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# AGRICULTURAL SCIENCES

## ASSESSMENT OF THE INTENSITY OF ACCUMULATION OF LEAD AND CADMIUM IN LEAVES AND SEEDS WHEN USING DIFFERENT TYPES OF FERTILIZERS

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### Abstract

The intensity of accumulation of heavy metals in the leaf mass and seeds of milk thistle with mineral and organic fertilizers was studied. The obtained research results showed a certain influence of fertilizer on the coefficient of accumulation of heavy metals (lead, cadmium) in the leaf mass and seeds of milk thistle grown in the field crop rotations of the Forest-Steppe of the Right Bank.

It was investigated that the highest coefficient of accumulation of lead and cadmium in leaf mass and seeds of milk thistle was observed for fertilization with mineral fertilizers, and relatively lower for organic thistle. When fertilizing the plant with mineral fertilizers, the lowest level of lead accumulation was observed with the use of simple phosphate and a mixture of fertilizers (simple superphosphate, ammonium nitrate, potassium chloride). When fertilized with organic fertilizers, a low coefficient of accumulation of lead and cadmium in the leaf mass and seeds of milk thistle was observed after green fertilizers (mustard) and the four-year-old precursor of alfalfa, and when foliar fertilizer was used, phosphorus chelate. The highest efficiency in reducing the accumulation coefficient of lead and cadmium in the leaf mass and seeds of milk thistle in the agricultural lands of the right-bank forest-steppe of Ukraine of all studied fertilization options was observed when the plant was grown after green fertilizers (mustard) and perennial legumes (4-year-old predecessor of alfalfa sowing).

**Keywords:** milk thistle, cadmium, lead, leaf mass, seeds, concentration, mineral fertilizers, organic fertilizers

### Introduction

Milk thistle (*Silybum Mariánum*) is deservedly recognized as a popular plant, because it is actually used for over 2000 years. The plant is native to the Mediterranean region and a member of the Asteraceae plant family. This healing herb gets its name from the milky-white liquid that runs off of the plant's leaves when they're crushed. The actual leaves of the plant also have a spotted white pattern that makes them look as if they've been dunked in milk. It's also known as St. Mary's thistle, holy thistle and silybum [9, 16].

Due to its unique properties, milk thistle is widely used in medicine, pharmacology, animal husbandry, crop production and food industry, as it contains biologically active substances that are useful for the work of all internal organs. Almost the whole plant can be used for medicinal purposes, but the greatest value belongs to its seeds, which contain silymarin [8, 19].

Silymarin, a mixture of flavanoid complexes, is the active component that protects liver and kidney cells from toxic effects of drugs, including chemotherapy. There is strong preclinical evidence for silymarin's hepatoprotective and anticarcinogenic effects, including inhibition of cancer cell growth in human prostate, skin, breast, and cervical cells. Milk thistle is considered safe and well-tolerated [15]. Silymarin has hepatoprotective, anti-inflammatory, anticancer, immunomodulatory, antidiabetic and cardioprotective activity,

and its antioxidant action increases the body's resistance to various negative environmental factors [2, 6].

The seeds contain fatty and essential oils, resins, histamine, flavonoids, as well as macro- and micronutrients [10]. The composition of the seeds of milk thistle also includes a significant amount of B vitamins; vitamins K, A, E; macronutrients (mg/g): potassium – 9.2; calcium – 16.6; magnesium – 4.2; iron – 0.08 and trace elements (mg/g): manganese – 0.1; copper – 1.16; zinc – 0.71; chromium – 0.15; selenium – 22.9; iodine – 0.09; boron – 22.4 [12].

Products of processing of seeds of a milk thistle (oil, meal) are useful not only as a medicine and preventive measure for a human body, but also for animals. The meal obtained after squeezing the oil is a valuable feed with a high content of fats and phytolignans, the aboveground part of milk thistle plants in the budding phase can be used as a fodder plant, which significantly expands the range of its use in the national economy [11, 20].

For the Milk thistle, the use of fertilizers contributes to the significant development of the plant. The use of mineral fertilizers significantly affects the productivity of milk thistle, the quality and environmental safety of its raw materials. Milk thistle belongs to plants with an extended period of consumption of elements of mineral nutrition. Excess nitrogen nutrition is not desirable

for her, since it leads to a delay in the growing season, and also worsens the medicinal properties of its raw materials. From production and economic considerations, the most reasonable fertilization rate should be considered the introduction of  $N_{60}P_{60}K_{60}$ , however, scientifically grounded and experimentally proven optimal rates for fertilizing milk thistle plants, after which the medicinal properties of the plant will not deteriorate, have not been studied [14].

Today, one of the directions of fertilization of agricultural crops is the introduction of their newest types: chelate-based mineral fertilizers, microfertilizers, complex organo-mineral fertilizers, plant growth stimulants, and others [5, 21]. At the same time, mineral fertilizer can help increase the level of various toxicants in the soil, in particular heavy metals, which can affect the quality and safety of grown raw materials [3, 7, 17-18].

The study of the adaptation of certain species of medicinal plants growing near potential sources of heavy metals makes it possible to determine the level of transport through the soil to medicinal plants of these toxicants and to determine the level of their biological resistance to contamination. Due to this, it is possible to establish the feasibility of using such medicinal plants to increase or correlate the body's resistance to the effects of negative environmental factors. [1, 4, 13]. Since heavy metals from medicinal raw materials enter medicinal products, and then enter the human body, the use of medicinal plants collected in areas with a high content of heavy metals can threaten human health, creating a negative impact on the functioning of internal

organs and physiological processes of the body as a whole [19]. Based on this, there is a need for constant monitoring of the safety of this raw material.

### Materials and Methods

The study of the influence of mineral, organic and microfertilizers on productivity, chemical composition and safety of raw milk thistle raw materials was carried out according to the scheme, which included three scientific experiments according to the defined research scheme. The first experiment included five options for growing milk thistle, in particular, the first – without fertilizer, the second – fertilizer with ammonium nitrate ( $N_{60}$ ), the third – potassium chloride fertilizer ( $K_{60}$ ), the fourth – simple superphosphate fertilizer ( $P_{60}$ ), the fifth –  $N_{60}P_{60}K_{60}$ . The second scientific experiment also covered five options for growing milk thistle: the first – without fertilizer, the second – sugar beet lime sludge compost (6 t/ha), the third – humus fertilizer (20 t/ha), the fourth – green manure (mustard), fifth – four-year predecessor (alfalfa sowing). The third scientific experiment included four options for growing milk thistle, namely: the first – without fertilizer, the second – phosphorus-chelate fertilizer (0.9 l/ha), the third – potassium-chelate fertilizer (0.9 l/ha), the fourth – use of growth concentrate (0.5 l/ha).

### Results and Discussion

The obtained research results showed a certain effect of fertilizer on the accumulation coefficient of heavy metals (Pb and Cd) in the leaf mass and seeds of milk thistle grown in the field crop rotations of the Forest-Steppe of the Right Bank (table 1).

Table 1

Coefficient of Pb accumulation in milk thistle when using different types of fertilizers

Experiment options	Accumulation factor, average for options	
	Leaf mass	Seeds
Ammonium nitrate ( $N_{60}$ )	4.63	1.6
Potassium chloride ( $K_{60}$ )	4.88	1.5
Superphosphate simple ( $P_{60}$ )	4.76	1.5
$N_{60}P_{60}K_{60}$	4.0	1.4
Humus, 20 t/ha	3.6	1.3
Sugar beet lime sludge compost, 6 t/ha	3.9	1.4
Green manure (mustard)	2.8	1.2
4-year-old predecessor (alfalfa sowing)	2.8	0.41
Phosphorus-chelate, 0.9 l/ha	4.5	1.18
Potassium-chelate, 0.9 l/ha	5.7	1.03
Growth-concentrate, 0.5 l/ha	5.1	1.46

Thus, the coefficient of accumulation of lead in the leaf mass for fertilization with mineral fertilizers, ammonium nitrate, potassium chloride, double superphosphate and a mixture of fertilizers ranged from 4.0 to 4.88, which averaged 4.56. The lowest lead accumulation coefficient, which was 4.0 in the leaf mass of milk thistle, was observed for its fertilization with a mixture of nitrogen nitrate, potassium chloride and simple superphosphate, respectively ( $N_{60}K_{60}P_{60}$ ) in milk thistle seeds. The lowest coefficient of accumulation of lead in the seeds of milk thistle was also observed with a complex fertilizer with a mixture of ammonium nitrate, potassium chloride and simple superphosphate and was 1.4.

The difference between the coefficient of accumulation of lead in the leaf mass and the seeds of milk thistle for fertilization with mineral fertilizers was also revealed. Thus, when fertilizing milk thistle with ammonium nitrate, potassium chloride, simple superphosphate and a mixture of these mineral fertilizers, the coefficient of accumulation of lead in the seeds was lower by 2.89 times, 3.25, 3.17 and 2.85 times, respectively. When fertilizing milk thistle with humus, sugar beet lime sludge compost and the use of green manure (mustard) and four-year predecessor (alfalfa sowing), the coefficient of accumulation of lead in the leaf mass ranged from 2.8 to 3.6, which averaged 3.2. The lowest coefficient of accumulation of lead, which

was 2.8 among organic fertilizers, was observed for the four-year predecessor – alfalfa sowing. In the seeds of milk thistle with organic fertilizer, the coefficient of accumulation of lead ranged from 0.41 to 1.4, which averaged 1.07. The lowest coefficient of accumulation of lead in the seeds of milk thistle was also observed when growing it after a four-year predecessor (alfalfa sowing).

Comparing the coefficient of accumulation of lead in the production of milk thistle with organic fertilizer, it should be noted that the use of humus, sugar beet lime sludge compost, green manure (mustard) and four-year predecessor (alfalfa sowing) this figure was lower in seeds compared to leaf mass 2.33 times, 2.78 times and 6.8 times, respectively.

With surface (leaf) fertilization of milk thistle with phosphorus-chelate, potassium-chelate and growth-concentrate, the coefficient of accumulation of lead in the leaf mass ranged from 3.2 to 5.7, which averaged 4.4. The lowest coefficient of accumulation of lead in

the leaf mass of milk thistle was observed for growth-concentrate fertilizer.

Characterizing the coefficient of accumulation of lead in the seeds of milk thistle with foliar fertilizer, it should be noted that this figure ranged from 1.03 to 1.18, which averaged 1.17. The lowest coefficient of accumulation of lead in the seeds of milk thistle with its foliar fertilizer was observed with the use of potassium chelate and growth concentrate. When using as fertilizer milk thistle phosphorus-chelate, potassium-chelate and growth concentrate, the coefficient of accumulation of lead in the seeds was lower by 3.81 times, 5.53, 3.49 and 3.1 times, respectively, compared to the leaf mass.

Characterizing the coefficient of accumulation of cadmium with milk thistle for fertilization with mineral and organic fertilizers, it is also necessary to note a certain tendency to increase and decrease this indicator (table 2).

Table 2

Coefficient of Cd accumulation in milk thistle when using different types of fertilizers

Experiment options	Accumulation factor, average for options	
	Leaf mass	Seeds
Ammonium nitrate (N <sub>60</sub> )	24.0	6.0
Potassium chloride (K <sub>60</sub> )	17.0	5.2
Superphosphate simple (P <sub>60</sub> )	13.6	5.3
N <sub>60</sub> P <sub>60</sub> K <sub>60</sub>	15.0	4.8
Humus, 20 t/ha	10.8	4.0
Sugar beet lime sludge compost, 6 t/ha	11.6	6.9
Green manure (mustard)	10	3.7
4-year-old predecessor (alfalfa sowing)	10.5	2.0
Phosphorus-chelate, 0,9 l/ha	16.8	3.3
Potassium-chelate, 0,9 l/ha	18.2	3.2
Growth-concentrate, 0,5 l/ha	19.7	4.1

Analyzing the results of research, it should be noted that when used as fertilizer milk thistle spotted mineral fertilizers (ammonium nitrate, potassium chloride, superphosphate) and their mixtures per hectare in the active raw material N<sub>60</sub>, K<sub>60</sub>, P<sub>60</sub>, respectively, the accumulation coefficient of cadmium in the leaf from 13.6 to 24.0, which averaged 19.9. The lowest cadmium accumulation coefficient – 13.6 was observed in the leaf mass of milk thistle when using simple superphosphate.

In the seeds of milk thistle when using mineral fertilizers, the accumulation coefficient of cadmium ranged from 4.8 to 6.0, which averaged 5.32. The lowest coefficient of accumulation of cadmium in the seeds of milk thistle was observed for its fertilizer mixture (ammonium nitrate, potassium chloride, superphosphate).

Along with this, it should be noted that the coefficient of cadmium accumulation in the leaf of milk thistle for fertilization with humus, sugar beet lime sludge compost, green manure (mustard) on the four-year predecessor (alfalfa sowing) ranged from 10 to 11.6, which averaged 10.7. The lowest coefficient of cadmium accumulation in the leaf mass under organic fertilizer was observed after the use of green manure and four-year predecessor of alfalfa sowing.

At the same time, it should be noted that in the seeds of milk thistle the accumulation coefficient was also 2.7 times lower than with humus fertilizer, 1.7 times lower than sugar beet lime sludge compost, 2.7 times lower than green manure and 5.2 times lower than its 4-year predecessor (alfalfa sowing).

Analysis of the coefficient of cadmium accumulation in the leaf mass of milk thistle for fertilization with microfertilizers (phosphorus-chelate, potassium-chelate, growth-concentrate) was in the range of 16.8-19.7, which averaged 18.2. The lowest coefficient of cadmium accumulation in the leaf mass of milk thistle was observed for its fertilizer with phosphorus-chelate.

In the seeds of milk thistle with the use of microfertilizers, the accumulation coefficient of cadmium ranged from 3.2 to 4.1, which averaged 3.5. The lowest coefficient of cadmium accumulation in the seeds of milk thistle was found when using potassium-chelate for its fertilizer. The accumulation coefficient of cadmium in milk thistle seeds was also the lowest for fertilizer with phosphorus-chelate 5.1 times, potassium-chelate – 5.6 times and growth-concentrate – 5.6 times compared to the leaf mass.

### Conclusion

The analysis of the obtained research results showed that the highest coefficient of accumulation of

lead and cadmium in the leaf mass and seeds of milk thistle is observed for the use of mineral fertilizers, relatively lower – when using organic fertilizers. Among mineral fertilizers, the lowest level of lead accumulation was observed when using superphosphate simple and a mixture of fertilizers (simple superphosphate, ammonium nitrate, potassium chloride). When using organic fertilizers, the lowest coefficient of accumulation of lead and cadmium in the leaf mass and seeds of milk thistle was observed after green fertilizers (mustard) and four-year predecessor (alfalfa sowing), and when using foliar fertilizer – phosphorus-chelate.

Among all the studied fertilizer variants, the highest efficiency in reducing the accumulation of lead and cadmium in the leaf mass and seeds of milk thistle in the agricultural lands of the right-bank Forest-Steppe of Ukraine was observed for growing this crop after green fertilizers (mustard) and perennial legumes (4-year-old predecessor of alfalfa sowing).

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21. Trace elements, their role for plants. 2020. URL: <http://artahg.com.ua/statti/mikroelementy-yikh-rol-dlyaroslyn.html>



# **DURATION OF VEGETATIONS AND INTERPHASE PERIODS OF SPRING BARLEY DEPENDING ON TEMPERATURE INFLUENCE OF CULTIVATION IN THE CONDITIONS OF THE RIGHT-BANK FOREST-STEPPE OF UKRAINE**

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## **ТРИВАЛІСТЬ ВЕГЕТАЦІЙ ТА МІЖФАЗНИХ ПЕРІОДІВ ЯЧМЕНЮ ЯРОГО ЗАЛЕЖНО ВІД ТЕМПЕРАТУРНОГО ВПЛИВУ ВИРОЩУВАННЯ В УМОВАХ ПРАВОБЕРЕЖНОГО ЛІСОСТЕПУ УКРАЇНИ**

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### **Abstract**

According to research, scientists have found that the productivity of spring barley depends not only on the variety and application of fertilizers, but also on soil and climatic conditions. Spring barley is one of the most cold-resistant crops of the spring group. Its seeds begin to germinate at a temperature of 1–2 °C, and seedlings and young plants easily withstand frosts up to -3– -4 °C, and sometimes up to -7– -9 °C. During the growing season, barley is resistant to high temperatures, can withstand a short-term increase to 38–40 °C. [1]

Very sensitive barley is spring to excessive soil moisture and sharply reduces its yield on swampy soils, insufficiently loosened with close groundwater.

The influence of hydrothermal conditions of spring barley cultivation in the conditions of the Right - Bank Forest - Steppe of Ukraine is investigated. Research is conducted at the Research Farm "Agronomic" VNAU, with. Agronomic of Vinnytsia district. On the basis of researches dependence of efficiency of productivity of spring barley on hydrothermal conditions is proved.

To reduce the negative impact of weather conditions of individual years on the stability of the gross harvest of barley grain, it is necessary to make foliar feeding in the tillering phase and in the tube. Biologicals such as Aminostim 2 l / ha, Biomag 1 l / ha, Grain yield 2 l / ha, Universal yield 2 l / ha were included in the study period. And also there is a need to grow several varieties of barley due to the effectiveness of the use of agro background of individual soils, precursors and fertilizers.

### **Анотація**

За даними досліджень науковців встановлено, що продуктивність ячменю ярого залежить, не лише від сорту та внесення добрив, але і від ґрунтово-кліматичних умов. Ячмінь ярий – одна з найбільш холодостійких культур ярої групи. Його насіння починає проростати при температурі 1–2 °C, а сходи й молоді рослини легко витримують заморозки до -3– -4 °C, а інколи до -7– -9 °C. У період вегетації ячмінь стійкий до високих температур, витримує короточасне їх підвищення до 38–40 °C [1].

Дуже чутливий ячмінь ярий до надмірної вологості ґрунту і різко знижує свою врожайність на заболочених ґрунтах, недостатньо розпушених із близьким заляганням ґрунтових вод.

Досліджено вплив гідротермічних умов вирощування сортів ярого ячменю в умовах Правобережного Лісостепу України. Дослідження проводяться на Науково-дослідному господарстві «Агрономічне» ВНАУ, с. Агрономічне Вінницького району. На основі досліджень доведено залежність ефективності продуктивності ярого ячменю від гідротермічних умов.

Щоб зменшити негативний вплив погодних умов окремих років на стабільність валових зборів зерна ячменю, потрібно вносити позакореневе підживлення в фазі кущення та у вихід в трубку. В термін проведення дослідження були внесені такі біопрепарати, як Аміностим 2 л/га, Біомаг 1 л/га, Урожай зерно 2 л/га, Урожай універсальний 2 л/га. А також є необхідністю вирощувати декілька сортів ячменю зумовлюється і ефективністю використання агрофону окремих ґрунтів, попередників і добрив.

**Keywords:** Spring barley, phases of plant development, temperature, frost, cold resistance.

**Ключові слова:** Ярий ячмінь, фази розвитку рослини, температура, заморозки, холодостійкість.

**Актуальність.** Ячмінь ярий - невимоглива до тепла культура. Насіннєвий матеріал починає проростати при мінімальній температурі 1-2 °C, а оптимальною є 15-20°C. За вегетаційний період сума активних температур (вище +5 °C) становить 1800-2200°C. [2, 3, 4]

Враховуючи специфіку ґрунтово-кліматичних умов та особливості нових сортів ячменю ярого, що по-різному реагують на окремі елементи технології, необхідно встановити оптимальні рівні технологічних заходів, які забезпечують отримання гарантованого врожаю. Технологія вирощування ячменю ярого повинна передбачати створення умов, за яких повністю реалізуються потенційні можливості культури за якісними та врожайними показниками. У першу чергу – це чітке дотримання агротехнічних заходів та строків їх проведення. [5]

Стрімка зміна погодних умов та часта повторюваність весняно-літніх посух, що мають місце останніми роками, вимагають від вчених розробки нових і удосконалення існуючих ефективних технологічних заходів послаблення негативного впливу жорстких кліматичних змін з метою стабілізації рівня врожаїв та валових зборів зерна ячменю ярого, адже це має велике наукове та практичне значення. [6]

#### **Аналіз останніх досліджень і публікацій.**

Наукові дослідження які проводились протягом 2009-2011 рр. в типових для правобережного Лісостепу ґрунтово-кліматичних умовах шляхом закладки польових і лабораторно-польових дослідів. Погодні умови в роки досліджень були досить контрастними й відрізнялись від середньобаторічних як за інтенсивністю надходження тепла, так і за рівнем зволоження. [7]

Середньодобова температура повітря вегетаційний період культури перевищувала середньобаторічні показники в 2009 р. на 1,5°C, в 2010 р. 2,3°C та 2011 р. на 1,6 °C. Щодо опадів, то їх розподіл був нерівномірним. У 2009 р. випало 196,4 мм опадів, що менше на 94,6 мм від середньобаторічного показника. Тоді, як у 2010 р. у період вихід в трубку, цвітіння, колосіння) рослин ячменю ярого, який припав на червень та липень місяці, спостерігалась тепла погода з рясними дощами.

Кількість опадів що припали на період червня (182,0 мм) у 2 рази перевищувала багаторічний показник (87 мм), що в спричинило прикореневе вилягання ячменю ярого. Липень порівняно з середньобаторічним показником (92 мм), відмічався більшою кількістю опадів (101,9 мм). Найбільш сприятливим щодо опадів відзначався 2011 рік. В період генеративного росту та розвитку рослини ярого ячменю випало 134,7 мм опадів, що більше на 47,7 мм від середнього багаторічного показника. [8]

За даними останніх досліджень у зоні правобережного Лісостепу на початку вегетаційного циклу величина суми ФАР ярого ячменю становила 171,9

кал/(см<sup>2</sup> доба). Далі показник ФАР зростає до максимального 271,4 кал/( см<sup>2</sup> доба) в міжфазний період колосіння – молочна стиглість. В кінці вегетаційного періоду значення суми ФАР знижується до 266,5 кал/(см<sup>2</sup>доба). Приріст потенційної урожайності на початку вегетації ярого ячменю, становить 8,4 г/(м<sup>2</sup> доба). Плавно збільшуючись протягом всіх фаз розвитку культури, набуває максимального значення 90 16,2 г/(м<sup>2</sup> доба) в кінці міжфазного періоду колосіння-молочна стиглість. До кінця вегетаційного циклу рівень ПУ знижується до 13,9 г/(м<sup>2</sup> доба). [9]

За даними дослідження Пташник О. В., студента Кіровоградського національного технічного університету, про значення препарату ГРЕЙНАКТИВ-С У формуванні продуктивності посівів ячменю ярого СОЗОНІВСЬКИЙ, показали забезпеченість рослин культури вологою та теплом свідчить ГТК в окремі вегетаційні періоди, який в середньому за вегетацію культури 2014 р. склав 1,63. Опади, які випали в третю декаду травня (ГТК=2,16) та у першу декаду червня (ГТК=1,29), позитивно вплинули на озерненість колоса, що позначилося на урожайності культури. Через нестачу вологи в період наливу зерна (ГТК=0,18 при середньо-багаторічному показнику – 1,16) не вдалося реалізувати закладену на початку вегетації високу біологічну урожайність. Особливістю погодних умов 2014 р. було інтенсивне накопичення ефективних температур у квітні-травні, що прискорило проходження фази кушіння та виходу рослин у трубку.

**Мета статті.** Полягає у виявленні впливу гідротермічних умов вирощування ячменю ярого на тривалість вегетаційних та міжфазних періодів в умовах правобережного Лісостепу України

**Методи.** При проведенні досліджень використовуються загальнонаукові та спеціальні методи: польовий, пасивно експериментальний, лабораторний, порівняльно-розрахунковий, статистичний.

