

TEXT IN MEDIA CULTURAL SPACE

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Reviewers:

*Prof. nadzw., dr hab. **Stanisław Kunikowski**, Rektor of Cuiavian University in Wloclawek (Republic of Poland);*

*Prof. dr hab. **Kazimierz Pierchala**, Katolicki Uniwersytet Lubelski/Catholic University of Lublin (Republic of Poland);*

*Prof. dr hab. **Stanisław Juszczyk**, Uniwersytet Śląski / University of Silesia (Republic of Poland).*

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COMMUNICATIVE STRATEGIES OF MASS MEDIA DISCOURSE

Filatova O. S., Huzenko S. V.

INTRODUCTION

Discourse is the subject of scientific research in the linguistics of the XXI century. Many scientists study this category in semantic, functional, structural aspects. Works of T. van Dijk¹, D. Schiffrin², V. Karasyk³, N. Arutyunova⁴, M. Makarov⁵, T. Radzievska⁶, K. Serazhym⁷ and others are famous in Ukraine and abroad.

From the standpoint of formal, structurally oriented linguistics, discourse is considered as “a language above the level of a sentence or phrase”⁸. This concept is identified with the concept of text, and the analysis of discourse coincides with the structurally oriented linguistics of a coherent text⁹.

From the standpoint of functionalism, the concepts of discourse and text are differentiated. Discourse is interpreted as “text + situation”. This position led to the formation of oppositions: oral discourse and written text; discourse

¹ Dijk Teun Adrianus van. (1997) Discourse as structure and process. Sage Publications Ltd. 368 p.

² Schiffrin Deborah. (1994) Approaches to Discourse. Oxford [u.a.] : Blackwell. 459 p.

³ Karasyk V. Y. (2002) Yazykovej kruh: lychnost', kontsepty, dyskurs [Language Circle: Personality, Concepts, Discourse]. Volhohrad : Peremena. 477 p.

⁴ Arutiunova N. D. (1988). Typy yazykovykh znachenyj: Otsenka. Sobytye. Fakt [Types of language values: Evaluation. Event. Fact]. Moscow, 1988, 339 p.

⁵ Makarov M. L. (2003) Osnovy teoryy dyskursa [Fundamentals of Discourse Theory]. Moscow : YTDHK “Hnozys”. 280 p.

⁶ Radzievska T.V. (1998) Tekst yak zasib komunikatsii [Text as a means of communication]. Kyiv. 194 p.

⁷ Serazhym K. S. (2002) Dyskurs iak sotsiolinhval'ne iavysche: metodolohiia, arkhitektonika, variatynnist' (na materialakh suchasnoi hazetnoi publitsystyky) : monohrafiia [Discourse as a sociolinguistic phenomenon: methodology, architectonics, variability (on materials of contemporary newspaper journalism)] Kyiv. 392 p.

⁸ Schiffrin Deborah. (1994) Approaches to Discourse. Oxford [u.a.] : Blackwell. P. 23–25.

⁹ Selivanova O. O. (2006) Suchasna linhvistyka: terminolohichna entsyklopediia [Modern linguistics: the terminology encyclopedia]. Poltava : Dovkillia-K. P. 119.

process and text structure; discourse dialogue and text monologue¹⁰. In our opinion, this dichotomy is not always justified, because a written text can be considered from the point of dialogicity (coding – decoding); some genres (e. g. report) can be qualified as a written text and as a public speech.

Formal and functional positions to the interpretation of the concept of discourse in two aspects as “speech + text” are combined. The concept of discourse “is widely understood as everything that is said and written, in other words, as speech activity, which is language material”¹¹. This position is prevalent in philosophy, sociology, psychology, and in linguistics. From this point of view, discourse can be monologue and dialogic; oral and written; it is considered as a process and structure.

Terminological transformations have changed the essence of the research methods. In contradistinction to the linguistics of the text, which focuses on the linguistic aspects of the text, discourse analysis involves shifting the emphasis from formal-linguistic characteristics to non-lingual factors of its generation in the communicative environment, under certain circumstances. In view of this, the analysis of discourse is the main methodological basis for the study of the phenomena of mass communication and, in particular, for the study of mass media discourse.

Modern mass media discourse plays an important role in society. The press, radio, television, websites, social networks have become the only channel to replenishing knowledge for most people, creating a picture of the world. The mass media create a significant influence on the formation of public opinion and beliefs of modern citizens.

There is an interaction between the language of the media and the language system as a whole. Researchers determine the main features of mass media discourse: “1) group affiliation (a member of the community shares the views and values of his group); 2) publicity; 3) dissensual orientation (building a dissense situation – contradictions, disagreements with the subsequent discussion); 4) staging and mass orientation (targeted impact on several groups at the same time)”¹².

A new type of discourse – the Internet-media discourse was formed at the intersection of mass media and computer discourse. In relation to traditional

¹⁰ Hal’peryn Y. R. (2008) *Tekst kak ob’ekt lynchvystycheskoho yssledovaniya* [Text as an object of linguistic research]. Moscow : Yzdatel’stvo LKY. (Lynchvystycheskoe nasledye XX veka). P. 18.

¹¹ Makarov M. L. (2003) *Osnovy teoryy dyskursa* [Fundamentals of Discourse Theory]. Moscow : YTDHK “Hnozys”. P. 89-90.

¹² Reshetarova I. V. (2010) *Zasoby evfemii v masmedijnomu dyskursi pochatku XXI stolittia* [Means of euphemism in the media discourse of the beginning of the XXI century] : avtoref. dys. ... kand. filol. nauk : 10.02.15. Donetsk. P. 11.

media, Internet media have the following advantages: “1) Multimedia. The Internet allows to combine visual, audio, print and video components of different types of media; 2) Personalization. Each of the Internet users can find information that interests him, information about any area of interest and human existence; 3) Interactivity. The Internet provides dialogue, interaction, feedback between Internet users, in contrast to traditional media; 4) Deficit of intermediaries. Anyone with access to a computer and the Internet can publish information without interference or manipulation”¹³.

The language of modern media is an interesting object of study for modern linguistics. Mass media discourse performs such functions as information and persuasion (argumentativeness). The persuasion is expressed in the formulation of the position (Thesis) and confirmation of its evidence (Arguments). Types and methods of argumentation depend on the communicative-pragmatic goal of the addressee, which is realized through communicative strategies and tactics.

Intentions of the speaker are concentrated in the grammatical structure of discourse, its linguistic expression, so such categories of pragmatics as strategies and tactics are of particular importance for the study of modern Ukrainian mass media discourse because it shapes the linguistic actions of the individual in communication.

In our opinion, in Ukrainian linguistics the problems of selection of communicative strategies of mass media discourse, their language realization are insufficiently studied, which is the purpose of our publication.

1. Language implementation of information strategy

A journalistic publication of any genre is a communicative and psychological phenomenon, a complex act of linguistic communication, a product of the realization of the author’s (journalist’s) plan, his communicative strategies.

The purpose, motivation, circumstances, experience of a journalist are factors that determine his communicative intention – a meaningful or intuitive intention that specifies the internal program of speech.

At first glance, intentionality is a non-linguistic concept, or rather a psychological phenomenon. However, in the aspect “intention – content – discourse (text)” this concept refers to the actual linguistic aspects¹⁴. The author’s intention determines the communicative strategy – a complex of speech actions aimed at achieving the communicative goal.

¹³ Morris M. The Internet as Mass Medium / M. Morris, C. Ogan // Journal of Communication. 1996. Vol. 46. № 1. P. 39–50.

¹⁴ Batsevych F. S. (2004) *Osnovy komunikatyvnoi linhvistyky* [Fundamentals of communicative linguistics]. Kyiv : Vydavnychi tsentr “Akademiiia”. P. 116.

