked to schools. For example, in the capital city of Tallinn and several other local governments, e-school is a daily part of teaching. However, in remote areas of the centres, the high-speed internet is still unavailable today.

After Estonia joined the European Union in 2004 the Estonian local governments sent their representatives to the EU Committee of the Regions.

As the world is moving into a new paradigm, technological advances have delivered a revolution. In the coming years, AI will change almost every sector of the economy and also the world and local governments. Further development of AI-related activities requires investments in human resources, technology, research and education from different EU instruments such as Horizon Europe, Digital Europe and Erasmus. Adequate research on ethical aspects and social impacts of AI should be paid attention. European local and regional authorities need to be more involved in guiding developments in the field of AI in areas such as self-driving vehicles and demand-based public transport, smart city concepts, smart solutions in social welfare and health care, the environment, its application to e-government and different e-services in the field of education. In addition, we emphasize the need to develop further flexible mechanisms for implementing AI and for financing innovation in the EU. AI will begin to work for many people in the near future. This will also mean that many people may lose their jobs, or the nature of the job may change. It is vital for society to adapt to the new situation; people that lose their jobs will need retraining and further development of the education system [10].

It`s important to encourage the EU to seize the opportunity to automate processes and repetitive tasks through the use of machines and artificial intelligence capable of performing repetitive tasks much more quickly than humans.

THE ROLE AND FUNCTIONS OF LOCAL GOVERNMENTS AND THEIR ASSOCIATIONS IN PROVIDING VARIOUS EDUCATIONAL SERVICES

Since the restoration of local self-government in Estonia in the early 1990s, general education has been the largest cost item in local budgets, accounting for an average of 40% of municipal budgets [11].

The Basic and Upper Secondary Schools Act states that the rural municipality or city council create municipal schools [12]. State schools are created by the responsible minister but the local governments where the schools are to be created, are heard to establish the need for state schools in the area, considering the regional education policy and the local school network. The responsible minister issues

operating permits to municipal schools but he/she may also revoke them if 1) Administrative supervision procedures reveal that the headmaster/headmistress, his/her deputy, teachers, teaching assistants and other support staff working in the school do not meet the qualification requirements, the teaching does not comply with the requirements of the national curricula or the school curricula drawn up based on the national ones, the statutory measures for supporting the development of the students taken in the school do not comply with the laws, the learning environment does not meet safety and health requirements, there are deviations from the curriculum or the school in some other way disregards laws or legal acts issued on the basis of the legislation, and the school desists from remedying the established deficiencies within the prescribed period of time and in the required manner; 2) The school has not become operational within one year of the date the operating permit was issued; 3) The school has been closed down.

The Basic Schools and Upper Secondary Schools Act stipulates that the owner of the school must cover all costs of the school. In most cases, it means the locals have the right to establish, reorganize and close down general education schools. Also, local governments keep records of school-aged children, ensure that they attend school, organize their transportation to and from school, provide meals during school days etc. [12].

Annual subsidies, dependent on the number of students in municipal schools, are paid from the state budget to municipal budgets. The subsidies cover the cost of teachers' salaries, social tax paid on the salaries, in-service training of the teaching staff and textbooks for students. Similar support is provided for private general education schools under the Private Schools Act. In doing so, the state does not dictate to owners of schools how to distribute the allocated funds between expenditure items. It is the responsibility and the right of the local governments to finance schools depending on their actual needs.

The responsibilities of the local governments regarding general education are best characterized by the tasks of Tallinn Education Department, an agency under Tallinn City Government. The Department: Handles issues in the educational sphere in Tallinn that has to do with education policy; Offers to counsel to children, their parents and educational institutions; Creates conditions necessary for offering basic, primary, secondary and hobby education in the institutions managed by the Department; Manages the network of institutions under the Department, shapes its development, makes proposals to the City Government to establish, restructure and close down the institutions; Supervises the institutions managed by the Department; Analyses the findings of education-related reports; Makes draft estimates of annual education spending and approves the budgets of the institutions managed by the Department; Draws up plans for the construction, major refurbishment and renovation of the institutions managed by the Department and, if necessary, does the preparatory work and manages the project; Coordinates information-technological development of the educational institutions in Tallinn; Holds open competitions to fill vacant headmaster/headmistress posts of the educational institutions in Tallinn; Is in charge of municipal property managed by the Department (includes holding, the use and disposal of the property); Pursues and coordinates international cooperation in educational sphere; Compiles educational databases.

Resources are allocated from the state budget to municipal budgets mainly through two funds – the Equalization Fund and the Support Funds. In the 2019 state budget, 102 million euros have been earmarked for the local authorities through the Equalization Fund and 417 million euros through the Support Fund [13].

It includes 314.2 million euros for educational expenditure, 15 million euros for topping up labour costs in pre-schools, and 14.3 million euros for topping up the cost of recreational activities of the youth. Among the OECD countries, the financing for basic and Upper Secondary school education is one of the lowest funded out of GDP.

Digital services are a priority in the development of the Estonian society. In education, digital services are also important, e.g. there is the e-school project.

Although electronic document management is already widely spread in the local governments, and council committees are known to hold electronic meetings, while council members are known to have attended council meetings using Skype (on islands), the local government information system VOLIS as a multifunctional software solution has the potential to bring cities and rural municipalities vigorously into the information technology era. For example, the solution allows council members to attend council meetings or meetings of council committees without being physically present: He/she must only have a computer with an Internet connection where he/she can identify himself/herself using an identity document. Voting, which can be done online via VOLIS, and revising documents, etc. is also easier. In principle, it is possible to replace the forms of work of the local government representative body and its committees which require a physical presence in the same room, with effective long-distance communication. The system brings together electronic governance, participatory democracy and document management [14].

We can generally be satisfied with the quality of general education in Estonia. We can say that because studies conducted by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development put Estonia among top countries on the basis of PISA test results. For example, in 2015, Estonia was ranked third among 73 countries of the world in natural sciences, 6th in functional reading and 9th in mathematics. Singapore was the first in all three categories [15].

ON IN-SERVICE TRAINING OF LOCAL GOVERNMENTS IN ESTONIA AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF COOPERATION BETWEEN CENTRAL AUTHORITIES, LOCAL GOVERNMENTS, THEIR ASSOCIATIONS, UNIVERSITIES AND NGOS

In the early 1990s, Estonia became a democratic society based on the market economy and transitioned from a centralized administrative system (local Soviets) to local government units, who decide and organize all local matters. During the process, training respective local politicians and officials was an important task. This was somewhat facilitated by the fact that local governments had already operated in Estonia until 1940. We gained appropriate knowledge from the literature of that time as well as memories of older people who shared their experiences with the younger generation [16].

The in-service training of local governments was provided by Estonian Institute of Public Administration and also by several training institutions outside of Tallinn (in Tartu; in Paide, Central Estonia, etc.). The training of local government politicians and officials was also in focus at the national level. In 1991, the Government of the Republic of Estonia formed the Administrative Reform Committee (*Haldusreformi Komitee*), which had a commission for matters regarding the status and qualification of people employed at local government bodies.

The offices of local government associations often organized seminars, where primarily ministers or representatives of other government bodies informed the local government politicians and officials of what had been done and what would be done in their respective area of governance. The National Counselling Day for Local Governments held on 11 February 1994 in Tallinn, where ca 80% of representatives of Estonia's rural municipalities and towns participated, is worthy of special notice. One of its more important results was establishing the Local Government Associations' Co-operation Assembly, which was assigned an important duty— negotiating with representatives of the Government of the Republic on the volume and principles under which local budgets were to be financed from the state budget. Offices of local government associations also provided expert assessments on the drafts of laws and other legislative acts. This, in turn, meant that local government representatives needed to have legal, economic, managerial and other relevant knowledge. Back then, we considered co-operation with foreign countries that had long-standing and consistent local government traditions exceedingly important. The closest relations were formed with Finland, Sweden, Denmark, and the Federal Republic of Germany; to a lesser extent also with the Netherlands, Austria, the US, UK, Norway, and some other countries. Hundreds of our local government politicians and officials had the opportunity to take part in training trips to some foreign country that sometimes lasted for up to two weeks. Yet, besides that, training seminars or cycles of seminars were organized nationally for thousands of local government politicians and officials.

A good example of international cooperation and results analysis in the field is the project developed by Estonian and Swedish local government associations and universities called the Estonian Development of Administrative Structures and Innovation (EDASI). The final report of the project was the first feasibility study on the needs for capacity building and training among Estonian and Swedish smaller municipalities.

The analysis of the situation of in-service training of local governments in Estonia and Sweden and the conclusions were very important for the planning of further activities. For example, some aspects related to Estonia: "The results of the survey confirmed the assumption that the number of organizations dealing with local government-related issues and targeting at local government in Estonia is quite big. Despite certain problems, it would be wrong to claim that local government issues are neglected or that the local government is not offered education/training or support in the form of research and development. The survey also confirmed the assumed problems: the local government targeted activities are inconsistent, project-based, possibly individual, person-based and uncoordinated. The results of the survey thus reveal several deficiencies in the local government targeted education and training,

research and development activities in Estonia. Discussion of these issues and possible solutions (coordination of cooperation, increasing the share of the local government-related issues at research and development institutions, enhancing sustainability and continuity of the activities) will have a significant impact on the development of the Estonian local government and quality both in municipalities as well as in education and research institutions [17].

As a result of the project, a number of common problems of Estonia and Sweden were identified as well as the presentation of their possible solutions. For example: „As indicated, one of the main common findings drawn from the project is the lack a systematic approach to address training and capacity building of Estonian and Swedish smaller municipalities. Although there are many institutions and training providers in the field in both countries, there seem to be a lack of methodologies and tools for measuring the quality of training and development activities as well as for assessing training needs in the municipalities. Consequently, mapping of needs and existent competence level in the municipalities is required for the development of more systematic and demand-driven training activities that are adjusted to the specific needs of local officers. In overall, these findings also show that there is a need for developing training policies and identifying systems, methods and tools that can allow for a more systematic approach to the provision of competence and knowledge in both smaller Swedish and Estonian local governments. [17]. For example, in relation to the above, several analyses for the need of in-service training of local governments have been carried out by private companies and government institutions, including the Ministry of Finance and the Association of Estonian Cities and Rural Municipalities [18].

According to the current organization of in-service training for civil service, the Ministry of Finance formulates the transnational staff policy and strategy together with the Top Civil Service Excellence Centre of the Government Office and ministries, highlighting the possibilities of strategic areas and transnational activities for achieving objectives; develops area-specific principles, processes, guidelines, forms, and other base materials, offering technological solutions on a central level, if necessary; ensures general reporting, accounting and communication, including between different networks; coordinates the continued development of public service in co-operation with the Top Civil Service Excellence Centre of the Government Office.

The in-service training of government officials, including local government officials, is organized at the national level in co-operation with the State Shared Service Centre, SA Innove, etc. The local government authorities, considering the restrictions to their right of self-organization, realize the transnational staff policy and strategy pursuant to the objectives of their organization, plan staff policy activities necessary for achieving their organization's objectives in their main fields of activity, and ensure the necessary communication. The Ministry of Finance and State Shared Service Centre have developed a training module for the self-service portal of government and local government officials [RTIP]. The portal features both central and institutional training courses.

On the one hand, a training module is a tool for training experts that enables to manage training courses, which allows preparing invitations to courses, notifications about training courses; manage training materials and participants; request feedback, as well as summarize and compile feedback results. On the other hand, the training module provides an employee with a complete overview of the training courses useful for them, enables to submit applications for courses, register to courses and provide feedback.

The Ministry of Finance, in co-operation with the State Shared Service Centre, organizes various training courses for the public sector, from top local government executives to ordinary officials. For example, the 2019 training schedule includes the following courses delegation of public services; the development program for skills in policymaking; training courses for the development program of local government heads; local government leaders' masterclass; ethics of public service. Training courses are conducted by various organizations. For example, the Estonian Academy of Security Sciences, *Sotsiaalse Innovatsiooni Labor MTÜ*, Praxis Centre for Policy Studies Foundation, Estonian Training and Conference Center Ltd. [19].

CONCLUSION

The aim of the article was to analyse the role of Estonian local governments and their associations with regard to education. Coordination and cooperation in the field of education have turned out to be more effective during the past years. The Local Government Organization Act is being analysed by the Ministry of Finance working group. At the same time, more strategic focus is needed in the area of development. It is important that the state, local governments, their associations and universities continue with the modernization of the existing legal space, expanding the tasks of the local government in the education field. The fiscal autonomy problems need to be further acknowledged by policymakers. The role and functions of local governments in providing various educational services (including IT) should be defined in law and sufficient funding provided for increasing local governments revenue base. Management of general education is more effective after the 2017 administrative reform; though internal planning of education needs more efficient management. Modernization of cooperation with universities, vocational schools and local associations is important. For the sustainability of educational services, in-service training of local governments and the development of cooperation between central authorities should be enhanced. The importance of continuing education for local politicians and officials has been understood but no sustainable operating system has been set up for this purpose. Training, creation of competence centres and cooperation networks between different stakeholders on education should be created in order to develop efficient educational services in local governments.

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FACULTY' BELIEFS ABOUT MULTILINGUALISM AND A MULTILINGUAL PEDAGOGICAL APPROACH

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ABSTRACT

Language skills are the ultimate 21st century social skill, linked to creativity, problem solving, and the ability to effectively communicate. Knowledge of teachers' beliefs is central to understanding teachers' decision-making in the classroom. In an interconnected and globalized world, foreign language is a global competency, and multilingualism is an essential social skill. Multilingualism plays a significant role in developing the intercultural skills necessary for global talent in a globalized workplace, for an effective and engaged cosmopolitan global citizen, and it is an essential tool in addressing complex global issues. In this study a sample of 151 faculty members participated in the study. A self-administered questionnaire was used to collect primary data. The secondary data were collected from the documents in the ministry of Education. Study revealed that faculty beliefs affect multilingualism. The value of R^2 of .45 indicates that 45% of the variations in multilingualism in learning is explained by faculty beliefs in general. This means that the universities need to take into consideration the multilingualism while teaching in institutions of higher learning.

Keywords: multilingualism, multilingual, pedagogical

INTRODUCTION

Many countries across the globe are experiencing an increase in linguistic diversity due to immigration, conflicts and wars, especially in Africa [2]. Immigrant children who speak different languages constitute more than half of the student population in many schools in Europe [11]. As a result, in many countries both in the North and South, multilingualism has become a norm. While multilingualism is regarded as a linguistic and educational resource [2] recent research shows that it is also an educational challenge for children who start schooling in languages other than their home languages (such as English and French), both in countries in the North and in the South [6].

Even though the European Union and the Council of Europe are encouraging multilingualism, it is rarely seen in official language policies. In Austria, for example, Slovene is neglected in favour of German. This is because having everyone speak German is thought to be good for social cohesion [16]. In Portugal, a similar situation occurs, with the difference being that second-language speakers are usually immigrants. As part of nation building, many countries opt for a monolingual policy, aiming towards single-language societies. This frequently alienates speakers of

minority languages from influential positions. Even if national languages are local, they still put students who are speakers of other languages at a disadvantage.

Multilinguals differ from bilinguals and monolinguals in several respects. Research has shown, for example, that multilinguals demonstrate superior metalinguistic and metacognitive abilities, such as the ability to draw comparisons between different languages and to reflect on and employ appropriate learning strategies. Given the important role of the language teacher in promoting learners' multilingualism, research focused on teachers' knowledge and beliefs about multilingualism and multilingual pedagogical approaches is surprisingly scarce. The present research project aims to gain further insight into these issues. This study explores Russian, Kazakh and English in KATU University.

A multilingual pedagogy should be regarded not as a unified methodology but as a set of principles that are used to varying degrees in different approaches depending on the teaching context, curriculum and learners. Clearly, a multilingual pedagogical approach in the classroom requires competent teachers. Based on the discussions in De Angelis (2011), Hufeisen (2011) [9] and Otwinowska (2014) [15], language teachers should ideally be able to meet several, if not all, of the following requirements. While the UN has embraced multilingualism, including the use of 6 official languages to facilitate effective communication on a broad array of global issue, and the European Union has embraced multilingualism as a core value, with 24 official languages, examined the role of language in the development of cosmopolitanism as a global personal cultural identity, empirically finding that knowledge of languages certainly facilitates a broader worldview. Most importantly, foreign language skills tend to make us more tolerant and open to other ideas. The video, *How Learning a New Language Makes You More Tolerant*, released by the World Economic Forum, 2017 highlights the fact that language learning makes us more comfortable with new experiences and situations, increasing our ability to effectively navigate encounters with new ideas and new ways of doing things. In a multilingual and multicultural world, foreign language skills and knowledge of other cultures are the essential global competency and social skill.

The importance of developing multilingual educational practices is stressed by extensive research, in traditional forms of bilingual education, patterns of language use may be characterised as "double monolingualism" as the different languages are separated from each other [7]. One such example is the bilingual education that has been offered to some Sami- and Finnish-speaking students in Sweden, as well as similar educational forms in Wales with Welsh and in Ireland with Irish [14]. Studies from classrooms where minority languages are used have revealed that often only the teacher's use of the minority language is tolerated, not that of the students, and that teachers often use the minority language, that is the language that is not dominant in school, mainly to rebuke and sometimes to explain when students fail to understand. This may increase the stigmatisation of the minority language, as well as its speakers.

Research on interaction in contexts when teachers are not present has revealed patterns of interaction that may be characterised as translanguaging, that is interaction where different linguistic resources are used without clear borders between varieties

that are usually viewed as separate, named languages [10]. Hélot [7] describes a situation where according to official norms, different languages are to be treated as strictly separate, but where she found students to be translating between languages and reflecting over the relation between words in the different languages, as well as some teachers to be challenging the official norms by teaching using both languages in parallel.

The increasing use of the concept translanguaging and its role in education has resulted in the creation of new forms of dynamic, multilingual educational practices. Recognition of the complexity in the language practices that students are included in may result in the multilingual and dynamic interaction patterns that they engage in outside the classroom continuing inside the classroom. This enables the development not only of skills in different named languages, but also of skills that are necessary when navigating multilingual contexts, such as linguistic negotiation, translation and explanation, as well as when switching between diverse linguistic resources and using them in a flexible manner. Multilingualism includes diverse modalities, not least digital, and when it is combined with literacy education; students are given the opportunity to develop what Hornberger calls biliteracy.

SAKEN SEIFULLIN KAZAKH AGROTECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

Saken Seifullin Kazakh Agrotechnical University is the largest agrarian Higher Educational Institution of Central and North Kazakhstan, the first Higher Educational Institution of Astana. Seifullin KATU is reckoned among 10 basic universities of the country which are carrying out personnel training for projects of a state program of industrial and innovative development of the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2015 - 2019.

Even though the concepts of multilingualism and multilingual competence have been explored from various perspectives, our focus is on learning. Our theoretical background, therefore, is to be found in Blommaert's (2010) definition on multilingualism and in theories related to trans languaging [4], [5]. The purpose is to promote the development of learners' multilingual communicative competence through multilingual mediation and meaning-making. In the higher education institutions of Kazakhstan the Multicultural Education is not taught as a separate compulsory course, but the issues of multicultural education are considered in the Pedagogy course for all future specialties in the field of education. In a number of universities, curricula include subjects aimed at the formation of multicultural competence of graduates.

PROBLEM STATEMENT

Despite globalization and an even more interconnected world, Americans are not closing this gap through foreign language study, as only 18.5% of U.S. K-12 public school students are studying a foreign language (ACTFL,2018), and only 8.1% of college and university students are enrolled in a course in a language other than English (MLA, 2015). Government and institutional policies do not foster foreign language learning, as fewer than half the states have a foreign language requirement for high school graduation, and only fewer than a quarter of U.S. colleges and

universities have a foreign language entrance requirement (MLA, 2012). The studies has shown that both in Russian and in Kazakh pedagogical science, multicultural education is seen mainly in the context of ethnic, linguistic and religious diversity of society, as opposed to the Western tradition, where the problem field also includes social, gender differences, differences in sexual orientation, and special needs. The priority task for both countries is the integration of the younger generation into the national culture, the formation of civic identity based on native ethnic culture. However, the goal of multilingualism has not been achieved and therefore need for this paper to fill the gap by establishing faculty' beliefs about multilingualism and a multilingual pedagogical approach.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES/QUESTIONS

1. What are faculty' beliefs about multilingualism in learning in KATU University?
2. To what extent do faculty draw on learners' previous linguistic knowledge and experience in KATU University?
3. To what extent do faculty collaborate to enhance learners' multilingualism in KATU University?

METHODOLOGY

The philosophy that underpins the study is positivism. A mixed method approach was used. A sequential mixed analysis will be conducted to analyze data from survey and interview responses. The first stage involved the use of descriptive statistics (i.e., descriptive stage; data reduction). In the second stage, qualitative data will be subjected to a thematic analysis (i.e., exploratory stage; data reduction) using constant comparison analysis. The third stage will be where the themes will be quantitized (i.e., data transformation). Fourth stage Quantitative Analysis of Qualitative Data where principal component analysis will be done to ascertain the underlying structure of emergent themes (i.e., exploratory stage; data reduction, data display; data consolidation). Finally, Quantitative Analysis of Qualitative Data and Quantitative Data will be done to determine which of the themes predicted the relations between the variables under study. (i.e., confirmatory analyses; data correlation). The study participants were faculty at KATU University sampled from all faculties. Data was collected using a questionnaire and focused groups. Ten per cent of total population will be sampled at 30%. 30% was considered adequate as reported by Babie (2007) for social sciences

Table 1: Population and sampling table

S/No	Faculty	Population of faculty members	30 % sample
1	Agronomics (24 departments)	280	84
2	Land architecture and design (3 departments)	38	11
3	Veterinary and animal husbandry (5 departments)	57	17
4	Humanitarian (6 departments)	72	22
5	Technical (6 departments)	55	17
Total		**502**	**151**

Data collection tools

Semi-structured questionnaires were used to collect survey data and interview schedules used for collecting qualitative data.

THEORETICAL AND EMPIRICAL LITERATURE REVIEW

Theoretical

The premise is that the role of multilingualism should enhance students' linguistic abilities. It should provide a multilingual environment that allows students use languages they are familiar with for learning while improving their second language skills. According to Vygotsky scientific concepts are part of a system of concepts, and are un-systematized and saturated with experience until language is used as a catalyst to give meaning. His view is that concepts can be transferred to the academic language displays the significance for first language use in teaching and learning in higher education to ensure knowledge transfer. Concept development could provide students an opportunity for academic success. The purpose of the study is to explore the role of multilingualism in optimizing conceptualization of mathematics concepts. Vygotsky (1962) encourages concept development for successful learning. Vygotsky (1962, 1978) strongly display the centrality of mother tongue in conceptualization. Ngcobo's doctoral research on concepts in Agricultural Science (2006), Deyi's 2010 work on concepts and concept formation in concepts, display language and conceptualization as closely linked. Further they show the significant role of multilingualism in mediating meaning of concepts. Results of these studies clearly show cognitive development and academic growth of a learner which depends on language, particularly, the first language. Based on this work, this chapter locates itself to studies mentioned above which equally place use of multilingualism central to concept development.

In Ladson-Billing [13] multilingualism is clearly seen as a scaffolding tool. She posits that understanding students' background including their language is important in a learning process. Her argument is that this can be strength to build upon during learning, as it validates the student thus creating chances for them to succeed. As a scaffolding pedagogy that enables students to think deeper and critically. Multilingualism helps students to deconstruct and reconstruct what they are learning using their different languages as a resource. This could also clarify to them the difference between a literal meaning of the concepts and one that is specific to the subject they are learning. In a way this could avert problems of misconceptions due to concepts interpreted in mother tongue, yet they carry a different meaning in the academic discourse, or the discourse of the field they are studying. The process affirms students' background knowledge and also exposes them to another culture, which is different from theirs, but useful to learn. The new meaning or knowledge cannot be portrayed as better than their culture, but as an accepted way of thinking in the discipline. In a way, the process is aimed at achieving deep understanding that would lead to the necessary paradigm shift, thus accessing the epistemology of the discipline.

Empirical Literature Review

De Angelis (2011) investigated 176 secondary school teachers' beliefs about the role of prior language knowledge and the promotion of multilingualism in enhancing immigrant children's language learning. The teachers included in that study taught various subjects in schools in Austria, Great Britain and Italy. Some of De Angelis' main findings include the following: teachers in all three countries generally encourage learners to use their home languages, but not in the classroom; they believe that using home languages in class can delay and even impair the learning of the majority language. Many teachers claim that they never refer to learners' home language and culture in class. This finding may be linked to the prevalent belief that teachers must be familiar with learners' language to be able to help them. Heyder and Schädlich [8] also used a questionnaire in their study of multilingualism beliefs among secondary foreign language teachers in Germany (n = 297). In contrast with the study of De Angelis (2011), nearly all the teachers included in the study by Heyder and Schädlich [8] were positive about the benefits of comparing languages in the classroom. These contrasting findings may indicate that language teachers have a higher awareness of multilingualism than teachers of other subjects do. Most of the teachers in the study by Heyder and Schädlich made frequent use of a contrastive approach, largely between German and the foreign language that they were teaching. Such contrasting activities typically occurred spontaneously and were rarely supported by teaching materials. Furthermore, as in the De Angelis' study, the majority of teachers were hesitant to bring other languages into the classroom unless they were familiar with them.

In South Africa, power also played a decisive role in developing language policies. This was often the case when white people formed policies in such a way that their interests were advanced, often at the cost of black people and their indigenous languages. Today, universities are expected to aid students by providing assistance and lectures in African languages, as the majority of students are not proficient in English or Afrikaans [1]. Despite some universities, mainly previously Afrikaans universities, becoming bilingual (by including English) and officially mentioning African languages in their policies, we are yet to see real advances being made with regard to African languages as languages of teaching and learning. Although African languages are mentioned in policies, it seems clear that none of the universities plan to use them as a medium of instruction soon. African languages should not be seen as having an inferior vocabulary. When Afrikaans was first used, it did not have an extended vocabulary either, but consisted of words used by its "agrarian original speakers". The University of Limpopo also opted for teaching in English only. Despite their expectation of students being proficient in English, this was seldom the case. The majority of students have only the most basic grasp of English, meaning that they struggle to finish their degrees within the required time. With a graduation rate of 15%, which is mostly ascribed to English deficiency, it is almost unfathomable that English is still the only language of teaching and learning at UL. This "gravitation towards unilingualism" threatens other languages and the cultural value that they carry within them.

Jakisch (2014) conducted an interview study to explore the specific beliefs of three English teachers regarding the potential benefit of using L2 English as a door

opener to learners' multilingualism. Her results indicate that the teachers in the study had not spent a significant amount of time reflecting on the issue. Nevertheless, the teachers have a positive attitude towards the idea and appear to believe that L2 English knowledge can motivate further language learning. However, the teachers were uncertain that L2 English knowledge could facilitate the learning of all languages; instead, they appear to believe that a 'prototype language' is required. The teachers are also unwilling to believe that English is the only door opener to further language learning, fearing that their subject might be reduced to an instrument for enhancing multilingualism.

FINDING AND DISCUSSIONS

Background of Information

Gender

From the study it was revealed that 82.3% of the respondents were female with 17.7% being male. This shows that there were more female than male in KATU University.

Age

The respondents were asked to indicate their age and results indicated that 58.4% were aged between 31-40 years, 31% between 41-50 years while 10.6% between 51-60 years. This shows that more than half of the respondents were aged between 31-40 years in the University.

Highest Education Qualification

The respondents 76.1% have university education which shows that majority of them have university degree.

Years in KATU University

Respondents were asked how long they have been in Katu University and 35.4% have been working for less than five years while 30.1% have been there for 6-10 years.

Languages

Most of the respondents 58% were multilingual teachers while 34.5% were not, the languages that they teach are 100% Russian, 89.4% Kazakh with 65.5% who teach English. This means that languages taught are mainly the Russin, Kazakh and English.

Faculty' Beliefs about Multilingualism in Learning

The paper sought to establish the faculty beliefs about multilingualism in learning and when asked if they any beliefs about multilingualism in learning in University 83.2% agreed that they have. This means that the university has beliefs about multilingualism in learning.

Beliefs about Multilingualism in Learning
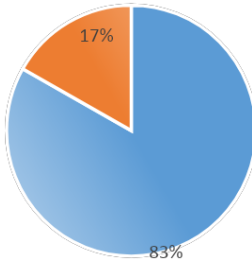
Figure 1: Availability Multilingualism in Learning

Beliefs about Multilingualism in Learning

Study sought to establish how faculty' beliefs about multilingualism influence learning and the responses were rated on a five point Likert scale where: 1= Very low extent; 2= Low extent; 3= Moderate extent; 4= Great extent; 5= Very great extent. Aggregated responses were analysed through, frequencies, percentages mean and standard deviation. The highest mean 3.97 and lowest 3.44 all the 8 faculty' beliefs about multilingualism variables were considered to be influence learning in the university. Further analysis was done and presented in Figure 2;
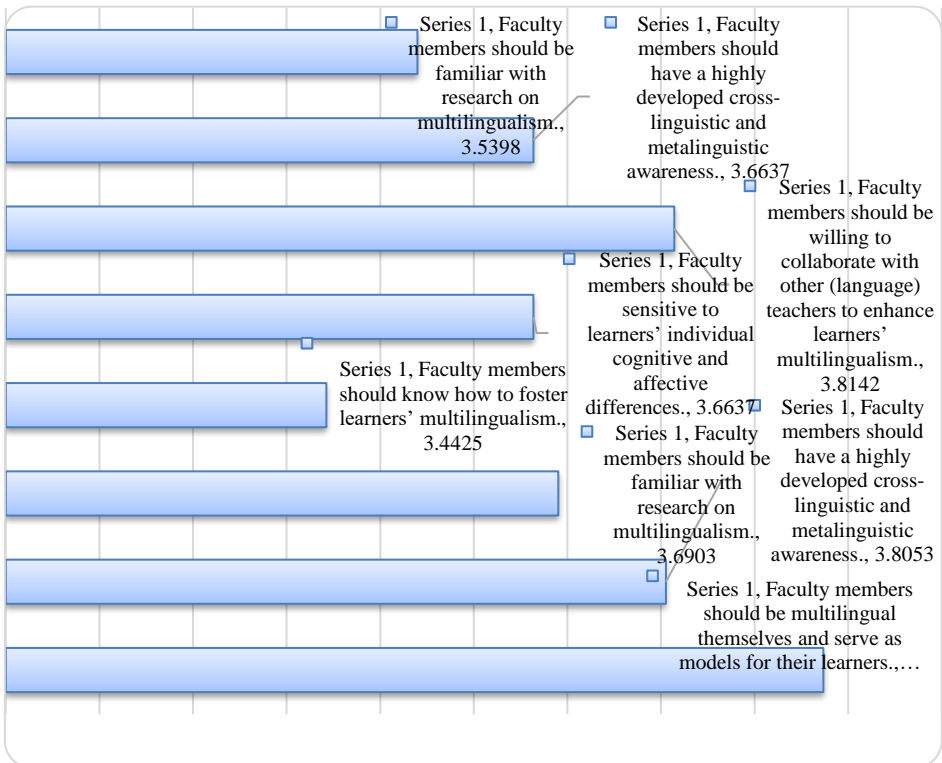
Figure 2: Beliefs about Multilingualism in Learning

It was shown that 46% of the respondents support to very great extent that members should be multilingual themselves and serve as models for their learners, 80.5% agree to great extent that members should have a highly developed cross-linguistic and metalinguistic awareness. Also 41.6% support to great extent that members should know how to foster learners' multilingualism.

The study also showed that 41.6% support that to great extent members should know how to foster learners' multilingualism, 31% support that members should be sensitive to learners' individual cognitive and affective differences and 46.9% members should be willing to collaborate with other (language) teachers to enhance learners' multilingualism. It was also shown that 50.4% support that members should have a highly developed cross-linguistic and metalinguistic awareness but to low extent but 43.4% support that members should be familiar with research on multilingualism to a great extent. In support of above, a central aim of multilingual pedagogy is to increase the efficiency of language learning [9], but if teachers lack the time to collaborate or lack the recognition that a multilingual pedagogy may be more efficient, then these teachers will not surprisingly be resistant to implementing yet another approach.

Faculty Draw on Learners' Previous Linguistic Knowledge and Experience

The paper sought to establish the faculty draws on learners' previous linguistic knowledge and experience in learning in University 100% agreed that they have. This means that the university draws on learners' previous linguistic knowledge and experience. Further analysis was done. The highest mean 4.10 and lowest 3.72 all the 9 variables were found that to great extent faculty draw on learners' previous linguistic knowledge and experience in learning. It was also revealed that 38.9% support that to great extent learners' previous linguistic knowledge helps them connect what they are learning to accurate and relevant prior knowledge, 38.1% to great extent previous linguistic knowledge helps them connect what they learn to what they already know, interpreting incoming information, and even sensory perception, through the lens of their existing knowledge, beliefs, and assumptions and also 43.4% support that to moderate extent previous linguistic knowledge helps faculty identify and fill gaps, recognize when students are applying what they know inappropriately, and actively work to correct misconceptions.

To a great extent 41.6% previous linguistic knowledge helps students activate prior knowledge so they can build on it productively, while to very great extent 38.9% ask students questions designed to trigger recall to help them use prior knowledge to aid the integration and retention of new information, also 36.3% ask students to generate relevant knowledge from previous courses or their own lives which help to facilitate their integration of new material while 38.9% to great extent knowledge from one disciplinary context, moreover, may obstruct learning and performance in another disciplinary context if students apply it inappropriately. It was also revealed that 41.6% support to great extent that learning can also be impeded when linguistic knowledge is applied to contexts where it is inappropriate and 45.1% of faculty draw on learners' previous language learning knowledge and experience in KATU University.

Congruent to above, multicultural education is a compulsory course only in Russian universities. This course is studied within Psychological and pedagogical education programs. Multicultural education" course is focused on the formation of a system of ideas and concepts related to the basic principles of multicultural education, the development of the students' willingness to put multicultural education into practice and use in a creative manner modern methods and technologies of multicultural education in their professional activity [17]. Russian researchers developed textbooks and teaching aids focused on the needs of modern students, to ensure the teaching of "Multicultural Education" course in the education institutions [3], [12], [17].

Extent do faculty Collaborate to enhance Learners' Multilingualism

The study sought to establish the eextent do faculty collaborate to enhance learners' multilingualism in learning in University 97% agreed that they collaborate this means that the university collaborate to enhance learners' multilingualism in learning. 53.1% of the respondents support that to moderate extent faculty collaborate with other language teachers to enhance learners' multilingualism, 40.7% of the respondents support that the university faculty to moderate extent regards multilingual pedagogy not as a unified methodology but as a set of principles that are used to varying degrees in different approaches depending on the teaching context, curriculum and learners, while also 58.4% support that to moderate extent faculty rather than attempting to maintain learners' languages in isolation, teachers help learners to become aware of and draw on their existing knowledge. Also most of the respondents support that to moderate extent 67.3% faculty members exploit their own experience of language learning in learning the new language, 50.4% faculty members examine similarities and differences between the native language and the new language and exploit this in their language learning and teaching and 42.5% teachers have actually implemented a multilingual pedagogy in their classrooms

Model Fit Tests Results and Hypothesis testing for multilingualism in learning

The study sought to assess whether the model provided adequate fit for the data. The study considered both absolute fit indices and incremental fit indices. For absolute fit indices the study used root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), goodness of fit index (GFI) and an adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI). For incremental fit indices, Comparative Fit Index was used.These fit indexes were used to verify that the model was adequate. This was generated using AMOS software.

RMSEA values range from 0 to 1 with a smaller RMSEA value indicating better model fit. Good model fit is typically indicated by an RMSEA value of 0.05 or less, but a value of 0.08 or less is often considered acceptable. RMSEA value of less than 0.05 is considered excellent, 0.05 to 0.08 is good while 0.08 to 0.10 is acceptable and this was inline since the analysis gave RMSEA of 0.064.

Table 6: Root mean square error of approximation

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.064	.000	.187	.130
Independence model	.397	.352	.444	.000

The goodness of fit index (GFI) is a measure of fit between the hypothesized model and the observed covariance matrix. The adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) corrects the GFI, which is affected by the number of indicators of each latent variable. The GFI, AGFI and CFI fit indexes should be greater or equal to 0.8. From this study the results revealed GFI of .846, AGFI of .962 and CFI index of .944. These results implied that the model was acceptable.

Table 7: GFI, AGFI, and CFI model fit for multilingualism in learning

Model	GFI	AGFI	CFI
Default model	.846	.962	.944
Saturated model	1.000		1.000
Independence model	.642	.377	0.000

Convergent Validity of Multilingualism in Learning

To further find out the contribution of each performance indicators, Regression weights were used to explain the nature of the relationship since all the variables were in the same measurement scale. The results revealed that all the regression weights were higher than the acceptable level at 0.5. The critical ratio; (C.R) for all the multilingualism in learning indicators were higher than 1.96 (Critical Ratio >1.96 at 0.05 significance level (p<0.05). This implies that the indicators were significantly related to the multilingualism in learning. Overall the results shows that relationship faculty beliefs and multilingualism in learning is positive and significant (Estimate = 11.092, CR= 0.388, p-value =0.000. This indicated that increased faculty beliefs causes increased multilingualism in learning as shown in Table 8.

Table 8: Regression weight and CR values for return for multilingualism in learning

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P-value
ID	<---	F2	11.092	28.603	.388	.000
V1	<---	F2	1.263	.146	8.633	.000
V2	<---	F2	22.547	58.133	.388	.000
V3	<---	F2	23.041	59.405	.388	.000

The last objective of the study was to find out whether faculty beliefs in university affect multilingualism in learning. The hypothesis used to test this objective was;

H_{o1}:   **There is no significant difference between Faculty beliefs and multilingualism in learning**

The study also sought to find out the relationship of faculty beliefs and multilingualism in learning in university in figure 4. Path coefficients were used to determine the direction and strength of the factor. The figure shows a path coefficient beta value of .67(β= .67).This implies that for every 1 unit increase on faculty beliefs, the multilingualism in learning in university is predicted to increase by .45 units. R^2 was used to show the proportion of variation in dependent variable explained by the SEM model. The figure also shows that faculty beliefs had a coefficient R^2 mean of .45. The value of R^2 of .45 indicates that 45% of the variations in multilingualism in learning is explained by faculty beliefs in general.
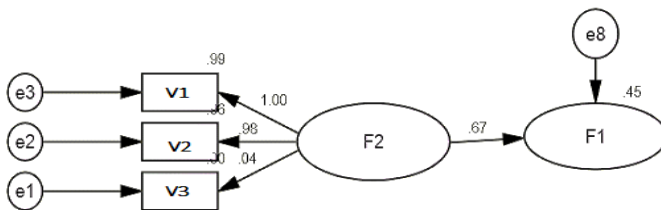
Figure 3: Structural equation modeling for Faculty Beliefs

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the faculty in regards to beliefs about multilingualism in learning they need to be multilingual themselves and serve as models for their learners, have a highly developed cross-linguistic and metalinguistic awareness, be familiar with research on multilingualism, know how to foster learners' multilingualism, be sensitive to learners' individual cognitive and affective differences, have a highly developed cross-linguistic and metalinguistic awareness and be familiar with research on multilingualism.