**Результати дослідження та їх обговорення.** Дослідження проводились на дослідному полі Вінницького національного аграрного університету

с. Агрономічне, Вінницького району впродовж 2018-2020 років. Знаходиться дослідне поле в Лісостеповій ґрунтово-кліматичній зоні. Зона займає площу понад 205 тис. км., що становить близько третини (34,4 %) території України. Сільськогосподарські угіддя займають 35 % державного фонду земель. Природні умови зони неоднорідні в геоморфологічному, кліматичному, гідрологічному й літогранулометричному аспектах, що адекватно відображається в особливостях ґрунтового покриву та його агропромислових якостях. [10]

У зв'язку з сприятливою ґрунтово-кліматичною зоною підібравши такі сорти ячменю ярого, як Армакс та Сварог які надають бажаний результат врожайності та появу в строки фази розвитку рослини.

Таблиця 1

Показники температурного режиму в основні фази росту і розвитку ярого ячменю

Фази розвитку культури	Температура повітря 5 см. на рівнем ґрунту		
	мінімальна	достатня	оптимальна
Сівба – сходи	1-2	3-14	15-20
Кущення – вихід у трубку	4-5	6-11	12-20
Вихід у трубку – цвітіння – колосіння	10-12	13-19	20-22
Дозрівання (молочна, воскова і повна стиглість)	15-20	21-22	23-24

Перша пара листків ярого ячменю, яка з'являється на 7-8 день після появи повних сходів, через 4-5 днів появляються 2 та 3 пара листків в цей час одночасно відбувається кущення. Перша пара листків ярого ячменю, легко витримують заморозки до мінус 3-4 °С, а інколи до 7-9 °С. При такому зниженні температури листя може загинути, але вузол кущення зберігається і після підвищення температури рослини відростають і продовжують вегетацію. Біологічний мінімум для появи сходів 4-5 °С. Мінімальна температура для формування генеративних органів 10-12 °С.

Для вчасного розвитку кореневої системи, кушіння і формування колоса (від з'явлення сходів до виходу в трубку) необхідна температура в межах 12-20 °С. У період вегетації оптимальною для росту й розвитку рослин є температура 20-22°С.

Ярий ячмінь характеризується високою серед ярих зернових першої групи стійкістю проти високої температури, легко витримуючи підвищення її до 38-40 °С. За такої температури прорости в листках та інших органах ячменю паралізуються лише через добу-півтори (25-35 год.), тоді як у вівса - через 5 год, а у ярої пшениці - вже через 10-17 год. настає їх параліч. Саме тому посіви ярого ячменю поширені у південних регіонах України.

Від температурних умов кожного року значною мірою залежить рівень урожаю та якість зерна. Оцінку температурних умов у роки проведення досліджень проводили на основі метеорологічних даних.

Таблиця 2

Характеристика середньодобових температур, °С повітря за період квітень – липень 2018-2020 років

Місяць	Роки	Середньодобова температура, °С.	Дати фази розвитку	Фази розвитку ячменю ярого
Квітень	2018 р.	18,1	12 20	Сівба – сходи
	2019 р.	13,2	8 15	
	2020 р.	14,5	7 20	
Травень	2018 р.	22,5	29 квітня 7	Кущення – вихід у трубку
	2019 р.	19,6	21 квітня 14	
	2020 р.	17,1	27 квітня 19	
Червень	2018 р.	23	4 8	Вихід у трубку – цвітіння – колосіння
	2019 р.	26,5	12 14	
	2020 р.	24,1	17 20	
Липень	2018 р.	23,3	1	Дозрівання (молочна, воскова і повна стиглість)
	2019 р.	23,8	5 10	
	2020 р.	24,5	8 16	

Сівба ячменю ярого розпочалися 2018 року і протягом 3 років повторювалися, та вносилися біопрепарати. Продуктивність та врожайність не значно відрізнялась усі трьох років. На такий результат вплинули гідротермічні умови та позакореневе підживлення.

У 2018 році сівба культури відбулася 12 квітня при середньодобовій температурі 18,1°C, що призвело до швидких сходів ячменю ярого, які з'явилися 22 квітня.

Фаза кушення та вихід у трубку призупинились, оскільки середньодобова температура травня сягнула до 22,5 °C, що призвело до пониження вологості в ґрунті. Ячмінь ярий розпочав кушитися через 10 днів після появи повних сходів.

Отже фаза стеблуння теж настала пізніше на 4 дні, тобто через 28 днів після появи повних сходів. Причиною цього стала оптимальна температура для виходу в трубку та внесення позакоренового підживлення.

Цвітіння настало після попередньої фази через 29 днів з середньодобовою температурою 22,4 °C. Через 10 днів настала молочна стиглість зерна, при середньомісячній температурі 23,3°C. На 8 день молочної стиглості культура розвинулась до воскової стиглості зерна при температурі 23 °C, яка стала оптимальною для даної фази розвитку ячменю ярого. 4 липня на 3 день після завершення воскової стиглості настала повна стиглість зерна культури. В даній фазі повної стиглості ячменю ярого сприяла середньодобова температура липня 23,3°C.

Отже, 2018 рік став оптимальним для росту та розвитку ячменю ярого по середньомісячній температурі повітря, незважаючи на недостатню кількість опадів фази проходили із незначним відхиленням, тому що під час проходження двох головних фаз у вегетації, кушення та вихід у трубку, вносили позакореневе підживлення.

У 2019 році посів ячменю ярого проводився 3 квітня, оскільки місяць був холодним з середньодобовою температурою 13,2 °C, в результаті чого перші сходи з'явилися через 12 днів, а повні через 15 днів після сівби.

Через 6 днів після перших сходів настала фаза кушення, та появилися 3 пари листків при середньодобовій температурі 19,6 °C, яка є сприятливою для розвитку даної фази культури. Для нормальної продуктивності ячменю ярого у фазі кушення вносили біопрепарати, що призвело до збільшенню продуктивних стебел у одній рослині.

Фаза вихід в трубку настала вчасно при оптимальній середньодобовій температурі 19,6°C, яка була меншою на 2,9 °C з 2018 рік та при оптимальних опадах проходила стабільна вегетація ячменю ярого.

Вчасне внесення позакоренового підживлення та оптимальних гідротермічних умов 2019 року призвело до ранішого завершення вегетації та високої продуктивності культури.

2020 рік для вегетації культури став оптимальним. Середньодобова температура квітня сягала 14,5 °C, що дало змогу провести сівбу ячменю

ярого. Перші сходи з'явилися 20 квітня на 5 днів пізніше ніж 2018 році, оскільки температура повітря була меншою на 4 °C ніж у 2018 році та на 2 дні пізніше за 2019 рік.

Кушення та поява 3 пар листків з'явилися на два дні пізніше ніж у 2018 та на 1 день ніж у 2019 роках. Під час фази кушення було внесене позакореневе підживлення, що дало можливість вчасно настати фазі виходу в трубку. Подальшому вегетація ячменю ярого проходила стабільно в результаті отримали врожайність більшу за 2018 рік але на 0,2 т/га меншу за 2019 рік.

**Висновки та перспективи подальших досліджень.** Необхідно звернути увагу на те, що в зоні проведення досліджень спостерігається суттєве ранньою весною підвищення температура та істотна диференціація умов вологозабезпеченості зернових культур, зокрема ячменю ярого. За результатами спостережень та проведеного аналізу необхідно зробити висновок, що правобережний Лісостеп України за ґрунтово-кліматичними умовами в цілому сприятливий для вирощування ячменю ярого на зерно і отримання урожайності на рівні 5,5-6,5 т/га.

Підсумуючи проведені за три роки результати дослідження про ріст та розвиток ячменю ярого, можна зробити висновок, що вплив температури повітря та вологості ґрунту мають певне значення. А також внесення позакоренового підживлення в певних фазах росту та розвитку культури призводить не лише на підвищення урожайності у несприятливих ґрунтово-кліматичних умовах і збільшення на 1-2 продуктивних стебел на одній рослині ярого ячменю.

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# ECONOMIC SCIENCES

## THE STATE OF THE THEORY OF FINANCIAL STABILITY IN THE REPUBLIC OF TAJIKISTAN

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### Abstract

The article assesses the state of the theory of financial stability in the Republic of Tajikistan, which is experiencing the consequences of the pandemic. The study of the financial sector of the Republic of Tajikistan showed that its financial stability is poorly assessed, but it is not pre-default. The article assesses the macroeconomic situation in the Republic of Tajikistan and assesses the level of development of its elements using a systematic approach.

**Keywords:** financial stability; theory, Republic of Tajikistan, pandemic.

**Introduction.** The development and effectiveness of the financial sector and, consequently, the financial market largely depend on the development of the institutional structure of the economy as a whole and, of course, primarily on the degree of development and effective functioning of state and non - state financial institutions, institutions – functions in the financial sphere. When we talk about the financial market of the state, we usually mean a certain integral and self-sufficient structure that corresponds to the classical idea of this element of the financial system [1]. This structure generally includes: the securities market, the credit market, the foreign exchange market, the precious metals market, and the investment market [2]. Studies by various authors show that there are states in the world whose financial markets are in an undeveloped state, and therefore their structure is very different from the common model [3]. Such countries include the Republic of Tajikistan.

**Methods:** a dialectical approach to the knowledge of social phenomena, which allows us to identify the existing concepts of financial stability in financial management. The work also used general scientific research methods (dialectics, analysis, synthesis, consistency, complexity), as well as other special techniques and procedures.

**Results and discussion.** Tajikistan is the poorest of the former Soviet Central Asian republics, with a GDP per capita of about \$ 900 (Figure 1). The reforms being implemented in Tajikistan are aimed at improving the business climate in the country, attracting investment, and developing tourism. They are generally more successful than those of their neighboring countries. In addition, the reforms provide for the modernization of the energy sector and the health sector.

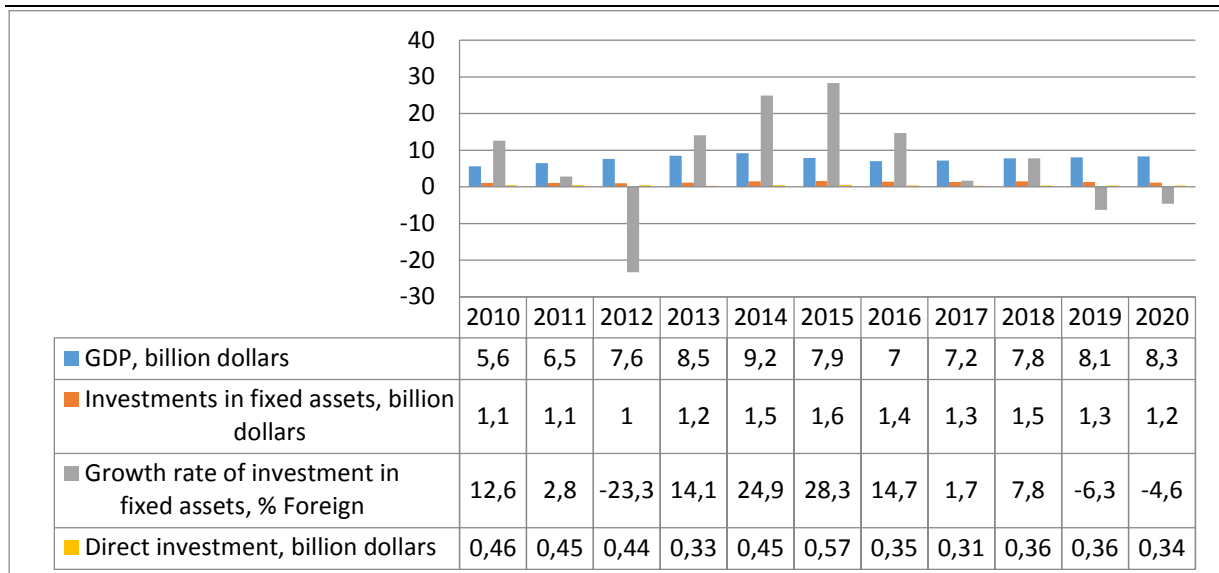


Figure 1. Growth rate of fixed capital investment in Tajikistan in 2010-2019.

The dynamics of investment in fixed assets (Figure 1) in recent years has largely been driven by investment in energy projects: for example, in 2019, the volume of investment in energy projects decreased, and the growth rate of total investment in fixed assets also decreased. In 2020, the volume of investment activity naturally decreased: according to the results of the first half of the year, investments in fixed assets decreased by 4.6% compared to the same period last year. The decline was primarily due to a decrease in state and foreign financing of investment projects [4].

The inflow of foreign direct investment to Tajikistan has slowed since 2015, with a further decline in 2020 due to increased uncertainty (Figure 1).

China accounts for more than half of foreign investment in the country. Russia, Great Britain, France, Turkey and Switzerland are also significant partners of Tajikistan.

The main sectors attracting investment in Tajikistan are mining and manufacturing, which account for more than 2/3 of foreign direct investment.

In 2019, 2.4 thousand people officially left Tajikistan, and about 400 people entered the country. According to Rosstat, about 90 thousand citizens of Tajikistan came to Russia in 2019, 41 thousand left Russia for Tajikistan.

Credit activity experienced a significant decline in 2016-2017, after which it was recorded at a new, lower level (Figure 2). The increase in credit activity at the end of 2020 indicates primarily the easing of the monetary policy of the National Bank of Tajikistan, as well as measures to support the population and business. At the same time, it should be noted that in the first half of 2020, the share of bad loans increased from 24% to 27.2%.

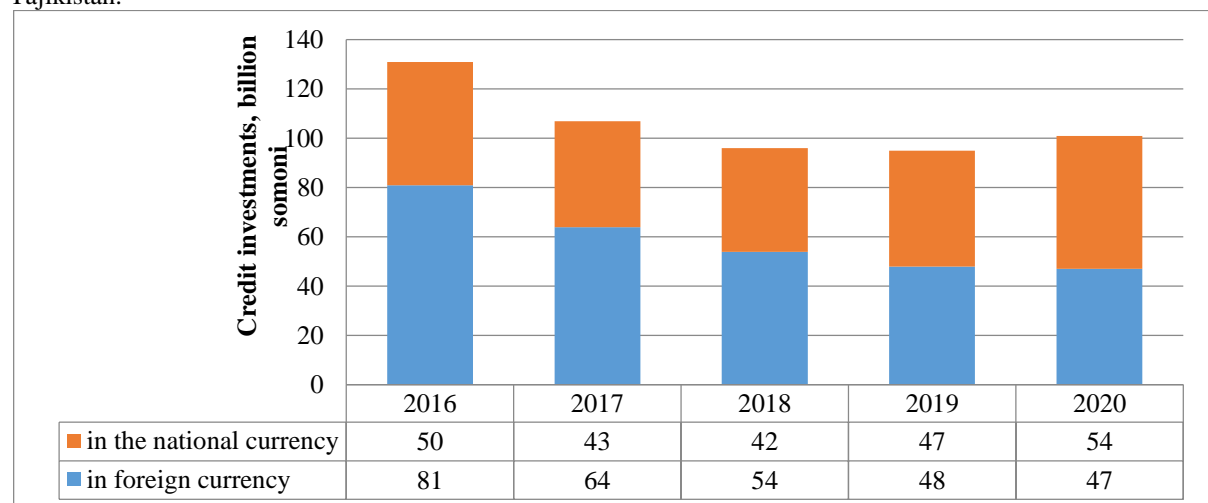


Figure 2. Credit activity in Tajikistan, 2016-2020.

Tajikistan's economic growth rate is the highest in the region, with GDP growing at an average rate of 6-7% per year over the past few years. However, in 2020, the economic crisis caused by the COVID-19 pandemic interrupted this trend – the growth rate in 2020 is expected to be 1% or lower (Figure 3). It should be noted

that the decline in growth rates in Tajikistan began in the second quarter of 2020, in the first quarter there was an increase of about 5% compared to the same period in 2019.

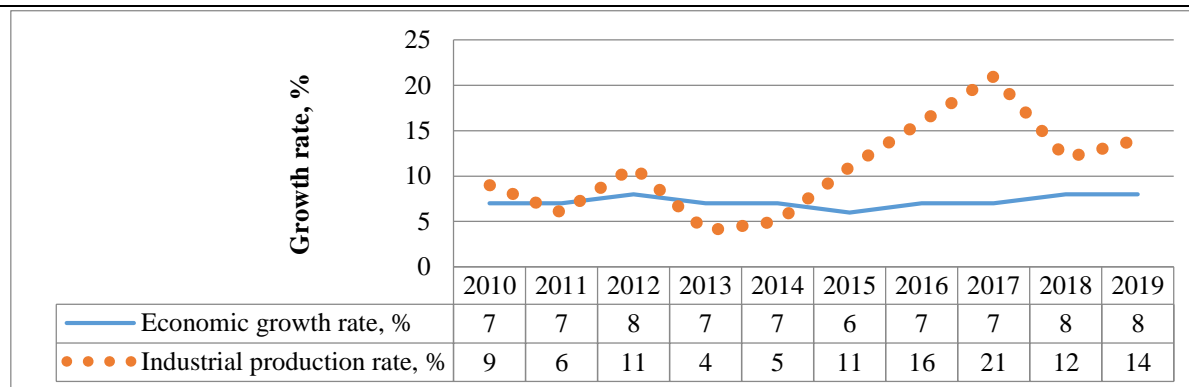


Figure 3. Economic growth and industrial production growth in Tajikistan in 2010-2019.

In the structure of Tajikistan's GDP, a significant share is occupied by agriculture and forestry, as well as industry, in which the most significant share is occupied by the cotton industry, metallurgy, and mining (Figure 4).

The decline in GDP in the second quarter of 2020 was primarily due to a decline in construction, trade, services and transport, with industry contracting only slightly and agriculture showing growth of more than 20%.

Since 2017, Tajikistan has declared inflation targeting as its monetary policy – achieving price stability

with an inflation rate of  $6\pm 2\%$  ( $6\pm 2\%$  in 2018-2019). 2018 was successful in terms of keeping inflation in the planned corridor, but since the beginning of 2019, inflation has started to accelerate and exceeded the upper limit. The national regulator expected an early decline in inflation, believing that the increase in the rate of price growth was caused by short-term reasons, but the economic crisis of 2020 increased pro-inflationary factors.

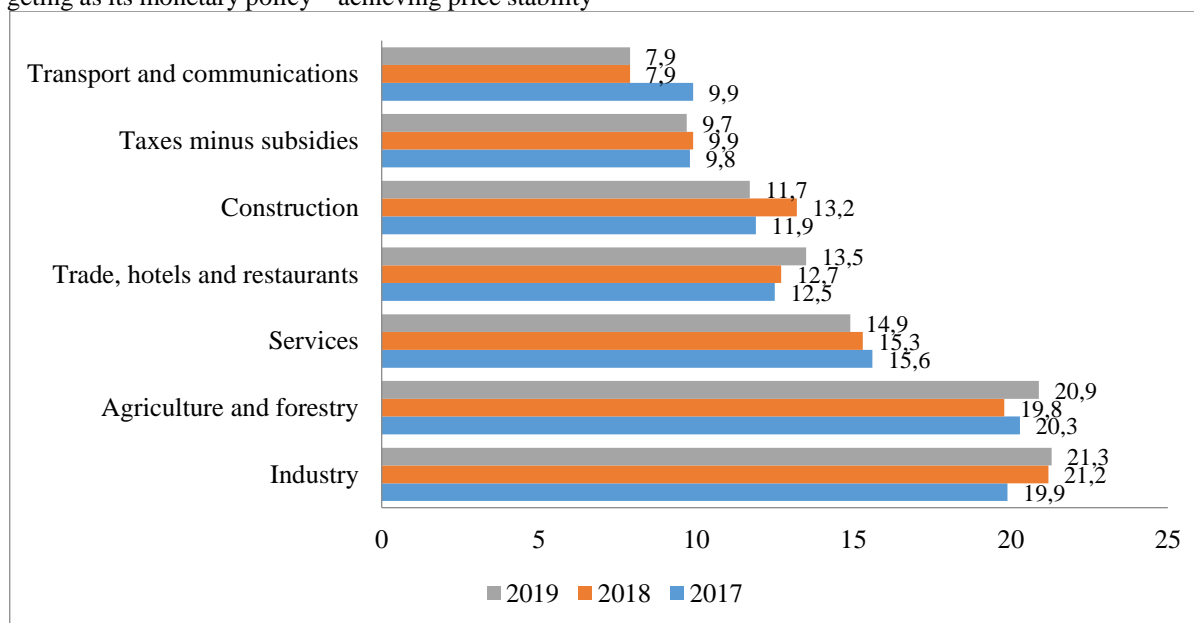


Figure 4. Dynamics of the structure of Tajikistan's GDP in 2017-2019 (% of GDP).

First of all, the acceleration in inflation is due to the growth rate of food prices, while non-food inflation slowed in 2020.

The money supply has been growing at a steady pace over the past few years, and at the beginning of 2020 it was slightly reduced-simultaneously with the increase in the refinancing rate-against the background of the emergence of pro-inflationary factors, but in the second half of 2020, the rate reduction and the build-up of the money supply continued.

The exchange rate of the national currency tends to gradually devalue. The National Bank of Tajikistan

declares a floating exchange rate regime, but has an official exchange rate of the dollar to the somoni, which is subject to manual correction.

The state budget of Tajikistan has remained in deficit in recent years, although with a tendency to consolidate (Figure 5). The amount of public debt is below the threshold of 70% of GDP, at the level of 40-50%. Domestic debt accounts for about 20% of the total public debt, the main part of which is owed to international financial organizations (the IMF, development banks).



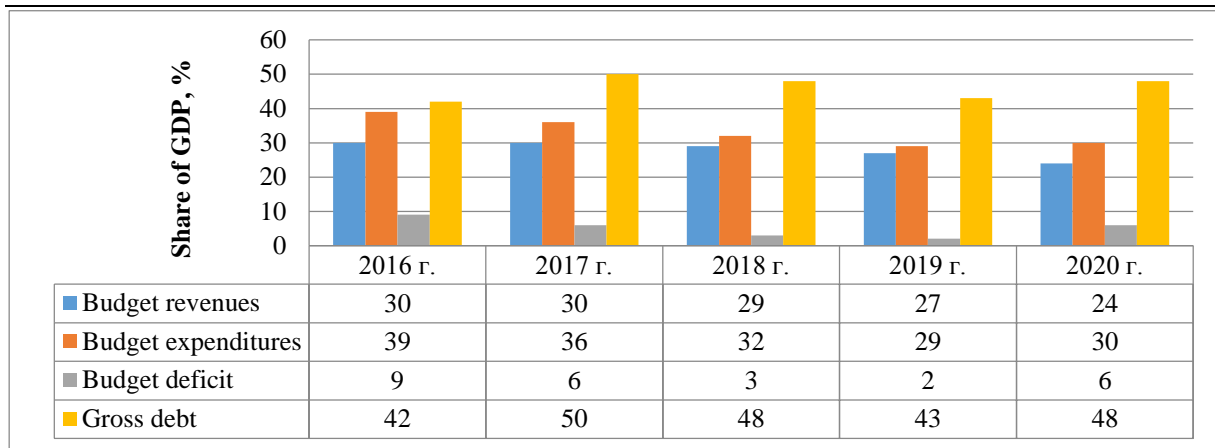


Figure 5. Tajikistan's budget parameters, public debt.

The pandemic crisis has had a significant negative impact on the state budget of Tajikistan: the trend of gradual reduction of the budget deficit was interrupted, in 2020, the deficit amounted to 6% of GDP. Revenues in 2020 decreased-primarily due to a reduction in the collection of taxes on income and profit, expenses in turn increased.

The increase in public debt for budget purposes was primarily due to borrowing from international financial institutions.