The communicative strategy of the speaker is the choice of the communicative intentions and the distribution of parts of information by communicative components. There is a part of communicative behavior or communicative interaction, in which a series of different verbal and nonverbal means is used to achieve a certain communicative goal, the strategic result to which the communicative act is directed. Strategy is a general framework, an outline of behavior.

A single typology of strategies has not yet been created. There are two types of communication strategies: communicative and semantic. The communication strategy is the rules and sequence of communicative actions followed by the addressee. Semantic strategy is a step-by-step content planning of the purpose with the available “language material” (language code) and each step in communication¹⁵.

Regarding strategies in the discourse of mass media, it is necessary to highlight the *semantic strategy of information*. This strategy regulates the selection, structuring and presentation in the message (both verbal and nonverbal) of information about the fact, news, which is the basis of information genres.

In addition, the authors of the publications overcome the obstacles associated with the perception of information. Thus, the communicative strategy in the media discourse is aimed at organizing the impact of the message, it is *a strategy to attract attention*.

Strategies of both types are combined to create an effective journalistic publication. The communicative strategy depends on the genre of the journalistic text, the dominance of rational-logical or emotional-rhetorical types of structures in it and the delineation of certain compositional and stylistic parameters.

In information genres, the leading semantic communicative strategy is implemented in the text structure. Thus, the main news – the information basis of the publication – is usually presented in the foreground (in the headline) on the principle of an inverted pyramid, according to which the information in the text is distributed in descending order of importance, for example:

“Організатори Євробачення повідомили, де пройде конкурс у 2021 році

Члени Європейської спілки мовників (ЕВУ) та представники Нідерландів домовилися про проведення пісенного конкурсу Євробачення–2021 у Роттердамі на Аhoу Arena.

¹⁵ Ibid. P. 119.

Саме це місто мало прийняти конкурс у 2020 році, який скасували через пандемію коронавірусу.

“Ми надзвичайно раді, що тепер можемо рухатися вперед. Надзвичайно важливо, щоб пісенний конкурс Євробачення повернувся в наступному році, і ми раді прийняти необхідне зобов'язання наших колег у Нідерландах повернути це видовище глядачам у всьому світі”, – сказав виконавчий керівник Євробачення Мартін Естердал.

На сьогодні 18 артистів, запланованих на 2020 рік, підтвердили, що знову представлятимуть свою країну у 2021 році. Детальнішу інформацію організатори обіцяють розповісти найближчими тижнями та місяцями” (День).

At the beginning of the text, in particular in the title, the words most interesting from the position of the addressee are made, it becomes the semantic accent of the publication and promotes the implementation of the communicative strategy of attracting attention, communicative strategies are intertwined.

The information message should answer the classic questions: who, what, where, when, how and why. Thus, the main semantic accents can be the subject, object, event, place, time, characteristic (quality, quantity, etc.), cause or method. An analysis of journalistic publications indicates that the main communicative focus of the message is information about the subject or object, which is submitted to the beginning of the article. It may be subjects: “**Влада Гаїті назвала нову цифру жертв землетрусу**” (Ліга новин); “**Прокуратура вимагає розформувати “Оперативний загін”** (УНІАН); “**Україна може зрвати участь у міжнародному проєкті “Циклон-4”** (УНІАН); “**Кличко: більшість інфікованих COVID-19 не уявляли, через що їм доведеться пройти для одужання**” (УНІАН); objects direct: “**Бібліотеку в Москві знову обшукали**” (УП); “**Усіх кандидатів на голову НСЗУ відхилили, тепер очільника можуть обрати без конкурсу**” (УП); “**Презентацію iPhone 12 перенесли через коронавірус – ЗМІ**” (УП); objects indirect: “**До наркотиків додавали бензин, фосфор і “Містер Мускул”**” (УП); “**Зеленському пожалілись на мовні квоти для ТБ – він сказав, що треба “навести порядок”**” (УП).

If the information about the event is the main one, in the author's opinion, then the predicate is used at the beginning, e. g.: “**Розпочалися протести у Португалії**” (Новий канал); “**Порушено справу за фактом “легкого” побиття депутатів у Раді**” (Ліга новин); “**З'явилися свіжі дані щодо заражених коронавірусом у світі на ранок 15 травня**” (УНІАН); “**Презентовано план зі створення півмільйона робочих місць**” (Урядовий портал); “**Продовжуємо повертати наших громадян до України з різних куточків світу – Мінінфраструктури**” (Урядовий портал); “**Відкрито нову планету, що схожа на Землю**” (Euronews).

As the factual material shows, the structure of an impersonal sentence is most often used for information about an event, the attention is focused on the effectiveness of the action.

Information about the place of the event can become another semantic emphasis, which is conveyed by the adverbial modifier of place at the beginning of the publication: *“На **пташиному ринку**” в Києві заборонили продавати собак і кішок*” (ForUm); *“У **Бразилії** потоки бруду і каменів накрили цілі квартали*” (Ліга новин); *“У **Тунісі** помер журналіст, поранений під час протестів*” (УНІАН); *“У **Китаї** побудували найдовшу в світі швидкісну залізничну магістраль”* (Дзеркало тижня); *“У **Мінінфраструктури** запланували завершити реконструкцію злітної смуги в Одеському аеропорту в червні”* (Урядовий портал); *“У **Борисполі**” оформили евакуаційні рейси з ОАЕ та Вірменії”* (Урядовий портал); *“У канали **Венеції** повернулись гондоли”* (УП).

Rarely the main focus is the adverbial modifier of time, which is explained by the purpose of information publications – to report new, relevant information, to confirm that the fact is new and does not require updating. In this case, the adverbial modifier of time becomes a means of expressing a communicative strategy of attracting attention to the message: *“Сьогодні в Ужгороді буде морозно і ясно”* (Zaholovok.com.ua); *“6 грудня Рада розгляне проект бюджету на 2013 рік”* (УНІАН); *“Учора літаками з Туреччини, Єгипту та ОАЕ до “Борисполя” прибуло понад 400 пасажирів”* (Урядовий портал); *“За рік ФОПів-айтішників в Україні побільшало на 22% (інфографіка)”* (УНІАН). Most often, attention is focused on the time of events that have not yet taken place, but are only announced.

The aspect of characterization (quantitative or qualitative) often becomes the main thing in information report, it carries important new (sometimes sensational) information. The subject is the combination of a cardinal numeral with a noun, it helps to reproduce the quantitative characteristics of phenomena, especially in the absence of reader time, e. g.: *“Два начальники обласних УВС усунені від роботи через ДТП”* (Ліга. Новини); *“40 відсотків урожаю кукурудзи у світі отримують США”* (Газета-покраїнськи).

There is also a combination of collective numerals with nouns: *“П’ятеро українців зламало шлагбаум на україно-російському кордоні”* (Корреспондент.net). Attention to the qualitative characteristics of the news can be attracted by an attribute in the starting position, e. g.: *“Скандальне затримання в Івано-Франківську”* (Галицький кореспондент); *“Найдорозжичий житловий будинок Великої Британії”*

оцінили в \$487 мільйонів” (Газета по-українськи). In such cases, communicative strategies of informing and attracting attention are reconnected.

Notification of the cause of the event is not the main in the information messages, but attention to this aspect is sometimes realized through the adverbial modifiers of cause: *“Внаслідок пожежі постраждала 38-річна безпритульна жінка”* (Korabelov.info); *“Через землетрус в 7,3 бали на Японію насувається цунамі”* (Ukr.Net); *“За хабар затримані голова райдержадміністрації і два депутати”* (УНІАН).