Previous linguistic knowledge helps them connect what they are learning to accurate and relevant prior knowledge, its knowledge helps them connect, interpreting incoming information, and even sensory perception through the lens of their existing knowledge, beliefs, and assumptions. The previous linguistic knowledge helps faculty identify and fill gaps and actively work to correct misconceptions. Faculty pprevious linguistic knowledge and experience helps students activate prior knowledge so they can build on it productively through asking students questions designed to trigger recall to help them use prior knowledge to aid the integration and retention of new information. Faculty, ask students to generate relevant knowledge from previous courses or their own lives which help to facilitate

their integration of new material. It was also revealed to great extent that learning can also be impeded when linguistic knowledge is applied to contexts where it is inappropriate and faculty draw on learners' previous language learning knowledge and experience.

In regards to collaboration with other languages, the faculty members collaborate with other language teachers to enhance learners' multilingualism, faculty multilingual pedagogy not as a unified methodology but as a set of principles to be used in teaching approaches. Also faculty rather than attempting to maintain learners' languages in isolation and teachers help learners to become aware of and draw on their existing knowledge. Further it was revealed that faculty members exploit their own experience of language learning in learning the new language, they examine similarities and differences between the native language and the new language and exploit this in their language learning. Finally the faculty teaching and teachers have actually implemented a multilingual pedagogy in their classrooms.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The faculty need to be multilingual themselves and serve as models for their learners; this can be achieved through researching on other languages, to enhance their cross-linguistic and metalinguistic awareness.

There is need for faculty members to use previous linguistic knowledge to connect what they are learning. This is because previous knowledge help in connecting, interpreting incoming information, and even sensory perception. The faculty members should utilize the previous linguistic knowledge to help in identification and filling of learning gaps and actively work to correct misconceptions. It is also important to use previous knowledge since it fosters information retention and integration of new materials

The faculty members should collaborate with other languages teachers to enhance their knowledge and they should integrate new ideas from other languages so that they can have authority of linguistic difference and similarities that can foster learning styles.

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FORMATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE NATIONAL QUALIFICATION SYSTEM IN RUSSIA: LEGAL PERSPECTIVES

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ABSTRACT

Today, the main event in the social and labor sphere of Russia is, of course, the introduction of the National Qualifications System (abbreviated NSC), which comes to replace the old system of qualification characteristics. In general, the NSC in Russia is represented by four interrelated elements: professional standards, independent assessment of qualifications, professional and public accreditation of educational programs and a directory of the most popular professions. The professional standard at the legislative level states the requirements for the type of activity. Independent assessment of qualifications is a mechanism for personnel certification for compliance with professional standards, and professional public accreditation of educational programs is their assessment for compliance with the requirements of professional standards. In European countries, such systems have existed for a long time and accumulated some experience in this field. The purpose of this article is to consider the common and distinctive features of the European and Russian systems of national qualifications, as well as the experience of building such a system in Russia. In addition, the work will present the differences between the previously existing system of qualifications in Russia and the modern one. The article will show the difficulties of embedding the new system in Russian labor legislation. In addition, problems in the activities of society that were caused by the new system will be considered, its advantages and disadvantages will be considered. Particular attention will be paid to the analysis of the new qualification assessment system and its comparison with similar abroad. Today, Russia is trying, using the experience of European countries, to introduce a system of awarding qualifications outside educational institutions in special centers for the assessment of qualifications. The difference between the Russian model and the existing analogues abroad is that these centers are represented by commercial organizations, while education is carried out by state educational institutions. Such a docking of the state system of education and business has given rise to a number of problems, which will be discussed in the article. The main feature of the national qualifications system in Russia is a synthesis of the obligation (imperativeness) and the market fundamentals of the system itself.

Keywords: *National qualifications system, human capital, labor law, regulation, professional standards*

INTRODUCTION

There is no doubt that, the main event in the present day social and labor sphere of Russia is the introduction of the National qualification system (abbr. NSC), which replaces job description used previously. Russian NSC is represented by four interrelated elements: professional standards, independent assessment of qualifications, professional and public accreditation of educational programs and a guide to the most needed professions.

Let us define the legal descriptions of the above-mentioned elements. The professional standard is the characteristic of the qualification necessary for the employee to perform a certain type of professional activity [1]. The professional standard sets the requirements for the educational qualification of the employee, his or her knowledge and skills, a set of labor actions that he or she must perform. In should be noted that in Russia the professional standard outlines "an activity". This implies that professional requirements are applicable to the employee regardless the conditions under which he or she performs his or her professional activity.

This suggests that regardless of the legal form of assignment of labor duties – the professional standard defines the requirements for the characteristics of the employee. In Russia, the employee may enter into the employment relationship (full-time or part-time employment) under an employment contract, civil law contract, or he or she may be assigned to perform additional responsibilities not related to the main ones (combination of responsibilities). It is believed that if the employment relationship is not based on an employment contract, the professional standard does not apply to the employee. However, that is not true. The initial premise to the obligation to comply with the requirements of professional standards is the fact of performing this type of activity, regardless of the legal form of relations between the employee and the employer.

In Russia, the professional activity is the sum of generalized labor functions that are close in nature, in the results and in working conditions, reflect the current division of labor in the industry, and ensure the implementation of the production process. For example, for an accountant – it is an activity in the field of accounting, for a human resources manager – the activity is the management of the organization's personnel, etc.

METHODOLOGY AND THEORY

Thus, the professional standard is developed for the type of a job and it introduces a fundamentally new job list in the Russian Federation. At the same time, the professional standard in accordance with the main legal act in the labor sphere of the Russian Federation – the Labor Code, is now identified with the qualification of the employee (article 195.1 of the Labor Code).

Each activity can be performed at different skill levels. The levels depend on the degree of responsibility, extent of the competences, skills of system thinking and ability to make decisions. In accordance with this, the National Qualification System

was introduced in Russia. It was approved by the Order of the Ministry of Labour and Social Protection No. 148n [2]. This document is the basis for the entire National Qualification System in Russia. It is represented by nine levels of qualifications. And this distinguishes it from the European qualification framework, which is represented by 8 levels.

The construction of such a framework in Russia and in European countries is associated with lifelong learning in the field of a certain activity. The difference between the European and Russian qualifications frameworks is that in Russia the qualification levels are tied to the levels of education in accordance with the Russian law on education [3]; while in the European system the levels of education are achieved through descriptors for the cycles of education.

Each cycle descriptor provides the general statement of expectations for the results and abilities, usually associated with qualifications that represent the completion of a given cycle. The descriptor of the shorter cycle of higher education (within or related to the first cycle) corresponds to the results that must be obtained at the end of education and training to obtain level 5 of the European qualification framework.

In Russia, the analogue is secondary vocational education (SVE), this is the first level of vocational education in accordance with the law on education in the Russian Federation [4]. The descriptor of the first cycle in the Framework of qualifications for the European higher education corresponds to the results that must be obtained at the end of education and training to obtain level 6 of the European Qualification Framework [5], which is equivalent to the Russian "bachelor" degree, and that corresponds to the second level of professional education in accordance with the law on education in Russia.

The descriptor of the second cycle in the European Qualification Framework [5] in higher education corresponds to the results that must be obtained at the end of education and training to obtain the level 7 of the European Qualification Framework. In accordance with the law on education, this is equivalent to the third level of professional education in Russia, which is represented by master's degree and, in some cases, a specialist's degree. Magistracy is a generally accepted level of education, while specialization is an element of the "former" system of qualifications in Russia. Specialty – a one-level higher education, which is still present in Russia in some areas of the economy, while most higher education programs are represented by two levels – bachelor and master.

The descriptor of the third cycle in the Qualification Framework for the European higher education corresponds to the results that must be obtained at the end of education and training to obtain the level 8 of the European Qualification Framework [5]. In Russia, this is the fourth level of professional education, which is called in accordance with the law on education "training of highly qualified personnel", which in our country involves training in graduate schools, residency, etc.

Let us define the structure of the Russian professional standard. As it has already been mentioned, the professional standard is developed for the type of an activity, and an employee can perform any number of them, of course, if the qualification characteristics allow. The professional standard is based on levels – from the lowest to the highest value. Each level of professional standard corresponds to one or more generalized job functions. A generalized labor function is a set of related labor functions, resulting from the division of labor in a particular production or (business) process.

Thus, the generalized labor function is a subspecies of activity within a certain type. Ideally, one employee should perform one generalized labor function, but in Russia, an employee can perform several generalized labor functions, since there is a great number of small organizations, where it is impossible to maintain a large staff. In addition, Russian business lacks clear regulation of duties and an employee can perform different labor functions not only within the professional standard, but also in several areas simultaneously. For example, a Human Resources Officer can perform the generalized job function of "HR outsourcing", as well as deal with staffing – another general labor function, he or she can also do remuneration – this is the third general labor function, etc.

Each generalized labor function consists of several labor functions. A labor function is a system of labor actions within the framework of the generalized labor function, which is an integrated and relatively autonomous set of labor actions determined by the business process and assumes the availability of the necessary skills and knowledge to perform them.

A labor action is the process of interaction of an employee with the subject of labor, in which a certain task is achieved. Knowledge is a set of learned and mastered skills and competencies about the labor process. Skills are repertoires of coping with the knowledge gained in various production situations to conduct the labor process.

In Russia, the introduction of professional standards is mandatory. First, each professional standard is an Order of the Ministry of Labour and Social Protection of Russia. Secondly, for state organizations, there are separate instructions, which are mandatory. Since 01.01.2020, all state institutions must switch to professional standards in accordance with the Decree of the Government of the Russian Federation dated 27.06.2016 № 584 "On the peculiarities of the application of professional standards in terms of the requirements required for the application of state extra-budgetary funds of the Russian Federation, state or municipal institutions, state or municipal unitary enterprises, as well as state corporations, state companies and economic societies, more than fifty percent of shares in the authorized capital of which is in state ownership or municipal ownership" [6].

This legal act has given rise to a lot of speculation and caused a big commotion in Russia. As transition to professional standards means bringing the functions of employees to the requirements of professional standards – on the one hand, and the qualification characteristics of employees to the same qualification requirements specified in professional standards – on the other. However, in Russia, before this

date in accordance with the said legal act in organizations (state institutions, extra-budgetary funds, state enterprises, state corporations), a number of documents should be prepared:

a) a list of professional standards to be applied;

b) data should be collected on the need for professional education, vocational training and (or) additional professional education of employees obtained on the basis of the analysis of the qualification requirements contained in professional standards;

c) stages of application of professional standards;

d) the list of local regulations and other documents of the organizations, including those concerning certification, certification and other forms of the assessment of qualification of the workers which are subject to change in connection with provisions of the professional standards which are subject to application.

Therefore, from the legal perspective, the transition to professional standards is the creation of the above documents, and from the economic perspective, it is a change in the personnel management system and adjustment of business processes. The binding nature of this system is possible only in the context of normative legal acts, therefore, most organizations falling under the scope of professional standards limit their transition to the new system only to the implementation of the requirements of the said Resolution.

However, even in this perception of the new system, there are problems. The legal act laid down a phased plan for the transition to professional standards. If one strictly complies with this algorithm, and other legal provisions are absent today in the Russian legislation, the quintessence of it is to bring the educational qualification of employees to the requirements of professional standards. That is, the organization must train employees (or teach) to the requirements of professional standards on a formal basis. This is costly, both for organizations and for the citizens themselves.

According to Russian legislation, the need for training to meet professional standards is determined by the employer (article 196 of the Labor Code). This is a very expensive procedure for company owners because of the fact that in Russia during a rather long period the employee's education was not identified with his or her competencies. Often employees received the necessary knowledge and skills on job. Education in Russia was often formal; it was a pass to the labor market, and not the equivalent of professionalism. These are, unfortunately, disadvantages of vocational training and education. Now in Russia, the goal is to improve the situation, and today the education system should deliver to the labor market a qualified worker who does not require additional training and is ready to perform a given type of activity [7]. The problem is in the staff who came to the labor market earlier and received the necessary skills on-job.

In addition, a modern graduate receives a diploma, in which the field of study is specified in accordance with the professional standard. The names of various areas of study in Russia are specified by the Russian Classification of Types of Education (abbr. – RCTE). Thus, educational institutions issue State-recognized diplomas and

certificates in which the field of study corresponds to the above-mentioned classifier. The Russian classifier was approved only in 2016. And those diplomas which were issued till this time, in most cases, do not correspond to the qualifier on education (RCTE) regarding the fields of study, and, therefore, from the formal legal point of view employees with the diplomas issued earlier do not meet the contemporary professional standards.

This leads to the fact that most employees of enterprises (or in public institutions) do not meet professional standards and require additional training. The financial burden on the employer becomes exorbitant and top management and business owners are simply lost and reject the new system of qualifications. This is perhaps the most important "brake" to the implementation of professional standards.

In contemporary Russia, a unified system of qualifications is being formed, the core of which will be a professional standard. Soon the training will be reoriented to professional standards. This is achieved through professional and public accreditation of educational programs – that is, their compliance with professional standards. Such accreditation in Russia is done by employers' associations that give their opinion - whether or not the educational program meets the requirements of professional standards or the labor market. In some cases, when there are no professional standards yet, educational programs are evaluated for compliance with labor market requirements.

For example, if we consider legal profession, for example, it is unlikely that we can count on the rapid issue of professional standards, they do not yet exist. However, lawyers do not need them, since the requirements for their activities are established by procedural codes and Federal laws, and employers' associations assess the compliance of educational programs in accordance with the real requirements of the professional activity. In any case, professional and public accreditation of educational programs is an assessment of the quality of an educational institution, which in some cases gives certain advantages to the organization (for example, additional budgetary places with state funding).

Thus, the new system of qualifications in Russia, by analogy with the European systems, suggests the need for continuous (life-long) learning and the influence of employers on the educational process. This makes it possible to visualize the entire career path of the employee from the lowest qualification to the top [8]. In addition, the assessment of knowledge and skills in the new system should also be carried out by employers. Thus, educational institutions teach, and employers check or evaluate knowledge. For this purpose, the independent qualification assessment (IQA) mechanism was introduced in Russia.

In general, an independent assessment of qualifications is carried out in the form of a professional examination by special qualification assessment centres in accordance with the procedure established by the Government of the Russian Federation.

The IQA procedure is open and accessible:

- by applicants on their own initiative;
- by employees on the initiative of the employer.

It should be noted that in order to pass such an assessment, the applicant must also meet the requirements for the field and level of study, as well as have some experience in this generalized job function. Note that the exam can be performed for a specific generalized labor function. Since in Russia an employee actually performs several generalized labor functions, the IQA procedure is quite time-consuming.

To conduct a professional examination, special centers of qualification assessment (CQA) are opened, created by employers' associations – Councils for professional qualifications (CPQ).

The Qualifications Assessment Centre (CQA) is a legal entity or its structural unit selected by the professional qualifications board and empowered to conduct an independent assessment of qualifications. Assessment centers qualifications are presented in Russia by commercial organizations with state accreditation.

Upon successful completion of the professional examination, the applicant is awarded with a Certificate of professional qualification, which can be presented when he or she is employed.

Thus, on the one hand, the IQA will allow the employee to assess his or her strong points and understand whether he or she meets the requirements of the labor market, and if not, it will help to determine in which direction it is necessary to move to achieve the goal. On the other hand – it will enable the employer to clearly and specifically set the requirements for the employee and check whether the employee meets them, has the necessary knowledge and skills. If there is no such correspondence, or the correspondence is not full, the results of the IQA will allow this to be established; and the employer, in turn, will understand what skills and where an employee needs to be trained in order to be able to perform the functions as efficiently as possible.

As a result, the IQA will allow the applicants to confirm their qualifications by obtaining a certificate, and the employer will be sure of the competent staff that meets the modern requirements of the labor market.

For students of educational institutions (while at the level of secondary vocational education) assessment of knowledge and skills in the centers of qualification assessment is also becoming mandatory. This is achieved when a student graduates from an institution by combining the state final certification of the graduate and independent assessment of qualifications (in Russia it is called SFC-IQA: State Final Certification – independent assessment of qualifications).

But the most important thing is that since July 2019, Russia abolishes all other forms of certification of personnel, except for an independent assessment of qualifications. This is a serious step towards the implementation of the IQA system.

This is regulated by the Federal law № 238 "On independent assessment of qualifications" (article 11) [9].

CONCLUSION

However, there are some problems with the implementation of the national qualifications system.

First, passing the exam by independent assessment of qualifications, although it has certain advantages, is quite expensive (from 100 to 1000 dollars depending on the specific qualification). In accordance with Russian legislation, if an employer sends an employee to this exam, he or she pays for it (this is defined in article 187 of the Russian Labour Code), in this case, it is difficult for an unemployed citizen to pass such an exam.

Secondly, the country has a lot of senior citizens who have no education other than basic or, as it is called in accordance with the law on education of the Russian Federation, the Basic General Education. Such education in Russia includes 8 or 9 classes out of 11 possible. In 2015, the share of such citizens in the country according to the National Research University "Higher School of Economics", was 5.8 % of the total number of citizens aged 25-64 years [10]. Especially large number of citizens with basic General education is in rural areas. It is difficult for them to meet professional standards, so our idea is that federal bodies should recognize a certain experience for each activity as an equivalent of educational qualification while implementing the National system of qualifications.

Independent assessment of qualifications in Russia, regulated by the relevant Federal law No. 238 "On independent assessment of qualifications", is aimed to assign the employee the necessary qualifications. Today, to pass this exam, as a rule, it is necessary to have a certain education (in the part of the main professional and additional professional), excluding generalized labor functions relating to 1 and 2 levels of qualification. Unfortunately, many citizens considering their age or distance from metropolitan areas will not be able to receive the appropriate education. Moreover, we are talking about obtaining of education of different levels, which in Russia is possible only through training in educational institutions in accordance with the law on education of the Russian Federation.

Based on the above, we consider it appropriate to consider the issue of equating the presence of a certain length of service for this type of activity and a certificate of successful completion of an independent assessment of qualifications to a certain type of education in compliance with all other requirements of professional standards. In other words, we are talking about equating the educational level required by the professional standard to a certain length of service (for example, more than 15 years for this type of activity). But this equalization is considered acceptable only if the procedure of independent assessment of qualifications is successfully completed.

Thus, educational organizations will teach employees according to professional standards, and qualifications will now be assigned to them by qualification assessment centers with the assignment of appropriate certificates of qualification.

It should be noted that the independent assessment of qualifications by analogy with professional standards is gradually acquiring mandatory elements. For example, for some areas of activity, especially related to safety, it is a mandatory element for entering the profession, for example, for the Elevator Industry. In some cases, social partnership agreements require an independent assessment of qualifications. Such agreements in Russia can be concluded at all levels of social partnership and are binding.

As a result, the national system of qualifications in Russia, together with all its elements, introduces significant changes to the system of training and evaluation of personnel.

Briefly, the main differences are as follows: the new system of qualifications shows how to achieve certain levels of qualification; it provides clearly defined levels, which are achieved only through the levels of vocational education; for each activity a professional standard is drawn up. In contrast to the qualification guides, which were known to be advisory in nature, professional standards are approved by the orders of the Ministry of Labour and Social Protection, which emphasizes their obligation in principle. And most importantly, in Russia it is now necessary to confirm the qualification through a system of independent assessment of qualifications in specially established centers.

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INNOVATIVE METHODS OF EDUCATION FOR DEVELOPMENT OF LANGUAGE SKILLS

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ABSTRACT

In my paper I focus on teaching foreign languages at the Faculty of. Manufacturing Technologies in Prešov at Technical University in Košice. The current satisfaction of students and teachers of foreign languages at the Faculty is proof that the introduction of new, more efficient and more modern methods and forms of teaching can achieve even better results in the teaching process. Each change brings the need to think about other options on how to improve the current situation, what would be appropriate to incorporate into the learning process to increase the effectiveness of the lesson.

I consider that today universities, colleges or other educational institutions already have not enough with the traditional way of teaching. They must respond to changes in technologies, but also to changing the behavior and needs of its clients, in our case the students. Teachers need to understand that if they want their graduates to succeed not only in the domestic but also global labor market, in the foreign language environment, must be something to stand out, be different and offer better services. The faculty's success is also measured by being able to be a leader in innovation, flexibly identifying trends and linking them to the needs of their students. In this regard, I will point out that the fourth industrial revolution is now often highlighted, and as students also see technology growth in their private lives, they are also looking forward to this at the Technical University. All relevant information in the various fields of science and research should be applied at a high level.

Keywords: innovative education, languages skills, methods

INTRODUCTION

The new 21st century humanities agenda requires universities, academies of science and other scientific institutions to promote interdisciplinary research in the humanities (especially languages). Furthermore, it formulates a role in the search for new forms of teaching humanities in general education as well as in relation to lifelong learning and teaching. In this context, the responsible institutions should strive for a better involvement of young scientists in research in the humanities. It is also necessary to adopt transparent criteria for assessing the quality of research in the field of science. An equally important area is the need to maintain linguistic diversity in education and in academic publishing. This should go towards joint research projects on humanitarian issues in all areas of research, including issues related to the values and challenges of ethics science. I believe that the humanities should play a very important role also through a better understanding of human behavior, what is considered a necessary prerequisite for closer understanding of nations.

Mankind is currently experiencing one of the serious crises, whose symptoms can be characterized by various attributes, such as post-factual time, migration crisis, confidence in public policy and democracy, information explosion, etc. Part of the process is the emphasis on economic growth, profit growth, consumption growth, preference for technical education, education appropriate to the needs of the labor market and directly supporting the economic growth of the countryside and the consumption of its inhabitants as a driver of growth. On the other hand, the type of university education in humanities and social sciences at all are becoming more and more at the edge of the interest of society and its governments. Questions about their usefulness to society, how much they contribute to meeting the needs for further development, or the extent to which they can respond to current questions and the needs of time, are asked to contribute to their solution. This enables better collaboration between humanities, as it also forms part of the shared responsibility for successfully addressing the issues and challenges of human development as part of the plurality of world cultures today [1], [2].

We are currently witnessing the fact that in many developed countries of Europe and the world, spending on science, higher education, is decreasing, which usually affects the humanities. Therefore, it remains to be hoped that, in the near future, this issue will be addressed mainly by politicians, managers and people who are responsible not only for the current situation. Part of the humanities are also foreign languages. The need for language skills is also currently among the most important factors in finding a job in both domestic and foreign companies.

INNOVATIVE METHODS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

I believe that technical universities today should not neglect the professional language training and understand it as part of higher education, because the teacher's professional assistance in acquiring a professional language is really necessary [3]. This was one of the reasons that we introduced e Learning into foreign language teaching, which was the focus of the KEGA project *Application of E- Learning in Foreign Language Teaching at the Faculty of Manufacturing Technologies* (Gluchmanova, 2012-2014). These were the foundations on which it was later expanding horizon of technical professional language in the framework of the following KEGA project *Implementation of Blended E- learning to the Process of English Language Teaching within the Newly Accredited Study Programs at the Faculty of Manufacturing Technologies of the Technical University of Košice* (Bielousova, 2017-2018). In 2019 we started to prepare study material for contemporary KEGA project *Innovative methods and forms of education for needs and development of language and communication skills within technical professional foreign language study material.*

Therefore, foreign language teachers at the Faculty of Manufacturing Technologies in Prešov Technical University in Kosice feel the need to create and also make available to its clients - students at all three levels of university study foreign-language study materials, which would be literally tailor-made, taking into account the specificities of study branches and study programmes of the individual institutes and departments [4].

Fig.1. Sample web pages with projects within the foreign languages at the Faculty of Manufacturing Technologies

At the same time, professional communication is a key skill of an ambitious scientific and pedagogical staff and a guarantee of progress in the scientific discipline, which needs to be improved and developed at a qualitatively high level.

Communication skills should be properly structured, delivered in a professional language and scientific style, with effective support for audiovisual technology, knowledge of the conference culture, and especially with regard to a particular audience [5]. Developing communication skills of students at the Faculty of Manufacturing Technologies in Košice, especially in a foreign language so far is not enough space, despite the fact that the exchange of information on the results of scientific research, new knowledge and perspectives of their use, their practical application is the driving force behind progress in academic and scientific-research environments.

In recent years, the word "brain drain" has been growing in Slovakia. Young people go abroad not only for work but also for education. They want to expand horizons, seek motivation and contact with the industry, because there is a school closely linked to practice and as they often say, learning is also from life. Abroad, they examine not only the need for vocational education but also the need for communication language skills or soft competencies such as communication or planning. Changes in the upcoming 20 years will be more than in the past, says futurist Gerd Leonhard in his latest book, *Technology versus Humanity*, where he also intends the humanity we want and should keep in time, when our technologies are

beginning to outgrow over your head. In the next ten to twenty years, we will be able to use technology much more than we had in the past [6].

🎧 12. MP4. Listen to the video *How to give a presentation in English.*
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=fXVoT7VMCpM
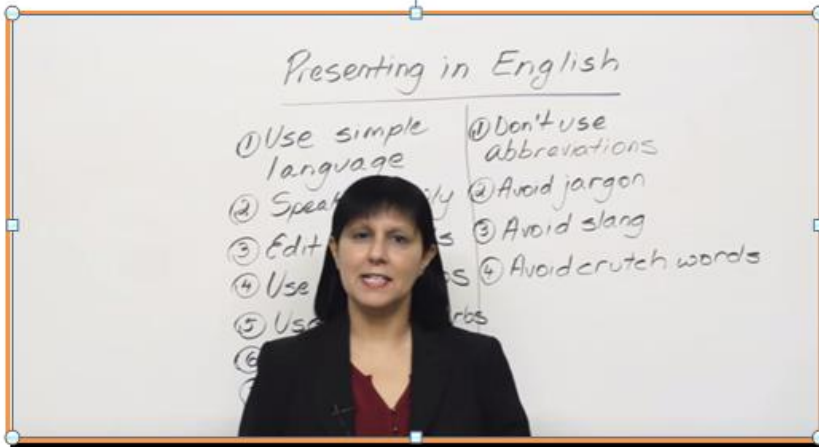
There are 12 important tips. How many can you remember?

Fig. 2. Example of listening exercise

Promoting quality education is primarily an investment in the quality of society. High-quality foreign language training for students of a technical degree study will have a positive impact on the possibility of their better use in the labor market, the overall economy of the country in the knowledge economy as well as in social life, as the role of educational institutions today is the preparation of a young generation, the rapid development of information and communication technologies in the sense of their correct applications in the process of education and after specialized language training in the context of teaching foreign languages, that is to apply e-learning in an appropriate way.

In the project, which will result in the application of outputs in social, profitable and economic practice, information and communication technologies will be applied within the framework of individual competencies, the management of the learning process and the lesson, and the subsequent distribution of planned outputs. Proper implementation of e-learning will encourage the development of creativity in the process, because an educated and creative graduate, providing an innovative view of problem solving, should be a value to society, because every investment in education should also bring value to society [7]. By creating a creative interactive learning environment with the use of modern information technologies to acquire foreign language competencies, we will enable the multi-purpose and interdisciplinary preparation of graduates of the Faculty of Manufacturing Technologies for the needs of economic, profitable and social practice. Part of the project is, in particular, the creation of professional study material in foreign language in the form of electronic

textbooks with active learning content and an e-course designed for students of newly accredited study programmes: *manufacturing management, computer aided manufacturing technologies, progressive technologies, automotive manufacturing technology, monitoring and diagnostics of technical equipment, computer design of technical systems, renewable energy sources, industrial management* in both daily and external study [8].

Fig. 3. Content of online courses at the Faculty

The content of the e-course will be a series of tests to examine language skills in a foreign language. This material will be created in Moodle environment and placed on the existing functional website of EnGeRu, which will allow students of study programmes to participate in the e-learning process at our faculty. The portability of specific outcomes appears to be quite large for target groups of potential future students interested in learning a foreign language, focusing in particular on progressive production technologies in the form of e-learning [9].

This process of foreign language learning will thus become part of an innovative modern teaching process at the Faculty of Manufacturing Technology and will thus make learning more attractive at the faculty. Through the professional technical foreign language, the solution of the project will contribute to the computer literacy of the faculty, while at the same time will support the creative potential of the members of the team. Study material in the case of interest will benefit and related faculties at the Technical University in Košice.

	Most presentations are organised in three parts, followed by questions. Choose correct expressions from the box.
2 ✎	
Známky: --/3.00	present the subject itself, introduce your subject, thank your audience;

Beginning	Short introduction	Vybrať ... ▼
Middle	Body of presentation	Vybrať ... ▼
End	Short conclusion	Vybrať ... ▼

Odoslať

Fig. 4. A demonstration of exercise for presentation

CONCLUSION

Finally, one of the objectives of the project will be to teach students how to present their research activities and foreign language texts in the school environment or at international events with a foreign language. Students will be provided with a comprehensive, selected and customized study material for their own needs, prepared after consultation with supervisors and heads of their departments. For example, the student will be able to know what should be taken into account when preparing and presenting an academic presentation, how to organize the selected material, how to use the language, how to support the material with attractive and functional visual elements using information and communication technologies, how to navigate the listener during audience [10]. Most students, including foreign students, can then successfully apply the acquired skills in technical subjects, as well as in defense of bachelor, diploma and dissertation thesis. Applying the presentation technique will allow you to learn how to handle the microphone right while recording, upload your video on a video camera to get constructive criticism from the teacher and classmates during the seminar. Many students consider appearance before a foreign audience at the conference, a traumatic or stressful event. For this reason, e-learning and b-learning will also include the issue of stress and trick management, the skills of non-verbal communication and the etiquette in connection with the international environment.

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MONOPOLIZATION OF EDUCATION: NATIONALIZATION OF CHURCH SCHOOLS IN HUNGARY

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ABSTRACT

After World War II, in Hungary the caretaker government formed as a result of the coalition of left-wing and bourgeois parties created the slogan 'Free state, free church'. The political power promised the churches unrestricted operation, not only in the field of religious life, but also in fulfilling various social functions. However, the consolidating left-wing made efforts to take over control right from the beginning. The left-wing forces, especially the Hungarian communist party forming the government regarded the churches to be their dangerous opponents as they had wide-ranging social influence. The left-wing has done everything to reduce the churches' far-reaching social influence. The communist party (in secret), was already busy with preparing the consolidation of monocracy. It regarded the churches as serious rivals not only ideologically, but also from the point of view of the monopolization of ruling. Churches had far-reaching social connections. They were present in almost every villages, towns, and cities. Denominational schools comprised one of the important elements of the churches' connections. Consequently, the left-wing first of all wanted to acquire church schools. The government kept explaining the public that school nationalization was implemented for the sake of progress and democracy. The communist party considered this school matter as a question of power. Left-wing forces made efforts to gain influence over society to the highest possible extent. They also wanted to control the formulation of the growing generation's thoughts and view of life. Consequently, acquiring the schools was an important step on the way of expropriating political power.

Keywords: church schools, nationalization of education, social influence, press and propaganda

INTRODUCTION

In the first half of the 20th century churches played very important role in social life of Hungary. The so-called historical churches (Roman Catholic, Greek Catholic, Orthodox, Calvinist, Lutheran, Unitarian – and the Israelite or Jewish until 1942) had serious authority and a great influence in public life. Churches had a major part in social nursing and public education. Churches operated two third of the elementary (primary) schools. In the school year of 1946, out of 7016 schools 4278 primary schools were sponsored by churches. Most of the primary schools (63% of the schools) were operated by the Roman Catholic Church, in line with the confessional distribution of the population. In addition to the primary schools, churches also had several vocational schools, grammar schools and teacher trainer colleges. Church schools generally had high prestige. Even not religious parents often enrolled their children in church schools, despite there were a state-owned or village public school nearby. Parents expected high standard education and fastidious ethic tuition from

church schools. The Hungarian society was not religious to such an extent and was not bonded so closely to the church as e.g. the Polish. However, priests and teachers were well respected, and especially at the countryside, had high prestige [1].

POLITICAL FIGHT FOR THE CHURCH SCHOOLS

Debate about Church Schools

On behalf of the left-wing parties, there was a political attack going on against the churches right from the very beginning. During the land reform in 1945, most of the churches' lands were expropriated and portioned out. With this the churches were deprived of one of their most important sources of revenue. Land expropriation especially hit home the Catholic Church. The loss of assets that occurred as a result of the land reform made it difficult to maintain the denominational schools and to fulfil the educational tasks. The organs of the ministry of home affairs being controlled by the communist party kept dissolving the church organisations, the social clubs, the youth clubs, and the cultural associations, and commenced actions against clergymen. They generally referred to the fact that the ethos of these associations and clubs and clergymen were closely related to the former right-wing, conservative, authoritarian system, which they wanted to restore. For example, the scout movement fell a prey to such a political measure [2].

The power significantly restricted the operation of any church media and church press. In the previous Horthy era, i.e. in the 1930-ies, approximately 177 different church printed matters were published: daily and weekly papers, journals focusing on religious and social questions, and other periodicals. After World War II, in 1947, there were only 39 types of church publications issued, and the number of copies declined to its one tenth as compared to the earlier number of copies. Some publishers and journalists emigrated and there were political procedures going on against others. The churches' loss of assets made it difficult to finance the publications. The authorities did not permit the churches to publish public daily papers. The reasoning behind this was that the churches were not in charge of discussing daily political questions, participating in public debates, or presenting particular social interests. There was no room for the churches on the stage of politics; they needed to cut themselves adrift from the topical public efforts. But these were excuses only. Left-wing forces made efforts to exclude churches from continuous public communication, because they regarded the churches to be the strongest support for the bourgeois parties [3].

At the parliamentary elections in 1945, the communists did not achieve the expected support from the society; they got only 17% of the votes. As a consequence, the party avoided large scale open conflicts with the churches. It did not want to appear in an anti-religious and anticlerical role. Especially in the countryside, where most of the people were religious, it did not want to antagonize the inhabitants. Instead of a front attack, it rather made efforts to give umbrage to the churches, to undermine the authenticity of the denominations' activities and respected personalities. The communist press played a crucial role in it. The party utilised its valuable media positions and had a comprehensive campaign in order to discredit the

churches. In the lack of appropriate media tools, the different denominations could counterbalance it with less and less efficiency [4].

In spring 1947, the communist party decided that the time had come to commence a concentrated attack against the teaching activity of the churches. The first step was to aim at stopping catechesis being compulsory, i.e. making religious education optional. However, it did not espouse this idea openly, as it did not assume enough support from the society. Other coalition parties also had left-wing groups that accepted the communist standpoint in many questions. The communist party left initiation to them with regard to optional religious education. The action was started by the left-wing of the election winner Independent Smallholders Party. By accepting Gyula Ortutay's proposal, the leaders of the Smallholders Party made a statement on their meeting on 28 February 1947 that teaching religious education should be optional. The Independent Smallholders Party was in a difficult political situation. The left-wing parties were making a concerted campaign against it. The leaders of the Smallholders Party expected that after the peace treaty ratification the Soviet army would leave Hungary and the communist party could be up-staged without its support. But until that time they exerted to meet the communists' requirements in order to reduce the left-wing's political pressure on the smallholders' party [5].

It was the Catholic Church the hardest hit by the plan of cancelling compulsory catechesis. The prelacy, headed by József Mindszenty archbishop of Esztergom, categorically countered this idea. In their opinion, with optional catechesis the parents' momentary mood, external effects, or political pressure would determine, whether the child got religious education. While there was a superior will and the church's 1000 years of experience behind compulsory religious education. It was clear to the catholic prelacy that from the left-wing political forces it could expect attacks graver than before. It did not want to see that communists presented it to the people as the representative of the former regime. Consequently, it tried to define that its opposition was not of political nature. It accepted all the democratic measures, even the land reform, though it was disadvantageous for itself. It insisted on the churches' independent operation, including religious education in church schools [6].

On behalf of the Calvinistic Church, László Ravasz bishop rejected administrative cancellation of compulsory religious education. He recalled that earlier compulsory religious education was not problematic for parents in church schools. The leading bodies of the Calvinistic Church also protested against government intervention in an official statement. The smallholder Prime Minister and the President (both Calvinists) tried to convince the leaders of their church in vain no to act openly against the left-wing's intents. The Calvinistic newspapers – with low profile, but unambiguously – rejected the government's intent to make religious education optional. In his declarations published, Lajos Ordass Lutheran bishop called the readers' attention to the fact that neither the church, nor the religious parents should reply to the attacks of the left-wing forces by political type of enouncements. He recalled the behaviour of the Norwegian Lutheran Church during World War II. When the Norwegian government collaborating with the Germans wanted to force students into a national-socialist youth organisation, the Norwegian

church mobilised people against it not on political grounds, but by referring to the parents' right gained from God [7].

Despite all protests, on 4 March, at the inter-party committee meeting, Mátyás Rákosi, secretary general of the Communist Party declared that it was inevitable to implement the monopolisation of course book publication and the introduction of optional catechesis, and later on the nationalisation of schools would be placed on the agenda, too. On 17 March, Gyula Ortutay, who raised this question first, was nominated to the minister of religion and public education. The new minister mentioned already in his first declarations that he was about to issue a governmental decree on the introduction of optional catechesis [8].

In March 1947, based on the initiative of the Catholics the churches started a nation-wide protest movement. The church mobilised the surviving non-governmental organisations and called them to protest against the cancellation of compulsory catechesis. There were M.P. interpellations in the Parliament. Church institutions, teaching staffs, religious parent organisations, and student associations flooded the government and the local municipalities with applications, and protesting letters. On 19 and 20 March there were student demonstrations in several cities. In Szeged 3000 students marched to the county school-inspectorate. Reformed churches also joined the Catholic Church's protest. In Calvinistic and Lutheran schools catechesis being optional was much less problematic, because several parents had already applied for exemption from religious education for their children. They would have continued this practice. However, they categorically rejected the government's one-sided, outrageous solution, which regulated this question in a simple decree of the minister, by bypassing the Parliament. Furthermore, they rejected the clause of the draft, according to which later on parents would need to apply for teaching religious education to their children within the frames of an administrative procedure [9].