Tajikistan is an importing country, the volume of imports significantly exceeds the volume of exports

(Figure 6). The main export products are precious metals, cotton, and electricity. The main imported goods are petroleum products and cereals. The current account balance is mostly negative, but not significantly – primarily due to the excess of the level of imports over the level of exports, which in turn is balanced by a significant inflow of foreign currency into the country due to transfers of individuals. It should be noted that the volume of capital flows within primary and secondary incomes did not change much in 2020, and due to a significant increase in exports (from 14-15% of GDP to 21% of GDP) and a slight drop in imports, the current account balance became positive.

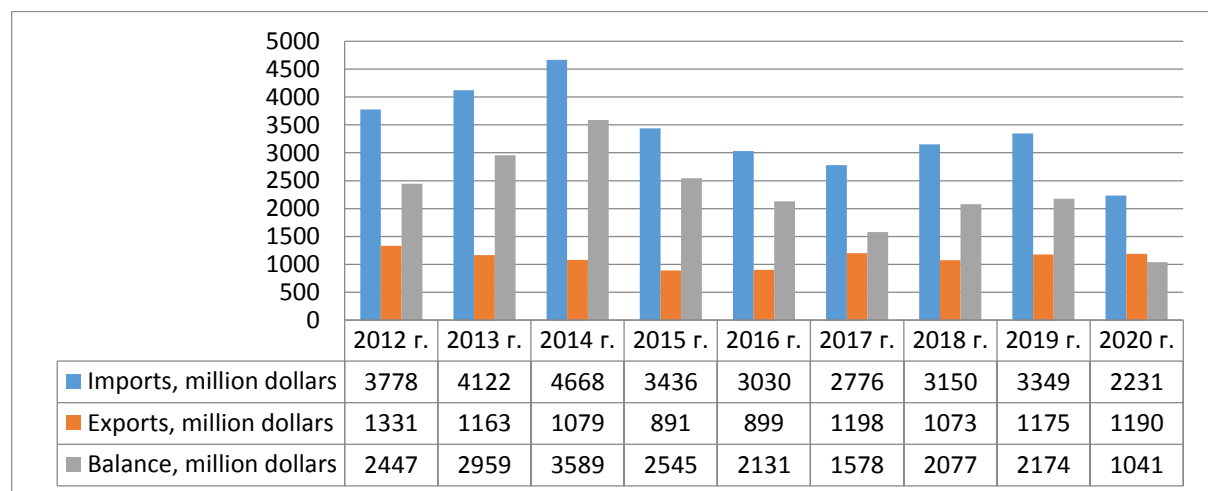


Figure 6. Tajikistan's foreign trade balance in 2012-2020

Tajikistan's exports are fairly evenly distributed across the countries – about 44% of exports go to the CIS countries (of which Russia-about 4%, the main export partner in the CIS – Uzbekistan), 23% of exports go to Europe, and primarily to Eastern European countries outside the EU. Tajikistan imports two-thirds of all goods from the CIS, half of them from Russia.

For 9 months of 2020, Tajikistan began to export less to the CIS countries, which was offset by exports to non-CIS countries, which increased more than 2 times compared to 2019. Imports from non-CIS countries also declined, while imports from the CIS remained stable.

Tajikistan has a large external debt (Figure 5) in relation to exports and transfers (Figure 6). In the last 5 years, its value was almost 200%. At the same time, debt servicing takes up a fifth of exports and transfers, which is difficult for the economy, and gold and foreign exchange reserves are approximately equal to the volume of debt payments on the horizon of 1 year, which is estimated moderately negatively.

In general, financial stability is poorly assessed, but it is not pre-default (Figure 7). In January 2021 Tajikistan has asked for small debt modifications, which highlights the problems with financial stability.

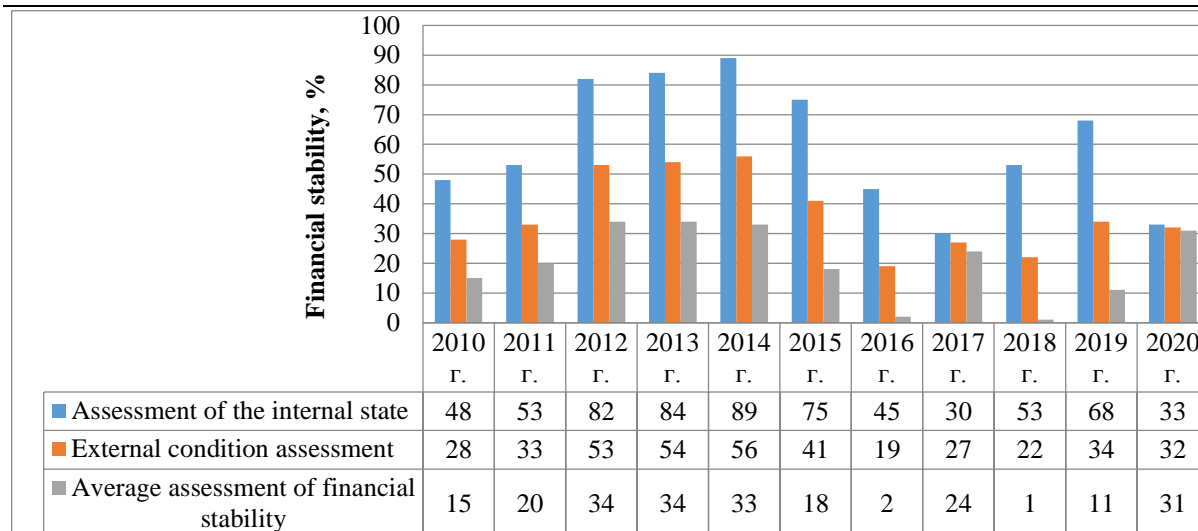


Figure 7. Assessment of Tajikistan's financial stability.

**Conclusion.** As part of the fight against the consequences of the pandemic, the country managed to attract funds from international organizations. The EU allocated about €80 million: €48 million in a grant, €30 million in a loan from the European Investment Bank for the implementation of the government's anti-crisis plan, as well as separately €1.3 million for protective clothing for health workers and €780 thousand for sanitary supplies for educational institutions.

In addition, several monetary measures were taken to support the liquidity of credit financial institutions. The NBT Monetary Policy Committee revised the refinancing rate twice in May-July 2020 and set it at 10.75 percent per annum on August 3, 2020. Starting from April 1, 2020, the ratio of mandatory reserves of credit financial institutions for deposits and similar obligations in the national currency was also reduced from 3% to 1% (2 percentage points) and in foreign currency from 9% to 5% (4 percentage points).

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# JURISPRUDENCE

## PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, ONE OF THE NECESSARY CONDITIONS FOR THE MEMBERSHIP OF THE REPUBLIC OF ALBANIA IN THE EUROPEAN UNION

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### Abstract

Opening of negotiations (negotiations) for EU membership, conditioned by the fulfillment of 5 key priorities such as: Establishment of a professional and depoliticized administration; Strengthening the independence of justice institutions; Fight against corruption; Fight against organized crime; Protection of human rights.

After fulfilling these 5 priorities, Albania's task during the negotiation process will be the approval and implementation of the entire EU acquis, which is divided into 35 chapters, the progress of each of them is monitored and evaluated by the European Commission. Only after the talks and the accompanying reforms have been completed satisfactorily for both parties (Albania and the EU) can the country join the union. As part of the monitoring process, the European Commission periodically measures Albania's progress in meeting the European agenda through Progress Reports which are published once a year<sup>1</sup>

**Keywords:** Republic of Albania, membership in the European Union, 5 key priorities, professional and depoliticized administration, European Commission.

### I. INTRODUCTION

While in Albanian the term "public administration" is distinguished from the term "public administration", in other languages the same term is used for both of these notions: "public administration" (English), "administration publique" (French), "amministrazione pubblica" or "public administration" (Italian). The term "public administration" has a double meaning<sup>2</sup>:

- in the objective sense (functional definition), the term defines the totality of activities performed that respond to the needs of a general interest of the population (public order, public services market, etc.); this meaning is related to the public function (administrative function);

- in the subjective sense (organic definition), is a set of subjects that exercise the above function<sup>3</sup>.

Thus, public administrations are institutional government units that regulate the functioning of society. Public administration is an interface between government, civil society, the private sector and citizens. It implements public policies undertaken by the government thus increasing social cohesion and trust between the state and citizens. While public administration, in particular, is a field of study of political science. He studies the forms of organization of the State, of the organization of democracy, of the implementation of public policies; in short, anything related to the action of organizing the public sphere<sup>4</sup>.

Public administrations are divided into central administration (ministries and other central

institutions), territorial administration (local government units).

The employees of this administrative apparatus are called state officials (as in France, Italy, etc.), because they serve to perform the functions of the State. In Albania, these are called civil servants, because they have been hired by the State. Employees' relations with the State are defined in two ways: either through a Status determined by a special law or through a Contract according to the provisions of the Labor Code. In Albania so far enjoy the status of Civil Service (civil servant), those of the Foreign Service, military, police officers, teachers, nurses<sup>5</sup>.

### II. PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN ALBANIA AFTER THE YEARS 1992

Post-communist countries began their transition with numerous needs and priorities, including public administration reform. However, a widely accepted model that prioritizes public administration reform agendas has been lacking and this has created risks for incoherent reform initiatives, an aspect intensified by the fact that most donor-funded reforms in these countries were poorly coordinated. In Albania, this was accompanied by a rather unstable legal framework regarding public administration in the country, which led to a slow and inefficient implementation<sup>6</sup>.

Despite these shadows, in most post-socialist countries, staff reductions and fiscal stability have been at the core of public administration reforms. In Albania, public sector employment has been steadily declining since 1993. As in other post-socialist countries, the main transformation was the shift of resources from the

<sup>1</sup> <https://administrata.al/Pages/NewMenu/Bashkimi-Evropian.aspx>

<sup>2</sup> <https://shtetiweb.org/2012/09/25/ceshte-funksioni-administrativ/>

<sup>3</sup> <https://shtetiweb.org/2012/09/25/ceshte-funksioni-administrativ/>

<sup>4</sup> <https://shtetiweb.org/2012/09/25/ceshte-funksioni-administrativ/>

<sup>5</sup> <https://shtetiweb.org/2012/09/25/ceshte-funksioni-administrativ/>

<sup>6</sup> <https://library.fes.de/pdf-files/bueros/albanien/11312.pdf>

state to the private sector. What was missing, however, were parallel efforts by international institutions and governments to strengthen public administration and management, and public support also remained weak<sup>7</sup>.

Since 2001, in its national strategy for socio-economic development, the Albanian government has recognized public administration reform as essential to achieving medium-term objectives for development and poverty reduction. In the first years of transition, in Albania, the focus remained mainly on central level reforms to build key democratic institutions, such as ALBANIANS AND THE EUROPEAN SOCIAL MODEL 14 and on basic economic reforms, while little attention was paid to local government reforms. The reforms were mainly addressed by drafting laws and formally establishing new agencies. Various analysts have stated that such efforts served primarily to relieve donor pressure rather than to engage seriously in their implementation<sup>8</sup>.

Overall, in recent decades, the capacity to implement reforms has been weak and political interference has remained a threat to successful implementation. Much of the legal framework remains to be implemented, especially at the local level where administrative and fiscal autonomy is still limited. Most donors have consistently negotiated their assistance programs and maintained their consultative process at the level of line ministries and have not descended to local level governance leading to a lack of sufficient knowledge and local conditions and one-sided of local administration, which has hampered the decentralization implementation process<sup>9</sup>.

In this context, public administration reform remains a key priority. EU progress reports on Albania (2013 and 2012) have repeatedly emphasized this need. Although the adoption of the Civil Service Law, one of the measures required to obtain candidate status, was an important step towards the depoliticization of public administration, the timely adoption of secondary legislation in accordance with the principles of the law and its correct implementation have not yet taken place. . Public administration reform is one of the priorities on the agenda of the new Albanian government. As presented on the official website of the Ministry of Innovation and Public Administration, public administration reform will be guided by the requirements of the EU progress report on Albania, Public Administration in Albania Between Politics and Citizen 15 2013. The main priority will be the implementation of the new law no. 152/2013 on "civil servants" in the Republic of Albania and the respective secondary legislation. New recruitment procedures, as well as an automated system for managing human resources in the public administration are among the measures to be taken. However, a better understanding of public administration through

research is essential to turning these changes into a success story<sup>10</sup>.

### III. THE WORK OF THE REPUBLIC OF ALBANIA FOR ADMINISTRATION REFORM

In 2009 Albania submitted its official application for membership in the European Union. The European Commission issued an opinion (in 2010), at the request of the European Council on the application for membership, assessing that Albania had yet to meet the 12 key priorities in order to achieve the necessary degree of compliance with membership<sup>11</sup>.

In October 2012, the Commission recommended that Albania be granted EU candidate status, subject to the completion of reforms, particularly in the areas of judicial and public administration reform<sup>12</sup>.

In June 2014, the European Council granted Albania candidate status. Obtaining the status of candidate country marks a very important step in the process of Albania's integration into the EU, as it reflects the progress of the reforms undertaken and paves the way for the full process of the country's accession to the EU<sup>13</sup>.

Opening of negotiations (negotiations) for EU membership, conditioned by the full fulfillment of 5 key priorities such as<sup>14</sup>:

1. Establishment of a professional and depoliticized administration;
2. Strengthening the independence of justice institutions;
3. Fight against corruption;
4. Fight against organized crime;
5. Protection of human rights.

After fulfilling these 5 priorities, Albania's task during the negotiation process will be the approval and implementation of the entire EU acquis, which is divided into 35 chapters, the progress of each of them is monitored and evaluated by the European Commission. Only after the talks and the accompanying reforms have been completed satisfactorily for both parties (Albania and the EU) can the country join the union. As part of the monitoring process, the European Commission periodically measures Albania's progress in meeting the European agenda through Progress Reports which are published once a year<sup>15</sup>.

SIGMA - (Support for Improvement in Governance and Management) is a joint initiative of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and the European Union. The initiative supports public administration reform in thirteen transition countries.

SIGMA<sup>16</sup> aims to:

<sup>7</sup> <https://library.fes.de/pdf-files/bueros/albanien/11312.pdf>

<sup>8</sup> <https://library.fes.de/pdf-files/bueros/albanien/11312.pdf>

<sup>9</sup> <https://library.fes.de/pdf-files/bueros/albanien/11312.pdf>

<sup>10</sup> <https://library.fes.de/pdf-files/bueros/albanien/11312.pdf>

<sup>11</sup> <https://administrata.al/Pages/NewMenu/Bashkimi-Evropian.aspx>

<sup>12</sup> <https://administrata.al/Pages/NewMenu/Bashkimi-Evropian.aspx>

<sup>13</sup> <https://administrata.al/Pages/NewMenu/Bashkimi-Evropian.aspx>

<sup>14</sup> <https://administrata.al/Pages/NewMenu/Bashkimi-Evropian.aspx>

<sup>15</sup> <https://administrata.al/Pages/NewMenu/Bashkimi-Evropian.aspx>

<sup>16</sup> <https://administrata.al/Pages/NewMenu/Parimet.aspx>

- Assist beneficiary countries for good governance to improve administrative efficiency and promote support for democratic values by public sector staff, ethics and respect for the rule of law;

- Assist in building local capacity at the central government level to meet the challenges of internationalization and European Union integration plans;

- Support initiatives of the European Union and other donors to assist beneficiary countries in public administration reform and to contribute to the coordination of donor activity.

SIGMA has drafted the document of Principles of Public Administration, the principles which define what good governance involves in practice and define the main conditions that must be met by countries during the EU integration process. The Principles also contain a monitoring framework which enables the regular analysis of the progress achieved in the implementation of the Principles and the setting of standards that the country must meet.

During 2018, the Albanian government undertook a new and ambitious initiative with the drafting of the "Administration We Want" program. This program focuses on public administration officials as one of the main components and the basis for the implementation of all reforms undertaken by the government. The program includes a set of combined and integrated measures and activities, the benefits of which are inter-related by providing synergies and serving the achievement of more sustainable and long-term benefits in the context of improving the performance of civil servants and state administration institutions themselves. The focus will be not only on the skills and abilities of employees to perform tasks, but also on the attitude, motivation and commitment to act appropriately<sup>17</sup>.

The program consists of four main components which coincide with the areas in which the intervention was considered necessary, namely<sup>18</sup>:

1. Orientation of the Administration: The purpose of this component is to orient the administration staff with the purpose, vision, mission, values and principles, goals, strategic objectives and priorities of the governing program and the institution to which they belong. It focuses on the political level, the senior governing body and the managerial level of the apparatus of the ministries and the Prime Ministry. Subsequently, this level directly orients the dependent structures.

Benefits: creates sense of identity and directs energy towards a single point; sense of belonging, thus increasing the level of commitment and motivation of staff; promotes cooperation and interaction of staff, etc.

Key measures: (i) Orientation to the political program of governance; (ii) Orientation to the National Strategy for Development and Integration (NSDI); (iii) Orientation to sectoral policies and strategies; (iv) Orientation to EU integration priorities.

2. Training of the Administration: The purpose of this component is to train the administration with the necessary knowledge, knowledge and competencies to

enable the fulfillment of the requirements of the job position. It includes all organizational levels: senior management level, managerial level and specialist level.

Key Benefits: Increased work efficiency; clarification of role and functions, as well as minimization of conflicts at work; increased motivation; increase the efficiency and effectiveness of the organization, as well as the image of the administration to the citizens.

Key measures: (i) Training for "Soft Skills"; (ii) Training in "Management Skills"; (iii) Structure Training; (iv) Training in policy making;

3. Motivation of the Administration: The purpose of this component is to ensure a motivated, committed administration that is involved and delivers results at work. This component affects the apparatus of the ministries, in the whole institutional hierarchy, at group and individual level.

Benefits: Increased administration engagement, improved performance and effectiveness at work, increased interaction and cooperation at group and institutional level, improved institutional climate, etc.

Key measures: (i) Evaluation - Motivation of the individual; (ii) Evaluation - Motivation of teams; (iii) Administration Championship; (iv) Dialogue with the administration;

4. Interaction of the Administration: The purpose of this component is to increase the level of communication, interaction and the spirit of identity within the institutional environment, at the inter-institutional level and interaction with the general public. This component affects the apparatus of ministries, the entire institutional hierarchy, at the group and individual level.

Benefits: Creation of interconnected structures, better dissemination of information, knowledge and experiences among employees; standardization of work practices at the professional group level and between institutions; raising issues and problems, as well as proposing solutions; improving the working climate at the institutional and inter-institutional level; increase motivation and sense of identity.

Key measures: (i) Internal (vertical) interaction (ii) Professional interaction; (iii) Inter-ministerial (horizontal) interaction; (iv) Interaction with the public;

#### IV. CONCLUSIONS

The main reason for the need for a Public Administration Reform is of a political nature: political parties use the public sector to create employment. Political will is a key accelerator to improving services for citizens, as well as to reforming towards European integration. Public servants should not be hired or fired with every political wind that blows.

Reforming and improving this system have been part of government plans since the early 2000s and today is one of the "key priorities" for opening negotiations with the EU.

Public administration in Albania turns out to be particularly biased towards young people and men. Work culture and relevant policies and procedures need to be further examined to be able to recommend more

<sup>17</sup> <https://administrata.al/Pages/NewMenu/Administrata-qe-duam.aspx>

<sup>18</sup> <https://administrata.al/Pages/NewMenu/Administrata-qe-duam.aspx>

specific changes to improve equal opportunities within the public administration as well as clearer, more transparent and sustainable recruitment and promotion procedures and practices<sup>19</sup>.

Furthermore, being geographically closer to urban areas, Albanian public administration services may differ in relation to the provision of services in urban and rural areas. These potential changes need to be further studied and addressed, especially at a time when reforming the country's administrative division could deepen or produce new inconsistencies<sup>20</sup>.

However, there is a general, growing tendency of the public administration to improve relations and serve citizens as clients, expecting in return appreciation and gratitude; although perceptions and opinions related to bad practices, corruption, and the use of power for personal gain are not merely sporadic. The principles of inclusive democratic processes are widely understood<sup>21</sup>.

However, scepticism about implementation and relevance to the local context persists. The great influence of politics, widely accepted in the Albanian public administration seems to have had a predominant contribution in shaping and preserving most of the problems of public administration in Albania. Regardless of what has characterized the developments of public administration in Albania in recent decades, public administration reform in Albania seems imminent. In its cur-

rent state, the Albanian public administration is (formally) well-educated and qualified, with high self-confidence in relation to other sectors of Albanian society. Its engagement can be further stimulated by policies that strengthen the most valued characteristics of public administration such as job security and by addressing weaknesses more effectively, such as weak financial incentives, which civil servants claim to constitute the largest difference between them and other sectors (private sector in particular), making them more vulnerable to persistent problems of corruption and political influence on the public administration agenda<sup>22</sup>.

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## EVOLUTION OF FRAUD LIABILITY STANDARDS IN RUSSIAN CRIMINAL LAW

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## ЭВОЛЮЦИЯ НОРМ ОБ ОТВЕТСТВЕННОСТИ ЗА МОШЕННИЧЕСТВО В РОССИЙСКОМ УГОЛОВНОМ ЗАКОНОДАТЕЛЬСТВЕ

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### Abstract

The article provides a brief historical excursion into the history of the formation and development of the rule of responsibility for fraud in the Russian pre-Soviet, Soviet and post-Soviet criminal legislation. The article highlights the successive transformation of fraud from a variety of theft as secret theft of someone else's property into a new form of theft, associated with deception or abuse of trust. Particular attention is paid to business fraud and computer information fraud. The problems of qualification of these compositions and their enforcement are noted. A proposal is made on the need to improve the rules on fraud and the concept of theft.

### Аннотация

В статье дается краткий исторический экскурс в историю становления и развития нормы об ответственности за мошенничество в российском досоветском, советском и постсоветском уголовном законодательстве. Освещается последовательная трансформация мошенничества из разновидности кражи как тайного хищения чужого имущества в новую форму хищения, сопряженную с обманом или злоупотреблением доверия. Особое внимание уделяется мошенничеству в сфере предпринимательской деятельности

<sup>19</sup> <https://library.fes.de/pdf-files/bueros/albanien/11312.pdf>

<sup>20</sup> <https://library.fes.de/pdf-files/bueros/albanien/11312.pdf>

<sup>21</sup> <https://library.fes.de/pdf-files/bueros/albanien/11312.pdf>

<sup>22</sup> <https://library.fes.de/pdf-files/bueros/albanien/11312.pdf>

и мошенничеству в сфере компьютерной информации. Отмечаются проблемы квалификации данных составов и их правоприменения. Высказывается предложение о необходимости совершенствования норм о мошенничестве и понятия хищения.

**Keywords:** fraud, property and property rights, deception, breach of trust, qualification and enforcement problems.

**Ключевые слова:** мошенничество, имущество и право на имущество, обман, злоупотребление доверием, проблемы квалификации и правоприменения.

Мошенничество как одно из самых распространенных на сегодняшний день преступлений общеуголовной направленности в российском уголовном законодательстве появилось не сразу. Первоначально, начиная с Русской Правды, большинство преступлений против собственности расценивались либо как кража, то есть тайное хищение чужого имущества (татьба), либо разбой, либо самовольное пользование чужим имуществом.

Только в Судебнике 1550 года появилось понятие мошенничества, главным конструктивным признаком которого был способ совершения данного преступления – обман, а лицо, уличенное в его совершении, называлось либо мошенником, либо обманщиком.

В таком законодательном акте, как Артикул воинский Петра I 1715 года мошенничество приравнивалось к краже, совершенной в виде обмана, например, подмены вещей, присвоения чужого имущества, взятого на продажу, подделки документов имущественного характера, торгового обмана и т.п.