The criterion of reliability of information is important for modern journalism, so the message about the source of information can also be the content focus of the publication. Introductory phrases are actively used in a strong initial position, indicating the source of information, e. g.: *“За даними соціологічних досліджень, 43% українців вважають себе успішними та щасливими”* (Перший Національний); *“За останніми даними, число жертв вибуху в Пакистані досягло 35 осіб”* (РБК-Україна). The authors use them to convince information, increase the degree of its reliability, this is very important for the media. An individual can be a source of information, e. g.: *“На думку Володимира Литвина, поглиблення відносин України з ЄС на користь і самому співтовариству”* (Перший Національний). Authors can report the source of information using constructions of complex sentences with an incomplete first part: *“CNN: У США повідомляють про успішне випробування ліків від корона вірусу”* (Українська правда); *“УМВС: екологи сприяли незаконному виділенню землі під супермаркет”* (Корреспондент.net). The first part of these sentences is concise, it omits the predicate, which is clear in context, e. g.: *“УМВС: екологи сприяли незаконному виділенню землі під супермаркет”* ← *УМВС повідомляє, що екологи сприяли незаконному виділенню землі під супермаркет* та ін.

Further information about other characteristics of the event (place, time, qualities, reasons, additional details) is provided in the main text. The sequence of answers to the key questions of information texts depends on the author. He shows his creativity, his attitude to the event, own position.

Reporting the facts, the author implements a semantic strategy of information, for example, we have selected factual information (names, dates, quotes, etc.), e. g.:

“У Львові відбудеться засідання з придністровського врегулювання”

У лютому у Львові пройде чергове офіційне засідання “Постійної наради з політичних питань у рамках переговорного процесу з придністровського врегулювання” (формат “5+2”).

Про це УНІАН повідомили в Департаменті інформації та преси МЗС РФ за підсумками сьогоднішньої зустрічі статс-секретаря – заступника глави МЗС РФ Григорія Карасіна і політичного представника в процесі придністровського врегулювання, заступника глави уряду, міністра закордонних справ Придністров'я Ніни Штанські.

“У ході розмови, що відбулася, обговорювалася сучасна ситуація в придністровському врегулюванні, а також питання підготовки до чергового офіційного засідання “Постійної наради з політичних питань у рамках переговорного процесу з придністровського врегулювання”, – йдеться в повідомленні.

Формат “5+2” передбачає участь у переговорах двох конфліктуючих сторін – Молдови і Придністров'я; трьох посередників – Росії, України і ОБСЄ; а також двох спостерігачів – США і ЄС” (УНІАН).

2. Linguistic implementation of the strategy of attracting attention

The communicative strategy of attracting attention is mostly implemented through conciseness, brevity, specificity of the transfer of factual information. There are examples of expressing the assessment of events, the author's expression through exclamatory sentences, linking words, etc.: *“За попередньою інформацією, рівень шуму, який виробляє автомобіль під час руху, до 2020 року повинен скоротитися рівно вдвічі! ... Мало того, закон може вдарити і по мотоциклам, які, на думку багатьох експертів, є в деяких містах основним джерелом шуму на вулицях” (Newson).*

Using an emotionalization strategy is one of the ways of drawing attention to the publication. “Emotions can be represented in various ways: from quotations and references to the authoritative opinion, statistical data, direct expression of the author's personal opinion to emotionally marked words including common nouns, personal pronouns, viewpoint adverbs, propositional predicates, adjectives with emotive meaning and numerals”¹⁶.

Researchers emphasize that “in order to manipulate the reader, the author not only does seek the identification with the readers' opinion, but also tends to improve his own reputation by creating an image of an emotional person who expresses his feelings openly, which, in turn, undoubtedly inspires

¹⁶ Teneva E. V. (2018) Emotionalisation Strategy as a Means of Manipulation in the British Mass Media Discourse *Russian Linguistic Bulletin*. № 3 (15). <https://doi.org/10.18454/RULB.2018.15.3.4>

confidence in the audience and raises the authority of both the author himself and the information he provides”¹⁷.

The function of influence is one of the most important functions of media discourse. It can be realized only by attracting attention to a person, by creating a situation of dialogue.

Dialogicity as a discursive category is based on the understanding that the participants in the discursive process are the subjects of speech: the author and the addressees. People tend to exchange opinions and information. Textual dialogicity has two sides – addressability and reversibility (act in response). On the one side, the author indicates to the reader the direction of reflection, the deployment of textual content. The addressee of the mass media discourse perceives the text on the informative and semantic levels, the feedback is formed in his mind, there is a kind of dialogue. Dialogicity in the mass media discourse is expressed in the genre of interviews, but in monologue texts this category is also revealed.

Dialogicity has a dual direction and functioning: on the one side it can be an internal dialogue (egocentric), on the other side it can be an open dialogue that involves interaction and communication with another person.

Researchers have determined the means of expressing dialogicity on the example of scientific texts: “conversation” with another person, ideological (theoretical) opponents or like-minded people; comparison of two or more points of view, which are evaluated by the author; “conversation” with the reader, involving him in common considerations, the desire to attract his attention to the message’s content; “conversation” with his second, objectified “I” (in the text it is presented as a dialogue-introspection, self-control or dialogue for verify the evidence)”¹⁸.

The analysis of the factual material (on the example of the materials of Ukrainian periodicals) convincingly proves that the mass media discourse is characterized by signs of dialogicity.

An example of explicit dialogue is interviews as a genre and as a method of obtaining factual material. The “conversation” is implemented in the format of “question-answer” or in the form of direct or indirect speech: *“Чи могла українська журналістика з самого початку незалежності піти іншим шляхом? ... – Усі могли піти іншим шляхом – і журналісти, і газети, і банкіри...”* (Дзеркало тижня). In such examples, interrogative

¹⁷ Teneva E. V. (2018) Emotionalisation Strategy as a Means of Manipulation in the British Mass Media Discourse Russian Linguistic Bulletin. № 3 (15). <https://doi.org/10.18454/RULB.2018.15.3.4>

¹⁸ Stylistycheskyj entsyklopedycheskyj slovar’ russkoho iazyka [Stylistic Encyclopedic Dictionary of the Russian Language] (2003). Moscow: Flynta. P. 47-48.

constructions are the marker of dialogicity, it involves feedback. The reader observes the development of thought, participates in the dialogue mentally.

Evaluate contributes to the creation of a common cognitive field between the author and the addressee, forms an implicit dialogue. In contrast to scientific and other texts in journalism we will hardly find the author's assessment expressed by constructions "як слушно зауважив...". The authors adhere to one of the rules of journalistic ethics, associated with the separation of factual information from the evaluative.

Means of speech influence are more often used in mass media discourse. In order to attract to the "single" circle of interlocutors the authors of publications use pronouns: "we, our etc.", e. g.: *"Ми вже ніколи не зможемо перевиховати тих дорослих харків'ян"* (Український тиждень); *"А зараз ми побачимо, як звучало те публічне "зінання в любові" до Польщі, виголошене перед пам'ятником на честь Варшавського повстання"* (Український тиждень).

For the purpose of suggestion, the authors utilize verbs of the imperative mood, e. g.: *"Тепер спробуємо поглянути на те, що відбулося з економікою окремих регіонів України за останні три роки, тобто порівняно з довоєнними часами"* (Український тиждень). In this way, the author engages the addressee in a joint action, waiting for the opposite reaction – an internal dialogue.

Direct interrogative constructions involve joint reflections, considerations and actively attract attention. The authors use interrogative sentence constructions: *"Чи задумувалися ви, чим нині можна здивувати свою дитину?"* (Дзеркало тижня); interrogative-rhetorical constructions: *"Що стоїть перешкодою на цьому шляху? Яких змін прагне вітчизняна деревообробка?"* (Дзеркало тижня); *"Як з'являються міфи?"* (ДТ); *"Навіщо вам читати про науку?"* (Український тиждень); *"Чи стануть техногіганти ще могутнішими після кризи?"* (Український тиждень); *"Приватна сонячна електростанція: наскільки це вигідно?"* (Український тиждень); *"Покоління Z: політика чи романтика?"* (Український тиждень).