In the movement initiated by the churches, the Religious Association of Catholic Parents had an outstanding role. In 1947, it had already more than 2000 member organisations. As a result of their successful operation, similar associations were established near other denominations, too. On 22 April 1947 the Association of the Friends of Calvinistic Schools was established. Although the government disfavoured the social protest against the introduction of optional catechesis, it clearly recognised that if it wanted to be successful against the churches, it needed to prepare the action much better and it must bring round at least one part of the parents, too. Having experienced the inhabitants' indignation and protest, in summer 1947 the communist party put this question aside. Early elections were announced for August. The Hungarian Communist Party did not want to turn religious people comprising a major part of the population against itself. It charged the smallholders party with the idea of optional religious education, and publicly criticised the leaders of the Independent Smallholders Party, because it submitted a proposal raising such a social tension [10].

Nationalisation of Church Schools

The communist party won the elections in 1947. This accelerated the preparation for the takeover. The Soviet politics had also changed as the cold war deepened. The leaders in Moscow urged the Eastern European communist parties to get even with their political opponents as soon as possible. Starting action against church schools was put on the agenda at the beginning of 1948 again. But it was not only on religious education, but also on the nationalisation of church schools. The question of nationalisation by communist party was presented as the opposite of old and new thinking, the fight between reaction and progress. It was emphasised that state financing of schools would guarantee the unification and increase of the standard, continuous course book supply, avoid the lack of teachers, and ensure real equality of chances to each Hungarian school child. Those who were against it were the enemies of not only nationalisation, but also democracy and progress [4].

The reformed churches were not averse to negotiations. They were ready to some compromises in order to decrease the tension between the state and the churches. It was rejected, however, that the state could dictate one-sidedly in this question and get full control over the churches' activities. On 8 April, the president had a meeting with the heads of the Calvinistic Church. Here László Ravasz outlined that they support each and every important economic and social endeavours of the peoples' democracy. However, they rejected the schools' full nationalisation. But it turned out that the communist party had been preparing behind the scenes the bishop's deposal, so that they could have a successor, who agreed to the left-wing's endeavours without opposition [5].

The communist party thoroughly prepared the campaign started for the nationalisation of schools. It endeavoured to decrease the opposition of the churches and the religious parents with various promises. It announced that compulsory catechesis would be maintained even in the nationalised schools. They would keep on employing the teachers who taught there earlier, as well as the clergymen. Ideological variegation would remain even after the nationalisation, and left-wing ideologies would not be forced. The purpose of the measures accompanying nationalisation was also to increase trust and weaken opposition. During the summer they raised teacher salaries. Spectacular renovations started in the first schools taken over. Clergymen were induced to make positive declarations in press articles about nationalisation. Left-wing non-governmental organisations were mobilised and local administrative bodies were instructed to request the nationalisation of church schools from the government on meetings and in resolutions. It also had an important tactical role that the draft of school nationalisation was put forward in the Parliament during the summer. Since there were holidays in the schools, churches could not mobilise the teacher and student organisations, and the parents. Consequently, there were much less social demonstration, opposition was not synchronised and did not include great masses [11].

Although the government had made a decision on this question, it initiated new negotiations with the churches in order to maintain the show. Ortutay emphasised his attempts to come to an agreement with the denominations, but he also stated that the

government would suppress opposition to democratic efforts. Mindszenty archbishop was not ready to make any compromise concerning the schools. He set as a prerequisite of the negotiations that the government should permit again the operation of the dissolved church organisations, and allow the start-up of church daily papers. It was not by accident that the head of the Catholic Church especially insisted on these conditions. The organising and mobilising work of the social clubs and the extension of the media opportunities would have strengthened the church's connections with the mass significantly. In this way it could have counterbalanced much better the pressure of the left-wing government [8].

On 11 May 1948, the catholic prelacy issued a pastoral letter against the schools' planned nationalisation. Having accepted Mindszenty archbishop's proposal, the declaration promised church chastisement and banishment from the churches to the ones who voluntarily or under pressure supported nationalisation. The government used the opportunity to accuse the church of coercion and threatening. On 15 May, Ortutay declared that he endeavoured to solve the matter of schools by way of negotiations. However, the church did not intend to co-operate; each logical proposal was rejected. The Catholic Church reacted in a bishop's pastoral letter on 23 May, where it rejected the charge of being anti-democratic. It objected to the aggressive propaganda of the left-wing, and accusations having no foundation. It outlined that church schools provably provided students with appropriate training [12].

The government in addition to convincing also applied the tools of threatening. In a village called Pócspetri, in the evening on 3 June, the local national committee held a meeting, and it made a declaration supporting church school nationalisation. Approx. 500 people coming from the litany gathered in front of the village hall. These people requested that the leaders of the village did not support the nationalisation. A scuffle started among the people and the policemen protecting the village hall. In the meantime the arms of one of the policemen went off and its owner received a mortal hurt. Although it was evidently an unavoidable accident, the communist controlled police reported this case as a wilful murder, a political attempt on someone's life. The court it came to the conclusion that the local priest incited rebellion and the people attacked the police as a result of this. Although there was no evidence for any of the charges, in the left-wing press exaggerated articles were published, which accused the church of having anti-democratic behaviour, and instigation to bloody terror acts [8].

The Parliament discussed the bill on school nationalisation on 16 June 1948. Those who submitted the bill emphasised that public education had already been owned by the state for long in each European developed country. They also recalled that nationalisation had already been included in program of Lajos Kossuth and József Eötvös a hundred years ago. They outlined that only unified state education could ensure proper standard and equal chances. And they referred to the nationalisation was initiated by different non-governmental organisations. The bill was passed by the Parliament in the ratio of 230:63. With this 6505 denominational schools were taken over by the state (5437 primary schools, 113 grammar schools, 98 teacher training college, and lyceum), and 18 000 teachers became employed by the state. Nationalised schools included 63% Roman Catholic, 24% Calvinist, and 8% Lutheran schools [10].

Having seen the government's determination, on 12 June, Mindszenty archbishop prohibited the priest and monk teachers to teach in schools taken over by the state. As a result of his order, out of 2000 monks only 15 agreed to continue teaching. The archbishop aimed at achieving that everybody could see clearly, how crucial the church's role was in education. But in practice he only made it easier for the communist party to get rid of the old teaching staff. When this law passed, the Catholic Church lost its fight against school nationalisation. It did not have proper tools to fight efficiently, to mobilise great numbers of people. Democratic institutions already did not work properly, either. Left-wing helped along nationalisation of schools. Organised opposition stopped after the act of nationalisation entered into force. The Catholic Church did not want to have constant conflict with the ruling power. It acknowledged that it lost its schools. It focused on the remaining social activities and the operation of the church organisation [1].

In the case of the reformed churches that had much less social influence as compared to the Catholic Church, the intent of nationalisation met with less resistance. But the communist party left nothing to chance. The most reputed head of the Calvinistic Church, László Ravasz bishop was forced to withdraw in April 1948. The government promised that the Calvinists might keep some schools. As a result, the church synod passed the nationalisation plan on 15 June. But one month later the government decided that despite its promise each Calvinistic primary school would be taken over by the state. The leaders of the Lutheran Church that comprised only a few percent of the population tried to avoid open confrontation. He hoped that if the church co-operated, (according to the state's promises) compulsory catechesis would remain, church teachers would be employed, and the social institutions of the denomination would not be taken over. In the issued pastoral letters they asked their members to be cautious and thoughtful, not to give rise to aggressive responses from the ruling power. However the leaders of the Lutheran Church did not trust in the government's promises. Therefore during the summer it did not decide on co-operation [8].

Left-wing forces lost their patience. In September, Béla Kapi Calvinist bishop was forced to withdraw from his post, while Lajos Ordass Lutheran bishop was arrested and convicted based on trumped-up charges. In order to crush Catholic Church definitely, on 23 December 1948 József Mindszenty was also arrested and convicted based on trumped-up charges. During the school nationalisation one of the government's greatest promises was that catechesis would remain compulsory. But the ruling power did not keep this promise either. On 6 September 1949, a governmental decree changed religious education optional. According to explanation of the Communist Party the school nationalisation was implemented for the sake of progress, as opposed to the 'reactionary' behaviour represented by the churches. In fact, acquiring the schools was an important step to the left-wing on the way of expropriating political power [13].

CONCLUSION

School nationalisation was not about modifying property relations. Its purpose was evidently not the modernisation of education, or the introduction of unified

requirements. Left-wing forces made efforts to gain influence over society to the highest possible extent. They also wanted to control the formulation of the growing generation's thoughts and view of life. That was why they forced the quickest possible implementation of nationalisation. Media played a very important role in the campaign launched for the sake of taking the schools over by the state. Left-wing parties were very efficient in exploiting their various communicational opportunities. They were successful in manipulating and tuning most of the public opinion to their views. They could also succeed in making a lot of people uncertain or turn against the churches. For the churches it was a significant disadvantage that they did not have similar media tools. In the lack of this, they could not provide the inhabitants with authentic information. They could not mobilise people to the proper extent as opposed to the power gaining endeavours of the left-wing, for protecting the independence of church schools.

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PROCESS POLICIES AND STRATEGIES TO ENSURE STRONG SUSTAINABILITY OF QUALITY MANAGEMENT IN EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

A globalized reform of quality management for the educational system in Romania is tolerated today. A careful analysis and critical evaluation of the literature suggests a big question as to how reasonable, honest and sustainable this system is. A series of studies show that the reality of education in Romania is facing the need for an innovative structure, considering an analysis of the gaps.

This study provides an overview of critical success factors from the study of strong and weak sustainability. Awareness of the need for continuous improvement in the context of policies to encourage quality culture aims to harmonize and strike a balance between the continuity of total quality management and the necessary changes to its sustainability. The authors used methodological activities such as the exploratory literature review, Deming and EFQM models in education, the Triple Bottom Line model, an analysis of the gaps.

Finally, the result of this research provides an overview of gaps and policy and strategy models to ensure a strong sustainability of quality management.

***Keywords**: strong sustainability; policies and procedural strategies; innovative structures*

INTRODUCTION

Optimizing a quality management structure for the educational system in Romania is still a top-level issue in areas of change management, inter-organizational relations development, global strategy implementation, exploration of innovative opportunities, in the context of reforms in excellence in management requires strong sustainability.

Excellence in educational management is based on a series of paradoxes. The reality of educational organizations must first be properly understood for honest management of the wider context outside them, since each institution acts within a broad organization or even interdependent organizations.

The economic crisis in recent years has affected many education providers in Romania, as the considerable decrease in the resources allocated to educational organizations and the reduction of the number of qualified staff by half, as the case may be, resulted in the transformation of quality education into a luxury. [1]

Implicitly, there have been major communication and management deficiencies in the systematic nature of feedback and feedforward mechanisms. Legislative instability and the lack of clear, sustainable and stereotypical guidance have deepened the lack or inadequacy of internal procedures and trust policies of quality management in education.

MATERIAL AND METHODOLOGY

It seems as though there has never been such rhetorical support in the need to rethink educational legislation and policies of quality and excellence for the development of a global economy based on knowledge and innovation, favorable to inclusion and integration in the labor market.

In Romania, the Law on National Education no. 1 of January 5, 2011, without any other amendments so far, aims to "promote a value-oriented, creative, knowledge, skills and abilities education." As an annotation, in connection with the difficulties of understanding the presented text, the authors agree with the support of some specialists to reformulate or eliminate some irrelevant paragraphs from a normative point of view. There are repetitions, pleonastic, incoherent and unglazed expressions, a clear re-evaluation and reformulation with quantifiable expressions, meaningful meaning and meaning. The first three paragraphs of Article 1 of the Act are quite difficult to analyze and synthesize. In paragraph 2, the concept of sustainability is introduced as follows: "the law's mission is the sustainable generation of a highly competitive national human resource capable of functioning effectively in today's and future society," in line with the new European requirements and in the context of globalization. Educational and legal professionals have said that a law cannot assume a mission, just as the concept of "ideals" cannot be regulated by it. [2]

Based on the realistic analysis of the educational legislation in force and barrier sources, the authors conducted an exploratory assessment of ARACIP's Strategy for the Recovery of Confidence in Education in Romania, as well as of the European Horizon 2020 "Strategy for Smart, Green and Inclusive Growth", (Figure No. 1) go to the awareness of the need for reliability and validity of policies to encourage quality culture. [3]
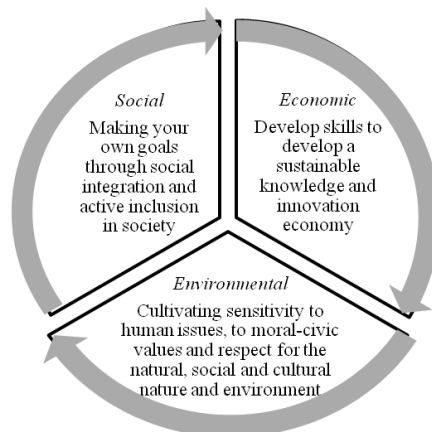
Figure No.1. Triple Bottom Line Model

Source: The authors' own concept about "Strategy for Smart, Green and Inclusive Growth" based on the Law of National Education

The merging of the three elements generates strong sustainability, which is a reference vector for sustainable management and can attribute which assures total quality in education.

In an exploratory evaluation of EU quality assurance policies, several principles that are guided and correlated with the principles of quality management belonging to the International Organization for Standardization (ISO), principles of excellence supported by the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM), the principles of quality education provided by the Spanish Quality Assurance Act. [1], [4]

Through a series of research activities, their deepening and interpretation in the direction of pedagogical and practical managerial development, taking into account both the applicable and transferable policy in the field of education, provided for in the framework legislation on quality assurance of education (Law no.87/2006, with changes in 2018), but also Deming's contribution, by the quantitative method of measuring the variability of the qualitative processes. Deming's philosophies, including that on quality through the 14 points, are somewhat reorganizing the traditional notions of quality. Although it is increasingly used to improve quality by organizing change, it is not so easy to tolerate many managers, it shows that for the most part quality deficiencies start from poor management with poor organization and only to a small extent is due to errors in the operating profit process. Sales models combine an excellent design with efficient production through planning, execution, verification, action (PDCA), providing a quality-enhancing environment. All these, plus the principles of the European model of EFQM excellence in education, can be found in the following graphical representation. (Figure No.2)
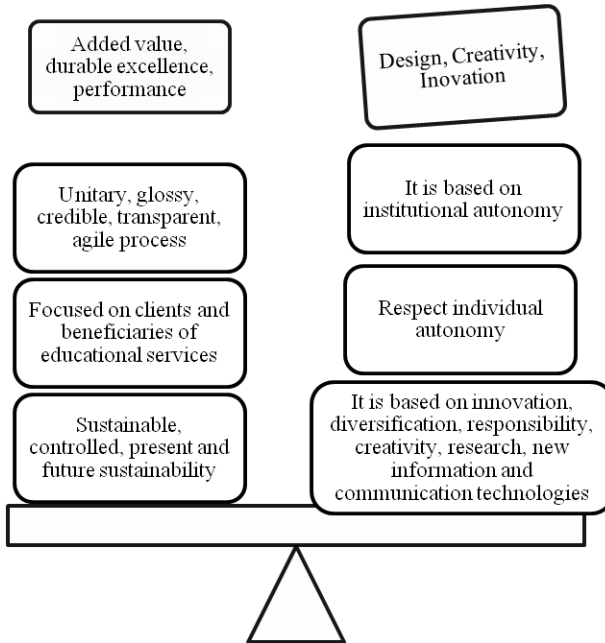
Figure No.2. The Variation of Sustainable Quality Management

Source: The authors' own concept about the balance of sustainable quality management based on Deming's model and EFQM adapted to education

Criticisms of traditional quality management theories are guided by a rationality built on the logic of competitive strategy transposed into the practice of today's organizations that face many gaps in moving the focus to local financial management in moving from multinational organizations to multilocal organizations, a coordinated system of institutional values. This local competition is increasingly felt at the level of education-providing organizations, given that strategic management is focused on the institution. [5], [6]

THEORY

The study uses ideas, approaches to different approaches, and models to which they have become reference authors, and obvious critical intentions have the role of analyzing dilemmas, current problems of present learning, and providing an overview of gaps to motivate as much as possible of many managerial actors and their instigation in quality in education and in noble real life.

Keeping the direction of this study, the authors followed the path of modern approaches to quality management theory with the desire to look for clear and safe indications that can not lead to a wrong path in education or to reach conceptual bottlenecks. Thus, Taylor used new methods by renouncing the linear organization, constituting specialized, functional compartments to remove the gap of time. Georg

Barth's disciple, Henry L. Gantt, promotes "harmonious co-operation" within the organization in order to increase productivity and return on services. [7]

Henry Fayol's policy has provided reference details of modern management, including self-improvement, discipline and order. However, due to the growing need to achieve high standards through the diversification of quality services, it has been observed that the above-mentioned indications neglected the organization's relations with the external environment.

Different from other specialists, Peter Drucker considered that the task of quality management to indicate a "growing, viable organism" to pursue greatness, to be emphasized here would be also the "conceptual extension" for understanding quality in education, as there was no unitary concept for something so complex that can be assimilated to the evolution of life itself.

Going all the way to Taylor, Elton W. Mayo added new notions to new concepts such as cohesion, self-esteem, arguing that "the human instinct of association is more important than the individual interest and logic of the rationale behind false management principles". [1], [7]

German Theodore Levitt continued the conceptual development in the direction of quality management sustainability through work at the Harvard Business School. "Marketing Myopia" has attracted attention on marketing and highlighted its importance in respecting the principles of competitive success through a management policy geared towards meeting the needs of the goods and services benefiting, with a "global notoriety".

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The issue of the sustainability of quality management in education has been developed on other occasions by supporting a conceptual model for improving the Romanian education in comparison to the complete success of the educational process in other states of the world.

At the same time, following Theodore Levitt's policy and conceptual model of "Perpetual Educational Marketing", it provides an overview of the marketing strategy correlated with the principles of quality management. It is based on the requirements of changing the field of education with a social impact on the consolidation of a collaborative organizational culture and is in line with the eight principles of quality management. [8], [9]

By correlating sustainable quality management policies with educational marketing, the vision of this research has strengthened the new conceptual approaches to this end presented in the study "Correlation between Educational Marketing and Quality Management Principles Associated with Education", like "reliability", "lordship" and all that.

Table No.1. Model of Policy Analysis and Educational Strategies

Source: The authors' own concept about evaluation and self-assessment criteria based on Michael Porter's Model

Force 1	Force 2	Force 3	Force 4
Uni-Superior Lordship	Customer Field	Pure Competition	Community
Vision, Mission, Clear Targets, Own Culture, Unique, Flexibility, Relative Stability, Climate of Excellence, Institutional Research, Value Creators, New Technologies	Benefit, Giving, Anticipation of needs, Satisfaction of beneficiaries' needs, Unique offer, High quality services, Diverse resources	Charisma, Grace, Rational Authority, Conservation of Authenticity and Traditions, Discovering Competitive Advantage, Collaboration	Programs, Projects, Grants, Fundraising, Entering the National and International Market, Entrepreneurship, Think Green

After a critical scan and reconnoiter of gaps such as negative experiences, attitudes, inaccessible language and insufficient quality management, several studies show that a smart growth strategy is needed to develop a knowledge and innovation system. Concentricity of quality in education needs a fusion code for the following elements such as creativity in taking over and developing existing and functional field lines at the level of the Romanian educational policy as a vortex with a compensatory technique in which the reference is sustainable excellence, authenticity. (Figure No. 3)

CREATIVITY

ORIGINALITY

DURABILITY

EXCELENCY
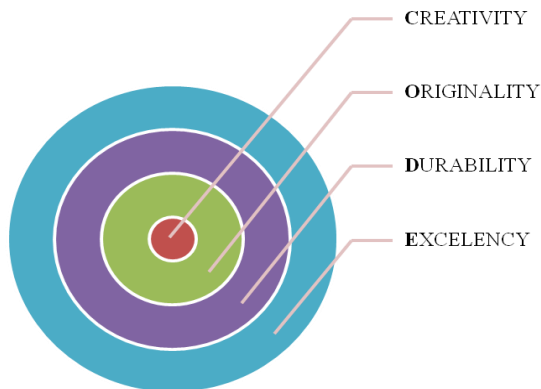
Figure No.3. The CODE of Sustainable Quality Management

Source: The authors' own concept about sustainable excellence

CONCLUSION

The rebuilding of trust in Romanian education is a difficult and lasting process, as it is a comprehensive policy-making structure of education with a strategic orientation to ensure the consistency between the goals of total quality management

and the necessary changes in national and international sustainability, in the context of globalization.

Quality education in education aims to improve the educational system, reflectivity, teamwork, ability to develop common visions, experimental research to make it easy to move from cognition to metacognition, to successfully implement procedural policies and strategies to achieve a strong, profound and sustainable sustainability.

Being a demanding and changing theme, research will continue in this direction and new process, theoretical and practical intersections will be sought for the development of diagnostic maps and managerial prognosis in the field of education.

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THE FORMATION OF STUDENT KEY COMPETENCES BASED ON BUSINESS ENGLISH

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ABSTRACT

This article analyzes the experience of teaching a foreign language in the field of "Advertising and Public Relations." Taking into account the specifics of the process of training specialists in advertising and public relations, to form a communicative competence that allows graduates to act in the field of public, professional communication effectively is crucial. At the same time, we are talking about the development of communicative competence as a complex concept, which is the first condition for professionally oriented communication. The study of a professional foreign language forms the competence of future specialists in advertising and public relations necessary for the implementation of professional activities. An additional resource for improving the communicative competence of future specialists is revealed - the correlation of a foreign language with the disciplines of specialization. This contributes to the development of students' cognitive activity, creativity, teamwork, and analytical skills. The course is based on the CLIL methodology. When designing the course, the teacher should take into account such factors as the age of students, their social and linguistic environment, and the degree of familiarity with the study of subjects in a foreign language. Conducting classes in the CLIL format implies increased requirements for a Business English teacher, who will have to be ready to involve colleagues from other subject departments in the preparation and conduct of classes. Nowadays, learning practices change, new resources appear. Mobile learning (mLearning) can be an answer to the challenge of a modern world. In mLearning, the focus is on a variety of problems, from how students' access to content to how the idea of content is defined. When developing the course of Business English, one of the essential pedagogical tasks was the formation of students ' ability to further independent study of a foreign language/languages and business culture, including the use of modern information technologies. We hope that this study will be useful both for researchers and practitioners designing an academic course, "Business English" for students studying advertising and public relations.

Keywords: *business English, CLIL classes, mobile earning, communicative competence.*

INTRODUCTION

This article analyzes the experience of teaching a foreign language in the field of "Advertising and Public Relations." Taking into account the specifics of the process of training specialists in advertising and public relations, to form a communicative competence that allows graduates to act in the field of open professional communication effectively is crucial. At the same time, we are talking about the development of communicative competence as a complex concept, which is the first

condition for professionally oriented communication. Foreign language training in the field of "Advertising and Public Relations" is conducted for four years of practice.

The course "Business English" is the second step in the study of a foreign language in the field of "Advertising and Public Relations" in Siberian Federal University, after studying the two-year basic course "English language." The study of a professional foreign language, first of all, is aimed at the formation of future specialists in advertising and public relations competencies in the field of a foreign language, necessary for the implementation of professional activities. Another important goal is the formation of the need to use a foreign language as a resource for the comprehensive development of the individual, as a means of communication, knowledge, and self-realization in intercultural communication. The objectives of the discipline include the formation of students ' reading strategies of English texts of professional subjects with elements of critical thinking, as well as the establishment of skills in project activities that require the use of foreign language sources of information. An important aspect is the development of English-language specialized vocabulary, providing access to sources, and allowing carrying out professional communication in the field of advertising and public relations. The course offers the consistent formation of English language proficiency in all types of speech activities. The structure of the multi-level course "Business English" includes successive components that are used both independently and as successive parts within the framework of a continuous holistic course. Each element of the course is aimed at achieving a specific target level of proficiency in professional English. The course is based on the system-activity communicative approach. The learning process involves several communication tasks similar to those that advertising and public relations practitioners have to deal with in their daily activities. In this regard, each topic/section logically completes business role play or case studies. Also, the course is based on the CLIL methodology.

THEORY

The course is based on the CLIL methodology. This methodology was conducted for cultural and language adaptation in the works of David Marsh [10], David Coyle [5] and other researchers [3], [11].CLIL is a teaching method that activates students and integrates language. There are the following elements of the CLIL methodology: content, communication, cognition, and culture. As for the content- it is necessary to stimulate the development of knowledge and skills in the subject. In communication, it is essential to teach students to use the means of a foreign language to gain an understanding of the issue. In cognition (mental abilities), it is necessary to develop the mental skills of students to understand the language and the subject better. Achieving this goal will help tasks to be analytical or critical reading and writing, the task of delineating the central, matching, guessing, finding relationships, etc. As for culture(cultural knowledge)-understanding the characteristics, similarities, and differences of individual cultures will help students to socialize more effectively in today's multicultural space, to understand their own culture better and to stimulate its preservation and development.

When designing a course [3], the teacher should take into account such factors as the age of students, their social and linguistic environment, and the degree of familiarity with the study of subjects in a foreign language. On the one hand, conducting classes in the CLIL format implies increased requirements for a Business English teacher, who will have to be ready to involve colleagues from other subject departments in the preparation and conduct of classes [7], [8]. On the other hand, students note that classes in Business English are often much more interesting than lessons in other subjects, as teachers use a variety of forms of presentation, organization of work, focus on individual and creative activities of students. This means that the study of basic subjects will be much more exciting and useful for students if it takes place within the framework of the activity and communicative approach peculiar to Business English classes [6].

Special requirements apply to the selection of educational material and the development of tasks for it [5].

Thus, the following tasks are set for the teacher:

1. Content on the subject should be selected at a level of difficulty just below the current level of knowledge of students in this subject in their native language. Texts should be carefully selected and provided with a sufficient number of tasks for understanding and mastering the learning material.
2. Tasks on text processing should be built with an emphasis on the subject content, involve students in the process of understanding, checking, discussing the main idea of the text.
3. Tasks should show the features of linguistic forms, to work out the ability to create, use, use different types of testing and evaluation (including mutual control).
4. Tasks should stimulate the independent and creative activity of students, communicative tasks for oral and written communication in a foreign language.
5. Students should be familiarized with cognitive strategies to address language, content, and communication complexities.

With proper consideration of all the above factors, the course, based on the CLIL methodology, will solve the following training goals and objectives:

1. Increase students ' motivation to learn a foreign language;
2. To teach students to consciously and freely use a foreign language to solve everyday problems of communication;
3. Develop students ' knowledge and understanding of other cultures;
4. Prepare students for opportunities to continue their education and work in a global context;
5. Develop linguistic and communicative competencies through the use of a foreign language in its natural and modern form.

RESEARCH

The variety and variability of teaching methods, the widespread use of authentic audio-video materials, allows students to form the ability to use English in the main communicative situations of professional communication. Also, it will enable to understand the English monologue and dialogue speech in the field of professional communication, to find similarities and differences in the business culture and traditions of their country and the countries of the target language. Students are taught to know the basics of presentations in English, to read English texts, both on a wide and narrow profile of the specialty. A large amount of training time is devoted to the formation of skills of writing documents in English, such as press releases, resumes, different types of advertisements, backgrounds, company profiles, business letters, e-mails, etc.

Also, it's important to mention that nowadays, as learning practices and technology tools change, new resources appear. Mobile learning or mLearning is an answer to the challenge of a modern world [2]. In mLearning, the focus is on a variety of problems, from how learners access content to how the idea of content is defined. Modern technology like tablets PCs, apps eases the shift to mobile learning.

Educators are actively searching for ways to prepare students for the future, and the educational system has been evolving faster than ever before [4]. Various studies have shown us that rote memorization is not an effective learning strategy and that teacher-centered classrooms (versus student-centered classrooms) may not be the most efficiently structured ones for student engagement[12], [13].

The days of lecturing teachers have passed – though not entirely. The primary source of knowledge in the classroom should not be the teacher only. Education is no longer about listening to the teacher talk and absorbing the information. To contribute to society, students will need to be able to acquire new information as problems arise. Then, they will need to connect the latest information with the knowledge they already have and apply it to solving the issue at hand. They will not be able to call upon a teacher for answers, so they will need to have 'learned how to learn' on their own. In this classroom model, the teacher would act as a facilitator for the students. Instead of passively receiving information, the students would gather information on their own, under the guidance of their teacher. Different learning styles are encouraged, and students have an enhanced sense of motivation and responsibility. They engage in many kinds of hands-on activities, as well as demonstrate learning in many different ways. Thus, learning is about discovery, not the memorization of facts.

Since the students of the field of "Advertising and Public Relations" are no longer be preparing for specific professional tasks and roles, the teacher needs to take a more general approach and teach them the universal skills that are useful in any situation. In this situation, mLearning can be considered a modern answer to a pedagogical problem.

Modern researches affirm that mLearning is no more an option but a "must have": 70% of learners felt more motivated when training on a mobile device, as opposed to

a computer, mobile learners typically study for 40 minutes longer than students using a desktop or tablet, smartphone learners complete course material 45% faster than those using a computer [1].

So, Business English teachers should design mobile lessons for small-time tasks that students can access at any time, and from anywhere. Mobile Business English lessons should range from five to ten minutes in length and not more than fifteen minutes. For mLearning purposes, a teacher needs to focus on thinking about the "want to know" and "want to do" behaviors they have throughout every day. Mobile learning enables to capture feedback, as mobile devices give a teacher access to the "always-on" connection to the student. Through this connection, a teacher sends out quick messages and notification about new additions to mobile learning materials and segments. This link can also provide reminders to the learner regarding unfinished learning modules.

Researches pay attention that among the most powerful principles of mobile learning is asynchronous access. "This unbolts an educational environment from a school floor and allows it to move anywhere, anytime in pursuit of truly entrepreneurial learning. It also enables a learning experience that is increasingly personalized: just in time, just enough, just for me" [2].

RESULTS

Also, students plan topic, sequence, audience, and application via facilitation of teachers who now act as experts of resource and assessment. With mobility comes diversity. As learning environments change constantly, that fluidity becomes a norm that provides a stream of new ideas, unexpected challenges, and endless opportunities for revision and application of thinking [13]. It's crucial that mobile learning represents a blending of personal communication and digital interaction, cognitive reflection, and natural interaction with students.

When developing the course of Business English, one of the essential pedagogical tasks was the formation of students ' ability to further independent study of a foreign language/languages and business culture, including the use of modern information technologies.

It is vital to develop the ability to get out of the situation in the context of a shortage of language means in the receipt and transmission of professional information. It is necessary to form students' readiness to participate in project activities, including interdisciplinary nature, requiring the use of foreign-language sources of information.

The tasks build practical classes in a professional foreign language. Thus, due to the extensive use of cases, work with authentic texts, students develop critical thinking skills. Different types of tasks form the development of communication skills and strategies, skills of independent work. The study of grammatical structures is carried out by presenting them in texts that introduce students to various aspects of

their future profession. Special attention is paid to the necessary grammatical forms and structures of the English language typical for professional speech.

Much attention is paid to reconstructive and creative tasks: organization and holding of various presentations, business, and role-playing games [9]. Beneficial was the use of project methodology, which made it possible to use in practice the knowledge and practical skills taken from other areas of advertising and public relations. In teaching, the emphasis is on self-education of students, on the formation of their skills of independent search for texts on the Internet, the ability to use dictionaries, search for literature on various topics that ultimately forms the academic autonomy of students. Along with learning the multiple units of language – phonetic, grammatical, lexical, and intonational – in the communication training is becoming particularly critical functional statements, various types of verbal interaction between interlocutors, the speech variants of realization of communicative intentions of interlocutors, the flexible ways of communication response, the technique of verbal communication (including speech etiquette), etc. An effective way to optimize learning activities is game modeling, which is a recreation in the learning process of motives, goals, situations, conditions, process, and results of advertising and other activities. Actions in the roleplay take place in one of the spheres of the professional activity of advertising and public relations. In this regard, modeling in the business game conditions of professional activity is educational. It involves the definition, first of all, the main areas of the professional activity of the future specialist. The very essence of the role-playing game determines its primary goal – to develop and improve the professional competence of students [9]. The definition of the main problem and the theme of the game concretize the target, focusing it on specific aspects of the professional activity of students and solving particular challenges of a professional nature. This provides a wide range of gaming activities, more complete solution of professional issues, as well as forms the skills and abilities of practical use of expert knowledge creates conditions for speech activity in a foreign language in various situations

As a result of the survey of 212 students studying in the specialty "Advertising and Public Relations" revealed not only a pragmatic interest in a foreign language, such as the use of the Internet, communication with people from other countries, watching foreign films, reading literature in the original language; understanding international advertising, reading instructions for household appliances. Also, students consider a foreign language as a source of personal growth, giving humanitarian and cultural knowledge, knowledge of a foreign language helps to shape the worldview of future professionals in advertising and public relations.

Moreover, the generalization and analysis of foreign language teaching among students of the field "Advertising and Public Relations" revealed another resource for improving the communicative competence of future specialists - the correlation of a foreign language with the disciplines of specialization. This contributes to the development of students ' cognitive activity, imagination, creativity, teamwork skills, and the ability to conduct analytical work. The course "Business English" uses interdisciplinary connections with such disciplines as "Theory and practice of Public Relations," "Theory and practice of Advertising," "Social psychology," "Imagology," "Management," "Marketing," "Psychology of Mass Communication."

CONCLUSION

Our research leads to the conclusion that for the majority of students of the field "Advertising and Public Relations" approve a new way of studying. Latest changes in the world impose several new requirements for the development of Business English teaching. Combination of CLIL approach and mobile learning has a synergistic effect on learning outcomes. Putting forward one of the priorities of the communicative competence of students, we must understand that this is impossible without using new approaches. In our opinion, the knowledge of a foreign language obtained in the course "Business English" of the implemented model of teaching contributes to the students' motivation, analytical skills, and critical thinking. The importance of professionally-oriented English language teaching will increase.

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Section LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS

LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS

The section covers scientific topics related to theoretical, literary and historical linguistics, as well as stylistics and philology

AN OUTLINE OF NOUN MORPHOLOGY IN SURGUT AND SALYM KHANTY

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ABSTRACT

This study presents findings resulting from a comparative analysis of the system of nominal morphological markers attested by various researchers in the Surgut dialect and in the badly described Salym dialect. The analysis focused on the morphological markers that form paradigms of three nominal categories: case, number and possession. It aimed at systematizing the linguistic data of Surgut and Salym Khanty.

Keywords: Surgut Khanty, Salym Khanty, morphology, number, possession, case

INTRODUCTION

On a par with the Vakh and Vasyugan dialects, the Surgut and Salym dialects belong to the Eastern cluster of Khanty that is opposed to the Western one, according to a contemporary classification of the dialects in question [1]. The names of the idioms adopted by the speakers are designations given after the name of an area: the Surgut district and a tributary of the Ob river: Salym. The Surgut dialect is subdivided into several variants: Pim, Trom-Agan, Agan, and Yugan [2], [3] while László Honti distinguishes Pim, Trom-Agan, Trom-Yugan, and Yugan variants [4]. According to Marta Csepregi, Trom-Agan and Trom-Yugan form one variant designated as the Trom-Agan. Nowadays all dialects of Khanty are very susceptible to the natural process of language shift. The overwhelming majority of the ethnic population speaks Russian, however, speakers of the Surgut dialect of Khanty have lost their native language less than speakers of other Eastern dialects – Vakh, Vasyugan and Salym. The intergenerational transfer of the Salym dialect of Khanty has been completely disrupted. Ethnic speakers of Salym Khanty use Russian as a means of daily communication. Surgut Khanty is currently spoken in the Surgut district of the Khanty-Mansi Autonomous Okrug-Ugra by the Khanty who live in the basins of the Lyamyn, Pim, Trom-Agan, Agan, Maly and Bolshoy Yugan rivers. According to A. S. Pessikova's estimates obtained during some ethnographic expeditions between 1992 and 2015, the number of speakers of Surgut Khanty totalled 2,811 people [3]. The difference between Surgut and Salym Khanty has been noticed in phonetics. Variants of the Surgut dialect represent the λ-type, while the Salym dialect is regarded as the *t*-type [1]. For example, Sur. *uλəm* – Sal. *utəm* 'sleep, dream' [2]. Csepregi argues that the Salym dialect displays some morphological features that point to its affiliation with the Eastern cluster, however, in terms of phonetics it belongs to the southern cluster [3]. It has also been revealed that the transition of [λ] to [t] started in

the Irtysh-Kondinski dialect about 200 years ago and gradually spread to the north and east. Salym Khanty was the first to be affected by this process, with Surgut Khanty going through this process at present. Another distinctive feature is vowel gradation. Surgut Khanty share vowel gradation with all Eastern dialects, except Salym Khanty. It occurs both in the declension of nouns and the conjugation of verbs, e.g. [o] ~ [ɨ] *ḳoλəɣ* 'nephew' – *ḳiλɣ-əλ* nephew-POSS.3SG 'his/her nephew'.

Studies of the morphsyntactic features of various Khanty dialects were initiated in the nineteenth century by M. A. Castrén [5], S. Patkanov [6], H. Paasonen [7], K. F. Karjalainen [8], W. Steinitz [9]. A chrestomathy of Surgut dialect was published by M. Csepregi [3], [10]. Some aspects of the grammar of Yugan Khanty may be found in [11] and grammar notes of various variants of Surgut Khanty – in L. Honti's Chrestomathy [4]. Unfortunately, the Salym dialect is unsufficiently described. There has been no one Salym chrestomathy to date. For a comparative analysis the data on Surgut Khanty have been elicited from [3], [4], [8], [10]. Some language data on Salym dialect have been found out in [4] and some elicited from the examples done by N. Tereshkin in the Eastern Khanty dictionary [2].

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The noun has three inflectional categories: number, case and possession. There is no grammatical category of gender or that of definiteness in Khanty. In the morphological structure of the word, the nominal categories are represented in the following order: number marker + possession marker + case marker. For example, Sur. 1. *kiriw-l-əm-nə* vehicle-PL-POSS.1SG-LOC 'in my boats'; 2. *kiriw-ət-nə* vehicle-PL-LOC 'in boats'.

Number. The Khanty noun has 3 numbers: singular, dual and plural. Each number has two forms: free and bound. Their use depends on the presence or absence of possessive markers in the word structure. In example (1) above, the number marker -*l*- is used in the dependent form and the marker -*ət*- is in the absolute form. The free number markers indicate the duality or plurality of the object, the bound number markers – the duality or plurality of the possessed object. According to most grammarians, bound number markers and possessive suffixes are jointly treated as one morpheme. The paradigms of the free and bound number markers in the dialects under the study are illustrated in tables 1–2. Allomorphs of the same morpheme are given after a slash.