С развитием торговых отношений понятие мошенничества усложнялось, но по-прежнему оно рассматривалось как разновидность кражи, совершенной обманным способом.

Так, в Указе от 3 апреля 1781 года «О суде и наказании за воровство разных родов и о заведении работных домов» давался перечень мошеннических действий, относящихся, говоря современным языком, к обману на торгах, завладению чужой собственностью «вымыслом», отказу платить за приобретенную вещь, продаже поддельного имущества, обмеру или обвесу.

В Своде законов уголовных дел 1832 года все обманные действия делились на две группы: имущественный обман и лживый поступок и подделка. Мошенничество связывалось в большинстве случаев с первой группой обмана.

Более близкое к современному пониманию определение мошенничества появилось в ст. 187 первого советского УК РСФСР 1922 г., который определял мошенничество как получение посредством злоупотребления доверием или обмана с корыстной целью имущества или права на имущество.

В принятом в 1926 г. «сталинском» УК РСФСР понятие мошенничества подверглось корректировке: помимо обмана был назван такой способ его совершения, как злоупотребление доверием, а в качестве целей мошенничества, помимо незаконного завладения чужим имуществом или правом на него, были определены иные личные выгоды.

Так называемый «хрущевский» УК РСФСР 1960 г. в ст. 93 квалифицировал мошенничество как завладение государственным или общественным имуществом путем обмана или злоупотребления доверием.

Поскольку в советском уголовном законе ответственность за посягательства на государственную и личную собственность была разной, в ст. 147 УК РСФСР устанавливалась отдельная ответственность за мошенничество в отношении завладения личным имуществом граждан или приобретения права на имущество, совершенные путем обмана или злоупотребления доверием.

Новый этап уголовной ответственности за мошенничество начался в постсоветский период с принятием уголовного кодекса Российской Федерации 1996 года, в которой в главе 21 «Преступления против собственности» содержалась ст. 159 УК, предусматривающая ответственность за хищение чужого имущества или приобретение права на чужое имущество путем обмана или злоупотребления доверием. С точки зрения системного подхода к уголовно-правовой оценке общественно опасных деяний, мошенничество входит в группу преступлений против собственности, сопряженных с хищением, куда, помимо мошенничества, входят кража, присвоение или растрата, грабеж и разбой. Общее понятие хищения дано в примечании к ст. 158 УК – кража. Главным разграничительным признаком всех шести форм хищения является способ их совершения [1, с. 34].

Норма о мошенничестве изначально позиционировалась как норма с неограниченно широким спектром действия, которую справедливо стали называть «резиновой», то есть нормой, под действие которой попадало чрезвычайно большое количество деяний, посягающих на чужую собственность, сопряженных с обманом или злоупотреблением доверия. Дело в том, что в криминологическом смысле рассматриваемого деяния оно имеет, по некоторым данным, более сотни форм своего проявления, что позволяет утверждать о наличии такого собирательного понятия, как мошеннические преступления. К ним можно отнести различного рода азартные игры, построенные на обмане, например, игра в наперсток, карточное шулерство, и так называемый «цыганский обман», и пресловутые финансовые пирамиды, и кредитный обман. Круг мошеннических преступлений увеличился с развитием рыночных отношений в 90-е и последующие годы, характеризующиеся формированием и развитием теневого, во многом криминального бизнеса, породившего различные новые формы мошеннических преступлений.

В целях более дифференцированной уголовно-правовой оценки общественно опасных деяний отечественный законодатель избрал путь деления многих составов преступлений с широким кругом действия на так называемые специальные составы. И, как говорится, первой ласточкой на этом, достаточно неоднозначном пути, явилось появление в декабре 2012 года в уголовном кодексе, помимо ст. 159 УК, шести новых специальных норм об ответственности за мошенничество в сфере кредитования (ст. 159.1 УК), при получении выплат (ст. 159.2 УК), с использованием электронных средств платежей (ст. 159.3 УК), в сфере предпринимательства (ст. 159.4 УК), в сфере страхования (ст. 159.5 УК), в сфере компьютерной информации (ст. 159.6 УК).

Такой законодательный шаг вызвал волну критики со стороны научной общественности, да и правоприменительной практики. Причиной тому послужило вполне обоснованное убеждение в том, что нецелесообразно криминализировать отдельные виды мошенничества, которых, как мы уже сказали, более сотни. Возникали вполне справедливые вопросы: а почему именно для этих видов мошенничества законодатель сконструировал отдельные составы? Почему не криминализированы другие виды мошенничества? Высказывались опасения в дальнейшей казуализации уголовного закона, нарушении его системности, появлении в кодексе конкурирующих норм и т.п. [2, с. 33-51].

В 2015 году статья о мошенничестве в сфере предпринимательства по решению Конституционного Суда РФ утратила силу по причине ее несоответствия общим признакам мошенничества. Однако под давлением предпринимательского лобби в базовую статью 159 УК в июле 2016 года были включены части 5-7, в которых предусматривалась ответственность за мошенничество, сопряженное с преднамеренным невыполнением договорных обязательств в сфере предпринимательской деятельности.

Данное законодательное решение носило компромиссный характер. Ответственность за предпринимательское мошенничество начиналась с более крупной суммы значительного, крупного и особо крупного ущерба в отличие от других видов мошенничества, что само по себе свидетельствовало о создании некоторых привилегий для лиц, избалованных в совершении данных преступлений.

Имелись (и имеются) претензии к объективной стороне предпринимательского мошенничества. Дело в том, что определение мошенничества в части 5 ст. 159 УК не укладывается в классическое понятие мошенничества как хищение чужого имущества или приобретение права на чужое имущество, совершенное путем обмана или злоупотребления. В новом определении мошенничества даже слово «хищение» отсутствует. Применение данной нормы сразу же осложнилось указанием на преднамеренный характер указанного вида мошенничества. Доказать преднамеренность, то есть наличие

прямого умысла и заранее обдуманного умысла на совершение таких деяний в сфере предпринимательства, чрезвычайно сложно, а иногда и невозможно, в силу того что обвиняемые всегда могут заявить, что содеянное – не результат их преступных намерений, а следствие объективных чрезвычайных обстоятельств, вызванных заранее заложенных в предпринимательскую деятельность коммерческих рисков [3, с. 326-362].

Возник ряд правоприменительных проблем и при реализации норм об ответственности за вновь криминализованные специальные виды мошенничества. Особенно это касается ст. 159.6 УК – мошенничество в сфере компьютерной информации. На наш взгляд, законодатель совершенно неудачно сформулировал диспозицию данной нормы, в частности способ совершения хищения – ввод, удаление, блокирование, модификация компьютерной информации либо иное вмешательство в функционирование средств хранения, обработки или передачи компьютерной информации или информационно-телекоммуникационных сетей. В такой формулировке чрезвычайно затруднительно установить причинно-следственную связь между перечисленными деяниями и наступившими в результате их совершения общественно опасными последствиями.

В силу специфики совершения так называемых компьютерных мошенничеств, а именно – отсутствия прямого контакта преступников и потерпевших, возникла проблема квалификации подобных деяний, в частности по ст. 158 или 159.6 УК, необходимости дополнительной квалификации содеянного по ст. 272, 273 УК.

Перед наукой уголовного права вплотную встал вопрос о возможном изменении классического определения понятия хищения.

Все сказанное свидетельствует о том, что за длительный период становления и развития отечественного уголовного законодательства понятие мошенничества претерпело серьезные законодательные и правоприменительные изменения. Вместе с тем, реалии сегодняшнего состояния преступности, все более трансформирующейся в так называемую киберпреступность, диктуют назревшую необходимость выработки новых подходов к правовой и правоприменительной оценке данного криминального феномена.

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## IMPROVING THE EFFICIENCY OF CONTROL OVER TRANSFER PRICING IN THE RUSSIAN FEDERATION

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### Abstract

Transfer pricing as an economic and legal phenomenon is currently one of the most discussed topics affecting a large number of aspects of legal regulation and currently Transfer pricing is one of the most serious and urgent problems of international taxation. The tax (fiscal) authorities have a priority task to find out whether the use of transfer prices in taxpayers' transactions does not lead to the minimization of tax liabilities. The article makes an attempt to appreciate the impact of international legislation on legislation and foreign experience on the tax legislation of Russia in the field of control over transfer pricing.

**Keywords:** transfer pricing; price control; tax control; minimization of taxes; international taxation.

Tax control of transfer pricing as an object of research is associated with the rapid growth of internationalization of production, globalization and the strengthening of the position of transnational companies that operate in several jurisdictions, have a complex corporate structure, and whose activities fall under the regulation of various legal systems. As researchers of tax and corporate law note, fiscal control over transfer pricing is necessary in a situation where a group of companies has the opportunity to register a parent (parent) organization in a state with the most favorable tax system (low-tax jurisdiction). In addition to the primary public goal of control over transfer pricing, an important role for a business entity - a taxpayer is played by understanding the rules and policies of transfer pricing as a factor determining the initial investment decisions of an enterprise.

The main reasons which formed the basis of the tax control TCI, this desire gov't rstv etc. edotvratit distortion of the tax base as a result of the random movement of multinational corporations taxable profits.

Despite more than five years of experience in the application of transfer pricing norms in the Russian Federation, the theoretical and regulatory framework is constantly being revised. The main for the purposes of control is not the legal form of the transaction, but its actual content (economic essence).

The efficiency of tax control of transfer pricing determines tax revenues to the budgets of the budgetary system and protects the movement of revenues to foreign jurisdictions [ 1 , p. 12 ] .

At the international level, transfer pricing issues are always associated with significant amounts of money , because national legislation, as a rule, sets thresholds of significance for recognizing transactions as controlled [ 2 , p. 40 ] . On the other hand, transfer pricing audits are complex, labor-intensive and require a lot of detailed information and functional analysis. In this connection , the amount of additional charges should cover the costs of tax control and administration . By warning light Dolj e n be effective.

By ak practice of application of laws on the transfer mu pricing, often taken to account the recommendation About RGANIZATION Economic Cooperation

and Development [ 6 , 35 ] . These recommendations were taken as a basis for writing Russian legislation on this issue.

The indirect impact of the new transfer pricing regulation is manifested in structural changes in holdings, including both a change in the "subordination" of organizations in the group, and the business model. Organizations are abandoning relationships with offshore jurisdictions and rebuilding cash flows in relationships with group companies. This is evidenced by the growth of participants in consolidated taxpayer groups and the interest of the largest taxpayers in pricing agreements for tax purposes.

The influence of the transfer pricing legislation on changing the business model by taxpayers is characteristic [ 4 , p. 71 ] , in which:

- revision (change) of the structure of relations within the group;
- conclusion of direct contractual obligations with the manufacturer , bypassing offshore;
- an increase in the number of organizations undergoing reorganization,
- the return of part of the assets from states with preferential terms for doing business;
- splitting the authorized capital of companies upon re-registration of owners;
- revision of price formulas in contracts between related parties;
- change in the structure of the production process .

It is relevant today that the OECD, within the framework of the project on reforming the international tax system, also known as the Base Erosion and Profit Shifting (BEPS) plan, completed work on revising the recommendations on transfer pricing.

The BEPS resolution plan covers 15 areas. OECD has made global changes to Chapters I, II, VI, VII, VIII of the Guidelines.

In Chapter I provides a number of amendments, the need to assess the actual fixing functions and risks of side deals. If the actual circumstances do not correspond to the terms of the agreement, the transaction may be re-qualified for tax purposes. That is, the doctrine of "being over form" (the concept of "substance over form") is enshrined.

Within the framework of Chapters I and VI of the OECD Guidelines, the procedure for determining the remuneration of financial companies that do not perform additional functions is regulated as a minimum. The reward may be based on a risk-free rate for the funding provided (risk-free return).

At the same time, as the practice of applying transfer pricing laws shows, most often, the OECD Recommendations are also taken into account, which, as you can see, if you look at the relevant materials, were taken as the basis for writing Russian legislation on this issue.

A detailed analysis was devoted to transactions in intangible assets in Chapter VI of the OECD Guidelines. Significant changes are related to the concept of "economic owner" of an intangible asset. It is also determined that the profit from the use of an intangible asset should be distributed among the parties contributing to the creation of the value of the intangible asset. To assess the conformity of prices in transactions with intangible assets, it is proposed to use valuation methods, in particular, it is allowed to use income methods, for example, the discounted cash flow method (Discount cash flow - DCF) [3, p. 12].

Changes in transfer pricing methods related to the analysis of commodity transactions (Chapter II of the OECD Guidelines). It was pointed out directly to the possibility of using market quotes and, if necessary, adjusting the conditions, both increasing the value of the market indicator and decreasing it.

When using the profit distribution method, only those risks are assessed that are actually borne by the party to the transaction. An example is a financial company that performs the function of intragroup financing, which does not control financial risk, so its remuneration cannot exceed the risk-free rate of return.

The OECD points out that transactions involving commodities for determining market prices in the transaction market level is a priority method of comparable market prices. The possibility of using quotations from information-price agencies and exchanges is also directly defined. At the same time, in order to apply the method of comparable market prices, it is necessary to ensure the proper comparability of the market indicator. To bring the characteristics of the goods, terms of delivery and sale into a comparable form, it is necessary to make reasonable adjustments. In addition, it is important to correctly determine the date on which the market price level is determined.

The market indicator can be determined on the date of the transaction, that is, the transfer of ownership, if in the analyzed transaction the price is determined by the formula or with reference to the quote [3, p. 29].

The definition of the concept of "groups of persons" is given through the prism of the material and / or legal relationship between such persons. Should be balanced communication of legal entities, which in turn are part of the group, to determine how and why the legislator separates the corresponding concepts (affiliated persons, groups, interdependent entity, international group of companies, and etc.).

In the case of the establishment of a fixed price in the analyzed contract market indicator to be determined

on the date of pricing, ie on the date preceding the date of the contract, an additional agreement, and so on. e. The procedure for determining the market price and making appropriate adjustments should be based on the analogy of the behavior of independent persons.

In Russia, the control work of transfer pricing consists in the formation of law enforcement practice in the main areas of the economy, fiscal industries - oil and oil products, ferrous and non-ferrous metals, as well as mineral fertilizers. All the checks carried out reinforce the approaches to analyzing the correspondence of prices in transactions, typical for all participants in the industry, to the market level. The generated analysis methodology applies to all industry players to identify risky transactions and a risk profile is developed to automatically detect price manipulation in transactions [5, p. 52].

Tax control of transfer pricing as an independent type of tax control is characterized by special procedures for this type of control, namely: timing, legislative restrictions on the number of checks, the right to conclude a pricing agreement, the right to symmetric adjustment.

It is necessary to evaluate in more detail the possibility of changing the legislation of the Russian Federation in order to improve tax regulation of transfer pricing, based on the reform of the international taxation system (BEPS Plan) [2, p. 13].

To achieve the effectiveness of transfer pricing regulation in Russia, in addition to the importance of studying the international trend in the development of price control in transactions between related parties, it is necessary to analyze the directions of modernization and optimization of national legislation.

Federal law from 26.12.2008 N 294-FZ "On protection of rights of legal entities and individual entrepreneurs during state control (supervision) and municipal control" approved the use of risk-focused approach in the implementation of state control. This is necessary to reduce the harmful and extraneous expenses of the state and in order to optimize the load on the business structure.

The risk-based approach implies the differentiation of risks in accordance with their significance. The costs (labor, administrative, financial) for identifying and proving the risk should be cost-effective and dictated by the high risk hazard.

Within the framework of Law No. 294-FZ in Russia, the Action Plan of the Federal Tax Service of Russia was approved to introduce a risk-based approach in the implementation of control and supervisory activities.

The control work of transfer pricing is aimed at forming risk profiles. It is proposed to fix the risk-oriented approach in the implementation of tax control of transactions between related parties. The developed risk selection criteria will optimize labor and administrative resources for tax authorities, on the one hand, and provide timely documentation justifying the price level for taxpayers, on the other hand.

The Risk-claim-oriented approach allows you to identify risky transactions for in-depth analysis. At the same time, the identified deviations by means of risk

analysis do not always indicate manipulation of the transaction price, since they can be caused by special characteristics and conditions of the transaction. The tax authorities and taxpayers in relation to the risk transactions selected using the criteria should conduct a functional analysis, analyze the risks carried out by the parties, study the business model and features of economic relations in a group of interdependent persons.

To develop risk selection criteria, it is necessary to study the existing approaches to the analysis of financial and economic results of companies' activities. The OECD proposes two types of approaches that are opposite to each other:

- "bottom up". The analysis is based on a detailed study of the features of the terms of the transaction, influencing and depending on it other financial flows between counterparties, as well as changes in the aggregate tax base due to the tax benefits provided by the territory of registration of the parties to the transaction;

- "top to bottom". The analysis is based on determining the group's total profitability, the share of profitability that each area of the group's activities brings. The comparison of the profitability of the party to the transaction with the indicators identified for the group is carried out. The impact of tax preferences in the territory of registration of a party to the transaction is assessed. If there are deviations from the group-wide indicators and indicators of comparable organizations, a decision is made to check the transfer pricing.

The source of information on controlled transactions in the Russian Federation is the notification on controlled transactions. Taxpayers are required to report on transactions completed in a calendar year that meet the criteria for controlled transactions.

The basis for control is the notification of controlled transactions submitted by the taxpayer or the notification of the territorial tax authority. A notification is drawn up if the territorial tax authority has identified a controlled transaction that was not declared in the notification by the taxpayer himself. Unreported transactions can be established within the framework of ongoing field and cameral tax audits, tax monitoring or repeated audits of higher tax authorities.

The territorial tax authorities verify the completeness and reliability of the information reflected in the notifications of controlled transactions. Thus, having all the information about the activities of the taxpayer, based on the data of the customs authorities and currency control, the tax authorities identify transactions that meet the criteria of controlled ones. It is proposed to form a risk-based approach by grouping controlled transactions in two directions:

- 1) Foreign economic transactions, that is, transactions of which the parties are persons registered in different jurisdictions.

- 2) Internal Russian transactions, the parties to which are Russian taxpayers.

In accordance with the specified grouping, the criteria for risk are established.

For the first group, the risk of using transfer prices is significant for the budget of the Russian Federation, since it is possible to move profits abroad [5, p. 46]:

- transactions with offshore jurisdictions, which are equivalent to transactions between related parties. Since preferential taxation is provided in offshore zones, and there is no exchange of information at the request of a foreign tax authority, transactions with counterparties from such zones are subject to primary analysis as highly risky;

- transactions with non-classical offshore companies. These territories are not equated to transactions between related parties, that is, there is no special provision for control for them, and therefore, counterparties from such countries are often used for business optimization schemes;

- transactions with goods of the world exchange trade. To such goods are published quotes of market prices information and pricing agencies or exchange, so analyze the transaction can be in semi-automatic mode. For a commodity country, risk analysis is very important and will allow you to analyze a large volume of controlled transactions.

- with intangible assets. Transactions with intangible assets are very complex, complex, and therefore, the terms of the agreement may actually not coincide with the functions and risks of the parties to the transaction. Unlike market indicators also allows you to manipulate the price of the transaction with intangible assets. In this connection, for the purpose of risk analysis serves decree and analyze transaction, based on the level of profitability of the organization.

- with Delco claim provided (attract) in cash - loans.

The risk criterion is that the loan rate does not correspond to the interest rate intervals provided for in Article 269 of the Tax Code of the Russian Federation. For corporate income tax purposes, the actual interest rate on loans is recognized as a reasonable expense if it falls within the established intervals.

- transactions in which the counterparty, a Russian taxpayer, has been unprofitable for several years. The main purpose of commercial activity is to make a profit. In the case when a taxpayer carries out foreign trade operations, the amount of expenses is greater than or equal to the proceeds for several years, it becomes necessary to verify the purpose of carrying out activities and prevent the formation of a cost center in the territory of the Russian Federation.

For the second group, the risk of applying transfer prices is subject to analysis based on the understatement of the amount of tax paid to the consolidated budget of the Russian Federation. Profit transfer between the budgets of the constituent entities of the Russian Federation is not considered as a risk criterion:

- one of the parties to transactions is an unprofitable taxpayer. When assessing losses, it is necessary to take into account the losses of previous years carried forward to future tax periods.

- on the bottom of the parties to the transactions applies a reduced rate of corporate income tax. When assessing this criterion, it is necessary to take into account exemptions from taxation on income tax, special tax territories, as well as the right of the constituent

entities of the Russian Federation to lower the regional part of the income tax rate;

- transactions recognized as controlled according to special tax rules .

Thus, careful control over prices in controlled transactions, both past and future, is necessary to optimize the risks associated with the possibility of additional tax charges, as well as penalties and corresponding fines during audits carried out by tax authorities. In Russia, the current stage of regulation of tax control of transfer pricing can be called a generalization of the experience of legal regulation formed during the 20th century and which made it possible to develop the most acceptable forms of tax control that ensure the balance of private and public interests.

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# PEDAGOGICAL SCIENCES

## INDIVIDUAL AND PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGHLY QUALIFIED RUGBY PLAYERS

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## ИНДИВИДУАЛЬНО-ЛИЧНОСТНЫЕ ОСОБЕННОСТИ РЕГБИСТОВ ВЫСОКОЙ КВАЛИФИКАЦИИ

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### Abstract

The article examines the individual and personal properties of highly qualified rugby players. It is well known that in order to form an idea of a person's personality, one should systematically describe his personality traits as individual differences of the individual. To understand the personal motives of the behavior of athletes, the study of individual personality traits is an important step in identifying the initial personality traits of each of them and, therefore, the basis for determining the directions for correcting the behavior of athletes in training, competition and everyday life. For this purpose, the personal questionnaire of R. Kettel (Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire, 16 PF) is widely used in sports practice, which was used in the course of the study.

### Аннотация

В статье рассматриваются индивидуально-личностные свойства регбисток высокой квалификации. Хорошо известно, что для формирования представления о личности человека следует систематически описать его личностные черты как индивидуальные различия индивида. Для понимания личностных мотивов поведения спортсменов изучение индивидуально-личностных особенностей является важным шагом в выявлении исходных личностных черт каждого из них и следовательно - основанием для определения направлений коррекции поведения спортсменов в условиях тренировки, соревнований и повседневной жизни. С этой целью в спортивной практике широко применяется личностный опросник Р. Кеттелла (Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire, 16 PF), который и был использован в ходе проведения исследования.

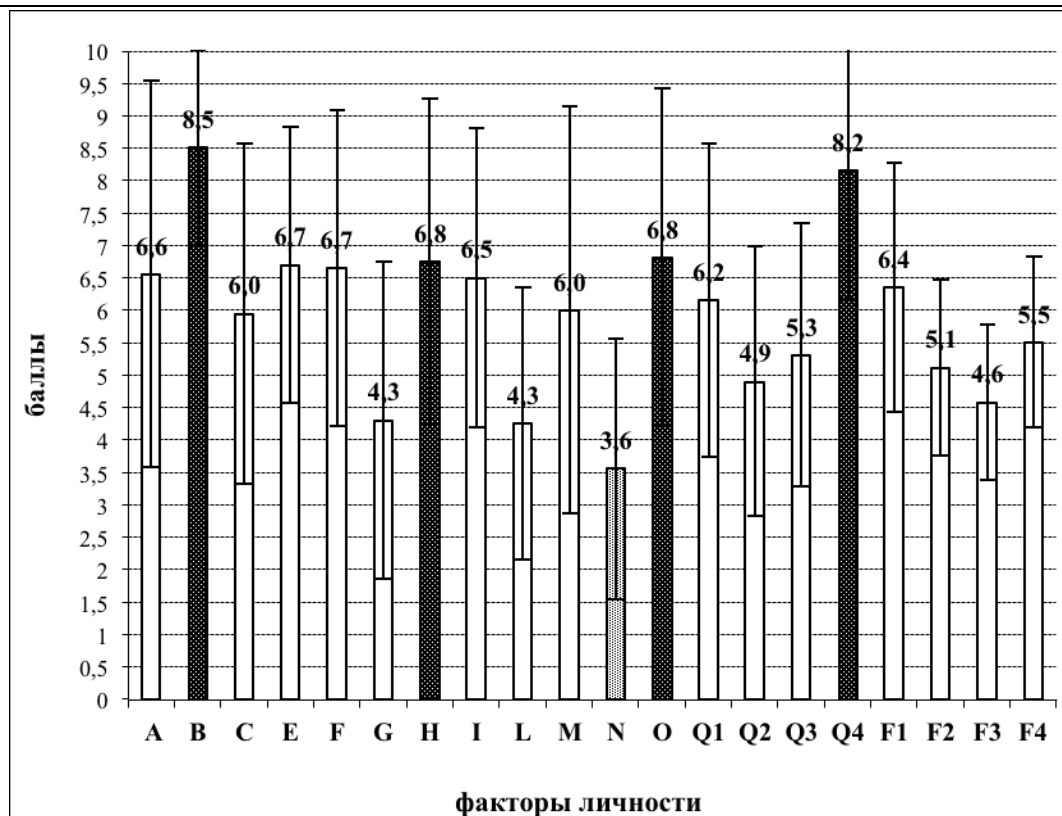
**Keywords:** highly qualified rugby players, personality profile, individual and personal characteristics.