There are examples in which we observe both involvement in the "single" circle of interlocutors, and a rhetorical question: *"Чи маємо ми впевненість у наших цінностях, щоб боротися за них аж до кінця? Чи маємо достатньо поваги до наших громадян, щоб охороняти наші кордони? Чи маємо відвагу, щоб зберегти нашу цивілізацію перед лицем тих, хто хотів би підпорядкувати її собі й знищити?"* (Український тиждень); *"Якщо закрити державні кордони можна у наказовому порядку, то як змусити кожного окремого громадянина вчасно мити руки та зайвий раз не торкатись обличчя?"* (Український тиждень).

Internal dialogue is one of the means of creating dialogicity in mass media discourse. In essence the question is rhetorical. Then the author answers it himself, sometimes also with questions, expressing his own opinion and convincing the reader, for example: *“Ви спитаєте, що таке щастя? А чи можна навчити дитину бути щасливим колись в майбутньому, позбавляючи його стану щастя в сьогодні, ... якою вона повинна бути в майбутньому, і як вона повинна вести себе сьогодні?”* (Українська правда); *“Хіба зберегти таку колекцію не є державним інтересом? Не будемо заглиблюватися в історію. А втім, чому б і ні?”* (Дзеркало тижня); *“Закінчення війни чи перемога? А хіба не однаково? Конфлікт на Донбасі чи російсько-українська війна? Облиште, ми ж не політики! Ополченці чи сепаратисти, а може, російсько-терористичні угруповання? Господи, навіщо нам сперечатися щодо цього? Ми ж усі про те саме! Чи ні?”* (Український тиждень).

Rhetorical appeals are an example of dialogicity in mass media discourse. In this way the author activates the addressee's attention: *“Найцікавіше, друзі, це попереду!”* (Дзеркало тижня); *“Українці – читайте!”* (День, назва рубрики).

In addition, interrogative constructions, interrogative-rhetorical, rhetorical appeals, and constructions “question-answer” are the means of implementing a communicative strategy to create a problem situation, a situation of contradiction, which will provoke further discussion: internal or public (in comments, in newspapers, on screens, in social networks, etc.).

3. Means of implementing the strategy of argumentation

The communicative-pragmatic goals of argumentative discourse are to change the beliefs of the addressee, to prove the truth of the proposed thesis, to control the consciousness of the addressee with a view to possibly change his model of the world. The main strategic problem of the argumentative discourse is the implementation of a persuasive effect, realized through various tactics. It unites all goals¹⁹.

The logical structure of argumentation consists of three components. These are a thesis or a judgment that needs to be proved and arguments or true judgments that are used in the process of proving a thesis. Finally, a

¹⁹ Bohacheva M. V. (2010) Arhumentatyvnaia kommunykativnaia stratehiia y taktycheskye pryemy realizatsyy v russkom yazyke [An argumentative communicative strategy and tactical methods for its implementation in Russian]. Visnyk Dnipropetrovskoho universytetu. Seriiia “Movoznavstvo” [Bulletin of Dnipropetrovsk University. Linguistics Series]. Vyp. 16. http://archive.nbuv.gov.ua/portal/natural/vdpu/Movozn/2010_16/9.pdf.

form of proof or a demonstration is a way of logical connection between the thesis and arguments, or the process of developing arguments. Argumentation can be carried out in two main ways: by direct reference to reality, which is often done by a journalist (factual argumentation), and by using known provisions, judgments, when the author also refers to reality, not directly, but indirectly, through inferences, conclusions, laws, concepts, theories, etc.²⁰

At the textual level, the thesis can be formulated at the beginning of a journalistic article, at the beginning of paragraphs, in a journalist's question in an interview etc. Arguments are the most interesting for linguistic analysis.

The purpose of any argument is to approximate the ideas of communicators. Depending on whether the argument is focused on the rational or emotional sphere, semantic strategies of rational and emotional impact are distinguished²¹

The analysis of factual material showed that in the texts of analytical genres of modern media, communicative strategies of rational influence are realized through tactics of reference to authority. Insert phrases are language markers of this tactic, e. g.: *“На думку президента Польщі, вже зараз треба думати про роботу після саміту у Вільнюсі”* (Український тиждень). Direct speech is also language markers, e. g.: *“Виникає запитання, в яких масштабах їх використовуватимуть. Якщо вони замінять живі гроші, то на якомусь етапі з економіки вони вимиватимуться, а без них вона просто не працює, – пояснює Ігор Бураковський, голова правління Інституту економічних досліджень та політичних консультацій”* (Український тиждень). Using information from authoritative sources attracts the audience's attention to the content and to the author of the quote. Not only contemporaries, but also classics can be quoted, it helps to convince the addressee, e. g.: *“І... це кілька цитат із видатного політика й мудрого чоловіка Франкліна Делано Рузвельта: “Справжня особиста свобода неможлива без економічної безпеки й незалежності” – в яблучко! І зовсім останнє: “Єдине, чого ми маємо боятися, то це самого страху”* (Український тиждень).

The tactics of giving examples – factual information, statistical data, results of experiments – play an important role in journalism. The use of factual argumentation is mandatory for journalism, because the journalist's

²⁰ Zdroveha V. Y. (2004) *Teoriia i metodyka zhurnalistskoi tvorchosti* [Theory and methods of journalistic creativity]. Lviv : PAIS. P. 134.

²¹ Ювун А. А. (1997) *Osnovy teoryu arhumentatsyy*. [Fundamentals of the theory of argumentation] Moscow : Humanyt. yzd. tsentr VLADOS. P. 119–313.

strategic task is to “recreate the picture of reality”, and report on current events. The basis of publications of analytical genres is interpretation, analysis of events, comments on them. With the help of facts a certain thesis is proved, for example, a thesis is a statement in the publication: *“Темп приросту капіталовкладень в агробізнес лишається одним із найбільших в українській економіці, а сама галузь дістала тепличні умови для розвитку”*. Evidence facts are introduced in sentences interconnected by introductory words, e. g.: *“По-перше, кредитна політика банків стала лояльнішою до аграріїв. По-друге, значні податкові преференції для агробізнесу. За весь минулий рік великі та середні сільгосп підприємства отримали 27 млрд грн чистого прибутку, але внесли при цьому менше ніж 1% сплаченого всіма підприємствами в Україні податку на прибуток. По-третє, після чергового переділу зернового ринку трейдери, власники яких є наближеними до влади, дістали широкі можливості для вивезення збіжжя з країни: у 2012/13 маркетинговому році було поставлено на експорт майже 23 млн т зернових”* (Український тиждень).

In content, rational arguments can be of a factual type: quotes from documents, statistics, actually factual material, for example, statistical information: *“Згідно з офіційною статистикою МОЗ України, 2012 року на обліку перебували 79 тис. наркозалежних осіб, з яких 70 тис. вживали наркотичні речовини або психотропні засоби ін'єкційним способом (тобто йдеться про хронічну залежність)”* (Український тиждень).

Legal reasoning is common enough. This may be a reference to the Constitution of Ukraine, legislative acts: *“У цілому високої оцінки заслуговує закон “Про наукову і науково-технічну діяльність” (1999, з подальшими змінами), що вимагає фінансування науки з держбюджету в обсязі, не меншому за 1,7% ВВП, декларує демократичні принципи організації науки, передбачає встановлення високих наукових пенсій, які забезпечували б престиж праці науковця”* (Український тиждень).

Texts of analytical genres are characterized by reliance on moral and ethical rules, since journalism operates in the field of social relations based on moral standards. The description of these norms can confirm the thesis, e. g.: *“...специфіка явища “мажорства” криється у характері демонстрації своїх широких можливостей іншим. Що молодша особа, то примітивніший цей показ...”* (Український тиждень).