Table 1. Free number and bound markers in Surgut

Number	Free markers	Bound markers
SG	Ø *ḳat* 'house, *imi* 'woman', *wajəɣ* 'animal'	Ø *kut-in* house-POSS.2PL 'your house'
DU	ɣən/kən/ḳən *ḳat-ḳən* house-DU 'two houses'	ɣəλ/kəλ/ḳəλ *ḳot-ɣəλ-in* house-DU-POSS.2PL 'your two houses'
PL	t/ət *wajɣ-ət* animal-PL 'many animals'	λ *ḳot-λ-in* house-PL-POSS.2PL 'your houses'

Table 2. Free number and bound markers in Salym

Number	Free markers	Bound markers
SG	Ø *ḳat* 'house, *imi* 'woman', *wajəɣ* 'animal', *n'ŏɣ* 'small river', *âwə* 'daughter, girl', *pos* 'mitten'	Ø –
DU	ɣən/kən *âwə-ɣən* daughter-DU 'two daughers, girls', *n'ŏk-kən* small.river-DU 'two small rivers'	ŋət –
PL	t/ət *pos-ət* 'many mittens' mitten-PL, *âwə-t* daughter-PL 'many daughters, girls'	t –

As it follows from the table, the singular number (in both free and bound types) is unmarked in both dialects. The dual free marker *-ɣən* is identical in Surgut and Salym, whereas the bound dual marker differs; cf. Sugut *-ɣəλ* and Salym *-ŋət*. The suffix *-ŋət* is a feature of most southern dialects and the mixed dialects Nizyam and Sherkal combining features of the southern and northern Khanty [4]. The plural free marker is *-t* which is shared by both analyzed dialects and, in general, by the Ob-Ugric languages. This nominal suffix *-t-* is polysemous in Salym. It marks plurality and plurality of possession. The plurality of possession is marked by the suffix *-λ-* in Surgut.

Possession. The category of possession is morphologically marked by possessive suffixes. These possessive markers encode a person, a number of the possessor and a number of the possessed simultaneously. The nominal possessive paradigm includes forms for three persons (1, 2, 3) and three numbers (SG, DU, PL). All in all, it may include 27 markers. The noun marked by a possessive suffix is the head of the construction that is referred to as the possessum and termed the 'possessed'. The possessive suffixes encode the referent that serves as the possessor. Table 3 presents nominal possessive suffixes in Surgut Khanty. Regrettably, possessive markers of Salym Khanty can hardly be presented and analyzed due to unavailable language data.

Table 3. Possessive markers in Surgut.

Possessor		Possessed		
		SG	DU	PL
SG	1	əm/em/am *păn-am* sting-POSS.1SG 'my sting'	am *păn-ɣəλ-am* sting-DU-POSS.1SG 'my two stings'	am *pănə-λ-am* sting-PL-POSS.1SG 'my stings'
	2	ən/en/e/a *păn-a* sting-POSS.2SG 'your sting'	a *păn-ɣəλ-a* sting-DU-POSS.2SG 'your (two) stings'	a *pănə-λ-a* sting-PL-POSS.2SG 'your stings'
	3	λ/əλ/iλ *păna-λ* sting-POSS.3SG 'his/her sting'	Ø *păn-ɣəλ* sting-DU.POSS.2SG 'his/her two stings'	Ø/-λ/-əλ/aλ *păna-λ* sting-PL/POSS.2SG 'his/her stings'
DU	1	mən *păna-mən* sting-POSS.1DU 'our (2) sting'	mən/əmən/amən *păn-ɣəλ-mən* sting-DU-POSS.1DU 'our (2) two stings'	mən/əmən/amən *păn-λ-mən* sting-PL-POSS.1DU 'our (2) stings'
	2	in/ɨn *păn-in* sting-POSS.2DU 'your (2) sting'	ən *păn-ɣəλ-ən* sting-DU-POSS.2DU 'your (2) two stings'	ən/in *păn-λ-ən* sting-PL-POSS.2DU 'your (2) stings'
	3	in/ɨn *păna-in* sting-POSS.3DU 'their (2) sting'	ən *păn-ɣəλ-ən* sting-DU-POSS.3DU 'their (2) two stings'	ən/in *păn-λ-mən* sting-PL-POSS.3DU 'your (2) stings'
PL	1	TjY. өχ, ӭχ (K), TjA. ɣ/əɣ/iɣ (H), J., P. – əw/ew/iw (H), uw/əw (C) *păna-ɣ* sting-POSS.1PL 'our sting'	TjY. өχ, ӭχ (K), TjA. əɣ (H), J., P. əw (H), uw (C) *păn-ɣəλ-əɣ* sting-DU-POSS.1PL 'our two stings'	TjY. өχ, ӭχ (K), TjA. ɣ/əɣ/iɣ (H), J., P. əw/ew/iw/uw (H), uw (C) *păn-λ-əɣ* sting-PL-POSS.1PL 'your stings'
	2	in/ɨn *păn-in* sting-POSS.2PL 'your sting'	in/ən *păn-ɣəλ-ən* sting-DU-POSS.2PL 'your two stings'	in/ən *păn-λ-ən* sting-PL-POSS.2PL 'your stings'
	3	iλ/ɨλ *păn-iλ* sting-POSS.2PL 'their sting'	aλ *păn-ɣəλ-aλ* sting-DU-POSS.3PL 'their two stings'	aλ *păn-λ-aλ* sting-PL-POSS.3PL 'their stings'

The researchers' disagreement concerns the forms for 1PL of the possessor and SG, DU and PL of the possessed. Possessive markers tend to coincide. All DU and PL markers of the possessed have identical forms.

Case. This category is represented by a different number of nominal cases (3–11) in Khanty. In all Northern Khanty dialects the nominal paradigm involves three cases; in Eastern Khanty dialects the category of case includes between 7 and 11

cases. The exact number of attested cases in a separate dialect largely depends on the opinion of the given researcher. From the semantic and functional perspective, the Surgut and Salym Eastern Khanty nominal cases fall into three groups. The first includes the nominative case alone, its functional syncretism encompasses nominative, accusative and genitive semantics. The second group includes all core spatial cases: ablative, agentive-locative, allative, and lative-illative-dative-allative. Functionally, the agentive-locative case is utilized to encode spatial meanings and mark the logical subject. The third group comprises all remaining cases: abessive, comparative, distributive, expletive, instrumental-comitative, instrumental-objective, and translative. All these cases function as markers of an indirect object of the verb or as adverbial modifiers. Due to the fact that most cases are characterized by polyfunctionality, researchers of Eastern Khanty use different terms to define cases, for example, the marker *-a/-ä* is termed lative [3], [10], lative-dative [4], illative-dative [11], lative, illative, dative [8]. We adopt a compound way of their designation, i.e. major functional variants are enumerated via hyphen: e.g. lative-illative-dative-allative. If any case is termed differently in literature, another name is given in brackets with a reference to the researcher who mentioned it, e.g. abessive (caritive K), agentive-locative (locative T, H).

Surgut Khanty. This overview of the Surgut Khanty case system is grounded in the data provided by Honti [4]. Karjalainen's research focused primarily on Trom-Yugan (Trom-Agan) Khanty. It is worth mentioning that Honti differentiated Trom-Yugan and Trom-Agan on phonological grounds: Trom-Yugan Khanty was characterized by vowel harmony, whereas Trom-Agan had lost that feature by then. Another variant of Surgut Khanty in which Honti identified vowel harmony was Yugan Khanty. The gradual elimination of vowel harmony is known to have started in the Yugan river area at the turn of the nineteenth-twentieth centuries and have been completed by the beginning of the 21st century [10]. This is supported by the fact that no vowel harmony is attested in Khanty dialects in the most recent grammar of the language [10]. Table 4 presents an overview of the cases and their markers in the variants

Table 4. Case markers in Surgut Trom-Yugan, Trom-Agan, Yugan, Pim

No.	Case	Marker				Examples
		TjY.	TjA.	P.	Y.	
Group 1						
1	Nominative	Ø				*imi* 'woman' *ap-əm rit* father-POSS.3SG boat 'a boat of my father', *iki säsəɣ wär* old.man trap make.NPST.3SG 'A man made a trap.'
Group 2						
2	Ablative (Exessive, Elative K)	i/ɨ/	i/	i/ iwəλ (H)	i	*ḵot-i* house-ABL 'away from a house' *juɣ-i* tree-ABL 'away from a tree', *săŋḵij-i* sand-ABL 'out of sand'
3	Agentive-Locative (Locative, Agentive, Inessive K) (Locative H, C)	nə/n$\underline{\overline{ə}}$	nə			*imi-nə put wär-λ-i* woman-AG food cook-PASS.3SG 'Food is cooked by a woman', *ḵot-nə* house-LOC 'into a house', *süwəs-nə* autumn-LOC 'in autumn'
4	Allative (Approximative K, H, C)	nam/ näm	nam		nam/ näm	*imi-näm* woman-ALL 'to a woman' *ḵut-əλ-nam* house-POSS.3SS-APP 'to his house'
5	Lative-Illative-Dative-Allative (Lative, Illative, Dative K) (Lative C) (Lative-Dative H)	a/ä	a		a/ä	*jəŋk-a* water-ILL '(fall) into water', *iməj-ä* woman-DAT '(say) to a woman', *ặɣnə̄-a waλ-ta mən-λ-əm* A'gan-ALL live-go-PRS-S.1SG 'I am going to live to the Agan.' [8]
Group 3						
6	Abessive (Caritive K)	λəɣ/λə̄ɣ λəɣ/λə̄ɣ	λəɣ			*imi-λəɣ* woman-ABS 'without a woman' *tüwət-λəɣ* fire-ABS 'without fire', *äwi-λəɣ* daughter-ABS 'without a daugher', *uλəm-λəɣ* dream-ABS 'without dreams'
7	Distributive	pti/ptɨ (K) təλtä/tə̄λta (H) — (C)	? (H) — (C)		λta/λtä (H) — (C)	TrY. *ĕj λäŋki-təλtä* one squirrel-DISTR 'with one squirrel each', TrY. *äwi-pti* girl-DISTR 'each girl', TrY. *rit-əλ-pti* boat-PL-DISTR '(take seats) in boats'
8	Expletive	— (K) p(ti)/p(ti) (H) — (C)	? (H) — (C)		p(ti) (H) — (C)	Y. *λəŋə-pti* summer-EXPL 'every summer', TrY. *ḵatλə-pti* day-EXPL 'ever day'
9	Instrumental-Comitative (Comitative K)	nat/nät	nat		nat/nät	*rit-nat* boat-INS 'by boat' *λajəm-nat* ax-INS 'with /by an axe', *ni-kən-nat* woman-DU-COM 'with two women', *imi-nät* woman-COM 'with a woman'
10	Instrumental-Objective (Instrumental K) (Instructive-Final H, C)	at/ät	at		at/ät	*suntuk wər-at tŏr'əmt-əɣ* box blood-OBJ flow-NPST.3SG 'There is blood coming out of the box.' *mä nüŋ-at nipək-at mə-λ-əm* 1SG 2SG-ACC book-OBJ give-PRS-1SG 'I give you a book'.
11	Translative	ɣɛ/kɛ (K) ɣə/ɣə̄ (H) kə/ḵə (C)	ɣə (H) kə/ḵə (C)			*ittən-ɣə jə-ɣ* evening-TR become-NPST.3SG 'The evening has come.' *wöŋ-kə* '(become) son-in-law', *ḵŏməŋ-ḵə* '(become) a swan', *λăḵ-ḵə* (from *λăw* 'horse') '(become) a horse'

As the data in the table show, researchers' opinions differ with regard to the inflections of such cases as the ablative and distributive. The most controversial

seems to be the distributive case. It is not included in the nominal case paradigm consisting of nine markers that was described by Csepregi. However, the use of this case marked by *-pti/ -ptɨ* was attested in Surgut Khanty by Karjalainen and illustrated by numerous examples [8]. As a consequence, Karjalainen distinguished ten case markers in the paradigm. Unlike him, Honti divided the distributive into two cases: the distributive per se and the expletive. The former is used to mark the object immediately following the predicate with *-təλtä/-tǝλta*, the latter can mark any object functioning as a complement or an adverbial with *-pti/-ptɨ*. This extends the paradigm to 11 cases in Honti's view. The following examples (1–3) illustrate the use of the distributive case in Trom-Yugan Khant.

(1) *ĕj   λäŋki-**tǝλtä***   *urt-ǝtǝɣ*
one   squirrel-DISTR   divide-PST.SBJ.1PL:OBJ.SG
'Each of us was given a squirrel.' [4]

(2) *äwi-**pti***   *ḳuλ-t   mǝj-ǝ*
girl-DISTR   fish-PL give-IMP.SBJ.2SG:OBJ.SG
'Give each girl a fish.' [8]

(3) *ḳatλǝ-ptɨ   **pira**   mǝn-λ*
day-DISTR   backwards   go-NPST.SBJ.3SG
'[He] loses weight every day.' [8]

Salym Khanty. This dialect has not been thoroughly studied yet, and the only source where the case system is holistically described is Honti's Khanty reader [4]. Table 5 gives a brief overview of the category in this dialect. Due to the absence of attested data, examples are not provided for all cases.

Table 5. Case markers in Salym

#	Case-	Marker	Examples
Group 1			
1	Nominative	Ø	imǝt 'a stuffed bird'
Group 2			
2	Ablative	? iwǝt	*pal'ta kǝsa iwǝt* coat pocket from 'out of the pocket of the coat'
3	Agentive-Locative (Locative H)	nǝ	*ǝj n'ŏɣǝ anǝ kŭrmat-nǝ, ǝj n'ŏɣǝ anǝ pǝsan oɣtǝ-nǝ* one meat bowl threshold-LOC one meat bowl table surface-LOC 'One cup with meat is at the threshold, the other is on the table.' [2]
4	Allative (Approximative H)	nam	—
5	Lative-Illative-Dative-Allative (Lative-Dative H)	a	*kimǝt ḳăt jŏɣǝt-mǝn ḳăram oŋ-a* the.second day come-PST.1DU Karym inside-ALL 'On the second day we got to the river Karym.'
Group 3			
6	Abessive	(tǝ)	—
7	Distributive	?	—
8	Expletive	ptǝ	—
9	Instrumental-Comitative	(nat)	—
10	Instrumental-Objective (Instructive-Final H)	at	*sŏj-at wăr-ta* good.thing-INS.OBJ do-INF 'to do somebody a favour' [2]
11	Translative	ɣǝ/ḳǝ/ḳǝ	*n'ăḳ-ḳǝ atǝm-ta* joke-TR bad-INF 'to make nasty jokes about sb' [2]

As Honti points out, the ablative case can be formed analytically by means of the postpositive *iwət* like in Pim Khanty. However, although there is no denying the morphological way of forming this case, no marker is introduced to exemplify it. Such morphemes as *-nat* and *-tə* are believed to function as the markers of the instrumental-comitative and the abessive cases respectively. The existence of the distributive case is doubted by Honti.

CONCLUSION

The analysis focuses on three nominal categories: number, possession and case that are shared by both analyzed dialects. It allowed us to systemize linguistic data on each dialect and reveal their shared and unique features with regard to the terms and morphological forms. In this research, the category of case is presented as one of the most controversial. The contradiction mainly concerns the content of the case category. Disagreements concern the issue of the number of cases (from 9 to 11), the titles of cases confused by their multi-functionality, and forms of inflections. Surgut and Salym Khanty dialects have morphologically marked distinctive features. They are bound number marker of DU and PL and the case forms of abessive and ablative markers. The possessive markers and some case markers of Salym Khanty can hardly be presented and analysed due to unavailable language data. It is supposed that a present study helps to display a range of shared or unique features in the domain of nominal morphology of Surgut and Salym from the typological perspective.

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'BEAUTY AND TRUTH': THE RHETORIC OF POPULIST DISCOURSE

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ABSTRACT

The "beauty and truth" in the title reminds one of John Keats's "Ode on a Grecian Urn." That is not only a great Romantic poem, but also a highly sophisticated rhetorical discourse. In it, the interwoven voices of the speaker, of the Urn, and of Keats himself as an implied author, exploit the ambivalence and ambiguity of the pronoun "we" in creating speakers and listeners, performers and audiences. The current article explores the rhetoric of populist discourse in one of Nigel Farage's recent (May 4th, 2019) speeches. The speaker appeals to emotion rather than reason, systematically using anaphoric and epiphoric triads and other rhetorical devices to hammer his messages home. The article undertakes to examine the inconsistency in the speaker's development of the antagonism between "ordinary," "patriotic," "honest" people seen as the vast majority of the British population (far more than the 52% who voted for Brexit in the 2016 referendum) and the remaining tiny minority, including the political and cultural elites, the multinationals, the banks, the hedge funds, identified as THEY. Nigel Farage, the son of a stockbroker, a stockbroker himself, the friend of stockbrokers supporting his campaign, is one of the ordinary, honest people.

Keywords: *Rhetoric, populism, elitism, pluralism, manipulation*

INTRODUCTION

Throughout their history, both rhetoric as public political discourse and literary discourse in all its forms have appealed, through memorable expressions, making special uses of language, to the feelings and emotions of their target audiences. Both political and literary discourse lay claim to truth, of different kinds, at different levels. In order to do that, their authors pay attention to the craft with which they fashion the substance of their messages, thus attempting to link "beauty" and "truth."

Language, whether perceived as literary or not, is power, as scholars related to those working in Cultural Studies, having already defined their approach as Critical Discourse Analysis, strongly believe. On the one hand, it can be said that the literary text is political. This is particularly useful in what follows in this text. The features of literary language, as well as some features of rhetoric in general, might enable someone like Nigel Farage to claim that his "political poetry," his dubious "Beauty," is "Truth." Paul Chilton reminds his readers that for "Cicero the cultivation of the power of speech was the essence of the citizen's duty" while for other thinkers who did not abuse this essence which one might call rhetorical skills "it was the essence of deception and distortion" [1]. We usually call it manipulation when we consider the public uses of language in the print press, the multimedia journalism or the political language in action. Current polls show that "the public trust print journalists

even less than they trust the politicians that the media tend to report on so negatively" [2]. However, large parts of the public are vulnerable to cheap forms of manipulation in the public space, and one particular form of populism and its mechanisms will be dealt with below. Both journalists and politicians are very much in the public eye and the impact of their discourse is considerable. What follows will focus on what is arguably the most effective form of political manipulation today, recorded as online populist discourse. It is not mediated by the print press, but largely by online platforms.

Hoping that the lovers of poetry will forgive the juxtaposition in the title above of a great poet and of the most notorious Brexiteer, one can arguably claim that Romanticism and populism appear to have to do with "spontaneous overflows of powerful feelings." Both appeal to the feelings of their audiences. Both can be seen as revolutionary responses to the … Age of Reason, to the poetic and to the political establishment, respectively. In his 2015 "UKIP and the Crisis of Britain," Richard Seymour had examined one particular British crisis, much less divisive than what Brexit would turn out to be, in terms of the combination of rightist ideology and specific populist interpellations [3]. In May 2019, only four years later, just before the European Parliament elections, UKIP appears to have lost its momentum, but Nigel Farage has not. He has founded a new bandwagon, the Brexit Party, for his very effective brand of populism and right-wing nationalism.

FARAGE'S RHETORICAL OVERKILLS

What follows examines what some might call Nigel Farage's oratorical skills as revealed in the first few minutes of one of his recent speeches. Some might call the founder and father of the Brexit Party the most efficient political manipulator. This is a speech published on May 4th, 2019 by the *True Conservative* online platform. It can be accessed at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RNbw4hIMXiY. The title under which it is released is typical of online journalism: "Watch Nigel Farage Give Another Epic Speech, Destroys May & Soubry." *True Conservative* has strong figurative phrasing to sell Farage's speech, which has become a commonplace, a dead metaphor in online comments on current political debates: Nigel Farage "wipes the floor" with Theresa May and Anna Soubry at another Brexit party rally.

The 2016 presidential elections in the US and the British referendum, held the same year, demonstrated the spectacular advances made by combinations of nationalism and populism. We no longer speak of "the crisis of Britain" to describe these advances, although the current paper concentrates on one particular illustration of it in terms of the mechanism of populism as wielded by the above-mentioned Nigel Farage, one of the "poets" that Plato would undoubtedly ban from his Republic. The "poets" who are the most important manipulators today are the likes of such professed "anti-career politicians" as the Brexit Party campaigners. The text of Farage's speech under scrutiny below is an excellent textbook illustration of the way the discourse of populism works with considerable audiences even in countries with long liberal democratic traditions. Since this speech is not available in printed form at this moment, references will be made as [4] to successive segments of the speech from 0:17 to 7:11 in the 24-minute 9-second time format in which it can be found online.

Both Discourse Analysis as a whole and its more ideologically and politically involved Critical Discourse Analysis pay attention to context. The context in which Nigel Farage gave his May 4th speech is relevant to its content and its specific discourse function, being part of the campaign of the freshly founded, Eurosceptic Brexit Party. The context will be linked to the legitimate question, why? Why would Farage and his new political springboard, the Brexit Party, compete in the European Parliament elections if they are against the EU, what is more, if the UK is leaving the EU in a few months at the latest? Farage will both directly state and indirectly imply his and his party's objectives. In order to achieve his electoral aims on this particular occasion, he will have to make the audience identify with his WE against his opponents or rivals' THEM. It is worth stressing, and it will soon turn out, that Farage does not mean that the pronoun WE only stands for the 52 % of the British who voted LEAVE in 2016. It is important to deliver the clear message that WE stands, in his rhetoric, for the whole of Britain in 2019, and Britain stands for the Brexit Party, not the other way round.

For a starter, as if to challenge his East Midlands May 4th audience of Brexit Party fans, Farage begins his speech by a question, apparently inviting the people present to use their imagination: "Can you imagine if a country in Africa had an election and the result was ignored or overturned? I mean everybody would be in uproar wouldn't they" continuing after a split second's pause, "even Emma Thomson included I'm sure once she left her big boat…" [4]. Farage makes a longer, almost a one-second-and-a-half pause to allow the audience to laugh, while he himself laughs, with an unmistakable air of superiority. From now on, the speaker will insist on clearly making a distinction between "WE" as representing Britain, and "THEY," even if "they" might live in the same country, as aliens. The stress laid on the distinction WE/US vs. THEY/THEM is one of the most effective weapons of populism, and Farage is good at taking advantage of it. The THEM are not seen as the more than 48% of the British people who voted Remain, but as the tiny minority of the ruling elites: cultural icons, such as Emma Thomson, prominent intellectuals, politicians, experts of all kinds. WE, the ordinary people, are right, THEY, the elites, are wrong, which defines this kind of positioning as populism, in opposition to both elitism and pluralism in liberal democracies.

WE, Farage implies, although we have no big boats, are superior, we represent Britain, while Emma Thomson is one of "THEM." He has thus identified one of the Remainers, Emma Thomson, one of THEM, an affluent actress with a yacht all her own. Like her, some other members of an intellectual, artistic and political elite are to be seen as "them." The elites, including the career politicians are, according to previous Brexit discourse, against Brexit, while ordinary British people, like Nigel Farage, want "to take back control" for their currently enslaved country. These elites usually promote democratic causes in Africa and elsewhere, they show sympathy for refugees, what about the revolting issue of trying to ignore or even overturn the result of the 2016 referendum? Why would Brexit be questioned again, why should there be another people's vote now that some claim that the initial message was unclear? As for "everybody would be in uproar wouldn't they?" he obviously means "THEY" the very few of those who are not "WE."

After this invitation for his supportive audience, the "WE," to imagine "THEY" being in uproar whenever it comes to affronts to democracy abroad, Farage goes on to confirm, through the rhetoric of triadic repetition, the identity of WE the British people. Farage is obviously trying to emulate Sir Winston Churchill. More specifically, not Churchill as a military genius, who recovered after the terrible mistakes made as an officer in the 1915 Gallipoli campaign, but as a great World War II orator and leader, and then a Nobel Prize winner for literature in 1953. Here is how Farage, walking in Churchill's footsteps, uses anaphora in order to stress the idea that WE represent not the less than 52 %, but Great Britain as a whole: "HERE WE ARE living in a country with eight hundred years of continuous although evolving parliamentary government, HERE WE ARE with the mother of parliaments, HERE WE ARE who exported that very concept of democracy to America and to the rest of the Empire as the world changed in the 20th century" [4]. Exporting democracy to America and the rest of the Empire? Farage is taking risks here, not with the devout audience he is addressing, but with such people as his role model and mentor, Donald Trump. Will the American take offence? Here the speaker appeals to his audience's imperial nostalgia and pride. The message is, it is not only that WE have the mother of parliaments, but WE as the British Empire taught OUR former colonies, including America, what democracy is. In Farage's opinion, OUR imperial Britain had exported democracy to its colonies, now we want to take our power back from the bureaucrats in Brussels, who, like Emma Thomson, qualify for the oppositional pronoun THEY.

After a short, significant pause for dramatic effect, expecting his audience to respond, he continues, using small case in "we," a less important we, which refers to THEY: "everyone would be in uproar / we demand the United Nations were sent in as this affront to democracy had taken place ///" [4] There follows another pause, the speaker waiting for the audience to laugh, after which he himself laughs … "heh heh heh." The speech contains a succession of soundbites, exploiting rhetorical questions, clichés and rhetoric based on repetition, especially anaphora-type or epiphora-type triads. Thus, the next speech segment features an anaphoric triad to highlight the terribly difficult situation the speaker imagines Britain to be in: "THIS/ ladies and gentlemen/ THIS SCANDAL/ THIS OUTRAGE/ THIS ABUSE is happening in OUR own nation and WE've got to put a stop to it./" [4] [long round of applause] The game of oppositions between sets of personal pronouns continues. Here is the opposition between lower case "our" and upper case "WE/US." It turns out that "our" in "our Prime minister" is not linked to US, but to THEM, to the "Labour and Conservative party representatives who do not believe in Britain," the likes of Anna Soubry and Ken Klarke. It is a reinforcement of the previous statement about this scandal/this outrage/this abuse.

So, what have THEY done, the PM and THEY/THEM as a tiny minority, those who are against US/WE? Nigel Farage stresses his dramatic pronouncement with another anaphoric triad, within the larger framework of WE vs. THEY throughout the speech: "Our Prime Minister has belittled US / our Prime Minister has allowed US to be humiliated on the world stage / our Prime Minister and most of the Labour and Conservative party representatives do not believe in Britain / they simply like Anna Soubry and Ken Clarke from this city /they simply don't think WE are good enough." [4] "Ken Clarke from this city" obviously refers to one of the longest serving Conservative MPs and "this city" identifies the place the speech is being given in:

Rushcliffe, East Midlands (South Nottinghamshire). Farage is taking right wing voters away from the Conservatives in that area. Anna Soubry had also been a Conservative MP for Nottinghamshire. A "remainer," Soubry has left the Conservative Party before the 2019 EU elections, in protest against her party's position on the Brexit controversy.

Farage's rhetorical artillery fire displayed before his East Midlands audience continues with a formidable series of PROUD WE/US/OURSELVES sequences weaving together belief in "OUR" own proud heritage and proud national identity, featuring liberty, freedom, democracy as "OUR" defining features:

> […] and yet I KNOW I KNOW that out there what the Brexit debate did is it let the genie out of the bottle/ it allowed US for the first time perhaps in decades/ to start believing in OURSELVES/ to start believing in OUR people/ to start believing and saying / WE were PROUD to be part of OUR nation WE were PROUD to be patriotic PROUD about who WE were PROUD about what OUR grandparents and great-grandparents did to fight for LIBERTY for FREEDOM and DEMOCRACY/ PROUD of who WE are […] [long round of applause] [4]

Communication in general is based on a reasonable amount of redundancy in order to diminish the risk of misunderstanding. Populist Nigel Farage discourse largely relies on more than redundant, on exaggerated, intensive rhetorical repetitions followed by significant pauses, as in "lions led// by// donkeys." Farage will come back to the opposition between WE the people and "our" rulers/PM, stressing what OUR problem is all about. The opposition between WE and THEY will this time be clothed in far from complimentary metaphorical language ("donkeys") as far as "our rulers" are concerned. In Farage's figurative language, OUR nation is led by donkeys: "This nation has once again become self-confident self believing/ the problem are our rulers / and I genuinely believe that the United Kingdom today / WE are LIONS led/ by/ donkeys/ I genuinely do" [long round of applause] [4] The speaker has now stressed the real objective of his party's campaign. It is not in order to win seats in the EU Parliament in the June 2019. This campaign is part of a larger one, meant to destroy the British two-party system based on Conservative and Labour career politicians. Now that he has persuaded his East Midlands audience that they are lions, the speaker can afford to give up "WE" for a while and insist on "I" as the sole Founding Father of the Brexit Party, in the context of 'THEY/THEM having 'betrayed' Britain:

> […] So I set the Brexit Party up a few months ago because it had become obvious to me with our current crop of politicians left alone without any threats/ many electoral threats to them that Brexit / simply/ would/ not/ happen/ that that betrayal would become complete so I thought there was a real chance of these European elections coming and that is why I set this party up [4].

The speaker switches back to WE/OUR, hesitating between SOME of OUR candidates and MANY OF OUR PEOPLE to refer to HIS (Farage's) candidates. As it is known, the Brexit Party does not accept members, only financial supporters. The supporters, as well as Nigel Farage and his candidates, are to be understood as WE:

[…] so WE are organizing We are mobilizing you've seen the caliber as some of OUR candidates already / MANY of OUR people have been successful in their own lives / many of OUR PEOPLE have done well in business and in many other walks of life before they're coming into politics and that's needed because apart from the sheer willful betrayal of our democratic system and our repeated vote the other thing that has come to life is the sheer incompetence and uselessness of our career politicians who've never done a proper job in / their / lives [round of applause] never/never/ [round of applause] [4]

Farage has learnt the populist lesson: the whole political system is defunct. The career politicians are all completely incompetent and useless, whereas OUR candidates are ordinary people, simple people, honest people. Most of these people come from business, some of them, like Nigel Farage and his father, have made a modest living as stockbrokers. Nigel's candidates, having done well in business for themselves, apparently a multiethnic, multicultural bunch ("all colours, all creeds") being metamorphosised inside the Brexit Party melting pot, will now be unified by their common belief to serve the country and to forget about their previous businesses. The rhetorical vehicle through which this important decision is conveyed is another anaphoric triad, highlighting ALL OF WHOM, the business people having decided to serve the ordinary people:

So we're gonna put before you an impressive array of men and women from all parts of this nation from all backgrounds from all colors from all creeds but all of whom are unified by their belief in this country/ *all of whom* are unified by their belief in democracy/ *all of whom* have lost trust and faith in our incompetent leaders in Westminster [4]

Farage briefly switches to I/ME to add a personal touch and to present himself as a man of the people. Among his well advertised vices is his previous excessive indulgence in beer. Here he shows himself as often going to the bookmakers to make a bet. However, he unwittingly reminds everyone that both himself and his father and his friends and donors are stockbrokers and hedge fund speculators. In other words, ordinary, simple, hard working people. Here is him advertising his "vice" and his party's intention to "fight," not to compete, in the European elections:

and when I went in to that bookmaker's last Friday [laughter from the audience] because *among my many well advertised vices* [he laughs] I quite like a bet so I backed the Brexit Party at three to one to be the top party in these European elections and much as one never knows over the course of the next weeks let me make it clear our intention is to fight these European elections and our intention is to win these European elections [round of applause] [4]

He then stresses, once again, the necessity of breaking the British political system, while identifying another enemy that has to be dealt with, the mainstream media:

I think it's obvious there are two big parties [that] serve nothing but their own interests and agenda rather than the nation more broadly [round of applause] I

think it is clear/ I think it's very clear/ that we now have a parliament that does not represent the will of the people / a mainstream media that seems to have no comprehension/ of what is going on in this country […] [4]

In addition to the British political system, entirely worthless, although the fruit of an eight-hundred-year-old British tradition, to the mainstream British press, equally worthless, Farage identifies as THEY the inhabitants of a very narrow geographical section, metropolitan London, surrounded by the M25 London Orbital Motorway, an area within "the confines perhaps of the M25 but maybe it is even narrower to a few central London boroughs." The message is that these metropolitan and cosmopolitan Londoners are not the real, ordinary, honest WE: they voted Remain. They are the irrelevant THEY, in addition to the PM, the elites, and a Parliament which does not represent the people. After identifying the "betrayal" associated with the enemy of the "people," Farage declares, once more, that the main aim of his enterprise is "something far bigger /something far bigger for just a protest vote about betrayal with not leaving the European Union/ WE need something more fundamental." [4] The main objective is that, through the direct democracy exerted by the WE, rather than through the pluralism of the British party-system, Britain should be made great again and, forgetting its long tradition of parliamentary life, to start from scratch again, trusting its newly found leader.

CONCLUSION

Populist forms of rhetoric, largely supported by online communication, appear to have become important tools in contemporary cultural and political discourse. They need all the attention that they can get if one is to understand where the world is headed. Spectacular progress in information and communication technology has created opportunities, as well as major threats. What is the reasonable level of critical thinking that the majority of the members of a community ought to have in order to be able to judge between democratic and populist appeals to various target audiences? Most forms of political rhetoric and of literary language address their audiences' emotions to a very large extent. If beauty in poetry is not that dangerous, insidious populist rhetoric definitely is when it targets uncritical, sensitive victims. Fortunately, even shrewd populist manipulators make mistakes. After dividing Britain between the good WE, ordinary, honest people and THEY, the big business, the banks, the multinationals, Farage, declaring himself as belonging to the former group, reminds his audience about his stockbroker's background, more likely to be associated with the latter group.

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CHANGING IDENTITIES. THE IDENTITY VOCABULARY OF THE GREAT BOYARS IN THE PRINCIPALITY OF MOLDAVIA TOWARDS THE END OF THE 18TH CENTURY

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ABSTRACT

The central theme of our research concerns the terms used to define the identity of great boyar families, both ethnic and religious, in the 18th century. We consider the great local boyar families both those who were rooted in Moldavia (as far back as classic Middle Ages) as well as those who became local during the 17th-18th centuries and had Greek origins. According to sources, terms like *pământean*, *moldovean*, *român*, *rumân*, *grec*, *fanariot*, *țarigrădean, levantin, insular* (native, moldavian, romanian, greek, fanariot, levantin, constantinopolitan, insular), but also *creştin*, *drept credincios*, *ortodox* (christian, true believer, orthodox) have been frequently used. These terms generated confusion within historical research and fuelled two interpretation trends somehow contrasting. The one sustained by the researchers of the Middle Ages insisted on the importance of religious identity, including the Moldavians in the orthodox Christianity and favoring the integration of the Phanariots settled in Moldavia. They also mentioned a supposed Graecization of the Moldavian elite following the religious identity and the use of the Greek language in administration, Church and culture. The other trend, preferred by most modernists, appealed to a recurrent methodology in order to identify the early origin and the alleged time persistence of a modern Romanian ethnic identity since the 17th century. Thus, terms like *pământean* (native) equals *român* (Romanian) and *Phanariots* equals *Greek*, validating an ethno-national interpretation of the political disputes of the elites.

Our historical research led to the conclusion that the identity aspects which operate within the Moldavian elite of the 18th century combine several elements – ethnic, confessionary, social – in a manner specific to the epoch, based on two fundamental terms: *pământean* (local, native) and *venetic* (foreign, outlander). The *local* was, in most cases, Moldavian, his features being determined by orthodoxy, the age of his family on the territory and land possession which would allow the owner to be part of complex social relations built on patronage relations, as defined by .Michael Mann, George M. Foster and S. N. Eisenstadt The *outlander* (referring to the phanariotes) was also orthodox, but lacking both his belonging to a family rooted in the society and the integration in the complex social relations specific to the local boyars. From our point of view, this historical situation allowed, on one hand, the integration of the phanariotes who were able to adapt to the lifestyle specific to the local boyars up to becoming land owners, and, on the other hand, the use of the Greek language in administration and culture not being perceived by the local boyars as estranging their historical roots, towards the end of the 18th century.

INTRODUCTION

In the study of the identity configuration of the Moldavian elites, a first difference, easy to observe, is concerning the vocabulary. In internal sources the identity gravitates around the terms Moldavian, Wallachian, native, Greek, foreigner (moldovean, valah, pământean, grec, venetic), while the authors of external sources (consular correspondence and memories of foreign travelers) use rather confused ethnic distinctions when they write about the Orthodox people from the Principalities. Sometimes the Moldavians are associated to the common people or to the minor boyars, the "Geeks" to the great boyars and the "Bulgarians" to the merchants, using a rather social than ethnical criteria. The explanation is fairly simple. These European encontered Greek speaking Christian (Orthodox) elites, formed under the influence of the post-Byzantine Greek culture, but observed that the commoners spoke either a Slavic or a neo-Roman language. The confusions of perception were inevitable, being accentuated by the feeling of their own cultural superiority, by the existence of some beliefs and customs that they didn't understand and perceived as "barbarian" [1]. In prolongation of this deformed perception, the French consul Hugot considered, around 1825, that "no one [among the boyars] belonged to the country by origin, they were Armenian, Hebrew, Bulgarians and Gypsies", that came from other places, thus "today they are called boyars or nobles of the country, although there is no one left from the ancient noble families of the country". At the same time, they generically call "Greeks" all the dignitaries close to the Prince, from the proximity of the political power [2]. However, plenty foreign observers, officials of simple travelers, speak about the „la nation moldave", „la nation valaque" or even „la nation roumain", and attribute to some boyar the quality of "patriot" just because he gave proofs of fidelity towards that foreign power, without any preoccupation regarding his ethnicity.

Using these external sources, citing them abundantly, the Romanian historians that focused on this subject didn't sufficiently take into consideration the cultural gap and, especially, the differences of political culture between the two spaces, European and Romanian. This notable difference influenced the opinions of foreigners, consuls, agents in mission, immigrants or travelers, no matter how knowledgeable they were regarding the oriental world. That is why, from a methodological stance, the texts produced by strangers, officials or travelers, must be used as narrative sources for the society described, as well as an expression of certain social-political values, traditions and ideological options of their authors. The contrast of cultures and traditions, especially between the French political culture, defined by the ideas of Enlightenment, and what foreigners called "bad customs and prejudices of the great boyars" influenced the perception and the reasoning of the foreigner [3], [4].