**Ключевые слова:** регбистки высокой квалификации, личностный профиль, индивидуально-личностные свойства

Согласно Р. Кеттелла, черты личности представляют собой относительно постоянные тенденции реагировать определенным образом в разных ситуациях и в разное время. Структура личности по Р. Кеттелу состоит из 16 факторов и исходных черт личности.

В нашем исследовании рассматриваются вопросы индивидуально-личностных свойств регбисток высокой квалификации с целью лучше узнать мотивы их поведенческих реакций и выявить их

связи с данными индивидуально-личностными свойствами. Изучение выраженности факторов личности регбисток по методике Кеттелла показало, что в целом выраженность исследуемых факторов у регбисток находится в рамках оптимальных значений – в зоне средней величины (Рис.1). Однако ряд психических свойств отклоняются от среднего уровня выраженности, что отражается на особенностях сфер личности спортсменов.



Примечание: факторы, превышающие норму, выделены темным цветом, факторы, находящиеся в пределах нормы – прозрачные, а не достигающие до нормы – отмечены светлой штриховкой

Рис. 1. Выраженность факторов личности регбисток высокой квалификации

В соответствии с полученными в исследовании данными наиболее выраженными свойствами личности спортсменок-регбисток высокой квалифика-

ции (таблица 1) являются: сообразительность (фактор В), беспокойство (фактор О), фрустрация (фактор Q4) и простота, наивность, (фактор N). У верхних границ нормы находится фактор Е - лидерство.

Таблица 1.

Выраженность индивидуально-психологических особенностей личности высококвалифицированных регбисток

Значения	Факторы Кеттелла															
	A	B	C	E	F	G	H	I	L	M	N	O	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4
Х	6,6	8,5	6	6,7	6,7	4,3	6,8	6,5	4,3	6	3,6	6,8	6,2	4,9	5,3	8,2
Ст.откл.	3	1,5	2,6	2,1	2,4	2,5	2,5	2,3	2,1	3,1	2	2,6	2,4	2,1	2	2

Сгруппировав факторы по сферам, стало возможным составить личностный профиль спортсменок-регбисток высокой квалификации.

Интеллектуальная сфера. Установлено, что спортсменки обладают высокой сообразительностью (фактор В+). Проявлением данных особенностей является осознанность действий и познавательная деятельность регбисток – основа их производного управления своими движениями и произвольной регуляции психических состояний. Высокий интеллект спортсменок сочетается со средними показателями по фактору мечтательности (М+) и с низкими значениями проницательности (N+). Данное обстоятельство свидетельствует о способностях регбисток анализировать текущую игровую ситуацию. В то же время подавляющее большинство членов команды бесхитростны,

склонны к простоте и прямолинейности при организации поведения. Для них характерно стремление к использованию при решении тех или иных вопросов стандартных, проверенных схем.

Развитое воображение и чувствительность вместе со способностями к здоровой оценке игрового процесса и высоким интеллектом в некоторой степени компенсируют недостаток хитрости и расчетливости. При этом излишняя сентиментальность и склонность к эмоциональным порывам также может замедлять скорость приема и переработки информации и препятствовать принятию объективных, своевременных решений в ходе игры – особенно в нестандартных, неожиданных ситуациях.

Волевая сфера. Регбистки команды обладают недостаточной моральной регуляцией поведения (G-). Спортсменки не проявляют особого интереса

к общественным стандартам, не склонны придерживаться социальных правил, общественных норм, соблюдать моральные требования и могут пренебречь ими в своих собственных интересах. Оценка происходящих событий и явлений, а также отношение к окружающему у девушек нестабильны. Также у спортсменок отмечается достаточно высокая степень выраженности факторов агрессивности (Н+) и психической активности; волевой самоконтроль (Q3) находится на среднем уровне.

Такое сочетание волевых качеств испытуемых позволяет утверждать следующее. Спортсменки могут быть упорными, целеустремленными, проявлять высокие волевые усилия в процессе спортивной деятельности, но лишь до тех пор, пока выполняемая работа лично значима для каждой из них. При снижении эмоциональной привлекательности выполняемых действий возможно нарушение внутренней дисциплины регбисток, отвержение установок, социальных норм и правил, проявление агрессии. Спортсменки довольно легко могут отказаться от своих обязательств. Также для обследованных спортсменок характерно отвержение критики и вербальная агрессия. Вместе с наличием у спортсменок высоких показателей радикализма это указывает на энергичность членов команды, склонность резко менять линию поведения, доминировать в коллективе и контролировать других людей.

Эмоциональная сфера. Эмоциональная стабильность (С+) регбисток находится на среднем уровне. В зависимости от ситуации спортсменки проявляют себя по-разному. Эмоциональная зрелость и видимое спокойствие могут сменяться сниженной стабильностью поведения, излишними переживаниями неудач. При неблагоприятных условиях спортсменки становятся склонными к грубости и к плохому настроению.

Беспокойство (О+) как личностное качество определяет выраженную тревожность спортсменок в экстремальных ситуациях, в том числе, на соревнованиях. Для обследуемых характерны: тревожность, неуверенность и легкая утомляемость.

Завышенные показатели фрустрированности (Q4+) указывают на присущие девушкам напряженность, раздражительность и нерациональность поведения.

Таким образом, девушки обладают сниженной эмоциональной устойчивостью, склонны к депрессивным реакциям, мрачным предчувствиям и размышлениям, беспокойству.

Сфера общения. Девушки самоуверены, упорны, настойчивы, агрессивны в общении (Н+), могут предъявлять непомерные требования. Они

тяжело воспринимают критику, отвергают ее (что подтвердили результаты включенных наблюдений за командой). В то же время фактор А, показывающий степень доступности, добросердечности и общительности индивида, находится на оптимальном уровне. Чувствительность, чуткость (L) и полярные им реалистичность и непокладистость (I) находятся также в оптимальном соотношении.

Это означает, что круг общения девушек довольно резко разграничивается на «своих» и «чужих». С первыми спортсменки свободно контактируют, в этой среде они легко адаптируются, не ревнивы, уживчивы, проявляют заботу о других. С «чужими» регбистки показывают себя как самодостаточные и независимые, склонные к принятию самостоятельных решений, любят критиковать.

Таким образом, проведенное исследование психологических особенностей личности регбисток высокой квалификации позволило выявить степень выраженности личностных качеств. Спортсменок с более выраженной настойчивостью в достижении цели, ответственностью, деловой направленностью, смелостью, общительностью и склонностью к совместным действиям можно считать более перспективными для успешной соревновательной деятельности в команде.

Наиболее значимым фактором личности, определяющим перспективность регбисток, является фактор интеллекта.

В тренировочном процессе при подготовке регбисток к соревнованиям необходимо учитывать принципы совершенствования моторных и интеллектуальных умений и навыков, а также их обусловленность личностными типологическими, гендерными особенностями

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**EFFECTIVE TEACHING OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE WRITTEN SCIENTIFIC DISCOURSE BASED ON THE TANDEM METHOD****Kismetova G.N.***Candidate of pedagogical sciences, Associate professor***Kondudayeva D.Zh.***1st year master's student of the Faculty of Languages and Management**West Kazakhstan Innovation and Technological University*DOI: [10.24412/2701-8369-2021-10-2-31-34](https://doi.org/10.24412/2701-8369-2021-10-2-31-34)**ЭФФЕКТИВНОЕ ОБУЧЕНИЕ ИНОЯЗЫЧНОМУ ПИСЬМЕННУМУ НАУЧНОМУ ДИСКУРСУ НА ОСНОВЕ ТАНДЕМ-МЕТОДА****Кисметова Г.Н.***Кандидат педагогических наук, доцент***Кондудаяева Д.Ж.***Магистрант I курса факультета языков и менеджмента**Западно-Казахстанский инновационно-технологический университет***Abstract**

One of the goals of teaching foreign languages is mastering the scientific discourse written in foreign languages by undergraduates. It refers to the process and results of expression, interpretation of scientific knowledge and aims to further improve existing or synthesized new scientific knowledge. The tandem method can be used as a teaching method.

The article discusses the possibility of using tandem methods in educational spaces. The author reveals the essence of tandem teaching, explains the basic principles of the organizational structure of teaching and the peculiarities of teaching languages, and also indicates the main advantages of tandem teaching.

**Аннотация**

Одна из целей обучения иностранным языкам - овладение магистрантами научным дискурсом, написанного на иностранных языках. Он относится к процессу и результатам выражения, интерпретации научных знаний и направлен на дальнейшее совершенствование существующих или синтезированных новых научных знаний. В качестве метода обучения можно использовать тандемный метод.

В статье обсуждается возможность использования тандемных методов в образовательных пространствах. Автор раскрывает сущность тандемного обучения, разъясняет основные принципы организационной структуры обучения и особенности обучения языкам, а также указывает основные преимущества тандемного обучения.

**Keywords:** tandem method, foreign language written discourse, foreign languages, master's degree, partnership, training.

**Ключевые слова:** тандем-метод, иноязычный письменный дискурс, иностранные языки, магистратура, партнерство, обучение.

In the context of a highly developed society and a process of globalization that encompasses all spheres of society, fluency in foreign languages and the need to write in foreign languages have become more important than ever, especially for those looking for a successful career [1].

Scientists, teachers and methodologists are increasingly looking for ways and methods to master foreign languages faster and better. These methods can be safely attributed to the tandem approach, which is relatively new and focused on joint activities with partners. It is this conceptual interpretation that forms the basis of the methodological terminology denoting the tandem method as a way of joint work of two partners with different languages for independent study of foreign languages [1].

Among the training methods, various forms of partner training are well known. However, in the second half of the twentieth century, tandem education appeared in Europe, based on our understanding, when

participants learned each other's languages in the form of youth cultural forums, summer schools and exchange programs [2].

One of the goals of teaching foreign languages to undergraduates is the further formation of the discursive component of foreign language communicative competence, part of which is written scientific discourse [2]. Types of written scholarly discourse include text reports, abstracts, scholarly articles, monographs, research funding applications and scientific conferences, etc.

In the scientific literature, you can find many definitions of the term "discourse": "a coherent text that combines extralinguistic, social, cultural, psychological, pragmatic and other aspects, in other words, "words immersed in life" [3, p. 136-137]; "spoken words in reality", "speaking words as linguistic entities for the implementation of speech" [4]; "the cognitive process associated with the production of speech, the creation of speech works, the text is considered by him. It is the



end result of the process of speech activity and has a definite completed (and fixed) form” [5, p. 186].

The strategies of scientific discourse can be determined by its constituent goals, including:

1. relevance and formulation of the research question;
2. allocation and definition of the subject and object of research;
3. confirmation of the choice, method and method of research;
4. formulation of research hypotheses;
5. formulation of the goals and objectives of the study;
6. a description of the history of the problem;
7. selection, classification and analysis of scientific materials;
8. synthesizing new scientific materials, developing models, etc.;
9. experimental verification of the proposed new knowledge;
10. analysis of qualitative and quantitative experimental data;
11. interpretation of experimental data;
12. identification of the practical significance of the new data obtained;
13. registration and fixation of the main research results in a generally accepted form.

Within the framework of scientific discourse, several types of discourse can be distinguished.

The type of discourse should be understood as a set of well-established scientific works combined with content and formality. Therefore, articles, monographs,

scientific articles, etc., can be attributed to the genre of scientific discourse.

In particular, E.L. Kudryavtseva and A.A. Timofeeva identified several types of situations that can be taken into account in the educational process [6].

The first type is the traditional master-master series, which can be used to learn foreign languages or master aspects of intercultural competence through regular contact with master students who speak different native languages. It is this type of tandem that forms the basis of the traditional understanding of tandem methods.

The second type of tandem is “student-teacher”. The interaction of teacher and student here is not limited to traditional communication between teacher and student in the classroom, but significantly expands the sphere of communication between the two topics in the learning process until the teacher matches his / her interests, needs, abilities and does not establish an individual learning path for students.

The third type is the “teacher-teacher” method (connecting another teacher). The fact is that for the most effective formation of professional competence in the framework of the development of a particular specialty, teachers of different specialties should participate in the implementation of the educational process, thereby enriching the professional experience of undergraduates in various ways.

For example, consider the algorithm for teaching a foreign language written scientific discourse to undergraduates based on the tandem method in the table:

Algorithm for teaching foreign language written scientific discourse for undergraduates of universities based on the tandem method

<b>Tandem training stage</b>	<b>Functions and actions of a foreign language teacher</b>	<b>Actions of undergraduates</b>
Introductory	Explains to undergraduates the tasks of teaching written scientific discourse based on the tandem method	Listen to learning tasks
Explaining the structure of a specific scientific document	Explains to undergraduates the structure of a specific scientific document	Get acquainted with the structure of a specific scientific document
Practice of writing structural elements written research papers through educational exercises	Provides assignments for writing the structural elements of scientific written documents by students	Perform tasks and exercises for writing structural elements of written scientific documents in assignments and exercises
Discussion of the content and structure of students' written works in their native and target languages	Organizes (in native and / or target language) paired or group discussions on the structure and content of scientific written works, with particular attention to the structure of the work	Participate in pair or group discussions on the structure and content of scientific written works (in their native and / or target language)
Discussion of the results of the written exercises student works	Participates in the discussion of the learning outcomes of undergraduates in writing	Discuss learning outcomes through writing written papers with a teacher
Analysis	Organizes group discussions with students to discuss the effectiveness and possible modernization of methods of teaching foreign languages	Consistently discuss the effectiveness and possible modernization of methods of teaching a foreign language

The Mann-Whitney criterion was used to compare the results obtained by the master students of the exper-

imental and control groups at the final stage of experimental training to determine whether there is a significant difference between the experimental group and the

control group in the development of writing skills in a foreign language in the field of scientific discourse. Using this criterion, it was proved that against the background of the study, undergraduates in the experimental group are better than the control group in terms of proficiency in a foreign language of written scientific discourse, which indicates the effectiveness of the tandem methodology in teaching foreign written language.

The test found the following problems:

1. A standardized compositional structure of scientific articles is not clearly fixed in 75% of works. This shows that the format for writing scientific articles intended for reading by high school students is not familiar to them. Only 25% of works try to get closer to the given composition format.
2. In 85% of articles there is no rhetorical structure of discourse, that is, the rule of "solving the problem" is not observed.
3. In most of the submitted papers, the presentation of words is hampered by the illogicality of following the thoughts of the undergraduates in the letter.
4. About 20% of people do not use scientific speech.
5. Master's work does not contain grammatical and stylistic mistakes and can be considered an excellent work for master's students.

Scientific discourse has a correct, competent and structured organization of scientific texts, and this aspect of the training content should be given special attention.

When teaching written scientific discourse within the framework of a tandem, the correct, competent and structured organization of scientific literature can be presented and studied by undergraduates at the stage of formulating the structural elements of written scientific literature.

The tandem learning process can be carried out in a team or group, or it can be conducted separately when the two partners speak different mother tongues. We also noticed that when organizing one series, the content of the course may differ either to improve communication skills or to determine vocabulary and grammatical position. This form of tandem is closest to the educational situation in any educational institution, and its participants are undergraduates and teaching staff [7].

Another basic element of the organization of tandem classes is the discipline and consistency of classes. M.R. Napolskikh and M.O. Voloshko, pay attention that they can be informal and not under the control of the teacher, but they must rely on personal agreements with partners to achieve the set goals [7-8]. Others emphasize the need for this necessary control. This allows you to discuss the types of tandem (specified by the teacher) and personal (specified by the partner).

Interaction of partners in tandem training can be carried out orally, that is, through direct contact, the use of Internet communication and written forms through e-mail, blog, chat, video conferencing.

By interacting together, participants can communicate interactively as learners of a foreign language or as language experts for their own language, which

provides a framework for emphasizing the second principle of interconnection - reciprocity.

The principle of reciprocity allows partners to release each other from any financial obligations, increase their self-esteem and put two participants in an equal position, as well as achieve mutual exchange of language and culture [9-10].

Partners in tandem can independently decide what, when, where and how to learn and how long they want to participate in this process, which demonstrates the third principle - autonomy of learning. The principle of autonomy can be interpreted in different ways, depending on whether it is implemented in an institutional environment such as a school or university (institutional tandem), or an agreement is reached between people (an independent tandem). In the first case, there will be some form of training supervision, certain prescriptive procedures and instructor assessments, and the instructor will be responsible for the practical and theoretical basis of the training process.

Teachers and methodologists using a tandem approach in their work have noticed that there are many undeniable advantages in organizing foreign language teaching [11]. These include the following provisions:

1. tandem training allows you to create real conditions for natural communication with native speakers;
2. participation in tandem training can significantly increase the motivation of undergraduates to master the language and culture of the country in which the language they are studying is located, and inspire them to further use it as a means of communication;
3. regularity and consistency will significantly improve the partner's ability to oral expression, as well as help to form communication skills in a foreign language (various types of speech activity) and intercultural competence;
4. the tandem method allows you to go beyond traditional courses and use foreign languages more widely, which helps master students to build their own learning path, taking into account their own needs and interests and independently take responsibility for the results of their activities, thereby contributing to learning;
5. The use of tandem methods helps to overcome language and psychological barriers when communicating with partners, and also relieves the fear of using language as a means of communication. At the same time, due to the lack of strict control on the part of the teacher and the multitude of techniques aimed at maintaining communication with a partner, such as clarification, re-examination, in other words, the use of gestures, non-verbal communication methods, replacing complex structures with simpler structures, etc. have achieved a positive effect.

6. The combination of the tandem method and information and communication technologies has great potential for finding partners and expanding contacts. Obviously, due to the fact that the Internet has greatly facilitated the search for partners and created more practical opportunities, today's communication on the Internet has become the preferred form of language learning. Moreover, the conditions for simultaneous

oral and written communication create an opportunity for the full development of all types of speech activity.

From the above, it can be seen that as an innovative teaching method - tandem learning deserves attention and in-depth research.

Tandem learning is classified as an intensive method of learning a foreign language, since it involves the maximum immersion of the partner in the language environment during the learning process. The main advantages of the tandem method are flexibility, the development of the autonomy of master's studies, the development of individualized methods, the development of intercultural competence, the improvement of self-motivation, the presence of a real language environment, etc. In general, the tandem partnership helps to get rid of routine, increase self-confidence, improve the learning process and help overcome language barriers. Tandem learning can take the form of individual partnerships, and can also include university foreign language courses and other extracurricular activities in various forms and forms under the auspices of educational institutions [12-15].

Of course, the organization of the educational process using this method will require the teaching staff to formulate a clear algorithm of actions, indicate the stages of the process and the expected results. Therefore, for example, when giving scientific lectures to undergraduates, in order to successfully implement the necessary conditions of the learning environment at the master's level, it is necessary to develop and systematically maintain the subject content of the course, as well as indicate the areas of responsibility of each participant in the tandem teaching method. To enable teachers of language subjects to understand the professional fields of undergraduates and to attract partners whose language abilities match the average language level.

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# PHILOLOGICAL SCIENCES

## SACRED MONUMENT IN MANGISTAU: THE EPIC CYCLE "FORTY HEROES OF CRIMEA"

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## САКРАЛЬНЫЙ ПАМЯТНИК В МАНГИСТАУ: ЭПИЧЕСКИЙ ЦИКЛ «СОРОК БОГАТЫРЕЙ КРЫМА»

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### Abstract

In the modern period, the cycle of epic works, which went down in the history of Kazakh literature as "Nogaili legends", "Nogaili batyrs" or "Forty heroes of Crimea", is of great value not only for the artistic structure and storyline of the texts, but also as a the unity of the "Nogaili" peoples - Kazakhs, Nogais, Tatars, Bashkirs, Karakalpaks, Uzbeks, Turkmen, etc.

In the Kazakh steppes, the heroic legends "Edige", "Nuradin", "Shora batyr", "Orak-Mamai", "Karasai-Kazi" received special distribution from the indicated cycle.

The article reveals the historical and linguistic facts that the poetic area of the poem "Forty Batyrs of the Crimea" is located in the Mangistau region of Kazakhstan. The scientific hypothesis of the author is presented.

### Аннотация

В современный период цикл эпических произведений, вошедший в историю казахской литературы как «ногайлинские сказания», «ногайлинские батыры» или «Сорок богатырей Крыма», представляет огромную ценность не только художественной структурой и сюжетной линией текстов, но и как поэтическая летопись легендарной истории и гармоничного единства «ногайлинских» народов - казахов, ногайцев, татар, башкир, каракалпаков, узбеков, туркмен и др.

В казахских степях особое распространение из обозначенного цикла получили героические сказания «Едиге», «Нурадин», «Шора батыр», «Орак-Мамай», «Карасай-Казы».

В статье раскрываются исторические и лингвистические факты того, что поэтический ареал поэмы «Сорок батыров Крыма» находится в Мангистауской области Казахстана. Приведена научная гипотеза автора.

**Keywords:** Forty heroes of Crimea, heroic epos, Mangistau, poetic area, Nogaili people, Kazakh zhyrau, Muryn zhyrau.

**Ключевые слова:** Сорок богатырей Крыма, героический эпос, Мангистау, поэтический ареал, ногайлинский народ, казахский жырау, Мурын жырау.

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Цикл сказаний «Қырымның қырық батыры» («Сорок богатырей Крыма») – это общий для казахов, ногайцев, каракалпаков, татар, башкир историко-героический эпос, повествующий о событиях эпохи Золотой Орды. О зарождении эпоса, его содержании, структуре, историзме, языке, текстологии в период XIX-XX веков был опубликован ряд исследований. Тем не менее, существуют расхожие мнения и гипотезы о конкретном периоде зарождения эпоса, его авторах (авторе), изначальной версии, языке (какой из современных языков – казахский, ногайский, татарский, башкирский, каракалпакский – ближе к языку изначальной версии?),

связи с историческими фактами. Цикл жыров «Қырымның қырық батыры», как видно из названия, состоит из жыров, воспевающих подвиги около сорока батыров разных периодов. Если рассматривать художественность эпоса по этапам, то по хронологии в самом начале (в некоторых версиях – после Парпарии) стоит батыр Едиге – «отец» всех батыров.

В поэтических школах казахских сказителей, населявших территории Восточного и Северного Прикаспия<sup>23</sup> и Приаралья<sup>24</sup>, прослеживается традиционная преемственность исполнительского мастерства от учителя-наставника к ученику–последователю.