As already noted, the strategic task of analytical texts is to convince the addressee, which provides a logical and psychological impact on the consciousness. In this process, new information, new knowledge is

associated with the views, attitudes, stereotypes, and ideas that already exist in the mind. Secondly, this knowledge is recognized as a personal discovery of the reader. The presentation of journalistic information, bringing the audience to certain conclusions should be so subtle and inconspicuous that the person himself draws conclusions. Then they can become her beliefs. Third, only an emotional idea can become a belief. Given this, the role of the emotional type of argumentation is growing.

So, the author can use emotionally colored vocabulary, colloquial clichés that bring closer the position of communicants, e. g.: *“Розквіт журналістських розслідувань в країні ніяк не заважає її дерибану. Навпаки, дерибан набув небачених масштабів і досконалості”* (Український тиждень); *“Ситуативна більшість у парламенті, якої нібито ось-ось мали досягти, розвіється, як фата моргана”* (Український тиждень).

Rhetorical questions perform the function of emotional affirmation, e. g.: *“Що ж святкує російський президент? Відновлення серійного виробництва Ан-124? Будівництво мосту через Керченську протоку? Допуск українських цукерок і сиру до московських супермаркетів? Невже спільне відзначення 200-річчя Шевченка?”* (Український тиждень).

In addition to arguments to confirm the thesis, the author seeks to change the views of the addressee in analytical publications. To implement these intentions, he uses assurance tactics, e. g.: *“У компанії запевняють, що заява Міністерства юстиції про те, що Єдині і Державні реєстри працюють точно так само і в тому ж вигляді, що і до 1 жовтня 2013 року, є безпідставною”* (Український тиждень); or requirements tactics: *“Стале зростання ставок закладами неможливе: щоби банки вчасно та в повному обсязі сплачували відсотки й повертали гроші, вони мають працювати, тобто їх треба спрямувати на кредитування”* (Український тиждень).

Assumption tactics are important enough for modeling the picture of the addressee's world, e. g.: *“Власне, якби Сальвадор Альєнде був обраний на президентську посаду в 1970 році більш демократично, а не 36 відсотками голосів виборців, він би, скоріше за все, не демонстрував свою неповагу до основних демократичних принципів”* (Український тиждень). Forecasting tactics are also considerable, e. g.: *“Позбувшись парламентської опозиції, маючи змогу вводити надзвичайний стан за надуманими мотивами, режим Януковича, вочевидь, сподівається різко зміцнити свої позиції не лише в країні, а й у переговорах із зовнішніми партнерами. При цьому, безперечно, про євроінтеграцію не йтиметься, але вона, як уже неодноразово*

писав Тиждень, і не є метою режиму Януковича. Натомість такий сценарій створюватиме сприятливі умови для подальшої розбудови в Україні “сімейної” моделі, частково з використанням білоруських лекал” (Український тиждень).

These tactics allow the thoughtful reader to compare the text with objective reality and draw his conclusions (or conclusions that the author needs), e. g.: *“Таким чином, порушення прав людини, котрі були скоєні військовою диктатурою пізніше, повинні бути відокремлені від безпосередньо військового перевороту, який був широко підтриманий переважно більшістю чилійського суспільства” (Український тиждень).*

CONCLUSIONS

The study of some aspects of the implementation of the author’s communication strategies in the language of information genres convinces us in the creation of semantic accents of publications by bringing to a strong starting position the most important information about the subject, object, time, place, event characteristics and so on. In the main text, the leading strategy of a journalist is an information strategy, which is implemented through maximum attention to factual information. The result of the implementation of the strategy of attracting attention is the conciseness and expressiveness of the structures.

The study of dialogic manifestations in mass media discourse emphasizes that drawing attention to the linguistic identity of both the author and the addressee is very important for this type of discourse. The use of this category is directly related to the expectation of feedback, community’s reaction to the messages.

The main semantic strategy of argumentative discourse is the implementation of convincing influence, which is realized through informative tactics: appealing to authorities and giving examples. Moreover arguments can be rational and emotional types. Influence on the beliefs of the addressee occurs through the use of tactics of assurance, requirements, etc. Tactics of assumption, predictions, conclusions are used to model the world of the addressee.

Further detailed study of the linguistic implementation of these strategies is a prospect for scientific research.

SUMMARY

Since mass media discourse plays an important role in modern society, it is important to study how the influence of people’s consciousness occurs. such categories of pragmatics as strategies and tactics acquire special

significance, because they form the speech actions of the person in the process of communication.

In the mass media discourse, the main communication strategies are aimed at informing the addressee (transmission of content), the impact of the information message (including attracting the attention and persuasion of the addressee). Tactics associated with this are analyzed in our publication.

In the section, the authors investigate some aspects of the implementation of informative and argumentative communication strategies in the language of publications of informational, analytical genres. Attention is paid to the language means of creating semantic accents in journalistic materials. An analysis of journalistic publications indicates that the main communicative focus of the message is information, which is submitted to the beginning of the article.

The author of the article argue that by creating a dialogue situation, the textual function of influencing the publication's recipient is realized, between the author and the addressee of the message a single cognitive field is formed. Communicative tactics of creating a problem situation, a situation of contradiction provoke further discussion, internal or public (in comments, in newspaper columns, on screens, in social networks, etc.).

Argumentative tactics influencing the change of the picture of the world of the addressee are identified. It is proved that arguments can be of rational and emotional types. Examples of implementing strategies for informing and attracting attention are given.

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Information about the authors:

Filatova O. S.,

Doctor of Philology, Professor,
Department of Social Studies and Humanities,
Admiral Makarov National University of Shipbuilding
9, Heroes of Ukraine Avenue, Mykolaiv, 54025, Ukraine
ORCID ID: orcid.org/0000-0002-4464-6933

Huzenko S. V.,

PhD in Philology,
Associate Professor at the Department of Modern Languages,
Admiral Makarov National University of Shipbuilding
9, Heroes of Ukraine Avenue, Mykolaiv, 54025, Ukraine
ORCID ID: orcid.org/0000-0001-8177-7417

APPLIED DISCOURSE ANALYSIS: TWO ASPECTS OF POLY CULTURAL COMMUNICATION

Filippova N. M.

“The man is doomed to live in culture
as he lives in biosphere”.

Yu. Lotman

INTRODUCTION

Judging from the revision of the topics discussed in linguistics for the last 25 years, we are facing the clash of cultures in the global space and, consequently, the clash of the English language and the native languages of a variety of speakers and writers all over the world. A somewhat unfortunate dichotomy prevailing worldwide means that it is quite apparent that the world changed after the English language became the first global language in the history of humanity, though more than 60 years ago R. Lado, the prominent American linguist and foreign language methodologist, accentuated the necessity of a systematic comparison of languages and cultures: “Cultural understanding. The idea that we might be able to test the understanding of a foreign culture objectively seems impossible to most people today. We know so little about the structure of our own culture, let alone that of a foreign one. And how can we compare cultures anyway”¹. One of the assumptions for our applied analysis was the selection of two types of discourses as the potential platform for dealing with the differences between the culturally oriented contexts and the language which promotes their understanding adequately.

The aim of the paper is to share some primary results of the applied discourse analysis obtained in the process of accomplishing two interdisciplinary discourse-based projects at the Department of Applied Linguistics at Admiral Makarov National University of Shipbuilding: Project 1 deals with the analysis of cognitive metaphors in American media texts, the project being aimed at the development of communicative competence for Bachelors and Masters in linguistics; Project 2 deals with the analysis of

¹ Lado R. (1993) *The necessity for systematic comparison of languages and cultures* // Landmarks of American language and linguistics, vol. 1. Washington: Materials Development, p. 80.

academic discourses for PhD technical students. It appeared that we faced the common challenge while collecting and processing discourses, though their being different in nature. The fact is that we had to cope, first of all, with the cross-cultural differences in the ways the authors were impacting their readers.

We stated the necessity of these projects in accordance with the following theoretical approaches.