THEORY. METHODOLOGY

In a general plan, with regard to imagology and cultural alterity, this type of deformed perception of the Orient, sensible to the stances of the cultural alterity, were not an invention of the Enlightenment. Similar evaluations are found in the first half of the 18th century at Jean Chardin and Montesquieu, both perceiving the Orient as

the political space of despotism, "without law and rule", where the government "pulls everything after itself, after the will and caprices" of the monarch. Otherwise, as the foreign space was more exotic and "the group [observed] were larger […] the image was all the more caricaturized, schematic and striking" [4] [5]. Edward W. Said name this discourse about the Orient orientalism, "a style of thought based on the ontological and epistemological distinction between the East and (most of the times) the West", without studying it "no one could ever understand the extremely systematic discipline through which the European culture was capable to lead […] the East from the political, sociological, military, ideological, scientific and imaginative points of view, in the post-Enlightenment period" [4].

From this methodological framework, afferent to the imagology, the study of symbolic geographies allows the contextualization and explaining the political vocabulary and the assessments made by strangers (French, Russians, Austrians) regarding the realities from the Principalities. It is about the mental representations of a political, historical and cultural place, attributing it certain features in virtue of which it is classified and ideologized according to the hierarchy of values of the eminent. In this sense, building the symbolic geographies presume the ethnicization of the space (usually superficial, having as criteria the language and confession, with the inherent confusions between Romanians, Greeks, Russians), the defining of some features presumed specific (ignorance, political instability, the absence of morals and social civilized norms) [1]. Thus a historical genealogy of differences and of the civilizing role of the French, Austrian and Russian issuer is created. These manifestations are not that much the expression of an assumed cultural superiority, civilizing and imperialist, of the arrogance of the foreign observer, as they are a discourse, in the sense affirmed by Michel Foucault. The complex relation between power and knowledge, described by Foucault through the notion of discourse gives way to some representation thorough which the reality discovered is explained, hierarchized, classified, and gets a meaning that makes it intelligible [6]. This explanatory operation, natural stage of cultural and political "colonization" of a strategically important space, appeals to an identity vocabulary specific to the West, regarding the nation, patriotism, ethnicity, with the purpose to harmonize the cultural landmarks of the author with the realities of the society discovered and "taken into possession".

For these reasons, in order to understand the identity delimitation among the boyars from Moldavia and to evaluate their vocabulary, the references from external sources have to be contextually confronted with those from internal sources, taking into account the chronological synchronism and the differences in the meaning of the words, according to the political culture and the specificity of the language. On this basis, the *phenomena of ethnicization of identities* can be observed. It took place in another manner and later than in the West, due to the absence of a public space for circulating the ideas and debate, until the changes generated by the Organic Regulations (1832).

IDENTITY FEATURES OF THE MOLDAVIAN BOYARS

According to the internal sources, the difference between "natives" and "foreigners" divided the boyars from the Principalities into two categories, opposed on the contrasting and fluid grounds of alterity. The origin of the family had a special value for the identity and the community integration, but not in the ideological meaning of the modern national discourse, but under the forms of the attachment to what the boyars understood by the notion of "native". This referred only to the Orthodox, related to the tradition of the country, to a series of customs and habits that reclaimed the presence of the ascendants in the "land of the country" two to three generations in a row. The absence of precise juridical norms based on which the "foreigner" could acquire the quality of "native" oriented the historical research in the direction of studying the social strategies for "naturalization" of the Orthodox "foreigner". Generally, the idea that the integration among the boyars was through marriages with girls from local boyar families and through the acquisition of land possession is accepted. But this practice was not a sufficient rule to complete "naturalization", for the acknowledgement of the quality of native family. Some integrated, others didn't, being still regarded as foreigners. Only the descendants of the "naturalized" foreigner beneficiated of the full integration in the "community of the boyars of the country". This situation aroused misunderstandings and confusions in the perception of the foreign observer, who, connecting the ethnicity to the national language, considered the Moldavian to be either "Greek", who "saw in the Russian a natural fiend, a brother", because he wrote and spoke Greek, either all the Moldavian boyars to be a "troop of cosmopolitans" [11].

The sources confirm the rather high tolerance of the natives towards the "foreigners", even towards the "Greeks", in the horizon of the everyday life, of social cohabitation, but also the aggressiveness of the local boyars against those "Greeks" that were coopted, in a form or another, in the power structures from the Principalities. Son of a Greek woman, the great boyar, Alexandru Beldiman displays in his writings rough attitudes and resentment towards the "Greeks", making, however, a distinction between the naturalized and the foreigners, from a pronounced social point of view. This situation from the Principalities had correspondent in other spaces from the Balkans [7]. An example afferent to a close geographic space illustrates the force of these perceptions, which separated the "locals" from the foreigners after some criteria that combined the social and the ethnic. The less important officials and the rich merchants from the Bulgarian city of Sliven were named "Greek" by the locals, and the craftsmen, artisans and commoners were caller "torlaci", although both categories belonged to the Bulgarian ethnicity [8].

In the perspective of social-political realities and, implicitly of the historical research, the difference between the naturalized and the foreigner, both Orthodox, was not reflected by precise rules and practices, but was influenced by context and circumstances, by behavior and adequacy. The boyar that wished to be naturalized had to be bound by marriage to a local prestigious family, had to poses villages and parts of villages, to know the inhabitants from these villages, to spend a part of his time there, to build mansions and churches, to place under his protection and to help the leaders of the villages, otherwise said, to patron the villages they possessed. These

actual practices "tied" the foreigner with the land and separated the Greek naturalized boyars, who had estates and relatives among the local boyars, from the "foreign Greeks", "who had no merit of presumption to the least important office", because "they had no ancestors […] they had no right in this land and they don't care about the needs of the country. Possessing the villages was not enough if it wasn't followed by the integration in the specific social system, which was a *system of relations and patronage*. Integration, naturalization or their failure didn't rigorously follow ethnic difference. The Catargi and Manu families from Moldavia had a completely different status, the first was a "great local family", the other one was "greek", although their ancestors were Greeks, Ioan Catargi, great postelnik during the reign of Matei Basarab (1646), the father of Apostol Catargi, the starter of the Moldavian branch, and Manolache Manu, from which "the boyar family Mano descends", former rector of the Constantinople Patriarchy, established in the Principalities in 1691 [9].

As long as between the local boyars and the "Greek foreigners" persisted an equilibrium of power and influence favorable to the first ones, predominant in the administration, "the community of the boyars of the country" tolerated their presence, seeking to integrate them to their specific structures [10]. Towards the end of the 18th century, having to absorb a surplus of "foreign" and upstart elements – in the conditions of an accentuated Greek emigration from the Ottoman Empire and the encouragement of the Greek emancipation movement by Russia – the native boyars outlined an aggressed political imaginary, of "besieged fortress". "The community of the country's boyars" was perceived by the native boyars as s structure formed from families and lineage, containing only those who beneficiated from "the right of being local" and were "boyars from ancestors". *The had to had a boyar tradition in their family recognized by society as authentic.* starting from this fundament, deeply implanted in mentality, the native boyars resumed in simple, repetitive formulas a complex historical process, identified in the presence of the "foreigner" and in the growth of the "foreign" boyar families (named Greek), two of the causes for the accentuation of Moldavia's dependence to the Porte and of the degradation of the internal political situation [10].

The supremacy that the great families of native boyars claimed in the administration was based on the prestige of these families in society, on their effective social power. This power balanced in the eyes of the entire community the arbitrary power of the Phanariot Princes, perceived as the main source of the economic crises, of the endemic corruption and of the degradation of the political and juridical status of Moldavia towards the Ottoman Empire. Also, the native elite was considered the only rampart against the "Greek seizure", against the immeasurable penetration of the "foreigners" in the country's offices. This fact is observed in the tolerance towards the more frequent marriages between sons of native great boyar families and "Greek girls" from Phanariot families, for reasons of power. Thus, as a frequent mental stereotype, "to taunt those evil and indomitable among the Greeks" was a "patriotic duty". However, as boyar from the period said "I can forgive a Greek, who is temporary here and doesn't care about the country, being foreign to him, but a native Greek, son of this homeland to rob it […] I can't forgive", the distinction between the naturalized Greek boyars and those "foreigners" was obvious [11].

Ain these conditions, around 1821-1822, the adversity of the native boyars towards the Eterist movement can't be explained on the political ground of the confrontation between the presumed two modern national movements, but it wasn't only a deaf fight for offices and resources. Placing the anti-Eterist and anti-Greek reactions at the origins of the Romanian modern national discourse, in a manner ideologically founded by Nicolae Bălcescu and developed by Mihail Eminescu, numerous studies on this matter failed to seriously take into consideration the features of the political imaginary, of social representations, of the mentality of the native boyars from the 18th century and the specific of the solidarity forms from the Romanian society before modernity, and wrongfully judged them with modern criteria. On one hand, in relation with the Christian subjects of the Porte, usually named "Greeks" or "foreigners", the landmarks of alterity were not of political nature in a modern sense, juridical and mentally separating the members of a ethno-national sovereignty from a "foreigner" belonging to another sovereignty; but were defined by the ethnic and social identity of the "foreigner" and, especially, by the identity landmarks of being local, by specific traditional social-political behaviors. In the first decades of the 19th century a national discourse of the native boyars, which, in this case, could ideologically separate the native countryman (Romanian) from the Greek foreigner, excluding him from the national community body, hadn't been formed [7].

Rising against the Eterist movement, the native boyars from Moldavia didn't contest the national objectives of the Greeks and didn't place themselves of defense positions regarding a presumptive danger on denationalization. On the contrary, they accepted as just the declared national objective of the Eterists, "to free their homeland", but violently accused their social behavior, they were seen as "wrongdoers", and their moral attributes, the dissimulation through which they masked "the countless and unbearable sufferings they caused […] especially to the poor inhabitants with different kinds of violence and pillage, […] of robberies and cruelties". Thus, the Greek national discourse didn't appear as a potential danger in itself, consciously perceived, but rather as a hypocrisy. This imagological stereotype wasn't attributed only to the Eterists, but, in general, to the Greeks, along with other negative features. In the past, hey were assigned only to the Phanariots, but now were extended on the Eterists as well as on all the Greeks. The Eterists were judged by the native boyars on the base of the same faults of which, in the past, only the Phanariots were accused and stigmatized (abuse, pillage, insolence and robberies), but also on other imagological stereotypes about the Phanariots existent in the traditional society, extracted from the repertoire of specific mental representations. Otherwise said, the Eterist movement offered to the boyars the opportunity of a political rephrasing of older tirades, full of resentment against the "foreign" Phanariot boyars. Of course, it's not a confrontation between nationalisms, Romanian and Greek, but of a transposition in a more general plan, with reference to all the Greeks, of older stereotypes about "foreigners" and "Phanariots". However, we see a phase of transition, ideologically and discursive confuse, towards a relation identity/alterity of ethno-national type, visible in sources a decade later [12]. In a similar manner, the boyars from Wallachia didn't contested the Eterists because, being Greeks, would have threatened the Romanian national identity, but because they were associated in the plan of representations to the Greek "officials" who filled the local administration during the reign of the last Phanariot Princes (Ion Caragea and Alexandru Suțu). In the period of the local Princes, as the restrictions imposed to the "Greek Eterists", from the

Porte's order, to clean the Principalities of "rebels" and "renegades", gained a certain amplitude, accentuated also by the anti-Greek rhetoric of the local boyars, the "Greek" ethnic origin tended to became a compromising factor in the political and business relations, an obstacle in becoming "local". Many Levantines declare themselves Bulgarian in order to obtain the indigenat, although they were Greek speaking [11].

RESULTS

The sum of attitudes, reactions, representation and mental images of the locals regarding the ethnic origin of the inhabitants, separating the local from the "foreigners", illustrate the inexistence of a social and ethnic disjunction in the 18th century. The traditional vicinities and social differences between the local boyars and the "foreigners" tended to become ethnical, to delimitate the Romanians from the Greeks on modern ethno-national criteria, in an attitude and mental climate in which the majority of the pre-modern identity forms (social, confessional, provincial) had ethnical values. However, in society the modern type ethnicity was configured with difficulty into a form of national identity, dominant and comprehensive, generically validated by the entire community, and rather late, after the revolutionary movement of 1821. Until then, the "foreigner" was perceived as the man "stranger to the place", without "connection with the land" and who "breached customs", lacking social reputation, the ethnic belonging and the native language were a subsidiary factor of identity in the plan of social representations [13]. From the perspective of a modern national discourse, the ethnic origin and the native language of the foreigner are essential in the configuration of certain attitudes and social representations, the modern national elite being by excellence the promotor of ethnicity and of the affirmation of the features of Romanian ethnicity, illustrated, among others, by the interest toward folklore, as an authentic cultural print of the ethnic. In the 18th century, the Moldavian boyars were not yet a national elite, but was to became in the first half of the next century.

The older forms of identity – concerning security and social hierarchy, the social models in which the ethnic belonging represent a natural given, the quality of local was perceived as having particular behavioral features, which combine the social and the ethnic, building images of alterity specific to the traditional society, integrating a local regardless to his ethnic origin and excluded the "foreigner" [14], even if, in some cases, he was Romanian at origins, but become "Greek" through administrative and power behavior – don't disappear, but only gradually alter their traditional content, enriched with new representations of the ethnic. In this complex historical process, according to the sources of the period, we assist to the rather confuse preliminaries of the ethnicization of collective identities. In their turn, the solidarities among the local boyars fortify, tending to become exclusive enough, in an apparently paradoxical manner, the representation and images of the locals, some about others, show the persistence of certain ruptures in the society. Reflex of some confuse identity reactions for the modern observer, the local boyars attached the ethnic to the themes of social legitimacy. The vocabulary of that period reflects these suggestive antinomies (local/Greek, patriot/upstart, local boyar/" foreigner"), socially and ethnical validated, in a rather theatrical manner. That is why, in the texts from the end

of the 18th century, we observe the omnipresence of the antithesis between "good patriot" and "bad patriot", but altogether "patriots", meaning "sons of this homeland", local Moldavians [14].

CONCLUSION

Their identity representation, reflected in vocabulary and language, are in full consonance with the entire political thought of the local boyars. It was centered on the notion of being *local*, which represented a community belonging based on tradition, without historically delimitated precise ethnical landmarks. That explains why in the memoirs of the boyars *the political identity of the state* doesn't appear as an expression of ethnicity. In the memoirs previous to 1821, the differentiation between the territory of the Principalities and that of the Ottoman Empire has as source the quality of ***Christians subjects of the Porte*** of the locals, without ethnic references regarding a ethnicized historical tradition (ethnic origin, language), or a ethnicization of the boyar "political body", as a Romanian elite pleading in the sense of the emancipation from the "oppression" of the "foreigner" [15]. When they request the removal of the "Greek" boyars from offices, they affirm the exclusive rights of the locals not of the Romanians. In our understanding, *local* and *Romanian* are two *qualitatively* different notions, the first concerning the belonging to a local lineage (family)integrated in the *traditional social system*, indifferent to the ethnic origin, the other one an essential attribute of the *ethnicity*, defined by origin and language.

The metamorphosis of the stereotypes about the Greeks, *now with an obvious ethnic character*, was to a goo extent a natural phenomenon, resulting from the changes inspired by the historicism and the philosophy of the Enlightenment, from the emergence of a new cultural support, yet unrefined and incoherent, for the enunciation of the Romanian ethnical identity. Composing this cultural scaffolding, the texts of local scholars approach the issue of the removal of Greeks as a first condition for the moral recovery of the society and for the local "patriot" boyars to regain the offices of the country, they didn't have (for now) the necessary cultural qualities to discursively develop the theme of a confrontation between two opposite *national identities*.

The expression of the Romanian/Greek alterity in the manner of a collision between the two constituted national identities, which would expose the danger of denationalization of the Romanians by the Greeks and, at the same time, the need of "national rebirth", had to wait the stage in which an authentic Romanian "intelligentsia" was capable to modernly define the values of ethnic Romanian identity: ethnic origin as a condition for belonging to the nation, national language as the main element of the identity of the Romanian nation and the historical tradition as depositary of a legacy and of a commonly shared national memory.

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HEDGING, CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS AND THE ORIGINAL BREXIT AFFAIR

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ABSTRACT

Methodologically, this is an attempt at transcending the already fuzzy borders between Discourse Analysis and Critical Discourse Analysis, also borrowing the prevailing idea in Critical Theory and Cultural Studies that culture is ideological and political, and thus a site of struggle. The article, while starting from language-based approaches enriched by CDA's contributions, aims, by means of hedging language devices, at connecting and interpreting a number of puzzling facts, occurrences, statements and coincidences to be observed in the public space in the immediate contexts of the June 23rd, 2016 British EU referendum. These have to do with discourse, politics, hedge funds, financial transactions and a number of people associated with them. Who were the real winners of the original Brexit Affair? The article acknowledges the theoretical relevance of leading CDA theorists, while relying on online resources, especially those of such investigative journalists as Cam Simpson, Gavin Finch and Kit Chellel. Why would anyone charge anyone with major misdeeds and risk going to court, when the 'hedging' of the Brexit affair (or business) in the current article might prompt everyone to draw their own conclusions?

Keywords: *hedging, critical discourse analysis, Brexit*

INTRODUCTION

What follows is an incursion into the immediate contexts of the June 23rd, 2016 British EU referendum, with a view to providing evidence that may lead to a good answer to the question, "Who were the real winners of the original Brexit Affair?" An easy answer is "Nigel Farage." Adopting hedging from the very beginning, one might first ask here, "Which Nigel Farage is to be seen as the major winner, the politician or the bookmaker with acknowledged connections in the world of hedge funds and opinion polls?" Continuing the questioning and the hedging of one particular interpretation of the facts, "Are there even bigger winners, financially speaking, as a direct consequence of that historic day?" On that historic occasion, according to some, the British took back control over their country, a former empire which, for four decades, had been oppressed by the unelected technocrats in Brussels, if one believes the rhetoric of the Brexit campaign. Other elements considered in the complex sociopolitical and financial framework in which June 23rd is placed are likely to give a special significance to the central people and their words and deeds. These are, among others, hedge funds, exit polls, stock market speculations and speculators, public statements. All of this might involve a lot of money and considerable amounts of populism disguised as patriotism.

Before the theoretical basis of this essay is described, a few clarifications about the significance of the title above are worth considering, with more light to be shed

after the necessary preliminary remarks. The phrase "Brexit Affair" may refer to three distinct moments in British history. The oldest Brexit Affair *avant la lettre* might refer to Henry VIII taking back control from the Pope and the rest of the Catholic European "Holy Communion," and assuming full control over his kingdom, and also over his subjects' faith. A much more recent story is that of the 1975 EEC or Common Market referendum. On that occasion, the British confirmed their willingness to remain within the then-called European Community. The even shorter story, the one this text deals with, is the one of the more confined context of June 23rd, 2016. Words are, fortunately or unfortunately, ambiguous, ambivalent, polysemous. Affairs might refer to business or problems of the amorous heart. In the shortest version of the Brexit Affair, the two meanings might be conjoined, to refer to a financial as well as an emotional *coup de foudre*. In other words, "love of money," money making the world go round, as many people living in a materialist world today would agree.

This text moves from ambivalent and reckless "affairs" to more cautious initiatives, such as "hedging." When it comes to financial transactions and speculations, hedging means being cautious, not risking too much when one bets. One hedges one's bets, thus avoiding risking to lose too much money. What about hedge funds? Their managers want to make quick profits whenever possible. How can they decrease their risks when they speculate on the financial markets and how can they make huge profits all of a sudden? Insider trading, buying and selling stocks or specific currencies, such as the British pound, on the basis on 'inside information,' unavailable to the public at large, is usually illegal and often hard to expose. Thus, on the basis of inside information, some hedge funds might leave hedging aside and choose to make a killing instead.

Like "affair," "hedging" has more than one meaning. In human language interaction, especially when it comes to making important claims, one can hedge one's statements, adding a degree of vagueness, imprecision or tentativeness. Instead of "I claim that," it is safer to say, using the passive voice, "It has been alleged." If you have insufficient evidence that X is a thief, for example, use hedging to imply that there is some reason, although you might be mistaken, to listen to those who allege that X is far from the embodiment of honesty. In this way, you avoid possible accusations of slander or libel.

Both Cultural Studies and Critical Discourse Analysis examine the configurations of language, power, and ideology as they function in the public sphere to impose or resist social dominance, to expose political manipulation, to address inequality. Thus, the foundational book in CDA, Fairclough's *Language and Power*, after establishing the theoretical framework of this approach, devotes a whole chapter to the "creativity and struggle in discourse," focusing on "the discourse of Thatcherism"[1] If Cultural Studies may be seen as a looser range of approaches to culture and ideology, CDA is more language-based, interested in more linguistic-discursive textual structures and analysis at work "at the intersection of language and social structure" [2]

One volume which applies language-based analysis to political language of particular concern here is Steve Buckledee's *The Language of Brexit: How Britain*

Talked Its Way Out of the European Union. The author examines the rhetoric of the Leave and of the Remain campaigns, respectively, making generalizations about the language strategies employed by the two sides. Thus, brexiteers promoted a confident attitude to the complex issues debated in the campaign, making absolute, strident claims. There was no doubt that things were crystal clear and that theirs was the just cause, the cause of independence, sovereignty, going it alone in the wide world. A particular stratagem is to identify some imperfections of a large system, and to transfer the imperfections from individual cases to the system as a whole. The remainers, aware of the complicated situation and of the inevitable imperfections that have to be put right in a huge system like the EU, were tempted to employ hedging and modality, rather than strong, categorical claims [3]. Almost by definition, knowledgeable people are less certain, being aware of their limitations, as well as of the difficulty of describing a complex situation in black vs. white only. The shades have to do with the inevitable hedging. To simplify the two approaches, one can compare a possible Brexit-like claim that "the EU is evil incarnate" with the balanced Remain claim that "the EU is obviously not perfect, but to claim that it is evil incarnate is an exaggeration." The type of hedging in this simplified statement is evidence of epistemological honesty, of one being unable to state things with absolute certainty. The previous type of hedging, the one that allows you to imply accusations of wrongdoing without running the risk of assuming responsibility for such claims or, to put it more mildly, allegations, will be put to the test in the following imagined (and possibly imaginary) scenario, based on facts and statements, as well as visible results, of various forms of persuasion and manipulation.

SKETCHING THE BACKGROUND OF THE BREXIT AFFAIR

One of the basic things to clarify is the identities, more or less straightforwardly assumed, of some of the central actors of the Brexit Affair. One of them is the founder of UKIP, the winner of the 2016 Referendum, Nigel Farage. The first speaker persona that UKIP's leader imposed in the public space is that of a smiling, ordinary person, sipping beer and chatting amicably in a British pub, one of the spaces associated with ordinary, working-class forms of Englishness. As the word itself says it, a pub is a public space, a typically British space defining the country's national identity. Farage appears as the champion of the man in the street or, better said, the man in the pub.

In his Brexit campaign, Farage defined the good people vs. the bad people in very clear terms, as in one of the speeches given during the last hours of the voting process. He predicted that the outcome will be the victory of the real, ordinary, decent people, having fought against the multinationals, the merchant banks, as well as big politics. The referendum is seen as a battle, with winners and losers. On the winning side are those whom he identifies with in his inclusive WE: real people, ordinary people, decent people. Therefore, Farage is one of these real, ordinary, decent British people. On the losing side are the big money and big politics, the multinationals, the banks, as well as the leaders of the political establishment, both Conservative and Labour prominent figures, who had supported the Remain side. Like in fairytales and like in the expressed aim of Critical Discourse Analysis, the humble and the weak, the Davids, are triumphing over the powerful, the Goliaths. The oppositional discourse of Brexit has been framed in these terms, the oppressed have prevailed over

the oppressive Establishment, the language of the Brexit discourse has created social change.

However, unlike fairytales, CDA aims at unmasking discourses which pretend to be what they are not. The Brexit discourse had hardly served to promote the cause of the oppressed, in a dramatic opposition to the oppressors, as it will be argued in the following pages. The official Brexit scenario may be reminiscent of the early versions of Marxism, defining progress through the class struggle between the bourgeoisie and the proletariat, with the latter proving victorious when the right moment comes. UKIP had promoted right-wing forms of populism in a campaign in which the threat posed by foreigners to national identity featured prominently. What is more, its supporters, militants and leaders are far from belonging to a homogeneous social segment assuming a subordinate power position, but promoting social change through their resisting discourse.

Critical Discourse Analysis, like Cultural Studies as a whole, does not content itself with the close, critical examination of stretches of discourse taken out of context. If language is seen as a form of social practice, then it is not only the professed words, but their discursive practice, power structures, the overall power context in which they function, either succeeding or failing, either staying disguised or being unmasked for what they are. In order to critically engage with Farage's rhetoric, the power context has to be better described.

Steve Buckledee, in the previously mentioned book, goes on to debunk some of the myths of the Brexit rhetoric: the Leave campaign, although claiming to represent the interests of ordinary Brits, was associated with wealthier and more generous donors, therefore with more powerful spheres of influence [4] To fill in gaps in the power structures associated with the Leavers, it is worth noting that the most important donors, figures just as significant for Brexit as Farage, were City stockbroker billionaire Peter Hargreaves and British tycoon Arron Banks. Another wealthy supporter of the Brexit campaign was hedge fund veteran Crispin Odey, notorious for his bold financial speculations. What about real, ordinary, decent Farage himself? His father had also been a stockbroker, and so was he, a City stockbroker and bookmaker, among other lucrative jobs. Significantly, as late as April 2019, Farage still publicly confesses to one of his minor vices, betting with bookmakers, engaging in financial speculations and making surprising bets to win big. However, one should believe him when he says that he is on the side of the little people. The other side is the bad one, the one controlled by the big money and big politics, the multinationals, the banks, the hedge funds.

From now on, a reasonable dose of tentative hedging will be resorted to, for lack of sufficient evidence that might permit more daring statements. It starts with one harmless question: is it safe to assume that former City broker Nigel Farage, the son of another stockbroker and beneficiary of the generous funding of billionaire stockbroker Hargreaves, has more in common with THEM (the financial elites, the multinationals, the merchant banks) than with the more ordinary people with whom he claims to identify? Another question, another illustration of hedging one's allegations rather than making one's clear statements, is, could important people like

stockbroker and generous donor Hargreaves have made a huge profit out of the Brexit Affair?

Once again, stockbroker Hargreaves and hedge fund speculator Crispin Odey can be seen in an interesting situation, evoked by Mike Sheen in the January 11, 2019 online issue of *Investment Week*. The title is ironical: "Peter Hargreaves and Crispin Odey: 'Brexit won't happen'." [5] Sheen notes that the two had publicly announced that Brexit would not happen, but they had firmly backed the Leave campaign. That might mean that they failed to see what a golden opportunity speculating on the pound sterling on the day of the referendum and on the night following it might have been. In this context, another famous financial speculator, George Soros, can be invoked, this time to show, no irony involved, that he very honestly warned everybody what might happen in the event of highly improbable Brexit coming true. The title of Tim Sculthorpe, the Deputy Political Editor of *Daily Mail* Online sums it very dramatically: "'Brexit will mean Black Friday for Britain': Billionaire George Soros says pound fall after Leave vote would be bigger than 'Black Wednesday'". He immediately clarifies what he and Soros mean: "Billionaire George Soros said a vote for Brexit would 'make some people very rich - but leave most voters considerably poorer'"[6]. Isn't that what actually happened, especially if the very rich may have had inside information about how the voting was going on June 23rd and how that may have affected the pound sterling's performance on that day and during the following night? "Making a killing" might be a suitable idiom to deal with such circumstances.

However, for reasons of elegant variation and in keeping with the hedging strategy adopted here, "making a killing" has been avoided this time to refer to otherwise honourable financial speculations. The mechanisms of such financial dealings are not the main object of this text, but they provide the substance. What is the focus here is the power of public statements, and the possible power of less public communication, to turn the debacle of one of the pillars of British stability, the pound sterling, into opportunities of amassing huge fortunes … overnight. "Overnight" is used here literally: it refers to the specific time extending after 10.00 PM on May 23rd, until the morning after, when the unexpected results of the referendum were announced.

"FANTASTIC INSECURITY" AND FINANCIAL OPPORTUNITIES

One more significant detail has not been added to the overall Brexit Affair picture. It has been said previously that both Hargreaves and Odey had publicly declared that Brexit would not happen. However, Hargreaves had said that he would support the Brexit campaign. If it was to be successful, the separation from the EU would produce instability, and instability is conducive to positive results. A May 12, 2016 headline in the *Guardian* online quotes Hargreaves as comparing the possibility of Brexit's success one month later with the positive consequence of a negative WWII episode: the British troops' withdrawal from Dunkirk. "'Like Dunkirk': Brexit donor trumpets 'fantastic insecurity' of leaving EU" [7]. Is it safe to assume that a Brexit donor will take advantage of such instances of "fantastic insecurity," speculating on

the dramatic fluctuations of a currency like the pound sterling? Here follow a few more facts to link to the occasional hedging above and below. On Referendum Day, June 23rd, 2016, Laura Hughes and Kate McCann, political correspondents, come up with two very interesting pieces of news in the online edition of *The Telegraph*. The first one goes,

> Numerous hedge funds have commissioned their own exit polls at a cost of up to £500,000 which ask people how they voted when they leave polling stations. The results would help traders get an insight into the way the vote would go ahead of the public, with the polls remaining private. It has led to accusations that bankers are exploiting the EU referendum for personal gain [8].

Wouldn't it be nice if a clever stockbroker used this information during the voting process in order to take advantage of this "fantastic insecurity"? In order to think of a possible answer to that question, let's see the second piece of news from the same source, same authors, on the same day: "The pound hit a six-month high against the dollar yesterday as markets rallied on the final day of trading before the EU referendum result." [8] Why did the pound hit a significant high against the dollar on June 23rd? Because the expected result of the referendum was REMAIN, which meant stability, security. Hours later, on the fateful day of June 23rd, Nigel Farage would make a public appearance, announcing that, according to the information he had received, the anticipated result was, again, REMAIN. Was Farage accepting defeat or was it part of a far from honest scenario? Such a statement from the chief Brexiteer would encourage bookmakers, brokers, to buy massive amounts of pounds, as the British currency was continuing to rise. REMAIN meant that nothing was changing, the situation was stable, secure. There would be two public appearances that night, with Nigel Farage apparently admitting defeat. A few minutes after midnight, another "veiled" concession made by Farage obviously promoted the stability of the pound sterling for a while, a confirmation of the previous message Farage had made. The message he seems to convey is "I have lost this battle, but not the long war of attrition which is to last, long after I have lost this referendum." This is very much in keeping with Farage's character. Then came the stunning, unexpected news: LEAVE, 52% vs REMAIN, 48%. Immediately afterwards, the pound fell to levels not seen for more than three decades.

And then, on the 25th, Cam Simpson, Gavin Finch and Kit Chellel, investigative journalists working for the Bloomberg, L.P. media company, come up with their "The Brexit Short: How Hedge Funds Used Private Polls to Make Millions." Their report goes farther than merely repeating the fact stated, already quoted above, by *The Telegraph* on the day of the referendum about the link between hedge funds and exit polls. They link the first speech made by Farage, minutes after 10 PM, when the voting ended, apparently admitting defeat, with another important statement, made by Joe Twyman. The head for political research for one of Britain's most important polling firms, YouGov, Twyman confirms Farage's impression. He expects a 52% Remain, 48 % Leave final vote, based on the confidential information collected by his firm until the end of the voting. Simpson, Finch and Chellel piece together some apparently loose threads: hedge funds, they say, had hired *YouGov* and at least a couple of other polling firms, among which Farage's favorite polling company, to do

work for them. *Survation*, the polling firm, was conducted by Damian Lyons-Lowe, Farage's friend and collaborator [9].

Almost three years later, on March 21st, 2019, the Renew Party carries an opinion article whose title shows no signs of hedging techniques, while adding other significant details to those of the Bloomberg report mentioned above. "Can We Stop The Crooks Who Got Rich Off Brexit?," their title asks. One can read their article, which is still online on the Renew Party website [10]. Two months later, on May 23rd, Farage's new invention, the Brexit Party, got 31% of the British votes in the 2019 European Parliament elections.

CONCLUSION

On the night following the 2016 Leave Remain Referendum, Farage and Twyman, apparently innocently, had contributed, through their (probably unrelated?) statements to the pound sterling's exceptional rise in the late evening and through the first part of the following night. When the first results were officially aired and Farage and YouGov were proved wrong in their declared predictions, the pound underwent the lowest fall in decades. Selling the pound high for a few hours after the two above-mentioned speeches and then buying the pound low when the referendum spelled insecurity thus tells an interesting story about how 'fantastic' the situation became for those who speculated that way. Looking back in wonder if not in anger, one may have difficulty dividing the good guys and the bad guys, placing such people as Farage's friends and business associates on one side or on the other side. On the other hand, on the side where critical thinking and the lucid spirit that such approaches as CDA encourage, where common sense prevails over biases, prejudices and irrational drives, maybe one does not have that much difficulty.

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NARRATIVE FUNCTION OF LANGUAGE IN TERRY PRATCHETT'S THE WEE FREE MEN

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ABSTRACT

This article will focus on sociolinguistic aspects in Terry Pratchett's The Wee Free Men. In particular we will deal with the interplay of standard and non-standard British English by which the writer highlights cultural stereotypes as well as narrative ones; creating a children's tale with a distinctively adult-like character set. Pratchett uses Tiffany Aching to explore the topics of non-traditional education, family dynamics and social hierarchies in a fantasy setting. By combining the mundane coming-of-age story with a fantastic adventure, he contrasts the escapist nature of a fantasy narrative with the inevitable growth of responsibility. The paper aims to explore the usage of non-standard language and its effects on the narrative and character components; the reader's reception of this usage is an important factor in the communicative channel formed between the reader and the author. From regional varieties, this work uses Scottish dialect, but Pratchett mixes in some of his own creations, such as the Toad dialect. The author also uses grammatically incorrect phrases or sentences. Therefore, this paper will analyze the instances where Pratchett used non-standard British English and determine their narrative function. Furthermore, it will illustrate the importance of dialects which are viewed as separate languages of fantastic races.

Keywords: Terry Pratchett, non-standard language, dialects, fantasy, narratology

INTRODUCTION

This research paper will focus on sociolinguistic aspects in fantasy literature, in particular we will deal with the interplay of written and spoken word in Terry Pratchett's *The Wee Free Men*. As a writer, Pratchett plays with cultural stereotypes as well as narrative ones, creating a children's tale with a distinctive character set.

The Wee Free Men experiments with several language variations: the titular Wee Free Men use Scottish dialect, and the heroine's younger brother is still learning to talk and therefore, his language is in places ungrammatical. Another consideration is the social setting of the book. Pratchett is portraying an average village where education is not a universal right. Therefore, this paper will analyze the instances where Pratchett used grammatically incorrect lexeis or sentences.

Our methodology for this topic comprised of a mix of phonetic, lexical and stylistic analysis of Pratchett's text and search for regional dialects. The main focus will be on Scottish dialect, but Pratchett includes erroneous passages in his literary work. Therefore the aim of this research paper is to identify the function of these

passages in Pratchett's text. Further investigation will reveal if Pratchett's Scottish slang is authentic or if the writer introduced his own variation of language.

THE WEE FREE MEN

The novel begins the story of Tiffany Aching, a twelve year old milkmaid living on a farm in The Chalk. The coming-of-age story explores two worlds through the eyes of a young girl who is trying to save her younger brother with the help of the titular Wee Free Men. The book depicts her first meeting with the Wee Free Men and her further encounters that traverse through their culture. The most obvious sign of their cultural difference is their usage of Scottish dialect. Pratchett mixes the Highland dialect (a mix of Scottish English mixed with Gaelic) [1] with standard British English and supports Scottish imagery by playing with Scottish stereotypes. His fantastic race of Scottish pixies wear kilts, use blue body paint/tattoos and are extremely interested in close combat. All mentioned elements create a visual image, but Pratchett did not stop at this step. Instead, he further supported the cultural division of *Discworld*, giving several fantastic races their own distinct voice, e.g. trolls and golems. Some fantastic races produce their own language which does not get its own translation as the meaning can be understood in the recipient's mind, e.g Sneebs.

Pratchett chooses to work with language to add to the power of his narrative voice – his knowledge of Highland English and Scottish stereotypes is then transferred to the reader who can appreciate the race. Author's acknowledgment of the independence led him to create a completely new name for them: "Nac Mac Feegles", "pictsies" or the "Wee Free Men". Pratchett decided to create a parody race of pixies – small, sometimes mischievous fairies – and named them pictsies. They reject the name pixies and refuse their customs – for example accepting offerings of milk. Instead, they enjoy drinking alcohol and smoking. Their culture is based around fighting, as they view themselves as a warrior race. Their narrative purpose is to provide the hook for Tiffany's adventure – they are looking for a witch and she fits their criteria. They also provide physical protection for Tiffany who is a pre-teen and cannot defend herself against dangerous magical creatures without help. Their last function is to provide the reader with much needed lore exposition, as Tiffany needs to be trained and brought deeper into the fantasy world.

They have knowledge of monsters beyond the heroine's knowledge and serve as her protectors during her dangerous quest to save her toddler brother. The author recognizes that the Wee free folk are ridiculous by design and plays into the silliness of this image by making them look harmlessly bloodthirsty – they are fearsome in their minds and create a dissonance between the reader's conflicting images – figures "about six inches tall and mostly colored blue, although it was hard to know if that was the actual color of their skins or just the dye from their tattoos, which covered every inch that wasn't covered with red hair" [2]. This portrayal of tattooed fairies is amusing by itself, but their outfits are also significant. Because *Discworld* takes place during late Medieval period, they were outfitted to resemble William Wallace from Gibbson's 1995 film *Braveheart*. The effect of fairy-folk dressed as medieval Scottish warriors is then comical, as the weapon size signifying their apparent

strength is highlighted: "They wore short kilts, and some wore other bits of clothing too, like skinny vests. A few of them wore rabbit or rat skulls on their heads, as a sort of helmet. And every single one of them carried, slung across his back, a sword nearly as big as he was." [2]

SCOTTISH DIALECT

Even though Pratchett's *Discworld* series is a world that shares and interconnects the setting, themes and characters, the author's charm comes from making these connections seem seamless. The reader can then appreciate Pratchett's efforts of writing a hybrid fairy-tale/mystery novel or fantasy/adventure novel that is on one hand set in a fantastic world and on the other draws from English and Scottish cultures.