Уникальный институт преемственности, сформированный в обозначенных районах имеет самобытные, индивидуализированные способы передачи опыта, включающие длительное и глубокое посвящение последователей к постижению внутренней природы и локальных технических особенностей певческого стиля.

Одним из важных признаков особого статуса поэтических произведений в степи является их сакрализация, выраженное приданием им благожелательных функций оберегов и священных раритетов. Особо добрыми знаками считались хранение переписанных текстов в каждом доме как священную реликвию, заучивание их наизусть и др.

В коллективной памяти народа актуализация данных текстов носило непрерывный характер. Свидельством данному утверждению может послужить тот факт, что даже в 50-70-е годы XX столетия трудно было найти казаха не знающего наизусть хотя бы небольшой отрывок из произведений, несмотря на запрет наложенный советской идеологией на почитание Едиге и его потомков. Народная память сохранила воспоминания местных старцев о внезапных природных стихиях в виде снега, дождя в момент исполнения эпических произведений легендарными сказителями Карасай жырау и Мурын жырау [1].

Знаменитые жырау перед публикой (шаршы) объявляли свой репертуар в песенном виде и исполняли ту часть которую облюбовали слушатели. Благодаря таким школам сказителей до нас дошли названия местностей, водных источников, имена людей, а так же старинные слова и словосочетания в текстах песен.

В Мангистау цикл сказаний «Сорок богатырей Кырыма» до нас довел Мурын жырау. Мурын же перенял их у сказителей Карасай, Кашаган, Нурым жырау, которые в свою очередь учились у Абыла. В Актюбинском регионе этот цикл исполнял Нурпейис Байганин. Он был последователем школы сказителей возглавляемых Жаскелен жырау. А Жаскелен сам учился у Бакберген жырау, который

перенял у Уки из племени Алим. Уральском регионе существовала школа Жиёмбет жырау, в Атырау – Куан, от него ряд сказителей во главе с Ығылман жырау распространяли этот цикл.

А в местностях Арал, Казалы Кызылординской области существовала школа сказителей Нуртугана. Нуртуган жырау известен тем что исполнял «Сорок богатырей Кырыма» в новых вариантах.

В трудах которые исследуют историю появления цикла «Сорок богатырей Кырыма» связывают первоначальные исполнения сказаний с именем Сыпыра жырау – ногойским жырау XIV века; говорится о том что в начале были толгау – отдельные песни – «Песнь Сыпыра», «Прощание Токтамыса со своим народом», «Слово Едиге», которые сочинил сам Сыпыра жырау. Исследователь Мангистауской традиционной школы сказителей известный ученый К.Сыдыков в своем труде пишет: «По мнению академика Алкея Маргулана, упоминаемый в записках путешествовавшего в страну Кыпшаков арабского путешественника XIV века Ибн Батута, великий сказитель – «ұлық жырау» проживающий в городе Сарайшык на берегу реки Жайық, является не кем иным как Сыпыра. Он значительный промежуток своей жизни провел в Мангистау, впоследствии переехав в Сарайшык. Если учесть что местом проживания ногойлинцев в то время были Эмба и Яик, Устюрт и Мангистау, то вполне вероятно что составителем основ ногойских сказаний является Сыпыра жырау» [2]. Тогда закономерным является и то что именно в репертуарах сказителей западных школ, в том числе сказителей Мангистау остался в нерушимом виде цикл эпических сказаний «Сорок богатырей Кырыма», ведущий свое начало от Сыпыра.

Многоплановый героический эпос рассказывает не только про распад и перестройку некогда единого тюркоязычного народа, но так же является историко-художественным сказом их духовного восстановления. И изучая такие научные сведения в феноменах языкового наследия как «ногойские гены», «ногой-казах», «Ногойские сказания и Мангистау», и выявляя их духовные корни, должны признать что они являются новыми направлениями в изучении эпоса «Сорок богатырей Кырыма».

Уроженец Мангистау, известный исследователь Серикбол Кондыбай выявил 112 топонимов в тексте «Сорок богатырей Кырыма» записанного из уст Мурын жырау, среди которых 32 имеется в Мангистау и Устюрте или же напоминают названия местностей и водных источников этого географического пространства [3]. Остальные же топонимы названия местностей в Атырауской и Актюбинской областей или же местностей в приграничных зонах с Туркменистаном и Каракалпакстаном. Так же

<sup>23</sup> Прикаспий — историческое название региона, прилегающего к Каспийскому морю. Восточный Прикаспий (его также называют Закаспий) включает в себя Мангистаускую область Казахстана и запад Туркмении. Северный Прикаспий включает Атыраускую область Казахстана.

<sup>24</sup> Приаралье — историческое название региона, прилегающего к Аральскому морю. Восточное Приаралье включает в себя ряд районов Кызылординской области Казахстана: Аральский, Казалинский, Кармакшинский. Южное Приаралье — республика Каракалпакстан на севере Узбекистана. Северное Приаралье — Актыбинская и Западно-Казахстанская области.

несомненно что знаками старины ногайского периода являются многочисленные оба и захоронения (искусственные холмы из камней, или купольные сооружения, комплексы) ногайлинских биев и богатырей в Мангистау и Устюрте. И не зря называют комплекс памятников между дельтой Волги и Мангистау – «полуостровом умерших» [4, с. 255] Ряд таких ногайских пантеонов – это захоронения-памятники посвященные потомкам Едиге расположенные на низменной части Мангистау.

В 40 километрах от Шетпе, районного центра Мангистауского района, Мангистауской области на юго-восток находится гряда невысоких гор под названием Караулкумбетские высоты. Караулкумбет по казахски Карауылкумбез, кумбет – персидское слово которое означает «купол». По рассказам местных аксакалов на вершине Караулкумбета имеются древние ногайлинские захоронения.

**Некрополь Караулкумбет** выявлен и обследован в 2008 г. сотрудниками Мангистауского государственного историко-культурного заповедника



Рис 1



Рис 2



Рис 3

Насколько верна вероятность того, что это построение посвящено знаменитому Едиге, прародителю многих сказаний и легенд, основателю Ногайской Орды, беглер бегу, именитому бию Золотой Орды – прототипу сказа о «Едиге батыра» в цикле «Сорок батыров Крыма»? В поисках ответа на этот вопрос мы стали искать сведения о смерти и похоронах Едиге.

В вариантах сказаний о Едиге записанных Ш. Уалихановым, К. Сатбаевым, М-Ж. Копеевым Едиге умирает с горя не перенося обиду нанесенную ему сыном Токтамышом Кадырбердием (иногда Кейкуатом, рожденным от наложницы) [5]. И в татарских, ногайских вариантах Едиге погибает в сражении с Кадырберди [6; 7].

О том что Едиге погиб от руки Кадырберди Токтамышева сына во время схватки, говорится в шежире-родословной К. Жалаири [8, с. 118-119], а также в других исследованиях основанных на этом шежире. Академик В.М.Жирмунский, основываясь на сведения арабского историка эл-Айни так же оправдывает факт смерти Едиге от рук Кадырберди [9, с. 373]. Татарский исследователь эпоса Ф.Урманче, на основе трудов по истории и этнографии ногайского народа, сообщает, что Едиге погиб не от руки самого Кадырберди, а от рук его дружинников и что имеются две версии о месте гибели Едиге: по одной – на территории Золотой Орды, по второй – в Крыму [10, с. 136]. Анес Сарай опираясь на «Родословный сборник» Кадыргали Жалаири уточняет места смерти и захоронения Едиге: «Едиге погиб в

как памятник XIV-XVI веков. В центральной части некрополя расположен полуразрушенный мавзолей. По мнению Н.К. Кулбаева- директора Мангистауского государственного историко-культурного заповедника, мавзолей среди других мавзолеев Мангистау отличается особенной неповторимой архитектурой и является шедевром одного из неизвестных народных мастеров-камнерезов. На внешних стенах прорисованы изображения воинских принадлежностей, аксессуаров всадника, родовых тамг и фауны. Местный краевед и сказитель Акылбек Өтеш и автор этих строк 2015 году первый раз обнаружили надпись на фасаде мавзолея который обозначены арабской графикой «...Едиге баһадүр бұ бас би болдү, баһадүр болдү» (перевод: «Едиге был главным бием, богатырем»). Над входным проемом отмечены узоры в виде двух архаров. А архары изображаются на кулпытасах в основном людей из родов богатырей и биев (рисунки 1,2,3).

63 году от рождения, у реки Елек, в Ушбордине... Предводитель войска Хажи Мухаммед Оглан (дед сибирского хана Кучума) не сумев довести на родину предков, к Баба Түкті Шашты Азизу в Кумкенте, похоронил его на Улытау» [11, с. 67].

М.Копеев на основе легенд приводит сведения о месте где похоронен Едиге: «... Он сказал, там в предгорье Каратау рядом с святым оба Созака деда Каракалпака лежит мой дед Бабай түкті шашты Азиз, там и похороните меня, по этому завету его тело перевезли туда. А на Улытау хоронили как аманат. Место где он был захоронен аманатом, назвали потом «Аулие Ак Мечет» [5, с. 138]. Тогда получается что местом гибели и временного захоронения является –Улытау, а местом вечного покоя – рядом с святым Баба Түкті Шашты Азиз в предгорье Каратау. По историческим сведениям приведенным ранее он принял смерть в Уштобе на реке Елек впадающий в Волгу (который пересекает Российский Оренбург, а в Казахстане Актобе, Западный Казахстан, Атырау и Мангистау), а тело похоронено на Улытау, потому что не смогли довести до кладбища Бабай Түкті Шашты Азиз в Кумкенте. И в исторических сведениях и эпических легендах бытует одна общая идея о похоронах Едиге: тело Едиге не предавали земле на месте гибели, а увозили в другое место и обязательно хоронили рядом с захоронением Бабай Түкті Шашты Азиз. Ученый Р.Бердибаев пишет: «В официальных письменных документах точных сведений о месте смерти Едиге не встречается» [3, с. 34]. Это утверждение ученого



приводит к мысли что еще рано говорить о месте смерти и захоронения Едиге.

Сказание «Едиге» которое было опубликовано в газете «Ногай дауысы» в 1991 году было записано профессором Ануар Мамыт у ногайцев Румынии. Исполнял это сказание сказитель Докуз Байдур. В этом варианте когда Едиге поранив Кадырберди прячется в камышах, его находит там Барын Султан и обезглавливает [7]. Случай происходит в местности Бес Оба. Если эту Бес Оба ассоциировать с бес тобе- пять холмов, бес тау- пять гор, то получается близ современного города Пятигорска или можно связывать с Мангистауским Бесшоки (пять низких гор).

Автор объемного труда по Едигезнанию А.Кунтолеуулы пишет: «Таким образом историк Жалаири перебирая легенды о происхождении Едиге ни разу не говорит о том что он родился в Южно Казахстанском крае. По историческим данным известно что и Волга-Уралский регион, и Ургенч, и Крым относятся к западному крылу Золотой Орды. Поэтому, не хотим свести на нет возможность рождения и жизни Куттыкия и его сына Едиге на берегах Волги-Урала, то есть на землях Дешти Кыпшака» [12, с. 183]. Автор в своем труде упоминает о четырех Едиге среди казахов, каждому из них дает описание. Они, первый – живший в XIV веке полководец Едиге Танашулы, второй – би Ногайской Орды, Едиге которого все мы знаем, третий – политик Едиге выходец из рода Каржас Аргын, проживший в конце XVII, в начале XVIII веков, четвертый – воин Едиге, близкий родственник Аксак Темира, из рода Барлас. Из этих Едиге – Едиге Танашулы по сведениям автора был похоронен на Улытауских отрогах. И нам кажется, что на Улытау находится захоронение именно Едиге Танашулы.

К причинам связующим упомянутого нами выше памятника с историческим Едиге относится так же множество названий мест, водоисточников, кладбищ, оба-насыпей в нашем краю (Мангистауской низменности).

Напрашивается вопрос, кто же тот Едиге, захороненный в купольном мавзолее в Мангистау и увековеченный в его надгробной надписи как «главный би и бахадур»?

Символ двух птиц изображен на фасаде таинственного мавзолея на кладбище Караулкүмбет.

Согласно исследованиям, два орла или двуглавый орел является символом императорского герба. Караулкүмбет қорымындағы жұмбақ кесененің алдыңғы жақ мандайшасында екі құстың таңбасы бейнеленген. В Википедии есть следующая информация: «Двуглавый орёл – гербовая фигура в виде орла, имеющего две головы, обращённые вправо и влево, или двух орлов, расположенных друг за другом, когда от орла, расположенного на заднем плане, видна только голова» [13]

Цилиндрическая печать, найденная на месте Хаттуси, столицы Хеттского царства в 13 веке до н.э, изображает двух основных птиц. С шумерским периодом исследователи связывают изображение двух птиц на государственных символах.

Существуют разные мнения о родстве двух или двуглавого орла («двуглавой черной птицы») с символическими символами Золотой Орды.

«Сохранилось некоторое количество монет Золотой Орды, отчеканенных во времена правления ханов Узбека (1283—1341 гг.) и Джанибека (ум. 1357 г.), с изображением двуглавого орла, а также несколько монет, отчеканенных во времена правления хана Азиз-Шейха (1365—1367 гг.), с изображением двуглавого орла, помещенного в центре гексаграммы.

В Золотой Орде двуглавый орёл встречается на монетах с конца XIII по вторую половину XIV века. Наиболее ранними считают двуглавых орлов на медных фоллориях монетного двора Сакчи (район Дуная) с изображением тамги беклярибека Ногая (1235—1300). К настоящему времени не сохранилось в подлиннике ни одного официального документа (ярлыка) с печатью Узбека, Джанибека или Азиз-шейха, но сохранилась тамга Ногая с двуглавым орлом. На сохранившихся ярлыках двуглавый орёл не обнаружен» [13].

Особенность символа птицы на сторожевой башне заключается в том, что две птицы смотрят друг на друга, а не в двух направлениях. Он больше похож на сову, чем на орла. Крылья не расправлены.



Рис. 4

На лицевой стороне мавзолея изображено родовая тамга племени мангыт (рис. 4). По мнению историков, Едиге происходил из мангытского племени ногайцев.

В качестве обоснования принадлежности данного сооружения легендарному ногайлинскому батыру Едиге могут выступить следующие доводы:

1. Наличие на фасаде сооружения надписи арабскими буквами «Едиге был главным бием и башадуром»

2. Близкое расположение захоронений предка Едиге Баба Тукти (в некоторых вариантах сказаний считают его отцом) и его дочери Шашты Азиз к мавзолею, воздвигнутому в честь Едиге.

3. Сохранение в топонимике Мангистау имен исторических личностей Ногайской Орды: Едиге и его потомков – Орака, Мамая, Карасая, Кази, Караулека, Карашаш, Манашы, Куйкена, Адила.

4. Выявление в топонимике Мангистау наименований из поэтической географии ногайлинского народа и его врагов, обозначенных в цикле эпических сказаний (в вариантах на казахском, каракалпакском, ногайском, башкуртском, татарском языках).

Какая же тайна сокрыта в том, что основой и эпицентром, систематизированного в эпическом цикле «Сорок богатырей Крыма» целостного поэтического ареала выступает культурный ландшафт Мангистау?! На наш взгляд, данный вопрос является одним из научно значимых проблематик исследований в данном направлении и требует всестороннего изучения и дальнейшего развития.

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## STRUCTURAL-SEMANTIC FEATURES OF ECONOMICS WORDS IN GERMAN

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## СТРУКТУРНО-СЕМАНТИЧЕСКИЕ ОСОБЕННОСТИ ЭКОНОМИЧЕСКОЙ ЛЕКСИКИ В НЕМЕЦКОМ ЯЗЫКЕ

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### Abstract

The article deals with economic terms based on the material of the German language. The object of the research is the structure and semantics of economic vocabulary in the German language. The material for the study was selected from popular German-language newspapers from the Wirtschaft section. As a result of the study, the most frequent structures of economic terms were identified, the frequency components of complex words were determined, since it is the words selected for analysis that are represented by complex words. The results obtained can be used in practical classes on the German language, in seminars on the lexicology of the German language on the topic "Word Formation".



### Аннотация

В статье на материале немецкого языка рассматриваются экономические термины. Объектом исследования являются структура и семантика экономической лексики в немецком языке. Материал для исследования был отобран из популярных немецкоязычных газет из рубрики Wirtschaft. В результате исследования были выявлены наиболее частотные структуры экономических терминов, определены частотные компоненты сложных слов, т.к. именно сложными словами представлены отобранные для анализа слова. Полученные результаты могут использоваться на практических занятиях по немецкому языку, на семинарских занятиях по лексикологии немецкого языка по теме «Словообразование».

**Keywords:** structure, semantics, word formation, thematic classification, economic words.

**Ключевые слова:** структура, семантика, словообразование, тематическая классификация, экономические термины.

В современном терминообразовании используются три основных способа: морфологический, лексико-морфологический и парасинтетический.

Аффиксальный или морфологический способ представляет собой процесс морфологического образования лексических единиц, который осуществляется путем присоединения словообразовательной морфемы (аффиксов и префиксов) к производящей основе, напр.: die Belastung-belasten, Erziehung-erziehen.

Лексико-морфологический способ или словосложение предполагает процесс соединения двух или более основ в одно слово. Компонентами сложных слов могут выступать основы различных частей речи, напр.: der Lohnzettel(S+S), der Lohnabschlag(V+Soch), der Mindestlohn(Adj+S).

В немецкой экономической терминологии выделяют еще и парасинтетический способ словообразования, под которым понимается «сложение компонентов с одновременным безаффиксным или суффиксальным словообразованием» [Ахманова, 1966, с.424], напр.: Entgelterhöhung-Entgelt+erhöhen (в нашем исследовании представлено 24 словами). Полученные в результате слова называются сложнопроизводными (нем. Zusammenrückung).

В ходе нашего исследования все отобранные лексемы были распределены на тематические группы. Наиболее многочисленной оказалась группа абстрактных слов (157 из 230 слов). В данной подгруппе встречаются термины со значением процесса, юридические термины, лексемы со значением события, лексемы с собирательным значением, слова со значением процесса, состояния, обще абстрактные слова.

Другую многочисленную группу составляют имена деятелей (62 из 230). Самой малочисленной оказалась группа слов, обозначающих временные отрезки (всего 6 слов). Рассмотрим семантический состав каждой группы подробнее.

В группе «имена деятелей» наиболее частотными вторыми компонентами являются:

1. наименования деятелей, среди них следующие компоненты: -vorsitzende, -akteuer, -kraft, -teilnehmer, -nutzer, -anbieter, -nehmer, -hersteller, напр.: Mobilfunkanbieter, Marktartikel-Hersteller, Citi-Aktionär, Marktakteuer,

2. деятель с указанием на профессию или род деятельности, напр.: -minister, -aufseher, -manager, -strategie, -kanzler, -wissenschaftler, -verkäufer, приведем примеры: Chef-Währungsstrategie,

Wirtschaftswissenschaftler, Bankmanager, Schatzkanzler,

3. обозначение руководителя: -vorstandschef, -führer, ср.: Hauptgeschäftsführer, Anteilseigner, Schufa-Vorstandschef, Aufsichtsratsvorsitzende,

4. название организации, ведомства: -agentur, -sozietät, -regierung, ср.: Rating-Agentur,

5. название коллектива с компонентами: -personal, -klientel, напр.: Verwaltungspersonal, Versicherungsklientel.

Значение первого компонента может указывать на:

1. вид деятельности или режим работы: -teizeit, -rating, ср.: Teizeitkraft, Ratingagentur,

2. род деятельности: Pflege-, Verwaltung-, Labour-, Finanz, Citi-, напр.: Labourveteran, Finanzmarktaufseher,

3. место работы: Markt, ср.: Marktteilnehmer,

4. вид товара: Marktartikel,

5. страна, государство, организация: US-, G7, Union-, Bank-, напр.: G7-Finanzminister, US-Regierung,

6. название коллектива: Aufsichtsrat,

7. экономический термин, напр.: Steuerzahler,

8. имена собственные, названия организаций: Shufa-, Swap-, Hedge-, ср.: Swap-Partner, Schufa-Vorstandschef, Hedge-Fonds,

9. заимствованные слова: Immobilien, Insolvenz, ср.: Immobilienkäufer.

Семантика группы абстрактных слов определяется принадлежностью к следующим тематическим группам:

1. юридические термины (6 слов): die Anfechtungsklage, das Bezugsrecht, das EU-Wettbewerbsrecht, das Verkaufsverbot, das Verbraucherschutzrecht, das US-System,

2. финансовые термины (всего 111 слов): das Mobilfunk-Discount, die Staatsschuldscheine, der Darlegungsbetrag, die Pendelpauschale, der Verkaufserlös,

3. слова со значением процесса или результат процесса (20 слов): die Mitarbeiterstiftung, die Patentversorgung, die Gewinnsteuerung, die Altbausanierung, die Steuersenkung, die Wertbesichtigung, die Beitragbeimessung,

4. обще абстрактные слова (9 слов): Pflege- und Gesundheitsberufe, Pflegekräftemangel, Kurzzeitdenken, Lohnforderung, Dauerkampf, Ergebnisplus, Marktgespür,

5. объект или субъект: Wall-Street-Häuser, US-Wirtschaft, Interbankenmarkt,

6. слова с собирательным значением: die Betriebskonferenz, die Großkundgebung,

7. слова со значением события: das Spitzen-treffen, das IWF-Treffen,

8. слова со значением состояния: der Pflegenotstand, der Wahlerfolg,

9. название организации: die Postbank, Private-Equity-Fonds, die Kommerzbank, die East-Kapital-Fonds, die Währung-Hedge-Fonds.

Наиболее многочисленная группа «финансовые термины» на более мелкие подгруппы:

1. слова, обозначающие результаты финансовых операций: die Lohnerrhöhung, die Ratingabstufungen, der Mobilfunk-Discount, der Verkaufserlös, die Zinskursprünge, der Börsengang, die Vergünstigung, der Kursabschlag,

2. денежные единицы: die Staatsschuldscheine, das US-Staatsanleihen, der Zinsvorteil, die Darlehensbetrag,

3. виды расходов и налогов: der Selbstbehalt, die Erbschaftsteuer, die Milliardenerven, die Unternehmenssteuer,

4. наименование финансовых и юридических документов: das Aktienpaket, das US-Rettungspaket, der Bruttoerlös, die Anfechtungsklage,

5. наименования финансовых процессов и их потаций: der Umsatzzuwachs, der Umsatzplus, das Fehlinvestment, das Investmentbanking,

6. наименования бирж, банков, рынков: der Interbankenmarkt, die Hypothekenkreditbank, die Postbank.

В составе нашего практического материала можно обнаружить субстантивы с полупрефиксами и полусуффиксами, ср.: die Teilzeitkraft, der Hauptgeschäftsführer, der Haupteigner, der Haupteigentümer. Употребительными компонентами являются имена собственные (в виде аббревиатур) и англицизмы, напр.: die US-Regierung, der Chef-Währungsstrategie, der Unionsfraktionsvize, der Labour-Veteran, der NATO-Gipfel, der EX-Außenminister, der Swap-Partner, der Immobilienkäufer, der Renaissance-Sprecher, der Internetnutzer. Заимствованные компоненты и аббревиатуры большей частью сливаются с определяющим компонентом, а пишутся через дефис.

Рассмотрим структурный состав отобранных для исследования слов.

По типу сложных слов большинство экономических терминов относятся к соединительным сложным словам, ср.: Arbeitszeitreduktion-сокращение рабочего времени der Marktteilnehmer-участник рынка, der Verkaufserlös- выручка от продажи, die Inflationsrate- норма инфляции и др.

Отмечаются также наличие и определительных сложных слов, напр.: der Zinsvorteil- процентная льгота, die Kreditwirtschaft -кредитная экономика, die Kommerzbank-коммерческий банк.