First, it is the fact that contemporary linguistics is characterised as a polyparadigm science which is stipulated by the complex and multivector study of the variety of language phenomena. Thus among the attributes of this stage of linguistic development there are the basic three approaches: a) functional – communicative – pragmatic (language in action, i.e., in communication); b) synergistic (language as an open linear system); c) cognitive and discursive (language as a cognitive entity which is used in various discourses). Therefore linguists are trying to unite, synthesize various methods and principles for the effective interaction of communicative factors related to the language structures and cognitive factors related to mental activity.

Second, executing its communicative function, any language demonstrates that it is the most important “device” of presenting a human being as a social personality with his/her individual variations of motivations and forms of behaviour, communication being conditioned by both linguistic and extralinguistic factors (presupposition, situational preferences and, certainly, national cultural traditions) and being supported by the means of secondary semiotic systems (e. g., musical notation, mathematical signs, programme languages etc.).

Third, it is universally acknowledged that the control role in any communicative event is played by the following factors: 1) communicators (a message sender vs a message receiver with their goals, personalities, cultural differences); 2) culturally motivated communication contexts (time, place); 3) culturally marked rule-governed relationships; 4) channels (the media chosen for communication (e. g., speaking face-to-face, on the phone, in forums); 5) messages (specific genres, grammar, vocabulary, or the subject matter); 6) outcomes (the expected results of the communication).

Fourth, as a forerunner of the referential theory of communication P. Grice developed his four universal basic maxims for efficient communication: 1) the maxim of quality states the communicators' contributions to communication should be true, evident; 2) the maxim of quantity implies that the communicator contribution should be informative enough to reach the goal of communication; 3) the maxim of relevance shows that the contribution should be in line with the goal of

communication; 4) the maxim of manner indicates that the contribution should be clear, properly structured and not excessive. He also subordinated them to the co-operative principle, together they explain why communication functions rather smoothly in spite of the fact that communication consists not only of the outspoken, the explicit information but also, and often to a considerable degree, of implicit information. The Gricean approach explains the fact why implicitly communicated information is interpreted correctly to a rather high degree though many questions arise what to do with intercultural communication².

Fifth, even a short overview of these elements of communicative process highlights a very significant common feature: they all depend on the implied cultural and personal diversity of communicators irrespective of the fact whether they are addressers or addressees. In monocultural society communicators' cultural differences are not of top-priority importance, though they can belong to different ethnic groups or religious denominations (e. g., in Ukraine people living in the west can have somewhat different cultural and religious traditions from the people living in the east), leaving alone their differences in age, education or family background. And what about polycultural communication when people speak different first languages? In polycultural communication contexts are even more important (e. g., the use of pronoun forms in formal or informal communication contexts, different politeness strategies in different cultures, different nonverbal elements of communication). Multitudes of factors cause speech divergence: people want to emphasize their personal, social, religious or other identity; they show their dislike of other person's appearance or behaviour; or, what is especially notable, they express their cross-cultural differences in some way. It is also indicated that the type of activity directly impacts the way people communicate: discussing, arguing, quarreling, chatting, gossiping or writing emails, reports, messages, articles. Culture relates to the social heritage of the nation: these are the assimilated and mastered mental matrices, feelings, stereotyped actions which are transferred from generation to generation, even including these matrixes into material objects. Culture includes, at least, four obligatory components: norms, values symbols and language.

Sixth, we would like to base our assumptions on the discourse definition proposed by F.S. Batsevich who understands discourse as a special type of communicative activity, an interactive phenomenon, a stream of communication, a sum of speech acts which can be presented in oral, written

² Grice P. (1968) *Studies in the way of words*. – Harvard: Harvard Univ. Press. DOI 10.1163/9789004368811_003

or paralingual forms within particular communication channels, be regulated by tactics and strategies of the participants of communication, can represent the synthesis of cognitive, linguistic and extra-linguistic factors and results in a variety of communicative genres³.

We also adhere to the sociolinguistic understanding of this term proposed by V. Karasik: a) personal discourse when a speaker represents his individual thinking, comprehension of the events or their consequences; and b) institutional discourse when a speaker formulates the views, stereotypes, values of definite social groups or institutions. In today's information society media-discourse plays the role of a mediator between the government and the people⁴.

Therefore the factors generating communicative process are of top-priority importance both for theory and practice. As the English language became a global language of science, culture, politics, business for the whole multicultural world, here, in Ukraine, we are very interested in understanding the differences in comprehending and generating various discourses.

1. Written Mass Media Discourse

From the beginning of the 1980s much has been shown concerning the influence of a separate linguistic meaning of a word upon the utterance and discourse meaning which has radically changed our understanding of semantics and made it possible to interpret lexical units as examples of both nomination and discourse: combinatorial characteristics of words and their variations are understood as meaning-building conceptual mechanisms in dynamics of the real ongoing communication (the ideas of compositional semantics developed by M. Bierwisch and resulted in understanding concepts as operational units of conscience widened the number of cognitive strategies used by a speaker/writer in the process of comprehending and generating discourses). There is a proved evidence of conceptual integration and categorization which activate the preexistent networks in human memory, the notions like framing, metaphors, prototypes, proposition manifesting a deeper unitary operation of integration and creating "the blend" which reflects a dynamic type of socio-cultural and pragmatic model as a means of studying discourse, e. g. the fundamental conclusions of

³ Batsevich F. S. (2004) *The basics of communicative linguistics*. K. : "Academia" Press.

⁴ Karasik V. I. (2002) *The language circle: personality, concepts, discourse*. Volgograd: Peremena.

A. Wierzbicka^{5,6} on the interrelations between the ethnic, national and cultural specific mentalities and all the levels of language system.

As generally culture is understood as a wide set of relationships, traditions, customs, individual behaviour, superstitions, the universal role of the language is to reflect all the specific features of every society and to demonstrate the whole scope of the human experience in typical conditions of natural and social environment and a variety of social models of behaviour, language being the basic means of verbalization of various aspects of culture.

The applied approach to the Projects made us look at our students as twenty-first-century learners who are “plugged in”, fluent with technology and motivated by social media, embrace their likes for using mass media and engage them in authentic and meaningful English language learning in a familiar and motivating context.

Project 1 was broken into some manageable chunks, the first stage consisting in collecting quality examples which, to our mind, were displayed in British and American media, and then at the second stage compare the use of conceptual metaphors in Ukrainian and English mass media discourses.

The purpose of the first stage was to attract the attention of the Project team to the fact that: 1) American media texts in English have recently become the powerful instrument for spreading the information all over the world and manipulating the conscience, social mentality, everyday experience and behaviour; 2) culture, as the universal fact of American life, demonstrates the value scale of the members of society; 3) lexical polysemy is the way of storing language and encyclopedic information, categorizing human experience which results in changes and transformations in the language; 4) in its turn, dynamics of language changes and transformations result in emergence of metaphors which are associative phenomena, which reflect all the changes in any society, thus constantly enriching the language, and provide the opportunity for studying the processes and results of language and cognitive mechanisms, being the means of conceptualizing empirical knowledge and performing the linguistic monitoring of social conscience and the means of foregrounding the necessary concept from the wide socio-cultural context.

As far as American mass media are concerned, they naturally reflect the ideas of culture being the basic filter between those who adhere to this

⁵ Wierzbicka A. (1991) *Cross-cultural pragmatics. The semantics of human interaction*. Berlin – New York: Mouton de Gruyter.

⁶ Wierzbicka A. (1992) *Semantics, culture and pragmatics. Universal human concepts in culture*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

culture and the social, economic and political environment, at the same time, performing the protecting and limiting functions to save American traditions and values.

Moreover, mass media texts are particular stimuli for causing particular reaction of their readers as they introduce them into the broad social context which is rather subjective and which includes the context of the actual event, the ideological context and the historically motivated cultural context. Thus American culture is always reflected in the language of mass media texts: culture and language are interacting, the vocabulary being the means of enriching language conscience and feedbacking all the changes of the social life: social phenomenon > changes in the language > changes in culture.