The author introduces the Wee Free Men early in the book, their speech being distinctive in accent and register: *"Crivens! Gang awa' oot o' here, ye daft wee hinny! 'Ware the green heid!"* [2]. The exclamatory phrase *crivens* is repeatedly present throughout the book and oftentimes marks the beginning or entrance of the Wee Folk in dialogue. It does not have a direct translation to English, however, according to Dictionary of the Scots Language [3], it most likely comes from the phrase "Christ's veins!". Pratchett visibly brings the accent into life as instead of writing "Get away out of here, you daft wee hinny!", he instead chose to capture the phonetic differences in Scottish dialect. The changes in vowel pronunciation in "get", "you", the clipping of words "away", "out" and lastly, the addition of more Scottish lexemes, in this case the word "hinny".

It has to be said that the main character does not regard the Scottish dialect as difficult to understand and does not stumble over any of the expressions. She responds as if she was speaking to another person using standard English. This falls under some suspension of disbelief, as a twelve year old girl could have problems with understanding the Highland English dialect, but she was able to understand the Scottish-Irish amalgamation of accents with little comment. After her initial surprise, she never once commented on the differences in accents and replied to questions or statements without repeating or correcting the dialect. This shows that Pratchett wanted to insert an exotic quality to his narrative, but chose one that would not disrupt his storytelling or slow down the flow of his dialogue. His characters show understanding of each other's culture and the author's decision to provide this linguistic barrier does not affect his writing beyond one simple comment or a moment of initial hesitation as shown: "'And I'm not a hag! Are you fairies of some sort? And what about our ship? I mean, sheep?'" [2]. The differences in pronunciation are written as small jokes and the differences in pronunciation are never discussed in any detail, nor do they produce any xenophobia or form any prejudices. Thus, the writer creates a multicultural society which is apparent to the reader and instills a certain need to understand the playful side of language.

We can also observe dialogue usage of this dialect with two Wee folk discussing Tiffany and the possibility of her being a witch:

"'Crivens! It's a' verra well sayin' 'find the hag,' but what should we be lookin' for, can ye tell me that? All these bigjobs look just the same tae me!'

'Not-totally-wee Geordie doon at the fishin' said she was a big, big girl!'

'A great help that is, I dinna think! They're all big, big girls!'

'Ye paira dafties! Everyone knows a hag wears a pointy bonnet!'

'So they canna be a hag if they're sleepin', then?'" [2]

Here, Pratchett signalizes the presence of the Wee folk with the use of the expression *crivens* and proceeds to reveal the workings of their minds by vocalizing their aim in the very next sentence. Their goal is to "find the hag", a hag being a witch in standard British English. The Wee folk wonder about their ability to recognize a witch, knowing that they are looking for a "big girl" and the unhelpfulness of this piece of advice. The only other hint they have is the witches wear pointy bonnets. Since Pratchett is a comedy writer, he could not forego the opportunity to lighten the atmosphere with a simple joke. The joke plays on the literal understanding of the hint – a witch wearing a pointy bonnet – therefore, a girl or a woman who is not wearing one when they are asleep must lose their status of a witch. By providing this exchange, the author gives an insight into the characters' motivation, their goals, way of thinking and also creates a mystery, as he makes it clear they are following hints and therefore command of another being or a higher ranking Wee folk.

The Scottish dialect is present in this exchange: clipping of the -ing suffix in words saying, looking, fishing and sleeping and instead the accent clips off the final sound "g" (sayin', lookin', fishin', sleepin'). Pratchett also highlights the Scottish emphasis on "r" (verra), which is more rhotic [1]. Another set of words changed by pronunciation are prepositions "to" and "down", or in the dialogue "tae" and "doon". The Scots change the form of their auxiliary verb "don't" into "dinna". The syntax of that sentence is helpful to the reader, as they would be able to connect the meaning to the context of the exchange. In this brief piece of dialogue, we see that Pratchett crafts his sentences carefully. He used the dialect to mark most auxiliary verbs, but have them be recognizable by syntax and context and he mostly marked the words with exaggerated pronunciation (very, to, down).

In regards to tense distinction, the Wee folk create past continuous tense by using "was" and the verb with -ing suffix, where "was" is accented to create a lexme "wuz" instead: "'We wuz hungerin', mistress,' he muttered. 'But when we kenned it was thine, we did put the beastie back in the fold.'" [2] The expression "we was hungering"* is ungrammatical in standard British English as the verb "to hunger" does not exist, and therefore cannot be constructed into the past continuous tense. The Wee folk also do not recognize the correct grammatical form of "to be", as the correct form would be "we were". The quotation also shows that the Wee folk can create past simple tense, where they use the expression "we kenned" meaning "we knew". This shows that the Wee folk do not recognize the irregular verbs prescribed by standard British English and such a change could be large enough for the reader to

misunderstand or even not understand the text, but their intentions can be understood since Pratchett left enough contextual clues to decipher the meaning.

Another character who uses Scottish dialect is Tiffany's grandmother, know as Granny Aching. She is not consistent in her usage and even though she uses pronouns "ye" in several instances, she can also speak standard British English:

"A man who takes arms against his lord, that man is hanged. A starving man who steals his lord's sheep, that man is hanged. A dog that kills sheep, that dog is put to death. Those laws are on these hills and these hills are in my bones. What is a baron, that the law be brake for him?" [2]

In this case we see that Granny does not use only standard British English, as evidenced by the presence of a non-standard verb phrase "law be brake for him". However, she does not speak the dialect fluently and pronounces "starving" as a Brit, uses "who" instead of "wha", or "to" instead of "tae". The point of contention The standard British version of a passive construction would be "the law will be broken for him". Scottish dialect creates passive mostly by using the verb "get" or "got" and then adds past participle. The word "brake" however, does not correspond to past participle in Standard Scottish English or Highland dialect. Granny therefore did not use passive voice correctly and this structure should only be marked as ungrammatical. In a later exchange, she shows her accent quite clearly:

"*'Bring ye siller? Bring ye gilt?' said Granny Aching.*

'No silver. No gold,' said the Baron." [2]

The standard British "your" was replaced by "ye", exactly the same replacement as the   Wee folk made. She also mispronounced the words "silver" and "gold", omitting the "v" in silver and replacing two sounds in gold – the "d" with "t" in and completely changing the sound of the word by exchanging the vowel "o" for "i". These changes mark clear usage of Scottish dialect and add to the character. It might seem strange that this human character speaks the dialect which is in this novel used as a language by a completely separate race, but Pratchett connects this usage. Granny Aching was allied with the Wee folk for a long time and had made several business deals with them. She was also considered to be a witch or a "hag" by the Wee folk in addition to being a shepherd and so, her mixing standard British English and Scottish dialect makes sense. This usage of ungrammatical phrases or Scottish dialect do not reflect poorly on her character or her education; she was after all consulting the local baron and made business deals with local picsties. Pratchett's use of ungrammatical expressions, mixing of standard British pronunciation and Scottish one make Granny plot-significant and a role model for Tiffany. The novel's heroine gains a lot of positive attributes and guidance from Granny's off-hand remarks and words of wisdom. Granny Aching's mixing of British and Scottish English speaks more about the location of her farm – as Tiffany speaks only standard British English, it would be possible that the Aching farm is located near Scottish/British border (in the novel's case it would be the border between the Wee folk and villagers).

Pratchett working with sound is apparent when he attempts to introduce the reader to Scottish naming conventions introduces the reader to Tiffany's Gaelic name: "'A good name. In our tongue you'd be Tir-far-thóinn, Land Under Wave,' said the kelda. It sounded like 'Tiffan'" [2]. Here, Pratchett attempts to connect the reader more directly to the alien culture of the Wee folk. No amount of contextual clues would help the casual reader with the pronunciation, so he offers it right after introducing the Scottish name for Tiffany. As with previous cases, the dialect does not contribute to the plot by moving the plot forward, but helps with the descriptive nature of the fantastic world and its different cultures.

UNGRAMMATICAL EXPRESSIONS

We can observe two types of ungrammatical expressions in Pratchett's novel – the first being young speakers whose language suffers because they do not understand how to use language concepts such as grammatical morphemes (grammatical prefixes or suffixes) or prepositions [4]. This comes into effect when Tiffany's younger brother interrupts her with his requests: "'I wanna go-a toy-lut!'" screamed Wentworth" [2]. Pratchett could have used correct grammatical structures and left out the child-like expressions. However, his decision to instead give this character a unique voice makes him immediately recognizable and gives him a distinct feel even in a book that already uses characters who speak in dialects.

Another type of language stylization that falls outside of the standardized scope is the use of incorrectly spelled lexemes:

"*The first tent Tiffany saw had a sign that read:*

JOGRAFFY! JOGRAFFY! JOGRAFFY! FOR TODAY ONLY: ALL MAJOR LAND MASSES AND OCEANS PLUS EVERYTHING YOU NEED TO KNO ABOUT GLASSIERS! ONE PENNY, OR ALL MAJOR VEJTABLES ACSEPTED!" [2]

The writer uses spelling as medium to convey the irony of a poorly educated person offering earning their livelihood by educating others. Pratchett entertains the reader who understand this concept further by stylizing the advertisement to capitalize on its rhetorical potential. The misspelled word *jograffy** (geography) is repeated three times according the famous rule of three [5] which supports repetition or enumeration of three items to capture the rhythm of comedy and well-written speech in general. Other mistakes in this passage include the misspelled word *kno** (know), *vejetables** (vegetables) and *acsepted** (accepted), where the argument can be made that the writer was trying to reconstruct the words from phonetic into written form unsuccessfully. Again, Pratchett picked only several words where he misconstrued the form in a particular way – it would be much easier to spell *kno** without the silent letter, but his intention was to mark the writer as incompetent, not incomprehensible.

Pratchett adds more ungrammatical expressions in ironic tone which create humorous mood, even though the subject matter itself is serious. Pratchett also

comments on the situation of education in small villages. Tiffany is shown to be a bright child, bright enough to be a witch. Pratchett's witches and wizards do not control magic, they study it in Universities, but cannot explain how or why it actually works. Tiffany's act of witchery was defeating a fast and aggressive monster which grabs unsuspecting people from the river's bank. She was warned about the monster by the Wee folk and could therefore predict where it will appear. Her act of magic was simply good observation skills and her rescuing her toddler brother with a frying pan. Tiffany's supposed intelligence is also shown when she recalled her bargaining for lessons:

"Last year Tiffany had spent three carrots and an apple on half an hour of geology, although she'd been refunded a carrot after explaining to the teacher that 'Geology' shouldn't be spelled on his sign as 'G olly G.'"[2]

Here, the expression is used to show that Tiffany has the education to recognize phrases with improper spelling, is not afraid to challenge the authority figure and regain some of her payment right back. It also offers comedy relief and shows the reader the differences between reading and writing in proper English. Unlike the dialect which offers no proper correction, Pratchett makes sure that the correctly spelled version of the word was included in the same sentence as the playful deformation "G olly G". Socilinguistic factor of education factors into Tiffany's personality. She realizes the worth of education and despite growing in environment where formal education does not exist [6], she thrives thanks to her natural talent, willingness to learn and hunger for knowledge. The listed attributed are seldom understood as negative, but Pratchett used them to highlight possible problems, such as growing resentment towards her younger brother, who demand much of her attention.

Pratchett's imagination went into different directions as he invented dialects such as *Toad* for a character that was cursed to take the form of this creature. The only reason to do so was to use it in a singular instance where the cursed character spoke it for a singular lexeme:

"'Oh, croap,' said the toad.

'Pardon?' said Tiffany.

'Er, that was, er, swearing in Toad,' said the toad."[2]

Pratchett's use of an imaginary dialect had two functions in this case – first was to make a joke, a pun. The word "croak", which describes the sound that toads make was combined with a vulgar slang word "crap". This in turn formed the portmanteau expression "croap", and so the Toad slang was created. Another function of this imaginary slang is to create a filter for the vulgar expression. Because this book series is marketed towards a young audience, the author was careful to use Toad language as a disguise for the otherwise offensive expression, and therefore it passed the standard language filter.

CONCLUSION

To sum up, Terry Pratchett's *The Wee free Folk* introduces a fantastic race of characters who speak in a Highland English dialect. They are therefore immediately distinct and the author makes no move to translate their speech patterns into standard British English. Their language is marked by their use of Scottish lexemes, their accent which is depicted by clipping of the "g" sound in the grammatical suffix -ing, deletion of "o" in words such as "do", the exaggeration of the "r" consonant and the mispronunciation of pronouns "you" or "your". The changes are not only phonetic, as Pratchett shows that his Wee folk substitute some auxiliary verbs or entire verb phrases for their Scottish equivalents. This depiction is further helped by the in-book description of the Wee folk, where the author liberally borrowed from the Scottish stereotypes as depicted in other media. Their narrative role is then expanded and their culture is incorporated into author's wordbuilding. Even though it does not move the plot along the time/space line, but adds to the descriptive part of storytelling. They have knowledge of monsters beyond the heroine's knowledge and serve as her protectors during her dangerous quest to save her toddler brother. The element of dialect use adds an air of exotic adventure while exploring the Scottish dialect. The writer does not only use dialects, but also brings attention to ungrammatical expressions. Characters who are too young to understand grammatical rules and pronounce words properly break them and mispronounce words. There is also a character who is older and does not use proper, prescribed grammatical structures, but rather uses ungrammatical structures and even mixes standard British English with Scottish dialect. Pratchett also takes education into consideration when creating his world. As a farming village, his setting lacks proper system of formal education, and so the heroine is relying on various travelling teachers whose grasp on language is dubious. Through her, Pratchett shows imperfections even in native speakers where he playfully creates visual and auditive jokes. Therefore, his use of ungrammatical expressions has several functions – to highlight differences in levels of education not only between characters, but also between the reader and his creations. The other function is to provide comic relief as his series is meant to provide entertainment to his readers who can appreciate the creative use of spelling errors in the novel.

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PREPOSITIONAL GRAMMAR COMPONENT FOR SYNTACTICAL AND LEXICAL DISAMBIGUATION IN RUSSIAN BASED ON CORPUS STATISTICS

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ABSTRACT

Grammatical description of the sentence generation for the particular language is usually split into special morphological and Syntactical modules applied autonomously: the variance of morphological forms posed into the enumeration of constructional augmentations produces the enormous list of possible expositions of structural complexity paying no attention to the statistical plausibility of a construction in question. The usual method of reducing the complexity score of the Syntactical construction is to put morphological block inside the Syntactical one thus determining item structures strictly possible for this entity, to take into consideration the preferences of item occurrences.

The Russian prepositional constructions are the clear case of exuberant variability of the structural complexity in case we are to interpret the meaning of the govenee nouns, its syntactical semantics and the governor element – some full word in a sentence or a predicative or nominal centre. In Russian the ambiguity of interpretation of a prepositional construction is formed by several meanings of primary prepositions plus several noun forms with different senses combined with the preposition plus possible difference of semantic classes implied by the govenee nouns.

We construct an ontology for Russian prepositional constructions based on the corpus statistics and propose a sample from the grammatical module aimed at the analysis of the above mentioned structural variables.

Keywords: *grammatical generation, prepositional construction, Russian language, corpus statistics, prepositional meaning*

INTRODUCTION

We present in this paper the prototype variant of the grammar description of the Russian prepositional constructions. Text grammatical analyses is usually split into special morphological and Syntactical modules, though the autonomous grammatical interpretation produces the combination of errors on different levels. The semantic module may be helpful in disambiguation of grammatical constructions as well as lexical choice that is the consequence of lemmatization procedure, however, it is not clear in which terms to describe the semantics of the sentence and the text as a whole. We will use a AGFL formalism from the group of the affix generative grammars [1] which allows to insert hierarchy of categories and their values. They

may be syntactical, morpho-syntactical, and semantico-syntactical. In this paper we concentrate our efforts to show in what manner to introduce the interpretation of the latter type for Russian prepositional constructions.

The identification of semantic units and their relations to each other is an essential part of the automatic text analysis, though the recent indulgence to linguistic processing from neural network methods in natural language processing turned out to be a deadlock in near future. The real effectiveness will be in applying tactics of neural networks to the strategy of semantico-syntactical analysis which is indispensable if we want to extract information or content from the text.

Prepositional constructions are the crucial part of syntactical and semantico-syntactical automatic text analysis. The first problem is the prepositional phrase (PP) attachment, the second – interpretation of relations between the governor word for PP attachment and nouns or pronouns in the prepositional construction (governees).

Prepositions in the Russian language for quite a long time remained without the scrutiny of specialists in automatic text analysis. In information retrieval systems, they were included in "stop words" lists, which prevented their use in search models of information retrieval. Indeed, from the point of view of information retrieval, they, as a rule, can be neglected, because of their "low" nominativity, that is, they are not semantic identifiers of the document content. However, for semantically oriented analysis of the text, they are certainly important, since they convey certain semantic-syntactical relations between content words, clarify characteristics of a predicate, space-time specifications of propositions, etc.

CORE GROUP OF RUSSIAN PRIMARY PREPOSITIONS

In [2] in these proceedings we presented the core group of Russian primary prepositions which we use in order to illustrate our method of prepositional ontology construction and its use in the affix generative grammar [1]. They are as follows: "в" ('in'), "на" ('on'), "с" ('with'), "по" ('by'), "к" ('to'), "из" ('from'), "у" ('at'), "за" ('behind'), "от" ('from'), "о" ('about'). The preposition "в" ('in') is the most frequent. We see that according to statistics given in [3] any preposition tends to vary its frequency according to the stylistic and thematic corpus balance, though "в" ('in') has never moved from the highest rank. This gives us a clue that the distribution of semantic prepositional groups in corpus contexts may be the outline of grammatical oppositions presented in the semantic continuum of prepositional constructions.

We described in [2] that prepositional ontology has hierarchical structure. The most abstract concepts are semantic rubrics, which are realized by means of syntaxemes – the minimal Syntactical morphological prepostional constructions with particular meanings. Syntaxemes are further detailed into subtypes, which convey lexico-grammatical meanings and may be expressed with secondary prepositions in a variety of textual forms. Notions from the two topmost levels of ontology are of grammatical nature, that require the special approach. In [2] we posit a quantative interpretation of Jakobson's idea of the indicative categories [4] that some

approximation to the prepositional frequency ratio "1.5 to 1" may be interpreted as a manifestation that lesser member of this pair has some grammatical markedness.

As a matter of fact we do not know the exact number and nature of semantic rubrics. The same indeterminacy exists in relation to the number and realization of syntaxemes. The syntaxemes mentioned in [5] may be looked as a basis for this list, but they were described in the frame of the functional approach without reference to the corpus statistics and generative grammar perspective. The number of prepositional senses, for example, "в" ('in') in the Russian explanatory dictionary [6], is enormous, and they have the same hindrance: there is no statistical assessment of all variants, and their granularity level is an issue of lexicographical principles.

We take the list of semantic roles as a suggestion for semantic rubrics: for example, relative frequencies for semantic roles from the annotated English corpus Penn TreeBank [7]: subject (.35), temporal (.113); locative (.075); direction (.026); manner (.021); purpose (.017); extent (.010).

We look for the abstract distribution of senses for the most frequent preposition "в" ('in') in the random sample of corpus contexts in the manner which may align presented frequencies in consent with proportions for indicative categories. We distinguish the following rubric's frequencies on the basis of our balanced corpus: *localization* 8090 IPM (instances per million corpus tokens); *temporative* 5090 IPM; *objective* 3240 IPM; *derivative*, that is, secondary prepositions and phrasal expressions 2080 IPM; *qualificative* 1160 IPM; *partitive* 690 IPM; *quantificative* 430 IPM. As corpus frequencies may vary in correlation with stylistic and thematic corpus balance, the proportional numerals may be more informative: localization (.35); temporative (.22); objective (.14); derivative (.09); qualificative (.05); partitive (.03); quantificative (.02). The diagram of semantic rubric distribution for preposition "в" ('in') is shown in Fig. 1 below.

We are to clear some points. Firstly, rather small portion of contexts expressing objective concepts is explained by the fact that they are conveyed by means of case forms: the nominative renders a subject, the accusative – an object, the dative – an addressee, the ablative – an instrument, though interpretation of these case forms are not thus straightforward, but this issue is beyond the boundaries of this paper. Secondly, a small portion of propositional constructions realize syncretically several rubrics. For example, *лежать в нескольких метрах* ('to lie a few meters away') – localization plus quantificative; *попасть в чужие руки* ('to fall into the wrong hands') – localization + objective + set phrase.

Syntaxemes of the localization rubric include proper locative, expressed by "в" ('in') plus the locative case form [3700 IPM]: *сидеть в саду* ('to sit in the garden'), *гулять в лесу* ('to have a walk in the forest'), the same meaning may be expressed by the preposition "на" ('on') with the locative case [1800 IPM] as well: *сидеть на стуле* ('to sit on the chair'), *дышать воздухом на веранде* ('to breathe air on the veranda'). In [8] the difference was connected with idea of "inclusion" for the former in the contrast "support" and "contiguity" for the latter. We point out that this "classification" is purely linguistic because a veranda is three-dimensional object and

a sitting person is inside it. Moreover, both syntaxemes may be used: *сидеть в кресле на веранде* ('to sit in a chair on the veranda'), *висеть в бильярдной на стене* ('to hang in the pool room on the wall'). This fact is usually taken as an evidence that they have different roles, and we see that places of localization are included into each other, but which one into which? So we will consider the first variant to be the locative1, and the second – the locative2 because it concedes in frequency. We see the same parallelism in the directive syntaxeme denoting the end point of the travel trajectory: "в" ('in') plus the accusative case form [3700 IPM]: *прийти в сад* ('to come to the garden'), *положить в шкаф* ('to put in the closet'), and "на" ('on') with the accusative case [1570 IPM]: *поставить на стол* ('to put on the table'), *прийти на веранду* ('to come to the veranda'). The sequence of the directive and locative has a standard interpretation: the locative in postposition is an attribute for the directive: *приехать в город на Неве* ('to come to the city on the Neva River'), *приехать на виллу в Мексике* ('to come to the villa in Mexico'). The sequence of directives is as ambivalent as that of locatives: *отвезти в деревню на виллу* ('to take someone to the village to the villa'), *отправиться на дачу в Барвиху* ('to go to the cottage in Barvikha').

The temporative rubric concedes in frequency to the localization rubric that is usually interpreted as "time is space" [7], that is, temporal syntaxemes are structured on the localization model. The concept of "time" may be expressed as the deictic category referring to the time of a speech, that is usual for verbal predicates, this is an "absolute" time characteristic. If the referential point differs from the moment of a speech act, it is a "relative" time characteristic [4]. Due to the time metaphor we can see "imagined movement" on the time scale presenting the continuum of our experience in which events pass from the future through the present to the past. The complete isomorphism is impossible but the opposition of locative and accusative case forms in temporative construction reminds the selectional rules for included and supported object, though they are more simple: the temporative syntaxeme with a locative case form [2780 IPM] is used for nouns denoting months, years, longer periods such as a century or an epoch: *в пятом году* ('in the fifth year'), *в октябре* ('in October'), *в 19 веке* ('in the 19th century'), *в неолите* ('in the Neolithic'). Temporative syntaxeme with an accusative case form [2300 IPM] is applied to abstract nouns denoting time or to quantified expressions of hours of day and night, days of the week: *во время зимовки* ('during wintering'), *в период нереста* ('during spawning '), *в пять часов утра* ('at five in the morning'), *в пятницу* ('on Friday'). The sequence with a temporative with the locative case is impossible, the member in the postposition is expressed by a genitive case form: *в октябре 1995 года* ('in October 1995'), though accusative temporatives may be concatenated: *в воскресенье в девять часов утра* ('on Sunday at nine o'clock in the morning').

The temporative with the preposition "на" ('on') used with an accusative case with a frequency [930 IPM] comparable with that of grammatical constructions, it is a quantified temporal period (it is syncretic with the quantificative syntaxeme below): *на 5 дней* ('for 5 days'), *на 10 веков* ('for 10 centuries') or so-called bound constructions with main nouns denoting time periods with some attribute, usually adjectival: *на ближайшее десятилетие* ('for the next decade'), *на данное время* ('at this time'). Temporal constructions for the preposition "на" ('on') with locative

case form are quite a few, it's better to regard them as set phrases: *на будущей неделе* ('next week'), *на данном этапе* ('at this stage').

The objective prepositional rubric includes various types of objects such as an object of action, object of thought and nomination, an addressee or participant, etc., further specification is possible on the subsyntaxeme level. This rubric is "marked" according to the frequency of corpus realization in the contrast with the previous one. It's not a common view but this sense domain is structured on the model of localization [9]. There are as well the parallel syntaxemes for the prepositions "в" ('in'), "на" ('on') with a locative case form (2300 IPM and 1120 IPM correspondingly) and an accusative case form (930 IPM and 2000 IPM). The former objective syntaxeme is more active for "в" ('in') than for "на" ('on'). There are several types of objects characteristic for the first preposition: an object of perception: *видеть в старых фильмах* ('to see in old movies'), an object of application: *использовать в технике* ('to use in engineering'), the object linked to the abstract noun replacing the direct object of the verb: *изменения в анализах крови* ('changes in blood tests'). As for the second preposition "на" ('on') there is some vehicle: *ехать на велосипеде* ('to ride a bike') or device: *спуститься вниз на веревке* ('to come down on the rope'). G.Zolotova's [5] proposed for this construction an instrumentive or mediative syntaxeme, thogh there is a wide range of object types: *играть на гитаре* ('to play guitar'), *называться на иврите* ('to be called in Hebrew'), *выставить кандидатуру на выборах* ('to run for election').

The objective syntaxeme with an accusative case form is more active for the preposition "на" ('on'). There are used verbs of communication: *отвечать на вопрос* ('to answer the question'), emotional verbs: *обижаться на власть* ('to take offense at the authority'), metaphorically shifted travel verbs: *заступить на вахту* ('to stand on watch'), *пойти на ваши условия* ('to go to your terms'). This syntaxeme for the preposition "в" ('in') is one of the most infrequent, it is attached to the verbs of transfiguration: *превратиться в густую массу* ('to turn into a thick mass'), *превратить жизнь в театр* ('to turn life into theater') or sometimes social: *выбирать в органы власти* ('to elect to the authorities'), *назначить на должность руководителя* ('to appoint a manager').

The next syntaxeme rubric – the derivative – is a heterogeneous group incorporating secondary prepositions and set phrases comprising the primary prepositions as a component of their structure, secondaries with the pronominal specification transforming into adverbial constructions. In this rubric the division into constructions with locative or accusative case forms is not thus important, so we take them as a whole. The examples for the prepositions "в" ('in') [2000 IPM] are: *в виде таблетки* ('in pill form'), *в области науки* (in the field of science), *проявить себя в деле* ('to prove oneself in business'), *иметь в виду* ('to keep in mind'), *в знак благодарности* ('in gratitude'), *в пользу рекламодателя* (in favor of the advertiser),*приводить себя в порядок* ('to trim oneself up'), *бросаться в глаза* ('to strike the eye'). The preposition "на" ('on') is more active in this rubric [200 IPM] collating with its total frequency: *шевелиться на ветру* ('to stir in the wind'), *оказаться у всех на виду* ('to be in public view'), *принять на борт судна* ('to take aboard ship').

The three infrequent rubrics – the qualificative, the partitive, the quantificative – have indiscernible frequency portion comparable the statistical error. They are syncretic with other syntaxemes, so some examples are given above. In the Fig. 1 we show diagrams showing proportion of corpus realization of semantic rubrics for the topmost preposition "в" ('in') as a whole and that of described syntaxemes for "в" ('in') and "на" ('on').
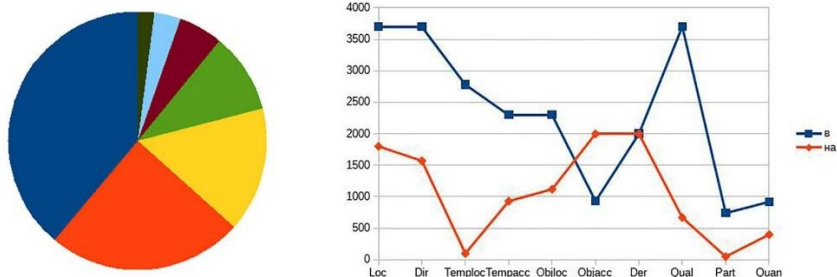

Fig. 1. *Corpus frequency proportions of the semantic rubrics for the "в" ('in') (there are diminishing progression of proposed semantic rubrics on the left diagram, these are localization, temporative, objective, derivative, qualificative, partitive, quantificative and corpus frequency proportions of inserted syntaxemes for "в" ('in') and "на" ('on') (the right chart).*

To understand the correct model for organizing syntaxemes we are to understand what information is necessary to specify on the syntaxeme's or syntaxeme type's level. For example, we use syntaxemes in the generative grammar formalism. The first problem is the main word (or dummy predicate) to which the syntaxeme analyzed is attached. A well-known example of ambiguity of PP attachment in English "I saw a man with a teleskope" in Russian is rendered unequivocally: *Я видел человека с телескопом* versus *Я видел человека в телескоп*. Naturally, there are ambiguous cases: *взять тетрадь в клетку* ('to take a squared notebook' versus 'to take a notebook into the cage') where the latter variant is hardly come to someone's mind. There is syntactical device of so-called redistribution of Syntactical links: when the prepositional construction is lineally divided from its governor verb by an object, the Syntactical link between a verb and PP is lessened and a link between a noun and PP becomes possible. This device gives a chance to appearance of nominal constructions with PP such as *картина на стене* ('a picture on the wall'). We stated above that for the goal of systematic analysis we interpret the governors of these constructions as dummy verbs.

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

The paper provides a construction grammar perspective to identifying meaning of prepositions in Russian. In order to solve natural language processing tasks, we need to learn how to uncover semantic relations in texts, especially in Russian a great number of them are conveyed by prepositions.

We are collecting a serias of prepositional constructions and arrange them according to frequencies of specified meanings in corpora of modern Russian texts. Different semantic aspects of prepositional constructions are described with semantic rubrics which are based on a notion of syntaxeme proposed by G. Zolotova. Our final goal is to create a corpus-based quantitative ontology of Russian prepositions.

The semantic rubrics presented in our approach help to organize rather vague prepositional meanings. Their affinity and difference may be explicated through the overlap of semantic classes of governing and subordinate words. The whole structure of prepositional frequencies that has not investigated so far and arrangement of semantic units expressed in text contexts are resources for the compilation of the quantitative prepositional grammar for Russian.

We are going to compile the first version of essential semantic rubrics to proceed in the outlined direction and to grasp the sense distribution for primary prepositions. Then we will assign the secondary prepositions to these sets. Thus we will check the initial hypothesis that the granularity of prepositional meanings are restricted by the meaningful diversity of secondary prepositions.

Further stages of our project include:

to clarify the set of syntaxemes for prepositional constructions referring to governors and governees semantic types on the base of corpus data;

to compile sets of prepositional constructions from corpora of different genres in order to discover the significant variation of statistical parameters;

to describe prepositional constructions in terms of predominant semantic classes and/or lexemes used as "governors";

to list predominant semantic classes and/or lexemes used as "governees" for different semantic rubrics and/or syntaxemes;

to create a database of Russian prepositional constructions accumulating corpus material with statistical information obtained;

to compile rules of the hybrid generative grammar showing the use of prepositional phrases for expressing the comprehensive set of syntaxemes.

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ROBO-JOURNALISM AND ITS IMPLEMENTATION IN EDITORIAL PRACTICE

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ABSTRACT

Due to the development of artificial intelligence and language-based software, automatic machines, which can generate news contents from data, are starting to be used in the editorial practice. Despite the fact that this field of editorial work is currently at its advent, it has been developing and improving relatively quickly. At present, robots for production of contents are implemented in editorial offices of large media, and are able to process huge amounts of data, while saving journalists' work. Robo-journalism, which is the result of an effective interconnection among informatics, statistics and reporting, is being vividly discussed not only in media practice, but also in professional circles. The study deals with robot journalism that uses intelligent software to produce news articles. Its application fundamentally redefines editorial routines, journalistic practices and existing models of editorial work. Media and journalism theorists are interested in the influence of robo-journalism on the editing process, the journalistic profession, the journalist as a creative person and their competences. The authors of the paper intend to broaden the awareness of this dynamically developing segment of new coverage and to point out its selected aspects in relation to media practice, but also theoretical reflection.

Keywords: artificial intelligence, author, editorial office, journalist, robo-journalism

INTRODUCTION

Although the application of innovations as a tool of technological, social and economic developments in different areas of practice is not always met with positive feedback and understanding, the media segment represents a space in which changes are adapted relatively quickly. Thus, media institutions are becoming pioneers in the implementation of technical and technological innovations while helping to adjust them to society on the one hand, and using of modern achievements to further improve them on the other hand. In the practice of foreign news media, podcasts, the use of virtual reality, 360-degree videos or chatbots, have recently emerged. For example, as drones have become a means of collecting news material, artificial intelligence has begun to be applied in the process of news contents production. Journalism has attained to mobile phones, social networks and popular user channels (*YouTube* and others) [1]. On all these platforms, there is a struggle for the attention of the recipient, which increases the necessity for the origin of new (and entrepreneurial) strategies in the media business. In this context A. Sámelová pointed out the technologization of mass media environment, which resulted into the forms of visualisations of texts, sounds and images of modern journalism [2].

In the paper, the authors discuss robo-journalism, which represents the use of automatic machines, artificial intelligence and specialized software that works with the natural language to produce news contents. The aim is to raise awareness of this fast-growing segment of the newspaper world, which is carried out by means of the web, mobile technologies, and social networks.

DEFINING ROBO-JOURNALISM

Despite the fact that the first data-generated software was created more than 40 years ago, it has been currently discussed in terms of its implementation in journalistic practice, mainly due to the effective interconnection of informatics, statistics and the newspaper business [3]. In 2014, the American *Associated Press* reported that more than 3,000 of its news items were generated by "robots" in a year. They included especially flash news from sports events. While previously used in weather forecasting, medical data processing or financial reporting, intelligent software today produces texts that are indistinguishable from those created by journalists. *Tobi* software made more than 40,000 reports in German and French language during the November 2018 elections in Switzerland [4]. The *BBC* expects to have generated 90 % of news texts by intelligent software by 2022 [5].

Robo-journalism has brought new journalistic processes to the production of newspaper outputs, which has a significant impact on human resources and journalistic profession as such. At the same time, it provides reporters with freedom, space and time to pay attention to surveying and looking for connections. The software works on the principle of analyzing large amounts of data, from which it generates texts, animations and information graphics through algorithms.

One of the most famous software in robo-journalism is *Quill*, created by the American company Narrative Science. It analyzes data and then creates texts. The company currently owns 19 software patents to work with data [6]. The British company ARRIA has created technology called *Natural Language Generation* (NLG), which also allows the production of the texts from "raw" data in such a way that news items are impressed as if they were written by a professional. NLG is an intelligent automation platform that transforms data into a language that the reader can understand.

However, the application of "robots" in the text construction also has its limitations. While intelligent software may be implemented, for example, in the production of sports news, financial and economic reports, thus where large numbers of numerical data need to be processed, they cannot find deeper connections between events and phenomena, or draw conclusions or generalizations. Their development is relatively time-consuming and costly, so only large media organizations and news agencies can procure such software.

USE OF INTELLIGENT SOFTWARE TO CREATE CONTENT AND ITS IMPLEMENTATION IN EDITORIAL PRACTICE

"Robots" are applied in particular where large amounts of data need to be processed (sports, economy, statistics, etc.), thanks to which journalists can save time. Their next advantage is that they work rather fast and without errors. This allows news people to focus on analyizng or commenting on events that require the necessary resources to be studied. They will also find assertion in news agencies that make thousands of texts a day.

At present, many media companies and news agencies have been experimenting with the usage of artificial intelligence to process data and produce short reports. Automated journalism is applied in practice by the editors of the German titles *Bild* and *Die Welt*, especially in the creation of sports news. Mathias Doepher, the General Director of the media house Axel Springer said that the emergence of robo-journalism and texts constructed by artificial intelligence does not pose a threat to current journalists. In his words, there will come to an opposite effect in the journalistic era, which is the growth of work efficiency and origin of new jobs [7].

In the *British Press Association*, one of the largest providers of multimedia information and services in the United Kingdom, there is a team of journalists and software engineers whose task is to experiment and develop robo-journalism. For example, researchers wish to know if journalists can distinguish a text produced by artificial intelligence from the text written by a reporter. According to the director P. Clifton, the contents created by artificial intelligence appear not only on the Web, but also in the press. He favours the idea that robo-journalism supports journalistic profession since it allows generation and analysis of large volumes of data in the short term, although he admits the possibility of making errors. For instance, the American title *The Los Angeles Times* reported on an earthquake with a magnitude of 6.8 in 2014, however it was actually a 1925 record. *Press Association* produces about 30,000 reports every month through intelligent software [8]. They are also used by *Reuters* news agency and the American daily *The New York Times*.

Nevertheless, not only software companies and media houses pay attention to the development of this segment of the newspaper world. In 2010, at the American Columbia Journalism School, the Tow Centre for Digital Journalism was set up to provide journalists with knowledge and skills in the field of digital journalism while serving as a research and development centre. One area of research for this centre is the field of robo-journalism [9].

As far as the Central Europe is concerned, the *Czech News Agency* (ČTK) has become a pioneer in the application of automatic reporting machines, when it was first used in the processing of municipal elections held in the Czech Republic in October 2018. The role of the software was to help editors and reporters at transcribing data from the Czech Statistical Office so that when the Office published the election results, the automatic machine put it in a ready-made template and sent it to the editorial team for review. The purpose of this system was to try to eliminate human mistakes and facilitate the work of journalists. According to J. Kodera, the

technical director of ČTK, the development of artificial intelligence algorithms will definitely lead to the fact that generated texts will not be distinguishable from handwritten ones. We even believe that in the future, texts prepared by the machine could be better. In fact, a computer can work with a much larger database. Another question is, however, the choice of topics and how they are sorted out. Machine-based processing can significantly help, but the role of human in this respect will be still irreplaceable [10].

And with regard to the impact of the editors´ work and their competences, J. Kodera distinguishes between the different uses of the automatic machines: In case of the implementation of templates, they are prepared by more or less specially trained editors who also liaise with IT staff. However, if a specifically focused algorithm is used (e.g. to make reports from sports events), then most of human work will focus on the phase of its development and preparation. In the case of our election pilot project, in our editorial office we prepared templates in several versions for each type of report and code lists, which included, for instance, political subjects, municipalities and other data. Data processing was managed by IT staff and the generated items then went through standard editorial procedures like any other news reports. [11]

The implementation of the artificial intelligence in the process of news reporting production naturally opens the debate on the author as such. Journalism represents a creative activity, and its outputs are results of a human´s intellectual creative activity. A. Tušer and Z. Kresák Kamenská define the author as an individual who has created a journalistic, literary, scientific or artistic piece. The product is their intellectual work that comes under copyright protection. They also emphasize that in the media products, the authors are perceived differently, depending on the nature of the media, stylistic and genre aspects, or their stance to the contend being rendered. Thus, we may talk about an editor, correspondent, publicist, blogger, etc. [12]

According to Section 13 of the Copyright Law, the author is a natural person who created a piece of work, or whose name and surname appear on the composition, or a person who after the expiration of the property rights will issue a previously unpublished work, and by that publication they exercise property rights to the work [13].