Все подлежащие анализу слова относятся к двухкомпонентным сложным словам. Данные слова имеют следующую структуру:

1) существительное + существительное: die Standardlösung (всего 187 слов из 230),

2) аббревиатура + существительное (12 слов): G7-Finanzminister, US-Häusermarkt, US-Rettungspaket,

3) английская + немецкая основы (11 слов): Internetumfrage, Onöine-Handel, Labourveteran, Citi-Reich,

4) 2 английские основы (3 слова): Investmentbanking, Topmanagement,

5) имя собственное + существительное (5 слов): NATO-Gipfel, Hofar-Mobilfunker,

6) предлог + существительное (1 слово): Sonderbeiträge,

7) наречие + существительное (1 слово): Vorausleistung,

8) прилагательное + существительное (3 слова): Leerverkäufer, Privatanleger, Kleinanleger,

9) глагол + существительное (3 слова): Wahlerfolg,

10) числительное + существительное + существительное (4 слова): 35-Stunden-Woche, Einmalbildung,

11) местоимение + существительное (2 слова): Selbststilisierung, Selbstbehalt.

Таким образом, наиболее частотной структурой сложных слов является сложение двух субстантивных основ.

Всё вышеизложенное позволяет нам сделать следующие выводы:

1. Наиболее частотной структурой является сложение 2 субстантивных немецких основ, что составляет 81% от общего количества слов.

2. Менее частотными структурами оказались: прилагательное + существительное, наречие + существительное, местоимение + существительное, глагол + существительное, предлог + существительное.

3. Компонентами сложных слов могут выступать аббревиатуры, имена собственные, английские заимствования.

4. Наиболее многочисленной тематической группой оказались абстрактные слова, включающая финансовые термины (157 из 230). На втором месте – имена деятеля (62 слова из 230). Меньше всего единиц насчитывает группа слов, обозначающая отрезки времени (6 слов из 230) и юридические термины (5 слов).

5. Характерным для экономической терминологии является наличие гибридных образований, в которых сочетаются заимствованные и исконно немецкие основы (нем. Hybridbildungen).

Таким образом, исследование экономической лексики показало, наиболее продуктивной словообразовательной структурой является словосложение, что подтверждается исследованием различных групп лексики.

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# POLITICAL SCIENCES

## NATO POLICIES IN THE BALKANS AFTER THE END OF THE COLD WAR

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### Abstract

This paper aims to focus on analyzing how the North Atlantic Alliance views the closer integration of the Western Balkan countries into Euro-Atlantic institutions, when all countries in the region have expressed a desire to join these organizations. What has been the role of politics "NATO's "open door" in the Balkans? The issue of the connection between international security and democratization in the Balkan region is important for the well-being and the progress of this region as a whole. Existence or perception of threats to international security undermines democratization and, the failure of democratization undermines international security.

Nickname "unstable region", The Balkans have been holding it for centuries and not without reason. It is known that the Balkans have long been a difficult area to ensure long-term stability, due to a great record in violent conflicts. Historically there has been a turbulent life. Because of the different ethnic and religious components, but also of territorial claims, peninsula (its western part) has always produced conflicts that have generated severe humanitarian crises. Severely challenged by conflicts, the region, has laid on the table vague and dubious solutions, which have failed to quell hatred and enmity, leaving in any case, as an opportunity for radical solutions, armed violence.

**Keywords:** Balkans, politics, stability, integration, NATO

### Introduction

Western Balkans countries are considered difficult cases for European integration, this is due to the violent conflicts in which they are involved, but also because of less developed political and economic systems. These countries continue to face challenges that have not been addressed so far, as ethnic tensions, border disputes, problems with immigration and refugees, organized crime and corruption. The investment of Western countries and international organizations has been large in the region, in order to expand the security zone between Europe and its Trans-Atlantic partners, on the other side, all countries of the Western Balkans region have expressed a desire to join European institutions and become part of the Euro-Atlantic community [1, p. 3].

NATO's own development, after the Cold War, has been influenced by developments in the Balkans, which remains a concern for the Alliance. After the Riga Summit 2006, Balkan countries have institutionalized relations with NATO in various ways, someone through membership, someone through PfP or the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council. Changes in the security of the region have caused problems, but the common goal of the countries of the region (Euro-Atlantic integration) has made their policies resonate with the Alliance. [2, 2007].

*What is the policy that NATO has pursued in the Balkans?*

By the end of the Cold War, NATO had emerged not only victorious but also more powerful. Their members are committed to promoting democracy, protecting freedom and human rights, and developing a market economy. However, the end of the Cold War could not mark the end of the wars in Europe, in the

south-east, have exploded conflicts and ethnic cleansing. Such a situation, in addition to producing instability, also undermined the democratic values for which the Alliance had fought so hard. Initially, its approach to the situation created was through the development of strategies and means of intervening in internal conflicts, and the first reactions were some verbal threats and limited attacks, to force the parties to the ethnic conflict to stop fighting and negotiate agreements. NATO could coordinate activities with a number of organizations and actors, as its officials could cooperate with the UN, the OSCE. Also, was the only organization that could exercise high diplomacy and military strength as its organizational structure enabled the simultaneous development of diplomacy and war. After all, only NATO had the organizational capacity to deploy and command peacekeeping forces to stabilize war-torn regions in the Balkans. After 1990, Alliance Members sought to involve NATO military structures in support of operations outside the area. (Bosnia, Kosovo, Macedonia) and to enable the participation of non-member countries in these operations [3, p.14-16]

Artificially created by Tito, with eight federal units, twenty-four ethnicities, and three major religions, the Yugoslav Federation, did not finally resolve ethno-national issues, but emerged as a fragile federal entity that disintegrated. [4, p.26] In the 1990 Yugoslav elections, Franjo Tudjman won in Croatia, Slobodan Milosevic in Serbia, Milan Kucan in Slovenia, Alija Izetbegovic in Bosnia and Herzegovina, Kiro Gligorov in Macedonia and Momir Bulatinovic in Montenegro. These election results removed the old Yugoslav federal structure which, however, was still active. Despite the great efforts of the Prime Minister of the Federation, Ante Markovic, to resolve economic issues, the federation could not be maintained, especially after June 25,

1991, when Croatia and Slovenia declared their independence. Just two days later the JNA was stationed in Slovenia, marking the start of fighting. However, Slovenia was prepared for defense, due to the propaganda that was made against the JNA, so the fighting did not last long, thanks to the intervention of the international which was finalized with the Brioni Agreement of 7 July 1991, which ordered the cessation of hostilities. Despite the agreement, violence also broke out in Croatia, where hatred between Croats and Serbs escalated. The example of Slovenia and Croatia was followed by Bosnia and Herzegovina, declaring independence, but even there fighting began [5, p.13-17].

Believing that the recognition of the independence of Slovenia and Croatia would put an end to the violence on 31 March 1991, The EP had declared their right to *"freely determine their future peacefully and democratically and on the basis of knowledge of international and domestic borders"* [4, p.24]. The US and Russia announced that they would recognize the federal state, while the EU diplomats, during the second half of 1991 attempted about 14 ceasefire negotiations between Belgrade and Zagreb and Ljubljana, which lasted only a few days. In September 1991, was reached Yugoslav peace in the Hague, where the EU believed that the federation would be preserved through an agreement. The republics refused to keep the federation alive, and under these conditions the Yugoslav Peace Conference remained in oblivion. It did nothing but give Milosevic wings to continue the violence, in the name of defending the federation. On 15 June 1992, believing that this would help stop the fighting some EU countries recognized Croatia and Slovenia. The situation in Bosnia was different, although it had followed the example of Slovenia and Croatia, declaring itself a sovereign and democratic country. Izetbegovic's national unity government (which included Bosnia's ethnic minorities), which emerged from the November 1991 elections, found it difficult to function due to growing Croatian nationalism (Bosnian Croat nationalist groups have expressed desire for full annexation of Bosnia by Croatia) and Milosevic's claims to protect Bosnian Serbs. Incidents began to escalate Serbs (Karadzic) left the Bosnian Assembly on October 14, 1991, while Herzegovina Croats supported the partition of Bosnia and Herzegovina between Serbia and Croatia. In December 1991, the Bosnian government sought EU recognition, which was rejected even after a referendum on 29 February 1992 confirmed the Bosniaks' desire for independence. In return, the EU proposed a cantonment plan dividing Bosnia into ten autonomous units. Bosniaks reject plan, Izetbegovic calls for UN peacekeepers' presence. The request was rejected and Serbs felt free to attack Bosnia to "protect" Serbs there. The fighting began, and, when it was too late, in April 1992, the EU, followed by the United States, formally recognized Bosnia. [6, p.83-86]

The three peace plans for Bosnia in 1993 (Vance-Owen, Owen-Stoltenberg and the EU Plan for the three Communities), for achieving peace in the country failed, due to deep divisions in transatlantic relations (especially Anglo-American ones over the settlement

of Bosnia [7, p.30]. In August 1993, when Serbs captured almost 70 percent of Bosnia and forced about one million Bosnian Muslims to flee their homes due to violence, NATO countries warned the parties to the conflict that they would take action in support of UN Security Council resolutions after declaring unacceptable the horrific humanitarian situation in Bosnia and Herzegovina, and in particular in Sarajevo. Also threatened Bosnian Serbs and Croats that they would use air strikes if they attacked the Muslim population or obstructed humanitarian aid. The threat did not function, because in February 1994, Serbs attacked a market in Sarajevo causing victims. In response, the Allies demanded that UNPROFOR take control of Bosnian Serb heavy weapons within a 20-kilometer perimeter of central Sarajevo, with the exception of an area two kilometers from the center of Pales. On February 21, the NATO mission was called over after Bosnian Serb forces surrendered their weapons. A similar situation occurred in Gordaze, however, Bosnian Serb forces resumed bombing of Sarajevo, forcing NATO Allies to attack Serb positions in Goradze on 11-13 April [3, p.44-45].

In 1995, the Clinton administration decided to engage in an effort to stop fighting in Bosnia through a peaceful solution, because the failure of the policy of that time, caused by inaction, not only was undermining the credibility of NATO and US foreign policy, but violence threatened to spread further into the region. In May 1995, Bosnian Serbs took several UN troops hostage and crossed the UN "safe zone" in Srebrenica. According to Red Cross data, between 7 and 12 July 1995, 7,079 Bosnian Muslims were killed. The killings in Srebrenica reinforced the idea of intervention within the US administration, with the belief that inaction undermined the US position in the world. On August 30, the Alliance launched Operation Intentional Force, with approximately 3,515 flights for two weeks by 293 aircraft of eight NATO countries which together with a combined Muslim-Croat attack in early August caused the Bosnian Serbs to withdraw. On October 5, 1995, President Clinton announced that a armistice would take effect in five days. [8, p.126-128].

By October 12, 1995, the combined Muslim-Croat offensive had reduced Serb-controlled territory from 70 percent to 50 percent. NATO airstrikes, which were an essential part of the US strategy to force the Serbs to negotiate, had a particularly important role in the offensive. [3, p.55].

On July 2, 1990, Kosovo was officially declared an independent and equal entity within the Yugoslav Federation, and on September 21, 1991, an independent and sovereign state. The referendum held from September 26-30 also confirmed the desire of Kosovars for independence, because of the 87 percent of eligible voters, 99.87 percent of them voted in favor [9, p.225]. From 1989 to 1995, Kosovo had a relatively calm climate. The situation worsened after 1995. Elections of 22 May 1992 in Kosovo led to the appointment of its President Ibrahim Rugova (with 74.4 percent) who aimed to achieve Kosovo's final independence by peaceful and diplomatic means, convinced that the other way about would provoke violence and ethnic cleansing by Serbs. In addition to the LDK, extremist

political and military groups emerged, such as the LPRK, which was for the use of force. The product of this division was also the Kosovo Liberation Army (KLA) [7, p.98-100]. In 1996, the KLA organized a campaign of bomb attacks against Serbian police stations, post offices, military barracks in some regions of Kosovo, such as Pristina, Suhareka, Mitrovica, Podujeva and elsewhere. On January 16, 1997, a bomb planted by her seriously injured the rector of the University of Prishtina, which was administered by Serbs. In early 1998, the KLA numbered about 500 active members, who carried out occasional attacks. Milosevic responded with a counterattack, engaging some 40,000 troops with various weapons, tanks, helicopters and heavy artillery [9, p. 226-267]. The current situation could not but include NATO, which launched several military maneuvers in the region, in preparation for a possible air or ground attack, as CIAS reports in January and February 1998 indicated that Milosevic was preparing for war. In early March, Serbs intensified attacks in Drenica, as a result of which Adem Jashari was killed, together with his family. In the first moment there was no strong reaction from the allies, but only verbal threats, as military intervention would require a consensus between the US and European allies. On the other hand, Serbia had rejected any kind of mediation on the Kosovo issue through a referendum organized by it [7, p.106].

In March 1998 the UN Contact Group (US, Britain, Germany, France, Italy and Russia) urges Yugoslav government to end attacks, sit down for talks with Kosovar politicians. In April, with the exception of Russia, it imposed economic sanctions on Belgrade. Despite this, Milosevic did not stop the violence [3, p.47]. NATO Ministers, meeting in Luxembourg on 28 May 1998, issued a Declaration recommending a number of measures:

- expand PfP assistance to assist Macedonian and Albanian national armed forces secure their borders;
- the development of a joint NATO-PfP exercise in Macedonia during September 1998;
- establishing a PfP partnership cell in Tirana and conducting a small PfP-led exercise during August;
- opening of a permanent NATO naval structure in the port of Durrës;
- commitment to expand UN and OSCE oversight in the region.

However, the recommended measures could prevent the spread of the conflict in the short term, but could not permanently extinguish it [9, p.234].

At the NAC meeting in Brussels on 11 June 1998, the Alliance's defense ministers agreed on air training "Determined Falcon over Albanian and Macedonian airspace" which would include conducting an air exercise in Albania and Macedonia, to project rapid power in the region. In this training, which lasted nearly six hours, was attended by 13 Alliance countries, with about 85 aircraft. In the summer of 1998, Serbs intensified attacks against the KLA which led to a mass exodus of the population (about 100,000 civilians had fled their homes). On September 23, the UN Security Coun-

cil adopted Resolution 1199, which called on the parties to a lasting political compromise. The use of force by NATO was predicted in three phases:

- the first phase was ACTWARN, the activation warning, approved by NATO defense ministers on 24 September 1998 in Vilamoura, Portugal;
- the second phase was ACTREQ, the activation request, approved by the NAC in early October 1998.
- the third phase, ACTORD, the activation order approved by the NAC on 12-13 October 1998, giving Milosevic 96 hours to agree with international negotiators, otherwise he would face military *action* [7, p.106-109].

Two days before the NATO ultimatum expired, on 25 October 1998, an agreement was reached with FRY officials on the number of troops and units to be determined and the conditions for their reinstatement. Although the Allies reported that the FRY complied with Resolution 1199, they continued to threaten to use force if violations of the Resolution were to be seen in the future. From what can be seen, the verbal threats of NATO did their job to calm down the situation after the humanitarian crisis eased in November, several agreements were also negotiated with the FRY, such as the establishment of the OSCE KVM, which also provided security for the Kosovar population to return to their homes. This calm did not last long, because Milosevic violated UN Security Council Resolution 1199 with his ethnic cleansing campaign, in the hope that depopulating Kosovo would quell the KLA armed uprising. It was clear that Milosevic's purge campaign had ignored NATO verbal warnings, however, the Allies organized the Rambouillet Peace Conference, to avoid war and to give diplomacy another chance. The organizers of the Rambouillet Conference (USA, France and Britain), drafted an Interim Agreement with four provisions that was presented to the parties:

1. a self-governing autonomy for Kosovo within Serbia;
2. withdrawal of all VJ and MUP forces towards Serbia;
3. the presence of a NATO-led peacekeeping force in Kosovo to ensure security;
4. The duration of the agreement would be three years, until an international conference on Kosovo's final status is held [3, p.48-49].

The Rambouillet negotiations ended on 23 February 1999. The Albanian delegation signed the Interim Agreement, it was the Serbs who rejected him on the pretext that point four meant the creation of an independent Kosovo and the insistence on categorically not accepting foreign troops into the territory of the FRY. On March 24, NATO launched the first phase of Operation Allied Forces and on March 30, the air campaign. Milosevic's refusal to end his repressive policies and opposition to the presence of a peacekeeping force in Kosovo led to airstrikes on Serbia. A post-war OSCE investigation had estimated that during the period March-June 1999, about 863,000 ethnic Albanians were expelled by Serb forces from Kosovo, of whom about 440,000 remained in Albania and 248,000 in Macedonia and 589,000 internally displaced within

Kosovo. The 78-day NATO air campaign was conducted under the concept of humanitarian intervention, to stop exactly one humanitarian catastrophe [7, p. 114]. The first attacks were limited and did not target Belgrade or the country's electricity grid. The first phase of Operation Allied Force, which lasted until March 27, targeted Yugoslav air defenses. Second phase, security and support forces in Kosovo. While the third phase, would include political leadership, economic infrastructure, highway networks, as well as roads and bridges. In May, Operation's status changed from limited to intensified to exert strong military pressure on Yugoslavia. The strategy succeeded after Milosevic decided to step down in June, signing the June 9th Military-Technical Agreement which set out to put Kosovo under NATO control [3, p. 59].

NATO policy in the Balkans, after the 1990s, is related to the inclusion within the Alliance of the countries of this region that had remained outside it (Greece and Turkey had joined the Alliance since 1952). Slovenia, Bulgaria and Romania joined in 2004, Croatia and Albania in 2009. By this time, Macedonia had remained outside the Alliance, which officially did not accept the invitation to join the Alliance, due to problems with Greece, although it joined the Membership Action Plan in 1999. Data from a 2010 survey showed that 80.02% of Macedonians were in favor of NATO membership, while an accompanying survey estimated that 65% of Macedonians opposed name change in exchange for NATO membership [7, p. 240-243]. Macedonia fulfilled its dream in March 2020, after mortgaging its name. Montenegro became an independent state in 2006. In December of the same year it joined the Partnership for Peace Program and after three years (2009) the Membership Action Plan, although the support of Montenegrins was low. According to an October 2010 study by the Center for Democracy and Human Rights, about 32.6% of Montenegrins supported NATO membership, 39.7% opposed it, while 27.6% had no opinion. Serbia, although not expressing any interest in NATO membership, joined the PfP in 2006 and in 2010 opened its mission in Brussels with a promise to send its military representative in due course. Most Serbs did not support membership due to the NATO bombing in 1999, while centrist politicians wanted membership. The case of Bosnia is problematic, due to the lack of political dialogue between the leaders of the two entities, 63% of Bosnian Serb population opposes membership, while 93% of Muslim-Croat population are in favor of membership [7, p. 240-243 *Idem*]

From the IDM Survey in cooperation with its regional partners in the Western Balkans, Center for Security Studies (Sarajevo), Analytica (Skopje), Kosovo Center for Security Studies (Pristina), CEDEM (Podgorica), Croatian Atlantic Council (Zagreb), as well as the Atlantic Council of Serbia (Belgrade) which was organized in the period January - February 2010, in seven countries it turned out that: 66.09 percent of representatives of the elites of the Western Balkan countries perceived NATO as an important institution that guarantees security in the Euro-Atlantic area, while 7.3 percent of respondents saw NATO as a mechanism to fight terrorism. Also, 66.09 percent of respondents

chose NATO as the organization that guarantees more regional security and stability in the Western Balkans, compared to the EU, OSCE and UN [10].

According by Ronald D. Asmus "*NATO enlargement would never have happened in the absence of the US and its comprehensive and ultimately successful effort to stop fighting in Bosnia*". It was precisely the involvement in the Western Balkans that allowed NATO to "exit the area" [8, pg 25].

However, NATO has been actively engaged in Bosnia in a variety of areas, which include defense and security sector reform, security cooperation and civil emergency planning, as well as in science and environment, etc. But the core of NATO's engagement in Bosnia is defense and security sector reform, in which it has also held a leading role in the Defense Reform Commission since 2005. One of the Alliance's mechanisms to assist in the development of the Bosnian Professional Armed Forces for interaction with NATO units has been SFOR, created to build a unified structure of command and control aimed at reducing ethnopolitics and strengthening the concept of shared statehood. Other collaborations have been in the field of security (contribution of Bosnian officers to ISAF, Afghanistan since 2009), Bosnia has signed and ratified the PfP Force Status Agreement (SOFA) with NATO or the conditional agreement of April 2010, to continue with the NATO Membership Action Plan [11, pg 25].

### Conclusions

In the volatile conflicts in the Balkans, NATO pursued a coercive policy. It was able to restore stability only after the Allies used military force and threatened the domestic political base of the stronger parties that blocked an agreement. The resolution of the conflict abroad depended on the preferences of the parties to the internal dispute and on the nature of the threats posed by NATO countries [3, pg 4]. NATO exerted diplomatic and military pressure to extinguish the conflict over the Balkans which now presents a stable situation achieved with great effort and difficulty.

NATO's specific objective in the Balkans is to establish lasting peace and pave the way for Euro-Atlantic integration, while in the shorter term, the improvement of crises and, if possible, their prevention. An essential mechanism that helps create internal stability and a successful transition in the region is the promotion of defense reform, together with the monitoring of defense budgets in each country, through a range of other activities and programs, including PfP. The success of NATO-led missions is guaranteed by their impartiality, non-bias or favoritism, full compliance with applicable international law, including international humanitarian law, as well as from perspectives from interested nations in international organizations, cooperation and close coordination of which is a key priority, including the UN, OSCE and EU. In line with its goals and objectives, NATO relies on short-term tools, which include immediate crisis prevention or management activities, and long-term tools, which include engagement through the EAPC / PfP, MPA process, SEEI, and support through the Stability Pact, including SEECAP [12, 2003].

CSIS report, while acknowledging the contribution of the EU's political and economic engagement in the region as well as the US in building a sustainable future in the Western Balkans, claims that transatlantic policy has not been able to overcome growing regional challenges, even in the future these policies risk remaining in place if they do not advance European integration. The issue of enlargement in the Western Balkans has remained in place, raising suspicions among politicians in the region about the sincerity of the EU's commitment to the accession process, for this reason the report suggests that the EU and the US should make new long-term plans for the region for EU accession, which should include strong incentives for Balkan political leaders to implement key reforms and regional co-operation. The report sees the renewal and regeneration of transatlantic policy towards the Western Balkans as necessary to steer the region towards a sustainable future in the transatlantic community [11, pg v-vi].

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# PSYCHOLOGICAL SCIENCES

## SOCIO-PSYCHOLOGICAL FEATURES OF THE PERSONAL'S SOCIAL STATUS OF IN THE FIELD OF LEISURE

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### Abstract

The article presents the main results of an empirical study of the acquisition of social status by a person in a small group in the field of leisure. The social status of the individual is an essential component of the social life of every person. As its primary function should be noted the ordering, design, regulation, and behavior of groups and their members. Social status is a component that simultaneously affects the individual and which in some way depends on the individual. It was found that the social status of the individual is a structural and multi-component phenomenon. The components of the social status of the individual in the field of leisure included high group cohesion, positive social judgments, the tendency to affiliation. The selected components relate to the psychological dimensions of social conditions and group processes. Personal characteristics are less important in the context of leisure. The factors of acquisition of social status by a person in a small group in leisure are clarified: acceptance of others, the psychological climate of the team, the orientation of the individual to the actual period of life, social approval, and lack of normative behavior.

**Keywords:** social status of a person, small group, social context, personal characteristics, social conditions, group processes, structure of social status, factors of acquiring social status.