The language means of media texts are selected and targeted at the public at large to form their values. On the one side, media discourses require and provide for general thinking skills, on the other side, the mechanism of the language influence on the mass conscience appeals to human feelings and emotions.

One of the mechanisms of targeted influence is executed: a) by highlighting one of the elements of the picture of the world presented by a particular language; b) by its being stereotyped and c) by its being introduced into some language forms which value characteristics are approaching the target subject. The comprehension of the information obtained causes the activation of sensing elements of conscience, intuition, thus enabling to reconstruct social values of subconsciousness⁷.

Readers' audience is under constant regulated and controlled influence of mass media texts which gradually result in the fundamental changes in readers' values orientations. They comprehend the information obtained as the reason for some necessary action, especially if it is directed to achieving some definite aims. At the same time the reading audience becomes the social context which is, in its turn, reflected in mass media discourses, thus building the chain: Language – Culture – Mentality – Comprehension – Language.

Conceptual metaphors cause the emergence of the concept or even a chain of concepts and become the social and cognitive basis for communication because cognition is always inseparable from evaluation, and connotative associations seem directly depend on the living traditions of the speakers of this language, thus modeling comprehension. Moreover, at present conceptual metaphor is considered a specific type of modality: from the cognitive and pragmatic view it can be analysed as the category of sense-generation and sense-perception.

⁷ Lakoff G. (1980) *Metaphors we live by*. Chicago: Chicago Univ. Press.

However, the problem for other language speakers is that conceptual metaphor only unites language, thinking and culture in its national contexts specific for particular national or ethnic cultural conscience and mentality. The bright example illustrates this statement: in his research of FITNA, one of Arab cultural constants, O. Bogomolov proves that the persuasiveness of this concept is much more powerful in comparison with other international words with the same denotational meaning, e. g. civil war or anarchy, due to the long-lasting history of functioning within religious and historical discourses: the typical communicative aim for the FITNA discourses is to prevent conflicts inside definite political or social groups, because in Arab discourses concerning war and peace, this concept symbolizes the final situation of disorder and discord which the society is aspiring to overcome or even prevent. Though these archaic images in contemporary political and social contexts seem to be tropes, their background involving cultural presuppositions keep on impacting the contemporary models of behaviour⁸.

Varieties of conceptualization of the world are vividly reflected in political mass media discourses. Thus J. Lakoff stated that the process of political battles in the USA convinced him that conservatives and liberals base their election platforms on different moral systems which is reflected in their political discourses. Conservatives consider *the family* as the patriarchal cell of the society where the main role is played by *the father, the leader, the breadwinner, children* having to live their own lives and having to be responsible for their actions and decisions when they grow up. Liberals, on the contrary, treat *the mother as the leader* in bringing *children* up and, consequently, children easier adapt to their becoming adult⁹. Therefore the words *character, virtue, discipline, get tough, strong, individual responsibility, standards, authority, heritage, common sense, freedom* are more frequent in conservative discourses, while the words *social responsibility, human rights, equal rights, care, help, health, nutrition, biodiversity* are more frequent in liberal discourses.

Particularly striking observations can be made if we use corpora and concordances data for comparison, which is especially important for the assessment of the potential influence of the first language in foreign language acquisition because when speaking a foreign language even advanced learners tend to be influenced by their first language: complexity in language learning is often created by semantic or conceptual mismatches

⁸ Bohomolov O. V. (2019) *From temptation to discord: the concept of FITNA in Arab Spring discourse* // *Movoznavstvo*, No.1, p. 3–8.

⁹ Lakoff G. (1996) *Moral politics: What conservatives know that liberals don't*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

when the two languages do not coincide to cover some aspects of situations or lexicalize similar notions. For example, concordances allow us to reveal more about the actual use of words in context: compare the *concordances* for the lexemes *different* and *різний* in native and non-native writing and you will see that it is grossly overused by Russian and Ukrainian contexts where in English contexts *various* or *of different kinds/types/sorts of* should be used.

Interesting conclusions were made by A.O. Khudoliy who concentrated on the role of metaphors as the indicators of the changes in mass media texts, i.e., the changes in nominations of reality parameters: new phenomena and objects are nominated by new words, or the existing words are adapted to new realia under the influence of changing social conditions¹⁰. A new nomination is always a new sign, a new identification of a particular fragment of the picture of the world, a new fact in transformations of the conceptual knowledge picture of the world. A. Khudoliy states that in mass media texts metaphors play at least 18 functions. For the purpose of the Project we condensed them into three basic ones:

1. Cognitive function which unites image-building for creating the conceptual image; thought-provoking as a thinking instrument; gnoseological for forming a new notion; cognitive for processing the information obtained.

2. Communicative function which unites communicative for conveying the necessary information; expressive for making the utterance expressive and for attracting the readers' attention; propaganda-promoting; pragmatic for the readers to understand the author's view; evaluative for interpreting the events or categorizing the human experience; entertaining and social for identifying the social status of the addresser.

3. Nominative function which unites nominative for creating the name for the regalia; compressive as a means of lexical economy; euphemistic because it enables to indicate those elements of the information which the author does not want to show by the appropriate nominations; stylistic for referring; onomaciological for substituting one word for another; cultural development influencing the development of the language; mnemonic for enriching and decoding the information.

Thus metaphor is considered to accomplish the functions of creating the necessary concept or notion, creating a necessary language fact and creating a means of communicative expression.

A. Khudoliy also distributed all the conceptual metaphors obtained in American mass media texts into 18 groups which clearly illustrate the

¹⁰ Khudoliy A. O. (2005) *Metaphor in the language of mass media texts*. Ostrog: NUOA Press.

specific symbols of American mentality: SEA, WILDERNESS, HUNTING, WAR, HUMAN BEING, ILL PERSON, GASTRONOMY, DAY/NIGHT, ROAD/WAY, SPORT, THEATRE, ART, CHEMICAL PROCESS, DIRT, EMPIRE, EDUCATION, FAMILY, METAPHORICAL and conceptual space of American mass media discourses presenting the integral political and social life of a person in American realities. According to his study, about 20 per cent of the whole number of all the metaphors registered belong to the group of conceptual metaphors SEA and ROAD/WAY which are associated with: a) intensity, dynamics, energy, unlimitedness; b) protection (in a harbour or a port); c) guidance (by a captain) or orientation to smth (lighthouses, beacons); d) stability and prosperity (the symbol of anchor) and, at the same time, with cruelty, danger, aggression, playing the leading role in the picture of American political and social life¹¹.

In the process of conducting the Project we took a random issue of the magazine “New Yorker” (Dec. 16, 2019) and asked the team participating in this experiment to scan it and look for the metaphors scattered around the texts inside “fishing” for the metaphors used by their authors. The result was amazing – again, about 18 percent belong to SEA and ROAD/WAY metaphors, becoming the leaders among other metaphors revealed within the magazine, e. g. *deep under the surface, green lights, cosmic (fantastic)book; to knock the rock, to clear the way, to stay on the right track, to hit the road, to stay afloat, to drift, to sink, to keep sailing, to rock the boat, a Channel One anchorman* (Russian TV Channel One General Producer Konstantin Ernst).

Another representative group WAR can also be exemplified by a group of metaphors, e. g. *attack, grab, crash, parade, salute; to fight the dragon and rescue a girl, to unlaunch the torpedo*.

Moreover, the new global reality caused by the pandemic of COVID-19 is described as *a sea of turmoil, a stormy sea of fear and chaos around us, finding ourselves in in the same global boat, looking for smooth sailing* (easy, manageable teaching and learning), *being on/off track* (in online lessons or conferences).

It is notable that the same metaphoric approach is used, for example, in titling webinars which are organised during the global lockdown: Pearson presenter Graham Jones invites to visit his webinar “*Meet Speakout Dive into Authentic English: Enjoy Real Communication*”.