These definitions thus consider the author to be the creator of the work that may be of different nature. However, they also emphasize the creative potential of the origin of the composition, i.e. taking appropriate action to produce the piece of work. Naturally, discussions about software-generated communications evoke the question of their authorship and the extent of the creative potential, by means of which they were made. For example, several critics fear that media contents created by robots loose "humanity", and they have expressed concern about potential manipulation of the contents by intelligent computer programmes. This issue involves considerably broader connotations, for instance, in the light of citizen – amateur journalism, which has emerged with the arrival of the Internet and mobile technologies. Suddenly anyone who can write, take pictures or film has become an editor, reporter, screenwriter, director, camera operator or photographer. However, we still do not

have a satisfactory answer to the question of who may be considered as a citizen, or amateur journalist.

VIRTUAL REALITY AND 360-DEGREE VIDEOS AS NEW FORMS OF NEWS CONTENTS

Several news media, such as *The New York Times*, *The Huffington* or *The Guardian* have started to make a 360-degree video (also called immersive or spherical video) in order to more effectively take advantage of the popularity of social and mobile media. The era of virtual reality and immersive videos is the transition from informedness towards stories. The audience enters a virtual scenario, which is represented by a "journalistic story". However, in order to engage journalists into these innovative forms, they need to master production, film mode, video editing and video graphics. It is still unclear when the users will be willing to pay for these forms of reporting and vice versa, whether advertisers will support this form of processing.

Reuters carried out a study on how virtual reality began to be applied in news reporting and online journalism. Based on the results of the survey, they came to an opinion that the majority of the news institutions promote a 360-degree video. Some editors are of the opinion that a spherical video is a better and cheaper alternative than virtual reality [14]. According to journalists, it is too early to judge the views of the audience, as people have a vague understanding of virtual reality and have only started to explore this area. In their view, the audience´s experience is inadequate in this field. On the contrary, 360-degree cameras along with their virtual equivalents allow the user to be editorially passive. They can add presenters into the camera or otherwise get integrated, for example, by text overlay, sound or motion. Cameras with 360-degree interface can frustrate the viewer, but on the other hand they open up quite broad possibilities. This type of innovation focuses not only on the event, but also on the internal, more personal experience. At some moments, for instance, we can look at things from different angles of the creator themselves.

The implementation of these technologies into the editorial practice is time-consuming and costly not only for the media, but also for the viewer, which may lead to limited availability of such created reports. Neither virtual reality nor immersive videos will replace television, the press or radio, though they can bring more new opportunities and challenges to the development of these media in the future. Media and journalists should be aware that these practices open on to stronger competition and the ability to attract users. At the same time, it is a challenge for journalists who ought to start implementing social networks to create new strategies and opportunities.

CONCLUSION

Despite tentative reactions that the application of the automatic machines and the intelligent software for the production of news contents causes, it may be said that it is one of the most progressively developing fields. Of course, putting it into practice requires relatively high financial inputs. On the other hand, the successful operation of the "robots" in journalism may result in the speed of publishing contents and

eliminating the occurrence of erroneous data. However, as the technical director of ČTK J. Kodera stated, in the case of robo-journalism this is not a technological boom or revolution, but one of the natural directions of the newspaper world development: For years we have been automatically creating lists of events, publishing updated graphical visualizations and last year we prepared election results reports to speed up the reporting of the election returns.... Other world news agencies or other media are currently working on similar projects, as well. We exchange experience with our colleagues [15]. However, managements of media houses also face new challenges, and in the case of broader and successful implementation of robots they will be forced to consider the transformation of the personnel policy. It is also vital for journalists to acquire the important skills to be able to work with robots and use them to their advantage.

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THE EXPLANATORY POWER OF SYSTEMIC LINGUISTICS OF G.P.MELNIKOV FOR INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

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ABSTRACT

The article attempts to explain the features of the phenomenon of euroscepticism typical for the countries of Central and Eastern Europe (Visegrad group -Poland, Czech Republic,Slovakia,Hungary) based on linguistic methods of research. This approach is due to the close relationship of ethno-cultural and value elements that manifest themselves ambiguously in the international field, and expressed mainly through language. System-typological concept of the language of the outstanding linguist, philosopher, culturologist and Cybernetics, G. P. Melnikov, who developed the ideas of V. von Humboldt, A.A. Potebna, I.A. Baudouin de Courtenay proposes to allocate the main characteristic or the main feature of the language (determinant) , depending on how the communication function. Such a determinant, that is, the leading grammatical trend in the linguistic consciousness of the Indo-European peoples is the presentation of any plan according to the scheme of the developing event. This form is most developed in the Slavic languages, as the language technique that helps to preserve the inflection depends on the size of the language group, its homogeneity and the length of the information transmission chains, which provided the experience of settled agricultural Slavic peoples inhabiting the plains of Europe.

The change in the ethno-cultural landscape associated with the influx of migrants meant recognition of the need to find new strategies in relation to migrants and the resulting cultural, linguistic and religious heterogeneity of the population. At the same time, it exacerbated the confrontation between the "supranational structure" - "national state", the EU – member States, showing disappointment in mutual expectations. The phenomenon of euroscepticism, formed in the countries of the "Visegrad group", often defined as populism and known by statements of politicians and precedent texts broadcasted through the media, should be considered in connection with the system of values developed by the centuries-old way, and fixed oral and written tradition in the languages of these countries.

The protagonists of euroscepticism under the pressure of the population declare the protection of morality, religion, traditional family and criticize same-sex marriage, sex education, liberal interpretation of reproductive rights and quotas for refugees, positioning themselves as an alternative to the liberal project. Based on the systematic approach, which states that the properties of the element included in the structure can be understood only on the basis of its links with other elements of this structure, the authors conclude that the Visegrad four countries represent a mild version of euroscepticism. According to the authors, the most complete reflection of the socio-cultural reality in the consciousness of a native speaker, which can be traced both on the actual grammatical material, and taking into account external factors, provides system linguistics, the main directions of which were outlined by V. von

Humboldt. In Russian linguistics this direction is represented by the works of G. P. Melnikov, whose scientific school is developed by a number of research centers, as well as his students and followers in the RUDN, where G. P. Melnikov taught and wrote the main works.

Keywords: *system linguistics, G. P. Melnikov, Visegrad four, euroscepticism*

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the phenomenon of euroscepticism has gone far beyond social and political debate and is of increasing interest in the scientific community. Having gained supporters in the West and East of Europe, euroscepticism has strengthened political positions not only at the national but also at the European level, which is clearly indicated by the results of the elections to the European Parliament.

The understanding of the problems of euroscepticism by political scientists, economists, experts in the field of international relations has explained much in the nature of this phenomenon, but has not yet led to a unified view of it. Linguistic and linguocultural methods of research, as we think, could enrich the scientific tools and expand the understanding of the problem, so this article attempts to consider the specifics of euroscepticism in Central and Eastern Europe, based on the system linguistics G. P. Melnikov.[9]

An outstanding Russian linguist, anthropologist and cyberneticist, G. P. Mel'nikov, based on the theoretical heritage of V. von Humboldt, and the Russian linguist A. Potebnya's and I. Baudouin de Courtenay and others have developed a systemic-typological concept of the language in which he justified the principle or common notion, providing a "valid understanding of language" and holding "together all particular", to which were dedicated scientific researches of his predecessors. G. P. Melnikov called this common for each language type "source of individual peculiarities" a language determinant. Distinguishing the internal typologically characteristic determinant of language as a system-forming beginning, G. P. Melnikov distinguished the external determinant, explaining it by landscape and climatic conditions of life of language collective and conditions of communication.

METHODS OF RESEARCH

The system method thus acquires explanatory and prognostic potential in relation to the problems of all types of communication, including political. Currently, the system-typological concept of G. P. Melnikov is further developed and tested in the works of his students and associates. The result was, in particular, a collective monograph "System view as the basis of philological thought" [3] of the scientists of the RUDN, where the idea of consistency, as an opportunity to see the object in development, to show the functional interaction of linear and supra-linear relationships, unites the parts of this book addressed to different objects of study. In the perspective of this article the most valuable sections are about the integral value of system linguistics, about the prognostic possibilities of the system approach for modeling the conceptual sphere as a complex semantic object, and the substantiation of the causal typology of texts.

The purpose of this article is to consider the features of euroscepticism in the Visegrad countries. As the material of the study are chosen case texts conveying the statements of political and religious figures of these countries, as well as the works of political scientists, sociologists and economists devoted to the phenomenon of euroscepticism. The methodological basis is the system-typological concept of G. P. Melnikov, his works on Slavic languages, as well as critical discourse analysis. Due to the interdisciplinary nature of this article, G. P. Melnikov's works [9] are considered here as a source, since the role of language in social reality is so great and all-encompassing that representatives of non-linguistic areas of Humanities often take it for granted and therefore unworthy of attention.

The reason for turning to this topic was a paradoxical at first glance situation when four countries recently joined the European Union in 2004, in which the act of accession to the EU was initially perceived with great enthusiasm, formed an opposition and are now opponents of a number of main directions of EU policy. This fact is all the more surprising that over the years these countries – Hungary, Poland, Slovakia and the Czech Republic – have significantly strengthened their economic position and international political weight. The forces that came to power in these countries criticize the European Union, challenge the strategic course of their countries in previous decades, refuse to comply with the norms of economic and social policy approved for the countries of Eastern Europe, and accept refugees from Asia and Africa. It is noteworthy that all this is happening against the background of the actualization of national content and is often accompanied by an appeal to Catholicism and the rhetoric of Christian values. Taking into account the fact that language is the most organic form of manifestation of national and ethno-cultural identity, we decided to consider this international confrontation from the point of view of the science of language.

If we leave aside the political and economic plan of the conflict and focus on the socio-cultural aspect that distinguishes the Visegrad countries in the EU, the first thing that catches the eye is the linguistic and cultural characteristics. With the exception of Hungary, where the Slavic composition of the population is also slightly represented, these are Slavic countries. Slavic languages, having a high degree of similarity, retained such a linguistic characteristic as inflection. To a greater or lesser extent, this quality is inherent in all language groups of the Indo-European family, however, as convincingly showed G. P. Melnikov, to Slavic languages this quality is inherent in the highest degree.[9] The peculiarity of the semantics of Slavic languages within the Indo-European family, associated with a high degree of inflection was noticed by Russian linguists at the end of the X1X of the early twentieth century.

It is clear that any natural language draws a trail of cultural and historical associations. Even individual words, or rather, the concepts they express, have archetypal and cultural-stereotypical meanings. Accordingly, the texts created within a particular culture in a particular language are full of ethno-cultural and ethno-linguistic material, such as symbols, allusions, realities, idioms, common metaphors, proverbs, sayings, etc. Each text contains an assessment of the material under discussion, hiding ideologies and mythologies, forming our archetypes, stereotypes, or concepts. Cultural and ideological charge of language and speech was not ignored by the domestic linguistics. A. A. Potebnya paid attention to the influence of the

"inner form of the word", which carries a symbolic load and affects the meaning of objects and phenomena of reality; the mythological, psychological, and sociological aspects of the language were considered by I. A. Baudouin de Courtenay.

Research in the field of systemic linguistics and systemic typology, conducted by G. P. Melnikov, allowed to conclude that the typological peculiarity of the languages depends, first of all, on the scheme of integral image through which a native speaker is trying to hint to the other party on the intention of his utterance, or in other words, what is the schema of the nominative sense of typical expressions in the given language. The scientist proved that this scheme is the internal form of the language as a whole as a defining typological feature of it, as its internal determinant. In the modern wording, it sounds like the adaptation of all units and all levels of the language system to express the possible purpose of any statements using the sentence, the nominative meaning which is constructed according to the scheme of the developing events.[9]

The disclosure of the internal form of inflectional languages as a scheme of events allowed to explain the stability of the category of genus and category of case. In all inflectional Slavic languages, where the external determinant, that is, the most typical conditions of communication, did not prevent the members of a large homogeneous settled language group to have sufficiently reliable opportunities for mutual communication, there was a high level of community of socially significant knowledge and relations to the phenomena of reality.

The usual practice of communication has contributed to the development of techniques that can help the listener to guess what the speaker will tell him next, based on what has already been said. To do this, he organizes his speech on all tiers and levels as possible so that the interlocutor could at least guess from the already heard what can and what can not appear in the subsequent part of the speech flow. These techniques developed and were fixed in the process of formation of the inflectional language in the area of its distribution, where agriculture remained the basis for the existence of native speakers, that is, first of all, in the area of Eastern European settlement of the Slavs.

Therefore, the relationship between the components of the speech flow in inflectional languages is often characterized as "warning" (as if a look into the future), and in agglutinative — "reminiscent" (as if a look into the past). Modern system typology of languages substantiates the position of equal intellectual perfection of all language systems in the world. The reason for the difference in language technique is the ratio of only such factors that favor or hinder successful speech communication in the most typical cases for the people. The main of these parameters are: the size of the language group, the degree of its uniformity, the length of the information transmission chains, the presence or absence of large intervals between "sessions" of communication.

In light of the above, it is legitimate to assume that the stability of the language system, intact preserved in the dramatic twists and turns of the many thousands of years of history of the Slavic peoples, should be reflected in the field of ethno-cultural

and political axiology. And in this regard, it is appropriate to pay attention to the fact that euroscepticism is often characterized as a kind of populism. Without going into the analysis of the advantages and disadvantages of populism, we emphasize that this ideology by definition has a wide social resource. This observation is important from the perspective of our article, as it explains to a certain extent the process of transformation of the political elites of the Visegrad four countries from the moment of formation to the present time. Let us recall that the joint Declaration signed in Visegrad on 15.02.1991, then by 3 other countries – Hungary, Poland and Czechoslovakia - declared the desire for integration into European structures. [4]

In 2004, the Visegrad four countries were admitted to the EU and, approaching their 30th anniversary, [6] achieved all the goals previously set: they introduced a market economy and democratic institutions, joined the EU and NATO, but the achieved successes have created mass disappointment, under the influence of which the political elites of these countries articulate claims and criticism of the EU. According to Eurostat, the largest growth of real GDP(Gross domestic product) among the EU countries is observed today in Poland (5%) and Hungary (4.4%). And in these same countries in power are the rebels, rejecting the current course of development of Europe and trying to reconsider its place in it. [10]

The ideological palette of the protagonists of eurocentrism is characterized by a radical change in semantic accents, in particular, the delegation of sovereignty to supranational authorities is interpreted by them as a loss of independence, and the emigration of the population to Western Europe from the advantage of the right of free movement begins to be perceived as a threat to the existence of the nation.

Indicative in this respect is the position of the Polish party "Law and Justice" (IPR), whose leader Y. Kaczynski, without abandoning belonging to the Western world, the Union with the United States, as well as membership in NATO and the EU, denies the country's achievements and calls the past quarter century the era of missed opportunities. The ideal Polish state, according to the ideologists of the party, should finally be freed not only from the negative heritage of the socialist past, but also from the dubious values of liberal society acquired over the past twenty years. In its political practice, the party opposes neoliberal European values and Polish ones based on Christian traditions.[13] Among the program requirements of the party - the constitutional consolidation of the Christian basis of the nation, the sovereignty of the country at the international level and full support for the traditional family.[1]

Perhaps the most sensitive topic, which caused a cooling in relations between the EU and the Visegrad countries, was the topic of values, directly related to the historical and modern existence of living languages. The Bulgarian researcher of the ideology of Euroscepticism as an antipode to Europeanism, G. Georgiev, cites the statement of the leader of the right-wing conservative Hungarian party "Jobbik", G. Vaughn, who explains the rejection of both the past communist and the current capitalist reality: "...coming out of the "anti-value" world of communism, [the countries of Central Europe] fell into the capitalist reality with its value vacuum". [5]

This statement indicates that "Return to the West" was perceived by the population of Central European countries not only as a departure from Communist ideology, but also as a return to culture based on traditional Christian values, so the young Europeans are not ready to accept liberal norms of tolerance for same-sex marriage, abortion, and extreme secularism. In contrast to Western Europe, in the Visegrad countries, these sentiments are already turning into the mainstream and setting the tone for domestic political life.[5]

At the same time, we consider it necessary to emphasize that the Hungarian Prime Minister, V. Orban, maintaining a critical distance in relation to the EU migration policy,[11]

does not reject the expediency of Hungary's membership in the EU , although disagrees with the position of the European Union. Earlier, in 2014, Orban publicly expressed his preference for models of government in China, Russia, India, Turkey and Singapore, focusing on tradition, patriotism, morality, religion and family, which immediately provoked a wave of sharp criticism from foreign commentators.[14][5]

In the Czech Republic and Slovakia, parties that support patriotism, morality, religion and the traditional family also win, and all parties in the Slovak Parliament agree that Slovakia will not accept migrants. Both countries refused to support the call of the European Commission to approve the UN Migration Pact.[8]

However, the possibility of leaving the EU is not seriously discussed, despite the calls of M. Zeman to hold a referendum in the Czech Republic. A similar situation is observed in other countries of the Visegrad four. Thus, in this case we are talking about a "soft" version of euroscepticism, although the values professed by the majority of the population of the countries and tensions of national content come into sharp conflict with the dominant ideological attitude of the EU.

It is difficult to overestimate the importance of the religious component for the Central European countries. Adherence to the tradition of religion is explained by the fact that in the Slavic countries of the Visegrad group, as well as in Hungary, there is an ingrained understanding that they are the shield of Christian Europe. Indeed, during the raids of the Turks, when Hungary, Silesia and part of Austria were captured in 1683, the capital Vienna was saved by the troops of the Polish king Jan Sobieski. Since then, Poland and Hungary have called themselves the "protective shaft" of Christianity in Europe. This concept is so firmly entrenched in the collective consciousness of Poles and Hungarians that even today the Hungarian Catholic Bishop Laszlo kiss-Rigaud called the migration crisis a "Muslim invasion" and called to resist it, and the Polish Archbishop Henrik Hozer, for his part, warned against "Islamization of Europe".[7]

Note that in this case, both representatives of the Catholic clergy represent primarily national and not religious interests, because following the calls of the current Pontiff, Francis I, they would have to move in line with the migration policy of the EU.[12]

The tension of confrontation between religious-confessional and linguacultural lines is also present in other linguistic zones of the European continent, having a specific configuration and prerequisites, as we wrote about.[2]

CONCLUSION

The manifestations of euroscepticism discussed in this article, the most famous of the descriptions of analysts and media broadcasts taking place in the countries of Central Europe, United in the Visegrad group, allow us to draw the following conclusions.

The main prerequisite for the differences of euroscepticism in the West and East of Europe is the historical experience of peoples, embodied in the oral and written traditions of living languages. New EU members from the former socialist bloc remained committed to the idea of a national state and traditional social institutions in the form of the Church and the family, which have lost much influence in the West. The authors of the article tend to see the reason for this phenomenon in the specific characteristic of Slavic languages, presented on the basis of the system-typological concept of G. P. Melnikov.

Analyzing and comparing the development of the languages of the Indo-European family, the scientist proved the possibility of the emergence and preservation of the inflection of the language among the agricultural Slavic peoples, who inhabited the plains of the continent, whose languages today demonstrate the maximum degree of this quality. The doctrine of the determinant as the leading grammatical trend in the linguistic consciousness of the Indo-European peoples, outlining any plan according to the scheme of the developing event, brings us to the understanding of the confrontation along the line of "supranational structure" - "national state", the EU – member States, showing disappointment in mutual expectations and hopes. The rejection of Communist ideology was understood in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe as the restoration of national independence, so the rejection of the imperative of national interest is unacceptable for them. The neoliberal doctrine presented by the EU, on the contrary, does not consider the degradation of the national state as a negative phenomenon and, in contrast, puts forward the supranational bodies of the EU.

The change in the ethno-cultural landscape associated with the influx of migrants meant recognition of the need to find new strategies in relation to migrants and the resulting cultural, linguistic and religious heterogeneity of the population. The EU's demand for the allocation of quotas for the reception of refugees showed the problem of euroscepticism in a different perspective, with particular acuteness denoting the religious and value component. Representatives of the political elites of the Visegrad countries publicly defended the Christian religion – especially Catholic Poland and Hungary, categorically refusing to support the policy of "open doors", declaring the protection of morality, and the traditional family. The fact that the representatives of the Church hierarchy of these countries actually defended the national and ethno-cultural identity of their flock, opposing the General line of Pope Francis, once again confirms the predominance of national content over the confessional one.

Therefore, the phenomenon of euroscepticism, formed in the countries of the "Visegrad group", often defined as populism, it is advisable to consider in connection with the system of values enshrined in the oral and written tradition inherent in national languages. Protection of morality, religion, traditional family, as well as criticism of same-sex marriage, sex education, liberal interpretation of reproductive rights, quotas for refugees is the result of centuries-old historical practice of settled agricultural peoples of the European plain, which developed simultaneously with the languages and to some extent determined the specificity of these languages. Thus, according to the authors, the linguistic and cultural characteristics should be taken into account in the analysis of the Genesis of the political ideology of euroscepticism along with the scientific tools of related Humanities. Based on the systematic approach, which States that the properties of the element included in the structure can be understood only on the basis of its links with other elements of this structure, the authors share the view that the Visegrad four countries represent a mild version of euroscepticism. Opposing the liberal project of the EU under pressure from the population of their countries, representatives of euroscepticism of Poland, the Czech Republic, Slovakia and Hungary do not discuss the issue of withdrawal from the EU, what is different from supporters of euroscepticism of the European core and England.

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THE OUTLINE OF THE QUANTITATIVE ONTOLOGY FOR RUSSIAN PREPOSITIONAL CONSTRUCTIONS

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ABSTRACT

The dependency grammars for such languages as Russian usually treat the prepositions in combination with subordinate nouns as major elements as if the case form in the prepositional construction had some self-contained meaning subjected to the regular transformation. This scheme may be valid for languages with restricted declensional paradigms, however, in Russian due to the fact that several case forms are combined with primary prepositions the specific system of joint interpretation of a preposition and a case form is resulted in a system of syntaxemes, minimal syntactical items designed to express semantic notions according to the lexical nature of the governor words in the texts.

The syntaxeme structure being the part of the grammatical system has a number of vague manifestations in modern Russian texts which may be acquired from the corpus statistics. The evidences of syntaxeme structure are presented in the ranks of collocations with rough semantic classes of governee nouns with frequent primary prepositions, on the one hand, and the semantico-syntactic role specification of the prepositional construction in the sentence, from the other hand.

This structure has several levels of syntactic abstraction. The syntaxeme level is the central layer showing the most frequent combinations of prepositions with noun forms of subordinate semantic classes. Several syntaxemes may be united into the group of so-called semantic rubrics, more or less equal to the semantico-syntactic arguments or roles of the construction in the sentence. The witnesses of semantic rubrics in the texts are usually expressed by secondary prepositions. The bottom level of syntaxeme units is determined by subtle sense variants of the construction produced by the marked semantic classes of governor words of prepositions and governee nouns, which resulted in the merged synonymic and quasi-synonymic usage of prepositional constructions.

Keywords: prepositional construction, Russian language, corpus statistics, syntaxeme, prepositional meaning

INTRODUCTION

The paper presents the preliminary stage and further guidelines for quantitative ontology of Russian prepositional constructions. This prepositional ontology is usually investigated in terms of semantic roles assigned to prepositional phrases [1]. However, the absence of prepositional meanings in the semantic annotation leads to parallel series of prepositional frequencies along with that of semantic roles marked up in the annotated corpora (e.g. PropBank). All we can conclude from them: they

are different. The use of data from annotated prepositional meanings [2] has another deficiency – the scarcity of representative bulk of data instances.

In Russian the extra factor is added: primary prepositions are combined with several case forms, that increases the combinatorial effect for prepositional expressions due to the shift of the typical syntactic usage for the nominal case forms, which may be totally different or have vague traces of the primary meaning. We use the concept of syntaxeme [4] as a minimal syntactic prepositional construction. This item can not be split into the sum of preposition's meaning and that of the noun case form. It acts as the syntactico-morphological function, which interprets the whole construction having its particular meaning dependent on semantic types of governee nouns and governor words if used. The notion of syntaxeme [3] was defined in the functional direction of traditional linguistic analysis, so we redefine it inside our own quantitative corpus approach.

We developed the procedure for describing the continuum of prepositional meanings [4] basing on the corpus data starting from the bottom – textual analysis of sense distribution for a small group of frequent primary prepositions in random context samples from different corpora. The semantic class of governee nouns in the construction with some specific prepositional meaning is typically conveyed by frequent lexemes from these classes, so-called class-representatives. Sometimes they are top-level hypernyms from the WordNet basic concepts hierarchy, though lexemes with another semantic status are also mentioned in [5]. Anyway these lexemes are used in order to fix prototypical contexts for some particular syntaxeme specification.

Other primary prepositions may appear in prototypical contexts organizing the ranked list on the basis of the corpus frequency, which depends on the functional and thematic text balance in the source corpus in question. It is necessary to stress that syntaxeme involving primary prepositions has the grammatical nature, which is proved by high corpus frequency – several decimal exponents bigger than highest lexical corpus frequencies (for example 2500 IPM (instances found per million corpus tokens) versus 300) – and intricate inconsistency of prepositional synonymy in combination with particular nouns. Moreover, a syntaxeme may be expressed in the lexical form with a help of so-called secondary prepositions. Usually lexicalized forms are less frequent, less intricate, and have a variety of textual nuances. For example, the temporal syntaxeme of the particular period or moment of time is expressed by preposition "в" ('in') plus the locative or prepositional case form for nouns denoting months and years: *в 1999 году* ('in 1999'), *в августе* ('in August'), but for nouns denoting day of the week or the time of day the accusative noun form is used: *в пятницу* ('on Friday'), *в 10 часов* ('at 10 o'clock'), the lexicalized variants being numerous: <u>*во время*</u> *войны* ('during war'), <u>*в период*</u> *беременности* ('during pregnancy'), <u>*в момент*</u> *опасности* ('at the moment of danger'), <u>*во времена*</u> *крестовых походов* ('during the crusades'). Usually the problem of grammatical nature of secondary prepositions is treated as unresolvable: there are pros and cons, however, all of them form the list of potential grammatical units, which may "cross the frequency threshold" and become the authentic member of the syntaxeme expressors. We can see the results of grammaticalization: the ablative form of the noun *посредством* ('by means of') is used in the mediative syntaxeme with corpus frequency 19 IPM whereas the noun *посредство* ('instrumentality') does not exceed

0,01 IPM. The last stage of grammaticalization is usually fixed in orthography: *в течение года* ('during a year'); *несмотря на непогоду* ('despite the bad weather').

CORE GROUP OF RUSSIAN PRIMARY PREPOSITIONS

The core group of Russian primary prepositions may be set by two methods. The first one is based on the traditional linguistic approach. There are a group of primary prepositions which are proved or considered to be the heritage of the mutual Slavonic stratum. We may see parallel correspondences in various Slavonic languages. In some works it is hinted that there were several conventional ways of expressing semantic roles. For example, for the semantic role "addressee" of communication [6] we see two case forms: dative (*сказать/ отвечать/ возразить соседу* 'to say/ answer/ object to a neighbor') and accusative (*известить/ ругать соседа* 'to notify/ scold a neighbor'), and 3 prepositional: <"на" + accusative> (*ворчать/ ругаться на соседа* 'grumble on/ curse at the neighbor'), <"к" + dative> (*взывать/ приставать к соседу* 'to appeal to/ pester a neighbor'), <"до" + genitive (*дозвониться до соседа* 'to call a neighbor'). As a matter of fact there two additional prepositional phrases for communication addressee specification: <"с" + ablative> (*разговаривать/ договориться с соседом* 'to talk/ negotiate with a neighbor'), <"у" + genitive> (*спросить/ выпрашивать у соседа* 'to ask /beg a neighbor').

Primary prepositions from the ancient group have counterpart prefixes, which modify the verbal stem and with a strong probability predict the appearance of the governed prepositional phrase with the same preposition (*войти в дом* 'to enter the house'; *заползти за куст* 'to crawl over a bush') or that with the same meaning (*выйти из дома* 'to to get out of the house'; *перепрыгнуть через куст* 'to jump over a bush'). This "frame" construction on the large scale describe the appearance of many prepositional phrases which are governees of verbs, mainly travel verbs and other semantic groups.

We will follow the second method for picking up the core group which is based on the corpus statistics. It is well known that two Russian prepositions "в" ('in') and "на" ('on') are the upmost frequency leaders. However, the frequency differentiation concerning periods of literary and publicistic texts from [7] show the substantial variability (see Fig. 1).

Fig. 1. *Frequency variation in literary and publicistic text subcorpora from three time periods for the ten most frequent prepositions [7].*
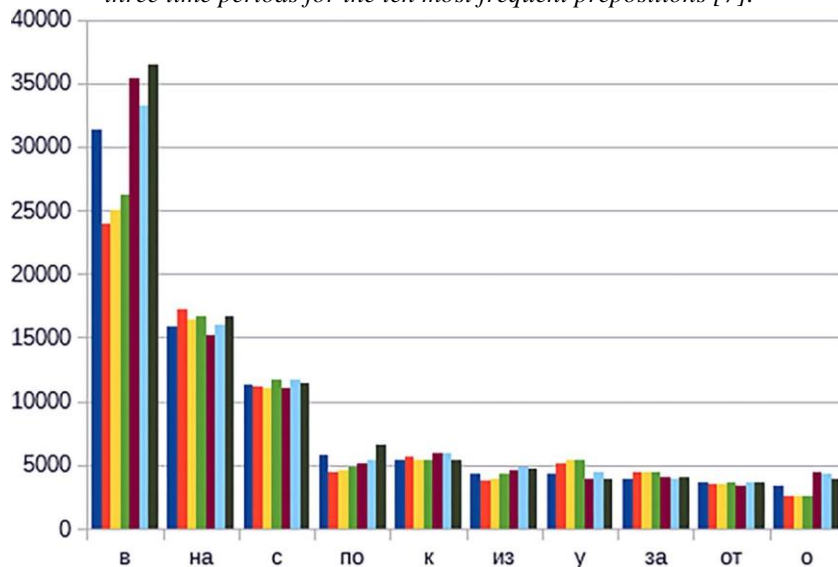
Prepositions: "в" ('in'), "на" ('on'), "с" ('with'), "по" ('by'), "к" ('to'), "из" ('from'), "у" ('at'), "за" ('behind'), "от" ('from'), "о" ('about').

The order of columns and their colors: 1. dark blue – total,
literary: 2. red – 1950-60s, 3. yellow – 1970-80s, 4. green – 1990-2000s;
publicistic: 5. brawn – 1950-60s, 6. light blue – 1970-80s, 7.dark green – 1990-2000s.

It is seen from the Fig.1 that the most frequent preposition "в" ('in') has the biggest variation, however, its corpus frequency exceeds others anyway. Prepositions with the second "на" ('on') and the third rank "с" ('with') vary less and surpass frequencies of other top 7, which may change its rank in different subcorpora. For example, "по" ('by') gives way to "к" ('to') and "у" ('at') in literary texts of the 1950-60ties. We assign ranks to frequencies in different subcorpora in order to highlight their variations (see Table 1 below).

It is easy to see that corpus frequencies of medium frequent prepositions (from rank 4 to 10) are subjected to variation in texts with communicative goals) and topics discussed. It will be more obvious for less frequent prepositions (with rank equal and less than 11). The frequency variation of primary and secondary prepositions will be the issue of the future research. We take this group in order to demonstrate technique developed in our project.

Table 1. *Ranks for 10 the most frequent prepositions in literary and publicistic subcorpora on the base [7].*

Preposition	Total	1950-60s	Literary 1950-60s	1970-80s	1990-2000s	1950-60s	1970-80s	1990-2000s
			Literary			Publicistic		
в	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,0
на	2,0	2,0	2,0	2,0	2,0	2,0	2,0	2,0
с	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,0	3,0
по	4,0	4,0	6,5	6,0	6,0	5,0	5,0	4,0
к	5,5	5,5	4,0	4,5	4,5	4,0	4,0	5,0
из	5,5	5,5	8,0	8,0	8,0	6,0	6,0	6,0
у	7,0	7,0	5,0	4,5	4,5	9,0	7,0	9,0
за	8,0	8,0	6,5	7,0	7,0	8,0	9,0	7,5
от	9,0	9,0	9,0	9,0	9,0	10,0	10,0	10,0
о	10,0	10,0	10,0	10,0	10,0	7,0	8,0	7,5

Fractional ranks (such as 6,5 and similar) denote that the frequency difference for two prepositions is less than a possible statistical error, so both have the same rank.

ANNOTATION TAGS FOR PREPOSITIONAL MEANINGS

The prepositional construction is viewed in Russian grammatical tradition after [8] as a chain of two pairs of "governor-governee": the first pair connects the full word with a preposition, the second – a preposition and a noun case form. We stress in the introduction that this point of view is inappropriate for the idea of syntaxeme. The opposite attitude which reverses the link between the preposition and a noun has another mismatch because interpretation of the same pair "preposition-noun" may vary according to the semantics of the governor word in the prepositional construction (examples follow). So we postulate that the syntaxeme is attached to its governor as a whole component and an entire unit is interpreted with semantic tags of different level of specification.

G.Zolotova [3] mentioned two types of syntaxemes: bound and free ones. We supposed that all prepositional construction are bound. In case of absence in the context a governor word, as is the case in the title of the play by M.Gorky "На дне" ('On the Bottom') which denotes something like "being in the state" where "bottom" is understood metaphorically as "the environment of the declassed descended people". Another pseudo-free prepositional construction is very natural in Russian: *в лесу много снега* ('there is a lot of snow in the forest'). The locative at the beginning describes the situation in which the proposition is fulfilled or exists. We don't want to insert imaginary predicates such as *exist, happen*, etc, we may consider that there is one from the top of the semantic predicate's taxonomy.

G.Zolotova's taxonomy [3] of syntaxemes was designed for the special goals of the functional approach to syntactic analysis. Some syntaxemes resemble semantic

arguments or roles in various paradigms [2] though they were invented in the earlier period (the first edition of Zolotova's conception appeared in 1988). It was an attempt to grasp specific syntactic fundamental quality of noun case forms as well as prepositional phrases. However, straightforward use of Zolotova's syntaxemes leads in some cases to the conflict in interpretation, which was shown in the dictionary itself. We understand that several syntaxemes tend to overlap and organize a group with mutual semantic component, so we assign this group to the **semantic rubric**. For example, Locative (*гулять в лесу* 'to have a walk in the forest'), Directive (*пойти в лес* 'to go to the forest') and Transitive (*бродить по лесу* 'to wander through the woods') syntaxemes have a common constituent stressing the Localization of some event. At the same time we see that prepositional constructions mentioned as realizations of one syntaxeme are not interchangeable, as they have particular meanings. For example, a number of constructions put into Temporative syntaxeme have its particular meanings: the preposition "до" ('until') indicates a limit of time duration or that of an event: *до пятого марта* ('until March 5'), *до отъезда* ('until departure'). Another variant is the specification of the duration of some time interval: "*от… до*", "*с… до*": *от 12 до 15 лет/ с 12 до 15 лет* ('from 12 to 15 years'). The time lapse before the beginning of some period or event may be shown by construction "*за… до*": *за день до встречи* ('a day before meeting'). There are quite a number of other variants, and the same is valid for Locative syntaxeme. This variety may be described from the logical point of view starting from the locomotion in the three-dimensional space and after this model the moments and periods of time are structured. These variants are **syntaxeme's subtypes**.

Some prepositional constructions denoting the same thing use different morpho-syntactic schemes, which separate the denoting objects into two or more groups. The most obvious example of this division is use of frequent prepositions "в" ('in') and "на" ('on') in Locative syntaxeme. The idea of localization of some event or state in a place is expressed more often [4000 IPM] with "в" ('in'): *сидеть/ работать в саду/ комнате* ('to sit/ work in the garden/ room') and less often [2500 IPM] with "на" ('on'): *сидеть/ работать на стуле/ полу* ('to sit/ work on a chair/ floor'). The opposition of meanings between "в" ('in') and "на" ('on') in this syntaxeme is usually described by the three-dimensional type of the concrete object designated by the dependent noun and the idea of possible inclusion into its inner space for the former, and the idea of contiguity and support for the latter [9]. Some objects designated in the locative syntaxeme may give the both opportunities and thus used with two prepositions: *в столе/ на столе* ('in/inside the table' / 'on [the surface of] the table'), but very often there is the only one possibility: *в городе* ('in the town'), *на полу* ('on the floor'). Sometimes the division is fulfilled on the base of the linguistic ethno-specific classification, and we see controversial object specification in different languages: *на дереве* ('in the tree'), *на улице* ('in the street', Czech 'v ulici') and suchlike. Anyway this division gives grounds for syntaxeme's subtypes as well.

So we use for tagging the hierarchical system with topmost semantic rubrics, then corrected set of syntaxemes, and then detailed level of syntaxeme subtypes. This tagging groups correlate with corpus frequencies of realization in texts. As we show in the previous section that exact frequency values predispose to alter according to stylistics and thematic text specificity, then we will find out the perceptible dissimilarity between frequencies observed. We assume that on the higher levels of

the syntaxeme's system the main impact is produced by the grammatical resource in contrast to the lexicalized and more logic level of syntaxeme's subtypes. The grammatical features are not purely conscious [10] that explain some logical discrepancies mentioned above in examples. We will use the idea of grammatical structuring proposed by R.Jackobson [11] that there is an opposition between the marked *indicative* grammatical category specifying some feature and its unmarked counterpart which may express opposite feature on a par with that of the indicative's. For corpus statistics this idea has a by-product: unmarked categories are more frequent than indicative ones due to the partial ambivalent use. The surplus is not identical to the original amount but about its half so the proportion of realization of indicative and unmarked grammatical features roughly will be equal to 1:1,5. The difference of frequencies in this case is rather evident.