### Introduction

The social status of the individual is an important component of the social life of every person. As its main function should be noted the ordering, design, regulation and behavior of groups and their members. Reflecting the position of man in the social system of society, the social status of the individual is determined by the set of rights and responsibilities of the individual in the system of social relations, groups and systems. Thus, social status is a component that simultaneously affects the individual him or herself, and which in some way depends on the individual.

### Theoretical analysis

Analysis of recent publications. The concept of social status of the individual is largely developed by representatives of sociology. Among the researchers who have made a key contribution to the development of this concept are M. Weber (Weber, 1999), P. Sorokin (Sorokin, 1992), P. Bourdieu (Bourdieu, 2002), R. Linton (Linton, 2001). With regard to psychological science, it should be noted that the existing research is more concerned with studying the possible links between social status and the phenomena of modern social life. V. Moiseenko (Moiseenko, 2019), T. Parsons (Parsons, 2000), A. Kovalenko, M. Kornev (Kovalenko & Kornev, 2006), D. Olshansky (Olshansky, 2002), T. Senko (Senko, 1989), A. Schram, J. Brands, K. Gorkshani (Schram, Brandts & Gërxhani, 2019), J. Wang, C. Matz-Costa (Wang & Matz-Costa, 2019), T. Dadaeva (Dadaeva, 2013), J. Park (Park, Kitayama, Markus & Coe, 2013), J. Hoebel (Hoebel, Maske, Zeeb & Lampert, 2017), L. Dementiy, O. Nechiporenko (Dementiy & Nechiporenko, 2007), L. Frey & Alekseenko, 2016) and others. explored various aspects of the social status of the individual in a psychological context. Thus, V. Moiseenko and O. Blynova, considering the social sta-

tus of the individual in the context of psychological research, noted that in most existing scientific papers, social status acts as an independent variable or as an explanatory principle. At the same time, the social status itself is a phenomenon that is easily changed and acts as a socio-psychological characteristic of the individual, which is determined and evaluated by the subject of knowledge (Moiseenko & Blynova, 2018). L. Frey and E. Alekseenko made an attempt to consider the social status of the individual in connection with its tourist history. In this case, tourism acted as one of the indicators of social status. In this attempt, we can see that the authors adhere to a socio-stratification approach to the interpretation of social status, because they see it as a basis for social stratification of society (Frey & Alekseenko, 2016).

Recently, the number of studies concerning the social status of sick people has increased. O. Terenda's research is devoted to the study of the influence of the social status of patients with myocardial infarction on the choice of treatment methods and ways of hospitalization (Terenda, 2017). A. Chichuk studied the social status of teachers in the United States. The researcher concluded that it is the socio-economic status of the teacher and its main factors: the level of education of the teacher and the level of material remuneration for the performance of his/her professional duties (Chichuk, 2017). A. Schram, J. Brands and K. Gërxhani studied the conditions of the competitive environment and, as a consequence, the ranking of social status (Schram, Brandts & Gërxhani, 2019). J. Wang and colleagues studied the impact of social status on the level of subjective well-being (Wang & Matz-Costa, 2019). T. Dadaeva considered the socio-professional status of university teachers in the context of the level of mastery of economic, political and cultural components (Da-

daeva, 2013). J. Park established statistically significant correlations between social status and the level of anger and aggression (Park, Kitayama, Markus & Coe, 2013). Recently, the number of studies that have highlighted the main links between social status and psychosomatic health of the individual has increased. For example, J. Hoebel considered the relationship between a person's social status and depressive symptoms (Hoebel, Maske, Zeeb & Lampert, 2017). Given the theoretical sources, it becomes obvious that the study of social status of the individual is mainly local in nature or one of many aspects of the formation or functioning of social status, and, accordingly, the results relate to a particular category of population - a particular profession, disease and more. However, it is important to consider the social context in which the individual operates. There is a need for a general study of the phenomenon of social status, its component structure and its main factors.

The purpose of the article is to empirically study the social status of the individual in a small group.

#### Research methodology

Social status must be considered taking into account the social context in which a person operates, so the article will consider the social status of the individual, which he can acquire only in the field of leisure.

An empirical study of the psychological features of a person's acquisition of social status in a small group was attended by 324 people: 27 small groups of 12 people. All of them are citizens of Ukraine, aged from 17 to 48 years. For the convenience of statistical calculations, they were divided into three age groups: 17 - 20 years (adolescence), 21 - 25 years (early maturity), from 26 years (average age). The study involved 96 men and 228 women. The age group "youth" consists of 208 people, "early maturity" - 94 people, "middle age" - 22 people.

The study of the social status of the individual was performed using a number of methods: sociometry, autosociometry, methods of diagnosing group motivation (I. Ladanov), methods of diagnosing motivators of socio-psychological activity of the individual (D. McClelland), methods of integrated self-assessment "Who am I in this world?" (Yu. Zabrodin, D. Novikov), methods of diagnosing the level of development of a small group (L. Umansky, A. Lutoshkin), methods of diagnosing locus-role conflict (P. Gornostay), methods of diagnosing socio-psychological adaptation (K. Rogers-Diamond), diagnosis of socio-psychological climate "Pulsar" (L. Pochebut), group cohesion index (K. Sishor), method Value orientations (K. Schwartz), method of meaning-life orientations (D. Leontiev), test "Social intelligence" (J. Guilford) (Fetiskin, Kozlov & Manuilov, 2009), methods of diagnosing subjective social well-being (T. Danilchenko) (Danilchenko, 2016).

The processing of the data of the empirical study was carried out using the program SPSS 15.0.

#### Results and discussion

The social status of the individual is a complex phenomenon, so it is necessary to determine its socio-psychological component structure. The focus of the study was on the study of sociometric status as one of the main elements of social status. Social status was studied through sociometric positions of respondents. The entire sample was divided into 4 groups depending on the number of elections: neglected, rejected, accepted, stars. Based on the results, there was a need to group study participants by social context. Thus, two social contexts were distinguished: interpersonal relations in the field of leisure and interpersonal relations in the work environment. Further results will be presented taking into account the social context, namely the field of leisure. The research has been conducted in several groups to identify potential differences in the allocation of the sociometric and social statuses.

Table 1

Distribution of respondents by sociometric positions

	<b>Neglected</b>	<b>Not accepted</b>	<b>Accepted</b>	<b>Stars</b>
<b>Group 1</b>	2,8	4,1	7,1	8,8
<b>Group 2</b>	2,1	4,7	6,2	8,4
<b>Group 3</b>	2,9	4,3	6,4	8,6
<b>Group 4</b>	2,6	4,9	6,5	7,8
<b>Average</b>	2,4	4,8	6,9	8,4

The largest number of respondents is "accepted" - 35.8% of the total sample. Such indicators can be explained by the fact that outside of work, respondents are grouped by interest groups. The group of "stars" included 18.5% of the total sample. The smallest group

consists of respondents who occupy the position of "neglected" - 14.8%.

The study took into account socio-demographic characteristics, the results of the distribution of which are presented in table. 2.

Table 2

The average value of social status by socio-demographic characteristics

	<b>Neglected</b>	<b>Not accepted</b>	<b>Accepted</b>	<b>Stars</b>
<b>Man</b>	4,6	11,2	16,4	19,1
<b>Woman</b>	5,1	9,4	15,6	19,4
<b>Youth</b>	4,1	9,2	14,4	19,6
<b>Early maturity</b>	4,6	10,1	15,2	19,1
<b>Middle age</b>	7,1	12,1	15,8	17,9

Based on the results of the study, it can be assumed that age is not a major factor in the social status of the individual. The distribution of sociometric positions in relation to the age of the respondents is almost the same: most of the respondents belong to the groups of "unaccepted" and "accepted".

Since leisure activities are voluntary, ie in this area people are grouped according to the parameters of common values and interests, it is worth considering the value orientations of respondents and other studied psychological characteristics. Detailed results are presented in table 3.

Table 3

The results of the application of t-test for psychological characteristics and sociometric positions in the leisure environment

Psychological dimension	Psychological variable	Sociometric positions			
		Neglected	Not accepted	Accepted	Stars
Personal characteristics	Adaptation	57,13	60,28	62,86	61,40
	Escapism	<b>17,08</b>	14,64	14,24	12,80
	Acceptance of others	56,67	58,68	63,03	56,80
	Emotional comfort	58,63	56,52	60,95	<b>67,00</b>
	Internality	60,88	65,24	65,52	67,00
	Kindness (normative)	3,44	<b>5,32</b>	4,09	3,90
	Achievements (normative)	<b>5,13</b>	4,04	4,93	1,90
	Universalism (individual)	<b>6,08</b>	5,97	5,20	4,30
	Achievements (individual)	5,23	4,49	5,72	<b>7,50</b>
	Security (individual)	5,48	5,30	5,79	<b>6,60</b>
	Locus of control I	<b>7,17</b>	5,82	5,91	7,00
	Overall awareness	116,92	128,14	135,84	<b>144,60</b>
	Social visibility	<b>6,79</b>	5,54	5,50	6,20
Group processes	Social distance	<b>6,54</b>	5,36	5,60	6,00
	Tendency to affiliation	19,08	18,94	19,33	20,80
	The level of development of the group	16,58	13,66	14,02	<b>19,80</b>
	The overall performance of the group	20,69	19,13	20,11	<b>21,64</b>
	Group cohesion	13,46	13,24	13,76	<b>16,60</b>

"Neglected": have the highest level of escapism, which indicates their tendency to escape to their own illusory world; strive for success, through the manifestation of their own competencies that do not go beyond social acceptance, and to universalism - understanding, patience and well-being of the world around them; have the highest conviction that they manage their own lives, the highest rates for the variables of social visibility and social distance.

"Unaccepted": characterized by a prosocial orientation, which is expressed in maintaining the well-being of those people with whom the respondent is in close contact.

"Stars": are characterized by the highest development of the group, the highest level of emotional comfort, assessment of the psychological climate of the group as a favorable and the highest level of group cohesion; they tend to seek to express themselves, but will do so within the framework of normative behavior, and to take care of the safety of their own lives and the world around them.

In general, it was found that respondents with a low tendency to affiliation (willingness to be accepted by the rest of the team) have low levels of socio-psychological adaptation, self-esteem, but, at the same time, they are characterized by high acceptance of other

people, high level of emotional comfort and psychological satisfaction. climate of own group. The youngest respondents are the most active, have the highest level of self-esteem and are characterized by a high level of desire for affiliation; middle-aged respondents have low self-esteem. The obtained results allow to assert the relevance of these features for the study of social status, as the specifics of the manifestation of personal characteristics, determine the dynamics of group processes and clarify the nature of social conditions.

In order to fill the social status with psychological content, it is necessary to establish the specifics of its relationship with the psychological variables of research. By using correlation analysis, the features of the relationship between psychological variables and sociometric status are determined. Thus, the sociometric status of the individual in the field of leisure has both direct and inverse correlation coefficients. The most statistically significant are the connections with the locus of control "I", awareness, achievements (as a personal characteristic). Sociometric status of a person in the field of leisure has negative correlations with achievements (normative indicator), universalism (as a personal characteristic), conformity (normative indicator) and independence (as a personal characteristic).

Table 4

Results of correlation analysis of sociometric status in the field of leisure and psychological variables

Psychological variable	The value of (r) at $p < 0,05$
Locus of control I	0,262
Awareness	0,243
Adaptation	0,183
Internality	0,172
Achievement	-0,138
Purposes	0,191
Emotional comfort	0,161
Group cohesion	0,257
Positive social judgments	0,170
Self-acceptance	0,139
Acceptance of others	0,145
Tendency to affiliation	0,199
Achievements (individual)	0,225
Universalism (individual)	-0,170
Conformity (normative)	-0,138
Independence (individual)	-0,117
Power (individual)	0,112

Based on the obtained results, a psychological portrait of a typical participant of interpersonal interaction in a small group was constructed. Thus, a typical participant in interpersonal interaction in the field of leisure is characterized by: the desire to express themselves; low level of understanding and patience; tendency to restrain potentially dangerous actions of others and others; tendency to listen to the opinion of an authoritative member of the team; propensity for power; self-confidence; high awareness; significant socio-psychological adaptability; high responsibility for one's own life; the desire to express themselves; future orientation; high rate of emotional comfort; high rate of group cohesion; the need for positive assessments of others; adequate acceptance of oneself and other people; desire to be a member of the team.

A list of psychological variables that have the largest number of statistically significant relationships with other studied characteristics was also identified: socio-psychological adaptation and its components (self-acceptance, acceptance of others and emotional comfort), group cohesion, locus of control "I", awareness, tendency to affiliation, self-esteem, social distance, which in the vast majority has negative correlation coefficients, except for the variable of achievements (as a normative indicator).

With the help of factor analysis, the component structure of the social status of an individual in the field of leisure was determined. First, some regularities of acquiring a certain social status in the field of leisure were singled out: the formation of a high social status is facilitated by a high level of desire for power, low conformity of personality; the lack of universalism contributes to the formation of a high social status; the formation of a high sociometric status is facilitated by the presence of positive social judgments; the formation of a high sociometric status is facilitated by a high level of group cohesion. Secondly, the results of the factor analysis revealed the content of the social status in the field of leisure:

- high group cohesion (high index of emotional attractiveness of group members);

- the presence of positive social judgments (positive social perception of others);

- tendency to affiliation (desire to be accepted by the rest of the group).

Through correlation analysis, variables were identified that have statistically significant links with social status in the field of leisure: Acceptance of others ( $r = 0.333$ ), Psychological climate ( $r = 0.285$ ), Group cohesion ( $r = 0.634$ ), Kindness (normative)  $r = -0,133$ , Universalism (normative) ( $r = 0,137$ ), Power (normative) ( $r = 0,170$ ), Hedonism (individual) ( $r = -0,125$ ), Stimulation (individual) ( $r = -0,141$ ), Positive social judgment ( $r = 0.668$ ), Stimulation (normative) ( $r = 0.253$ ), Achievement (individual) ( $r = 0.155$ ), Process ( $r = 0.379$ ), Result ( $r = 0.306$ ), Locus of control I ( $r = 0.233$ ), Locus of life control ( $r = 0.245$ ), Awareness ( $r = 0.237$ ), SSW ( $r = 0.402$ ).

Thus, the social status of the individual in the field of leisure correlates with socio-psychological adaptation (or its individual components), stimulation (as a normative indicator), achievements (as an individual characteristic), meaningful life orientations and subjective social well-being. Social status in the field of leisure has statistically significant correlations with the components of group dynamics, namely with the psychological climate and group cohesion.

Based on the generalization of the results obtained during the study, a ranking scale was derived, which reflects the social status of the individual: low, medium-low, medium and high. Table 6 presents the numerical distribution of the sample by social status of the individual in the field of leisure. In percentage terms, this distribution is as follows: 9.25% are respondents with low social status, 19.75% are respondents with medium-low social status, 65.8% are respondents with average social status, 4.4% are respondents with high social status in the field of leisure.

Using the Levin homogeneity test and MANOVA multivariate analysis of variance, a list of psychological variables with statistically significant differences in the factor of social status in the field of leisure ( $p < 0.05$ ): adaptation, process, result, locus of control, subjective

social well-being, group motivation. In general, the indicators of the selected variables gradually increase from low to high social status. Respondents with low social status have the lowest rates for all variables - the focus of the individual on the past and present, subjective social well-being, socio-psychological adaptation, group motivation and a sense of responsibility for their own lives (maladapted-depressed). Respondents with medium-low and medium status have slightly higher

scores on the above characteristics (disoriented). Respondents with average status follow group norms and are conformal (normative-procedural). Respondents with high social status have the highest indicators of subjective social well-being, group motivation, focus on the present and past (adapted-internal). Below in fig. 1 presents the dependence of a certain social status in the field of leisure on the manifestation of psychological characteristics.

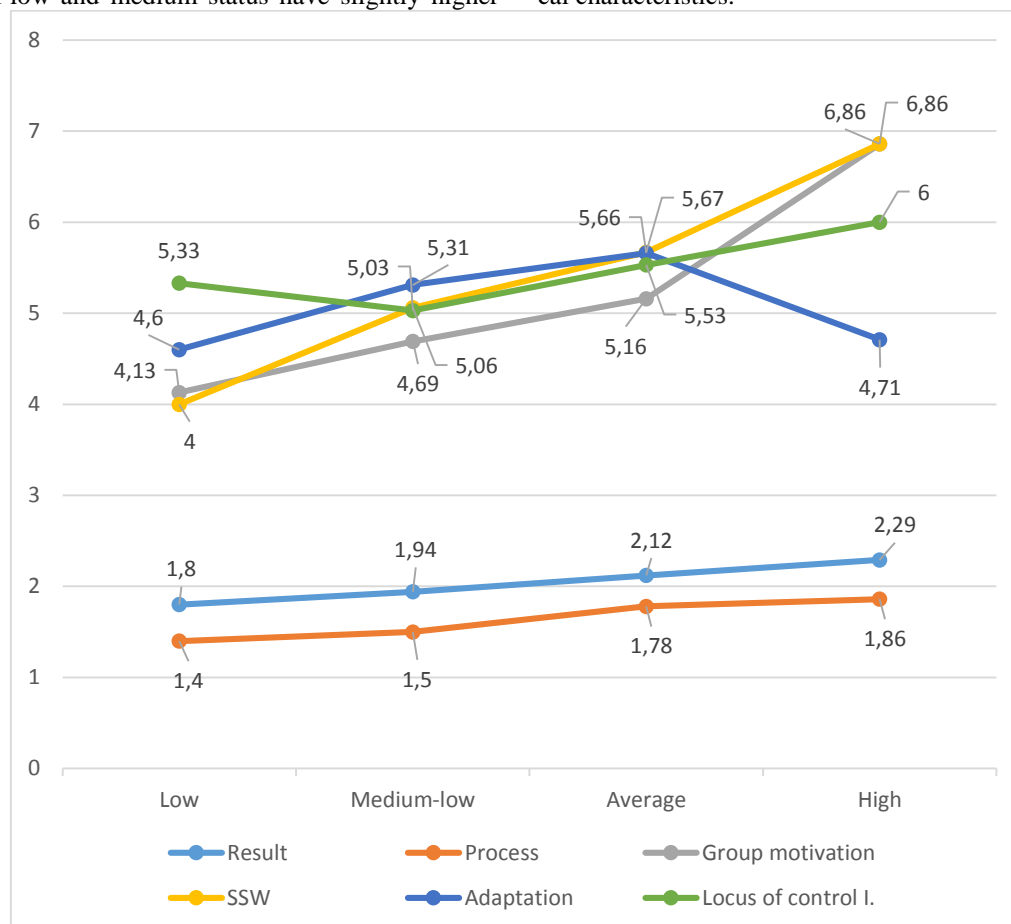


Fig. 1. Graph of the dependence of social status in the field of leisure on psychological characteristics

By applying multiple regression analysis, a model was obtained that explains 53% of the variance (Table 7).

Table 5

Quality indicators of the regression model					
Model	Multiple correlation coefficient	Coefficient of multiple determination	Refined coefficient of multiple determination	The standard error of the assumption	Derbin-Watson coefficient
1	,680 <sup>a</sup>	,537	,526	1,593	1,850

Thus, the factors of formation of social status in the field of leisure are: the acceptance of others, the psychological climate of the team, focus on the present, social approval, lack of normative behavior (conformity). The regression equation is as follows:

$Y = 1.273 + 0.203 (\text{acceptance of others}) + 0.175 (\text{psychological climate of the team}) + 0.218 (\text{focus on the present}) + 0.161 (\text{social approval}) + (-0.289) (\text{conformity})$ .

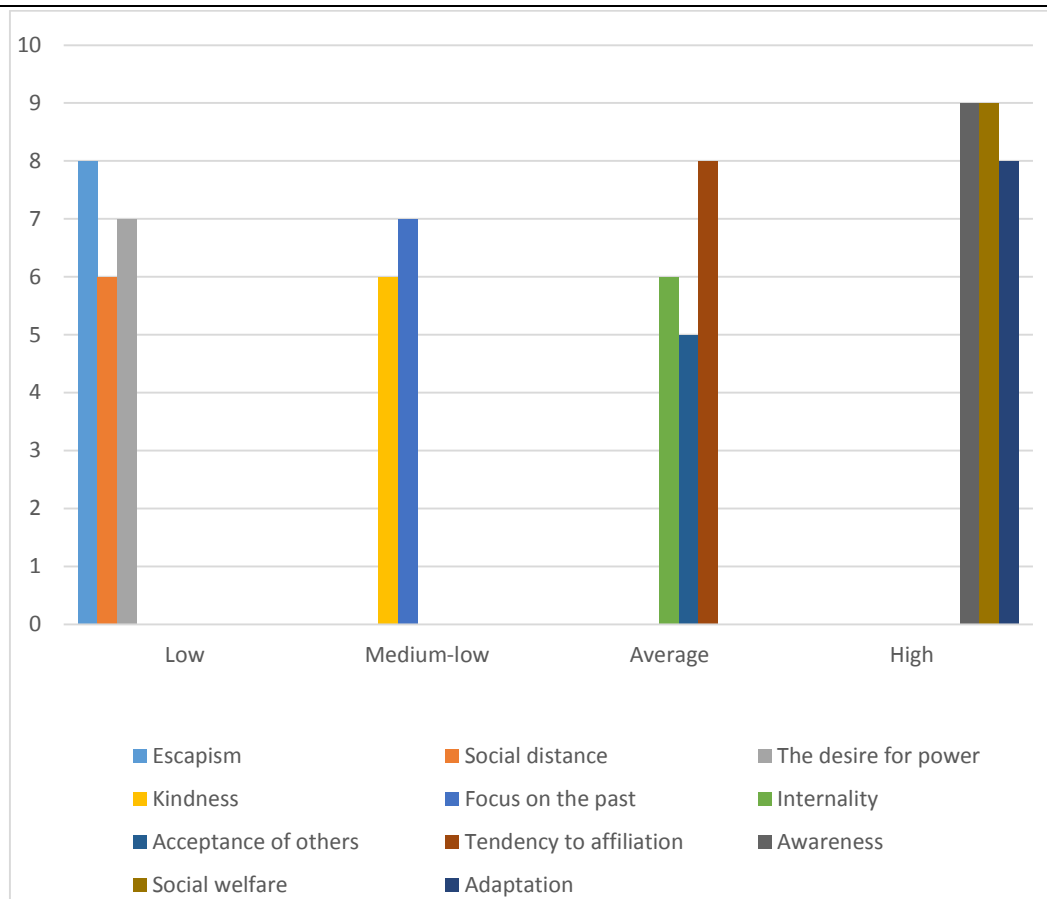


Fig. 2. Factors of social status

Thus, for the leisure sphere, social factors and emotional comfort in a small group are more important, satisfaction with the process of being in it, in contrast to purposeful and / or forced stay in a small group. There are also different factors for each status. Low (neglected): escapism, social distance, desire for power. Medium-low (unaccepted): kindness, focus on the past. Average (accepted): internality, acceptance of others, tendency to affiliation. High (stars): awareness, subjective social well-being, adaptation.

### Conclusions

The social status of an individual is defined as the position of an individual or an entire social group, which is determined by two different factors: the characteristics of the individual or group and the characteristics of society and the conditions of joint activities. The component structure of social status is determined by sociometric status (a person's position in interpersonal interaction), high cohesion of the team, the presence of positive social perceptions of others and the desire to be accepted by the rest of the group.

Social status can be represented in the ranking scale in combination with psychological characteristics that determine social status: low (maladapted-depressed), medium-low (disoriented), medium (normative-procedural), high (adapted-internal). Accordingly, each of these levels has its own main characteristics.

Factors in the formation of social status in the field of leisure are: the acceptance of others, the psychological climate of the team, focus on the present, social approval, lack of normative behavior.

The prospect of further research is to expand the age range of the sample and to study the consequences of changes or loss of social status in selected psychological dimensions.

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