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

In this paper we present preliminary results of our research aiming at construction of the quantitative grammar of prepositional construction based on statistics from corpora of modern Russian texts. Its first stage requires the specification of ontological concepts used for structuring these multifaceted set. We put as a foundation a set of syntactico-morphological units – syntaxemes – which represent a union of a preposition and a noun case form with its particular meaning attached to some real or implied governor word. Syntaxemes with a mutual semantic component are grouped into semantic rubrics. Notions from both levels are interpreted as grammatical representation of pertinent meaningful oppositions with some marked member and its ambivalent counterpart in Jakobson's sense. Oppositions are reflected in the corpus statistics augmenting substantially the corpus frequency of the ambivalent unit, which may be used for prepositional construction alignment and figuring out their hierarchy. The example of such frame is shown in the paper "Prepositional Grammar Component for Syntactic and Lexical Disambiguation in Russian Based on Corpus Statistics" in this volume.

Syntaxemes are further subjected to the more logical classification producing syntaxemes's subtypes which have a lexical origin, may be expressed with a help of secondary prepositions, and are infrequent usually.

It is shown in the paper that corpus frequencies are affected by stylistics and thematic balance of the corpus processed. The more precise data on this issue will be obtained in a series of planed experiments with variation of communication goals of the text and a number of topics presented.

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UNIQUE FEATURES OF THE NOMINAL MORPHOLOGICAL SYSTEMS IN THE EASTERN DIALECTS OF KHANTY

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents results of a study aiming at identifying unique features in the system of morphological markers of the noun in four idioms of Eastern Khanty (Vakh, Vasyugan, Surgut and Salym). The analysis focuses on the paradigms of three nominal categories: number, possession, and case. It draws on the linguistic data obtained from various grammars of Khanty written over the period from the nineteenth century to the present time. The analysis also incorporates the field data obtained during research trips to the speakers of the Vakh-Vasyugan idiom. The findings point to the fact that the differences are either morphological or phonological, and are sometimes of debatable nature.

Keywords: Eastern Khanty, morphology, number, possession, case

INTRODUCTION

Our analysis is grounded in the concept that the Eastern cluster comprises two idioms: Vakh-Vasyugan and Surgut-Salym. Each idiom is further subdivided into two dialects, e.g. the Surgut Khanty combines the Surgut and Salym dialects, while the Vakh-Vasyugan encompasses the Vakh and Vasyugan dialects. In accordance with the contemporary view, the Surgut idiom includes Pim, Trom-Agan, Agan, and Yugan varians of Surgut Khanty [1]. The Vakh-Vasyugan idiom is represented by the Alexandrovsk variant. The Salym dialect is considered as a mixed variant that includes some elements of the now not existing southern dialects of Khanty [2].

The sociolinguistic situation of the Eastern Khanty is heterogeneous. The overwhelming majority of the ethnic population speaks Russian, however, speakers of the Surgut dialect of Khanty have lost their native language less than speakers of other Eastern dialects – Vakh, Vasyugan and Salym. According to A. S. Pessikova's estimates of the period from 1992 to 2015, the number of speakers of Surgut Khanty totalled more than 2,000 [1]. The Vakh Khanty use their ethnic language in the remote isolated village of Korliki alone (on the banks of the Korliki river) and nearby ancestral lands. Ethnic speakers of Vasyugan Khanty use only Russian as a means of daily communication. The last fluent speaker of Vasyugan Khanty, P. M. Milimov, died in 2014. The Salym Khanty speakers do not use their ethnic language either.

The nominal morphology of Eastern Khanty has been described in separate studies since the end of the nineteenth century. However, a systemic analysis of unique features of the nominal morphological systems in the Eastern dialects of Khanty has not been conducted.

LANGUAGE DATA

The comparative analysis of the nominal morphological systems of the four Eastern Khanty dialects draws on the data that have been elicited from [1], [3], [4], [5], [6], [7], [8]. This analysis also involves language data presented in the questionnaires that were obtained during field work in the settlements of Korliki and Lariak in 2017–2018. Since Salym Khanty is described worse than other Eastern Khanty dialects and there is no key grammar on this dialect or texts in it, the only sources to elicit examples and vocabulary from are Honti's Khanty reader and Tereshkin's dictionary [6], [9].

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The comparative analysis focuses on the markers that form the paradigms of three nominal categories: number, possession and case. These three nominal categories are represented in the morphological structure of the noun in accordance with two patterns: 1. free number marker + case marker, for example, Sur. *kiriw-ət-nə* vehicle-PL-LOC 'in boats'; 2. bound number marker + possessive suffix + case marker, for example, *kiriw-l-əm-nə* vehicle-PL-POSS.1SG-LOC 'in my boats'. The choice of the second model depends on the presence of a possessive marker which requires using of the bound number marker.

Each nominal category will be described in terms of its paradigm and salient features in a comparative aspect.

The Khanty noun has 3 numbers: singular, dual and plural. Each number has two forms: free and bound. The paradigms of the free and bound number markers in the dialects under the study are illustrated in tables 1–2. Allomorphs of the same morpheme are given after a slash.

Table №1. Free number markers in Eastern Khanty

Number	Markers		
	Vakh-Vasyugan	Surgut	Salym
SG	Ø		
DU	γən/γə̆n/ḳən/kə̆n	γən/kən/ḳən	γən/kən
PL	t/ət/ə̆t	t/ət	t/ət

Table № 2. Bound markers in Eastern Khanty

Number	Markers		
	Vakh-Vasyugan	Surgut	Salym
SG	Ø		
DU	ɣl/k̦(ə)l/k(ə̇)l	ɣəλ/kəλ/k̦əλ	ŋət
PL	l	λ	t

As it follows from the table, the free markers are identical in all Eastern dialects. The bound number markers of the Vakh-Vasyugan idiom differ from those used in the Eastern dialects geographically located closer to the south. It is known that the distinctive phonological feature of Vakh-Vasyugan Khanty is the vowel harmony, which is nearly absent in the Surgut and Salym dialects. What can be inferred from the data in the tables is that the feature differentiating the dialects is primarily phonological: the Vakh-Vasyugan uses the phoneme [l] – a forelingual, constrictive sonorant, the Surgut – [λ] – a forelingual, noise lateral. In Salym [λ] has changed into to [t].

The category of possession in the Eastern dialects of Khanty is coded by possessive suffixes which differentiate the person and number of the possessor and the number of the possessee. All in all, the declension system of the noun in the four dialects encompasses 27 possessive suffixes [4], [6].

Table 3 presents nominal possessive suffixes in Vakh-Vasyugan and Surgut Khanty. Regrettably, possessive markers of Salym Khanty can hardly be presented and analyzed due to unavailable language data.

Table 3. Possessive suffixes in Vakh, Vasyugan and Surgut

Number and person of the possessor	Dialect	Number of the possessee		
		SG	DU	PL
SG 1	V. Vas.	m/əm/ə̆m/im/ɨm/am/äm	am/äm	
	Sur.	əm/em/am	am	
SG 2	V. Vas.	n/ən/ə̆n/in/an/än	an/än	
	Sur.	ən/en/e/a	a	
SG 3	V. Vas.	l/əl/ə̆l	Ø	Ø/əl/ə̆l/al/äl/lə/lə̆
	Sur.	λ/əλ/iλ		Ø/-əλ/aλ
DU 1	V. Vas.	min/mɨn/mən/mə̆n/əmən/ə̆mən /imə̆n/ɨmən/amən/ämən	amə̆n/ämən	
			amə̆n/ämən/min/mɨn	
	Sur.	mən	mən/əmən/amən	
DU 2, 3 PL 2	V. Vas.	tən/tə̆n/ətən/ə̆tə̆n	in/ɨn	
	Sur.	in/ɨn	ən	ən
PL 1	V.	өɣ/öɣ		
	Vas.	ɣ/əɣ/öɣ/w/əw/ə̆w/iw/ɨw/ow/öw		
	Sur.	ɣ/əɣ/iɣ/əw/ew/iw/uw	əɣ/əw/uw	ɣ/əɣ/iɣ/əw/ew/iw/uw
PL 3	V. Vas.	təl/tə̆l/ətəl/ə̆tə̆l/jil/jɨl/il/ɨl	äl/al	
			əl/ə̆l/äl/al	
	Sur.	iλ/ɨλ	aλ	

It can be observed that the number of forms of possessive suffixes used in each dialect is 15. The reduction in the number of possessive suffixes is caused by the fact that these suffixes are considered without their connection with the bound number markers mentioned above. The exclusion of bound number markers enables us to establish the fact that the suffixes of DU and PL of all persons and numbers of the possessor and DU and PL of the possessee are identical. However, the suffixes of 3SG of the possessor and DU and PL of the possessee are different: DU of the possessee is not materially expressed; Pl of the possessee is marked by V.-Vas. *Ø/əl/ɜl/al/äl/lə/lɜ*, Sur. *Ø/-əλ/aλ*. Besides, the possessive suffixes of the 2DU, 3DU and 2PL of the possessor coincide, which entails a reduced paradigm of the nominal category of possession in Eastern Khanty.

The Vakh-Vasyugan idiom and the Surgut dialect differ as far as the forms of possessive suffixes for 2SG, 2 and 3DU and 2 PL of the possessor are concerned. The distinction between these dialects is phonological with regard to the forms of the possessive suffixes of 3SG and 3Pl of the possessor.

The category of case is represented by a different number of markers in Eastern Khanty dialects. The number of markers varies from 7 to 11. The exact number of attested cases in a separate dialect largely depends on the opinion of the given researcher. In this regard, all cases can be divided into two types: mandatory and optional. The first type includes cases that are distinguished by all khantologists: nominative, locative, abessive, lative, comitative, instrumental, and translative. The second type includes cases singled out by several or only by one of the researchers: ablative, allative, comparative, distributive and expletive.

From the semantic and functional perspective, the Eastern Khanty nominal cases fall into three groups. The first includes the nominative case alone, its functional syncretism encompasses nominative, accusative and genitive semantics. The second group includes all core spatial cases: ablative, locative, allative, and lative. The third group comprises all remaining cases: abessive, comparative, distributive, expletive, comitative, instrumental, and translative. Due to the fact that the Khanty language has a reduced case system compared to other Ural languages, many cases are characterized by polyfunctionality in Eastern Khanty. For instance, the locative case is utilized to encode spatial meanings and to mark the logical subject. Tables 4 and 5 present the case paradigm in the Eastern Khanty.

Table 4. Mandatory cases and their markers in the Eastern dialects

Dialects \ Cases	Vakh-Vasyugan	Surgut	Salym
Group 1			
Nominative	Ø		
Group 2			
Locative	nə/nə̄	nə	
Lative	a/ä	a	
Group 3			
Abessive	ləγ/lə̄γ	λəγ/λə̄γ	(tə)
Comitative	nä(ti)/na(tɨ)	nat	(nat)
Instrumental	tə/tə̄/ə/ə̄	at	at
Translative	əγ/ə̄γ/ḳə/kə̄	γə/kə/ḳə	γə

In the group of mandatory cases, formal distinctive features of case markers both between Vakh and Vasyugan dialects and between Surgut and Salym dialects are not identified. The differences between the Vakh-Vasyugan idiom and Surgut-Salym idiom are observed in the comitative and instrumental cases. The comitative marker is used to incode instrumental and comitative semantics. Its form can be *-na/-nä* or *-nati/-näti* in the Vakh-Vasyugan idiom and *-nat* in Surgut. Some controversy concerns the meaning of the element *ti/tɨ* that is supposed to be added to express the comitative semantics of the maker [4]. This hypothesis requires a further corpus analysis since the field examples provide an illustration to the fact that the marker *-na/-nä* is employed to encode both functions: comitative and instrumental (see example (1)):

(1) *mä*   *api-**na***   *rit-**na***   *mən-s-əm*
     1SG   father-COM   boat-INS   go-PST2.-SBJ.1SG
     I went with my father by boat [with a boat].

The form of the instrumental case also differs in the Vakh-Vasyugan and Surgut-Salym idioms (cf. table 4).

Table 5. Optional cases and their markers in the Eastern dialects

Cases \ Dialects		Vakh	Vasyugan	Surgut	Salym
Group 2					
Ablative	marker	oɣ/öɣ ow/öw i/į	oɣ/öɣ ow/öw i/į	i	?
	post-positive			P. iwəλ	iwət
Allative	marker	pa/pä apa/apä	–	nam	nam
Group 3					
Comparative	marker	niŋə(t)/ nįŋə̆(t)/	niŋə/nįŋə̆?	—	
Distributive	marker	təltä/tə̆lta	təl/tə̆l	(tə)λta	?
Expletive	marker	—	—	pti	ptə

Within the group of optional cases, the first line of differences lies between the Vakh-Vasyugan and the Surgut-Salym dialects.

In the declension of the Vakh and Vasyugan noun, a number of distinctive features reveal themselves in the ablative, allative, and distributive cases. One of the contemporary researches of the Vasyugan Khanty dialect, A. Filchenko, distinguishes two sets of markers for the ablative: *-oɣ/-öɣ/-ow/-öw* and *-i/-į* [7]. If this is the case, then it can be assumed that the marker *-i/-į* is identical to the Surgut Khanty case marker. However, it is that it is still questionable whether the allative, ending in *-nam* and   in *-pa/-pä*, should be identified in Vasyugan Khanty since it is not supported by any language data. All examples with the allative case of the noun obtained from the texts collected by either L. Kalinina or A. Filchenko involve *joɣ-pa* 'home-ALL' (see example (2)), which may be glossed or be given as a solid word form V., Vas. *joɣpa* 'home' as seen in the dictionary [4], [9].

(2)   ḳollə   joɣ-**pa**-tɨ/joɣ**pa**-tɨ   mən-s-əw
        all   home-ALL-PRTC/home-PRTC   go-PST2-SBJ.1PL
        'We all went home.' Vas. [7]

It should be noted that all attested examples with the form ending in *-pa/-pä* are based on the root *joɣ-* 'home'. This fact enables us to argue that the declension system of Vasyugan Khanty does not possess the allative case.

Besides, in the nominal case paradigms of Vakh-Vasyugan idiom, the distributive case is attested by only one researcher L. Honti [6]. He differentiates marker *-təltä/-tälta* for Vakh dialect and *-təl/-təl* for Vasyugan dialect. Our own field data do not support the existence of the distributive case in the Vakh dialect, so the example of its use is the one borrowed from Honti's chrestomathy:

> *(3)* *ěj* *wăɣ-ət-**təltä*** *tintə-s-i*
> one animal-PL-DISTR pay-NPST-PASS.3SG
> 'Everyone's payment was an animal'. [6]

The peculiarity of the case system of Salym Khanty is that the ablative meaning is expressed not synthetically, for example, by means of markers, like in the Surgut dialect, but encoded analytically by means of the postposition *iwət*. The Pim variant of the Surgut dialect uses postposition *iwəλ* to express ablative semantics.

Discrepancies in the group of the optional cases between the Vakh-Vasyugan and the Surgut-Salym idioms are identified in the forms of the ablative, allative, comparative and expletive cases. The ablative and allative case markers have different stems, cf. Table 5. The comparative case is a distinctive feature of the Vakh-Vasyugan idiom and predominately of the Vakh dialect. The existence of the distributive   case   marked   by *-pti/-ptɨ* was attested in Surgut Khanty by K. F. Karjalainen in the early twentieth century and illustrated by numerous examples [10]. Unlike him, L. Honti divided the distributive into two cases: the distributive per se and the expletive. The former is used to mark the object immediately following the predicate with *-təλtä/-təλta*, the latter can mark any object functioning as a complement or an adverbial with *-pti/-ptɨ*. As said above, L. Honti attested only the distributive case in the Vakh-Vasyugan idiom. Example (4) illustrates the use of the distributive case in Trom-Yugan variant of Surgut Khanty.

> *(4)* *ěj* *λäŋki-**təλtä*** *urt-ətəɣ*
> one squirrel-DISTR divide-PST.SBJ.1PL:OBJ.SG
> 'Each of us was given a squirrel.' [6]

CONCLUSION

This analysis of the nominal system of the Eastern Khanty idioms allowed us to identify some unique features in the morphology of the noun in the Eastern Khanty dialects. Three nominal categories: number, possession and case shared by all analyzed dialects were studied. Both the Vakh-Vasyugan and Surgut-Salym idioms possess some unique features that separate them, however, some distinctive features can be found within each idiom as well.

Generally speaking, the nature of specific features attested within the possession and case paradigms is morphological, while in the number paradigm the distinctions are mostly phonological. What accounts for the distinctive features attested in each Eastern Khanty dialect is the chronological or areal aspect of the studies conducted by various researchers. It is expected that this study of the morphological system of

the noun in Eastern Khanty will be further complemented by an analysis of the functional aspect of numerical, possessive and case markers.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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UNPUBLISHED MANSI DICTIONARY BY P. S. PALLAS – AN UNKNOWN MANSI DIALECT?

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ABSTRACT

This article presents the research of the recently discovered Mansi dictionary rewritten by A.M. Shegren from the Pallas archive. The uniqueness of this source lays in the fact that its data do not correspond to any known dialects, but has lexical similarities with the Mansi dialect spoken along the Berezovo river. In order to clarify the dialectical identity of this dictionary we had a detailed analysis based on the Proto-Mansi reconstruction and the material of the modern Mansi dialects. Also this archival material was analyzed from the point of the dialectal differentiating isoglosses. The research indicated that the language of that new dictionary has a number of characteristics which are absent in other Mansi dialects.

Keywords: Mansi language, archive data, unknown dialect, Pallas dictionary

INTRODUCTION

For the last few years there have been discovered about ten ancient and unstudied works on the Mansi language. Each of the found sources (dictionaries, translated prayer books) brings unique information on the insufficiently explored Mansi language and its dialects. Even a short 16-17 century dictionary can make a substantial addition to the knowledge. Thus, the graphic and phonetic analysis showed interesting result on verification of Mansi dictionaries by A. Kannisto and B. Munkachi [1]. It's worth mentioning that the author, year, place and dialects are not known for some of the used sources.

The dictionary covered in this article is exactly of the ones mentioned above: it's been rewritten in the 19th century by A.M. Shegren from the archive of P.S. Pallas [2]. The latter was collecting glossaries from all over the Russian Empire for his "Comparative Dictionaries of All Languages and Dialects" (Pallas 1790-1791). The glossary we studied was not included in the Pallas's dictionaries and, moreover, is lexically different from the dialects mentioned in "Comparative Dictionaries". Here are a few Mansi words Pallas has not included in his work: *нуми тормъ-канъ* 'sky', *велтъ* 'face', *вӱ* 'star'. The unknown glossary we cover has lexical similarities with the Mansi dialect spoken along the Berezovo river:

– *шопъ* 'mouse' and *шоб* 'mlouse' (riv. Berezovo) [in other dialects: down the river Chusovaya *ТожЪ*; in the Verkhotursky district *ТосЪ*; near the village Chardym *ШусЪ*],

– *мúсъ-витъ* 'milk' and *мисъ-витъ* 'milk' (riv. Berezovo) [in other dialects: down the river Chusovaya *Сыртай*; in the Verkhotursky district *СурутЪ*; near the village Chardym *СяхуитЪ, ЧэхуитЪ*],

– *нявȧрамъ* 'boy' and *нïяуремъ-хунъ* 'boy' (riv. Berezovo) [in other dialects: down the river Chusovaya *МикЪко, УшонЪ, УасунЪ*; in the Verkhotursky district *УйскумЪ, ГуишарЪ*; near the village Chardym *УсысарпЪ*].

To determine its dialectal identity according to graphic-phonetic features, we have created an online version of the dictionary (on the Lingvodoc website) with parallels to the Sosva dialect words and etymological links with other Mansi dialects. This dictionary was analyzed from the point of the dialectal differentiating isoglosses mentioned in [3].

Table. 1 The main dialect differentiating isoglosses by [3]

Southern	Eastern	Western	Northern
ā	*ō*	*ō*	*ō*
ε̄	*ā/ ē̦*	*ē̦*	*ā*
əw	*ī*	*əγ*	*əγ*
ć	*ś*	*ś*	*ś*
š	*s(š)*	*š*	*s(š)*
k	*χ/k*	*k*	*χ*
k	*k*	*k*	*k*

Consider these characteristics. When working with vowels, we rely on the Proto-Mansi reconstruction proposed in [4] and made on the material of the modern Mansi dialects.

Proto-Mansi *o > north, east, west o; south a

1) *хожȧ* 'long'
 obsk. *χoʒȧ* 'long', юконд. *χoεə* 'long', So. *хoса* 'long' < Proto-Ural **końćV ~ *koćV*;
 2) *хóвытъ* 'spruce'
obsk. *hovt* 'spruce', yukond. *χowt* 'spruce', pelym. *Коутъ* 'spruce' [5], So. *хō̆вт* 'spruce' < Proto-Mansi **kă̆γtɜ* [6] < Proto-Ural **kuse ~ *kose*;
 3) *кóшхай* 'ant'
yukond. *χos'i* 'ant', pelym. *Кóшшыꙑй* 'ant' [5], So. *хō̆свой* 'ant', T *kaškā̆j* 'ant' < Proto-Mansi **kā̆šγā̆j* [6] < Proto-Ural **kučV*;

In position before 'v' in the archival source o > u

1) *лу* 'ten'

obsk. *lov* 'ten', yukond. *low* 'ten', pelym. *Лоупэ́нгъ* 'ten' [5], So. *лов* 'ten' < Proto-Ural **luke*;

In position after soft consonant 'o' is designated as *ю̂*

1) *ню̂лъ* 'nose'

obsk. *njol* 'nose', yukond. *n'oul* 'nose', So. *нёл* 'nose', T *ńal* 'nose' < Proto-Mansi **ńăl* [6];

2) *ню̂съ* 'sable'

obsk. *njóhis* 'sable', yukond. *n'oχs* 'sable', pelym. *Нёкгъ* 'sable' [5], So. *нёхысъ* 'sable', TJ *ńoks* 'sable', TCH *ńoks* 'sable' < Proto-Mansi **ń ̆kəs* [6] < Proto-Ural **ńukśe*;

With reference to the above examples, the dialect of the dictionary coincides with the Proto-Mansi reconstruction by Yu.V. Normanskaya's article [4] and differ from the southern dialects where Proto-Mansi **o* > *a* (cf. T *kaškӑj* 'ant', T *kat* 'six', T *wāt* 'wind').

Proto-Mansi ** e̦* > So., yukond. *a / ā*; pelym., middle-obsk. *e*, south *ē̦*

1) *хáабъ* 'boat'

yukond. *χ̄ap* 'boat', pelym. *Кэпъ* 'boat' [5], So. *xān* 'boat' < Proto-Mansi **k ̄p з* [6] < Proto-Ural **kappV*;

2) *màхусъ* 'autumn'

obsk. *teksi* 'autumn', yukond. *t'aχsi* 'autumn', pelym. *Тэ́ксъ* 'autumn' [5], So. *таквс* 'autumn', T *tüks* 'autumn' < Proto-Mansi **t ̆kəs* [6] < Proto-Ural **sikśe (*sükśe)*;

3) *тары* 'crane'

pelym. *Тэ́ры* 'crane' [5], So. *m̄āрыг* 'crane', T *t ̄rəw* 'crane' < Proto-Mansi **t ̄rəɣ* [6] < Proto-Ural **tarV-kV (*tarkV)*;

In the implementation of Proto-Mansi **e̦* by [4] or **ī* by [6] in the archival dictionary under consideration was found the innovative transformation to '*a*', typical for the northern dialects (So.) and for the eastern dialects (yukond.).

Proto-Mansi **ć* > *ś* at the beginning of a word, which coincides with changes in the western, eastern and northern dialects:

1) *сéнзи* 'sparrow'

yukond. *ś ̈ŋś* 'sparrow', T *ćäŋćī* 'sparrow', pelym. *śäŋkəś* 'sparrow', south-vagil. *śäŋkəś* 'sparrow', LU *śeŋkəś* 'sparrow', LO *śaŋśi* 'sparrow', So. *śaŋśi* 'sparrow' < Proto-Mansi **ćäŋćī* [6];

Proto-Mansi **š* persist at the beginning of a word, which is the case for the southern and western dialects, but also occurs in some eastern and northern sub-dialects:

1) ша́нжипанг̄ъ 'knee'

yukond. *š ̄̄ns* 'knee', KM KO *s ̄̄ns* 'knee', T *šänš* 'knee', pelym. *šanš* 'knee', north-vagil. *šänš* 'knee', LU *šanš* 'knee', LUT *šānš* 'knee', LO *sāns* 'knee', So. *sāns* 'knee' < Proto-Mansi **š ̄̄nš* [6];

2) *шуншъ* 'flea'

yukond. *šonš* 'flea', KM *sons* 'flea', KO *suns* 'flea', TJ TCH *šoš* 'flea', pelym. *šuš* 'flea', north-vagil., south-vagil. *šuš* 'flea', LU *šuš* 'flea', LO *sus* 'flea', So. *sus* 'flea' < Proto-Mansi ***šŭnš*** [6];

3) *шишъ* 'back'

yukond. *šiš* 'back', KM KO *sis* 'back', TJ TCH *šiš* 'back', pelym. *šiš* 'back', north-vagil., south-vagil. *šiš* 'back', LU *šiš* 'back', LO *sis* 'back', So. *sis* 'back' < Proto-Mansi ***šĭš*** [6];

Proto-Mansi *š > ž in the position between vowels, such changes were not detected in Mansi dialects we know:

1) *кажàй* 'knife'

yukond. *kā̆si, kā̆sī* 'knife', KM *kā̆si, kā̆sī* 'knife', LO *kasaj* 'knife', So. *kasaj* 'knife'

< Proto-Mansi ***kă̆škā̆j*** [6];

Proto-Mansi *š preserves at the end of word:

1) *ошъ* 'sheep'

yukond. *ōš* 'sheep', KM *ōs* 'sheep', KO *ōs* 'sheep', pelym. *oš ~ ōšē̆ɣ* 'sheep', north-vagil. *oš ~ ōšija* 'sheep', south-vagil. *oš ~ ōšī* 'sheep', LU *oš ~ ōšī* 'sheep', So. *ɔs* 'sheep' < Proto-Mansi ***ā̆š*** [6].

The Proto-Mansi archaic is reflected in the language of the researched dictionary, which was preserved in southern, western and in eastern dialects (KU). Prof. László Honti [3] suggested that such implementation accurate for some northern dialects.

Proto-Mansi *k preserves before the front Proto-Mansi vowels

1) *кéлбе* 'blood'

yukond. *kēləp* 'blood', KM *kēləp* 'blood', KO *kēləp* 'blood', pelym. *šaɣr-* 'blood', south-vagil. *kēləp* 'blood', LO *kēləp* 'blood', So. *kēləp* 'blood' < Proto-Mansi ***kīlpɜ-*** [6];

2) *кóшкеръ* 'nail, clow'

yukond. *k₀äš* 'nail', KM *k₀äns* 'nail', KO *k₀äs* 'nail', TJ TCH *künš* 'nail', pelym. *käš* 'nail', north-vagil., south-vagil. *k₀änš* 'nail', LO *kos* 'nail', LU *k₀äš* 'nail', So. *kos* 'nail' < Proto-Mansi ***kŭnš*** [6];

3) *кенъ* 'light'

KO *kiɣnə* 'light', TJ *kü̆ńkā̆ś* 'light', pelym. *kinna* 'light', VN *kinna* 'light', LU *kinna* 'light' < Proto-Mansi ***kĭńɣā̄*** [6];

Proto-Mansi *k > x before the back Proto-Mansi vowels, that characterizes for northern and part of eastern dialects (KU)

1) *хáлъбвошъ* 'Berezovo' (compound word is *вошъ* 'city') < Proto-Mansi **kı̄́l̄́*

Furthermore, the transition **k > x* preceding back Proto-Mansi vowels leads us to the following conclusion: the glossary language combines features of northern and eastern Mansi dialects. For a more profound investigation, there has also been completed a comparative analysis of Proto-Mansi **ɣ* based on field notes taken by I. A. Stenin (2015) in Narynkary and Peregrebnoe villages. All materials are represented in the online dictionary Lingvodoc.

Proto-Mansi *ɣ preserves in the position between vowels:

1) *Ю́гыть* 'bow'
yukond. *jowt* 'bow', KM *jowt* 'bow', KO *jowt* 'bow', TJ *jäwt* 'bow', TCH *jawt* 'bow', pelym. *jäɣt* 'bow', north-vagil. *jäwt* 'bow', south-vagil. *jäɣt* 'bow', LO *jowt* 'bow', LU *jeɣt* 'bow', middle-ob *jovt* 'bow', So. *jowt* 'bow' < Proto-Mansi *jăɣət* [6];

In all known dialects this word has transformation ***ɣ** into **w**, but only in the western dialects we can see the duplicate reflex *w/ɣ*.

Proto-Mansi *ɣ > u before consonant:

1) *по́улънколъ* 'bath'
yukond. *päɣl-* 'bathe', KM *päɣl-* 'bathe', KO *päɣl-* 'bathe', TCH *päwl-* 'bathe', pelym. *päɣl-* 'bathe', north-vagil., south-vagil. *päɣl-* 'bathe', LO *puwl-* 'bathe', LU *päɣl-* 'bathe', middle-ob *peułənk'e* 'bathe', So. *puwl-* 'bathe' < Proto-Mansi *pắɣl-* [6];
In all dialects **ɣ* in the word 'bath' **ɣ* either preserves or morphs into **w**, but in the middle-ob dialect **ɣ* turns to **u** (cf. middle-obsk. *peułənk'e* 'bathe').

2) *неуръ* 'foal'
yukond. *ńɔ̄̃wr* 'foal', KM *ńɔ̄̃wr* 'foal', KO *ńɔ̄̃wr* 'foal', TJ *ńäwər* 'foal', TCH *ńäwər* 'foal', pelym. *ńɔ̄wər* 'foal', north-vagil., south-vagil. *ńāwər* 'foal', LO *ńāwər* 'foal', LU *ńāɣr* 'foal', LM *ńāwər* 'foal' < Proto-Mansi *ńắ̄wər* [6];
As we have seen, almost in all mansi dialects **ɣ* goes into *w*, except for LU, where **ɣ* remains. In the middle-ob dialect the word 'foal' is not recorded.

3) *ниоу̀лъ* 'meat'
yukond. *ńowĺ, ńuwĺ* 'meat', TJ TCH *ńäwĺ* 'meat', pelym. *ńowĺ* 'meat', VN *ńowĺ* 'meat', south-vagil. *ńawĺ* 'meat', LO *ńowĺ* 'meat', LU *ńowĺ* 'meat', LM *ńowĺ* 'meat', So. *ńɔ̄wĺ* 'meat soup' < Proto-Mansi *ńắɣəĺ* [6];
In all dialects we have **ɣ > w*.
The next word is absent in the [6] dictionary, but there is a way to reconstruct the Proto-Mansi **ɣ* from the mansi dialect's reflexes described in [7]:

4) *а́умы* 'sick'
TJ TČ ǯümi·l't-, KU ā̊umǝl't-, P āmᵊl't-, āɣmᵊl't-, So. āɣmlt- 'disease' [7], middle-ob ávma- 'be sick';
The reflexivity in the dictionary coincides with the Middle-Ob northern, southern and Konda forms. Sosva and Pelym dialects either persist ***ɣ** or do not have this reflex.

Proto-Mansi *ɣ > 0/(u) at the end the word:

1) *мо̀у* 'branch'
yukond. *tå̆ɣ, toɣ* 'branch', KM *tow* 'branch', KO tow 'branch', TJ TCH *taw* 'branch', pelym. *täɣ* 'branch', VN *tow* 'branch', south-vagil. *taɣ* 'branch', LO *tow* 'branch', LU *taɣ* 'branch', LM *taɣ* 'branch', So. *tow* 'branch' < Proto-Mansi *tắɣ* [6];
Almost in all dialects this word has a preservation of *w*, with the exception of KU and P dialects. The transition **ɣ* to **u** was not detected. In the field data of the Middle-Ob dialect this word was not represented.

2) *е́ны* 'great'

TJ *ii̯nŭ̀·*, TČ *i̯enŭ̀·*, KU *i̯äni*, пелым. P *i̯eniɣ*, *i̯en-*, So *i̯à`niɣ* 'great' [7], Middle-Ob. *ján'i* 'big';

The reflexivity *ɣ* in this word coincides with the Middle-Ob northern, southern and eastern dialects. But in Sosva dialect we can see the preservation **ɣ**, in Pelym dialect there is a doublet *v/0*.

4) *nы* 'son'

yukond. *pöw* 'son', KM KO *pöw* 'son', TJ *püw* 'son', TCH *päw* 'son', pelym. *püw* 'son', north-vagil., south-vagil. *pū̇* 'son', LO *piɣ* 'сын', LU *pū̇* 'сын', So. *piɣ* 'сын';

In this dictionary the loss of *ɣ* in this word coincides with the process represented in western dialects. In the field data of the Middle-Ob dialect this word in its early form was not represented.

3) *тары* 'crane'

TJ TCH *tā̆rəw* 'crane', pelym. *tē̆riɣ* 'crane', LM *tē̆ri* 'crane', Middle-Ob *tárih* 'crane', So. *tāriɣ* 'crane' < Proto-Mansi *tī̆rəɣ* [6];

In southern dialects we can see the evolution *ɣ* to *w*, northern dialects are characterized by preservation *ɣ* and for western dialects by doublets with preservation *ɣ* in P and the loss of *ɣ* in LO. There is a transition *ɣ* into *h* (cf. *tárih* 'crane') in the Middle-Ob dialect, which sounds like an aspirate. And it cannot be excluded that that kind of *h* might be deleted from a phonological record.

4) *тары̀* 'pine'

Middle-Ob *tárih, taríh* 'pine';

The etymological analogue of this word is founded only in Middle-Ob dialect, which also provided the evolution *ɣ > h*.

Thus, we have detected a reflexivity of the **ɣ** phoneme based on its position in the lexical unit. The only exception here is **ɣ** transition into *u* in *moɣ* 'branch' provided the standard omission at the end of the unit. Interesting to mention that no dialect described by [6], [7] shows such a consistent Proto-Mansi **ɣ** reflexivity. The phenomenon is similar to modern Middle-Ob dialect, though there are still a few differences. The essential one is the present intervocal **ɣ** in the glossary, which transitions into *w* in all present day Mansi dialects excluding Lozva dialect. The differences might be caused by the development of Mansi dialect in the 19-20th centuries. The glossary dialect cannot be identified as a Middle-Ob dialect since it does not show the Middle-Ob *ę > e* received from Proto-Mansi, instead, *ę* transitions into *a*, the process more common in So. and some western dialects as transcribed by A. Kannisto.

As we might now observe, the dialect documented in the glossary, differs from all other known dialects. There are more peculiar glossary characteristics worth mentioning, which are although not considered by Prof. László Honti as dialect-forming and specific for Mansi dialects in general.

I. **w > u*

1) *ша́ɣ* 'lots of'

yukond. *s'uow* 'lots of', Middle-Ob *sav* 'lots of ', So. *cāв* 'lots of' < Proto-Ural **čukkV (*čokkV)*;

2) *óуда* 'lance'

pelym. *эβta˙* 'lance', KU *эβtə* 'lance', So. *ōвта* 'lance' [7];

3) *лу* 'bone'

obsk. *lov* 'bone', yukond. *losum* 'bone', pelym. *Лу́шемъ* 'bone' [5], KU *лȯ˙šəm* 'bone' [7], LO *lušm* 'bone' [8], So. *лув* 'bone' < Proto-Mansi *lŭw* [6] < Proto-Ural *luwe*;

4) *ьèу* 'tree'

obsk. *jiv* 'tree', yukond. *jiw* 'tree', So. *йūв* 'tree' < Proto-Mansi *jīw* [6] < Proto-Ural *juwV*;

II. As stated above, in the dictionary there is a transition *o > u* in the position before *w* and after soft consonants:

1) *лу* 'ten'

obsk. *lov* 'ten', yukond. *low* 'ten', pelym. *Лоупэ́нгъ* 'foreman' [5], So. *лов* 'ten' < Proto-Ural *luke*;

III. Characteristics of verb conjugation in first personal singular present tense

1) *уеймъ,* So. *уюе̄гум* 'I am swimming';
2) *люлèймъ,* So. *люле̄гум* 'I am standing'
3) *аèймъ,* So. *ае̄гум* 'I am drinking'

According to [9], in the dictionary such a verb conjugation in first personal singular is typical for western dialects, but as was shown above, on the basis of Proto-Mansi *k > x* before deep vowels the dictionary by P.S. Pallas differs from western dialects in which such a change did not occur.

CONCLUSION

Having studied graphic, phonetic and dialect-forming characteristics of the glossary and completed the comparative analysis of the field noted we revealed, that the glossary dialect is similar to Middle-Ob (northern) dialect (e.g. Proto-Mansi transition *k > x* preceding Proto-Mansi back vowels; *γ* reflexivity preceding consonants and at the end of the lexical unit). The conclusion is also justified by the lexical isoglosses of the Mansi dialect spoken along the Berezovo river and mentioned in "Comparative Dictionaries" by P. S. Pallas. The Middle-Ob dialect, however, presents Proto-Mansi *ę* as *e*, the ancient glossary we covered shows *ę > a*, common in Sosva eastern and some western dialects in the transcription by A. Kannisto. The ancient glossary showcases a special conjugation form, earlier documented in the western dialects only. We can also observe the archaic Proto-Mansi *š* in the glossary, which transitions into *s* in Sosva and Middle-Ob dialects, as well as Proto-Mansi *γ* in the intervocalic position evolving into *w* in all other dialects exclude Lozva dialects.

Therefore, the ancient glossary combines the archaic characteristics and modern northern and western features, which is why cannot be classified as a traditional

Mansi dialect. Further investigation of Mansi 18th century texts may reveal that the traditional Mansi language dialects classification is to be revised.

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ABBREVIATION

Mansi — Mansi language
K — dialects spoken along the Konda river
KM — Middle-Konda dialect
KO — Upper-Konda dialect
KU — Lower-Konda dialect
LM — Middle-Losva dialect
LO — Upper-Losva dialect
LU — Lower-Losva dialect
N — northern Mansi dialectcs
P — Pelym dialect
So. — Sosva dialect
T — Tavda dialect
TCh — Tavda dialect of the village Chandyry
TJ — Tavda dialect of the village Yanychkova Янычкова
north-vagil. — northern Vagilsk dialect
south-vagil. — southern Vagilsk dialect
obsk. — Ob dialect
middle-Ob — Middle-Ob dialect
pelym. — Pelym dialect
yukond. — Yukonda dialect
eastern — Eastern dialects
western — Western dialects
northern —Northern dialects
southern — Southern dialects
Proto-Mansi — Proto Mansi language
Proto-Ural — Proto Ural language

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