Even scholars like using the concept SEA in their publications, e. g. the prominent British linguist David Crystal headlines the article in the

¹¹ Khudoliy A. O. (2005) *Metaphor in the language of mass media texts*. Ostrog: NUOA Press.

professional journal “*Swimming with the tide in the sea of language change*” emphasizing his ideas with this sustained conceptual metaphor throughout the whole text thus manifesting the unique vision of the problem of unpredictable change of the contemporary global English language: *the constant ebb and flow of words, sounds, and structures at the tidal margins of a language, the tidal metaphor, to stop the tide coming in, no two high tides are the same, the tides are different – reaching one part of the beach today, a different part tomorrow* (IATEFL Issues, July 1999, p. 2).

At the third stage of the Project it is presupposed to make the conceptual analysis of the top conceptual metaphors revealed in the discourses under discussion.

Thus the distribution of the model metaphor SEA in mass media discourses seems to enable to imagine the historical fate of the state as ship sailing or navigation, thus opening the opportunities for widening the conceptual space and including other metaphoric components (how, where, when, who, what, why, what for), the elements of the concepts could be built into the frame for presenting the mental spaces.

The fourth stage of the Project is supposed to be aimed at the comparative analysis of American and Ukrainian political discourses because culturally marked picture of the world forms the type of attitude of the man towards the world at large – the nature, other people oneself as an element of the world (we could use the metaphor “pixel of the picture of the world”). In its turn, it determines the norms of behaviour of an individual. Therefore any society is interested in the so-called “cultural transmission”, i.e. in making every member of the society realize the adequate picture of the world which determines the line of behaviour the line of behaviour of each individual member and and the whole society. At this stage of the analysis we have not revealed the coincidence in the use of the concepts mentioned in Ukrainian mass media discourses.

To sum up, mass media means are aimed at modelling the world around the man; they are oriented to their addressees, causing changes in their cognitive spheres by influencing them and manipulating their conscience in a positive or negative way. Metaphors interact human cognition and semantic parametres of a language. Therefore they can be used as instruments for analysing stereotyped socio-cultural concepts.

2. Written Academic Discourse

The PhD Programme at Admiral Makarov National University of Shipbuilding was designed to help postgraduates in various technical fields to reach C1 level (CEFR) in Academic English, of particular interest being the development of writing skills for their professional activity. As part of

the Programme, there was the module on Written Academic Discourse, which enabled to initiate the Project aimed at the analysis of sociocultural differences in specialist technical discourses: we were aware of the fact that postgraduates felt quite nervous when dealing with the necessity of writing specialist academic texts in English because of their initial impulse to copy the structure and composition of identical texts in Ukrainian or Russian.

Without specifying the details of methods and materials used, let's discuss the main aim and the main approaches related to this Project. Particular attention is paid to collecting samples, presenting a variety of content-, genre-, composition-related academic texts illustrating typical technical discourses in Ukrainian and English, analysing their typicalities, their genres, composition, structure, language similarities and differences.

Of the top-priority importance are the cross-cultural challenges differentiating texts in different languages as Academic English as a global language of science puts forward a number of challenges in teaching AE at higher schools in Ukraine primarily because of the sociocultural differences between Ukrainian and English academic discourses, the academic discourse being the text under the conditions of real speech communication with all the variety of extralinguistic factors which cause both its generation and its comprehension by other language speakers. Let's refer to R.B. Kaplan¹² and O. Tarnopolsky¹³ who described some patterns characteristic for different national cultures and noted the differences between English and Russian models: English academic texts provide for strictly straightforward and consequent utterance of ideas without any deviations: the main idea is revealed at the very beginning; it is supported by arguments – any deviation from the main idea is banned.

In Russian as well as Ukrainian academic texts, associative deviations, revision of different directions, approaches are allowed though they are not connected with the main idea. Today Ukrainian researchers are very active in English academic writing for SCOPUS, and other bases, and it became the top-priority task for them to clearly understand sociocultural differences in academic writing: their scientific ideas could be exceptional, innovative but they are not formatted in accordance with English academic discourse requirements and are rejected.

The discourse approach to conceiving Academic English for science and technology reveals the fact that it extends from peer writing of scientists and

¹² Kaplan R. B. (2001) *Cultural thought pattern in intercultural education* // Landmark essays on ESL writing/ Ed. by T. Silva and T. K. Matsuda. N.Y. : Hermagoras Press.

¹³ Tarnopolsky O. B. (2008) *Teaching writing in English for higher school students*. Vinnitsa: Nova Kniha.

technically oriented professionals to the writing aimed at skilled technicians, in between being the types of instructional discourses. Peer writing is exemplified by academic monographs or articles written by experts in one field for other experts in the same field or for experts in the related field. Skilled technicians are also supposed to be experts who lack equivalent training in theory. Instruction discourses refer primarily to teaching texts.

Traditionally, the authors use two terms “rhetoric” and “discourse”, to many those being synonymous. But it is important to distinguish rhetoric as the process a writer uses for organizing the data and arguments for specific communicative aims and for specific readers and discourse which is considered to be of higher level. The rhetorical process is best seen operating in fulfilling the specific rhetorical functions in written discourses: description, definition, classification, instructions. The variability of academic discourses is known to be expressed in the research paradigm which is composed of the following elements: 1) means of academic comprehension of the object under discussion; 2) linguistic knowledge; 3) specific mental space of the discourse; 4) specific metalanguage. The language picture of the world indicates the depth of the language semiosphere and its resources, its being presented as a mosaic of particular spheres of human academic communication and particular communication situations and roles (oral: discussions, presentations, lectures; written: articles, books, reports, reviews). Cognitive and discursive paradigm, we are basing our analysis on, enables to analyse an academic text as a result of a virtual communication act, as the discourse in static state. Therefore in the processes of comprehending and generating academic texts both linguistic and extralinguistic knowledge is used: information about the object studied, addresser/addressee intentions, virtual communication context etc.

Among a variety of differences between Ukrainian and English academic discourses, we have chosen two: composition and hedges.

Composition. It is universally acknowledged that academic thinking has systemic character which is, to a greater extent, stipulated by text composition, both formal and content-motivated category. Composition unites all text sections causing its logic ties and interdependences. Therefore composition plays an important role in text generation and comprehension, this distinctive category being, in many cases, different from general academic texts in Ukrainian and English, though their basic characteristics coincide: 1) any paragraph begins with the topic sentence which expresses its main idea (topic) and the controlling idea; 2) the topic sentence is followed by supporting statements which explain, illustrate and prove it by examples; the concluding sentence could express some conclusion and connect the paragraph with the following paragraph; 3) every paragraph is

characterised by unity requiring that every sentence in the paragraph is connected with the controlling idea, coherence being necessary for all the sentences following each other in some logical order, and cohesion being the linguistic means of expressing coherence; 4) the structure is composed of 3 main parts: the introductory paragraph, the body and the conclusion; 5) the size of the essay is always indicated (120 – 250 words); 6) the introductory paragraph should include some general sentences introducing the topic and general statement attracting the readers' attention, the thesis statement, contrary to Ukrainian academic discourses formulating a transparent point of view of the author which is further proved and illustrated; 6) logical and language ties within the body are achieved by the link-words (their exceptional importance is emphasized for any international exam, e. g. Pearson Test of English; 7) the conclusion contains restatement or summary of the main points and final comments in the form of general statements.

In British and American practice they usually pay a special attention to communicative aims in the process of writing essays, articles, reports: description, classification, comparison or contrast, cause and effect, definition, persuasion. And again the difference between Ukrainian and English academic discourses is in very strict orientation to the communicative aim of the English discourse.

The selection of the communicative aim is, in its turn, relates to the selection of genres because they are considered the means of expressing communicative aims. Genre analysis shows a genuine interest in the use of language to achieve communicative aims, and, in this sense, it is not merely an extension of linguistic formalism. Though it does not represent a static description of language, it gives a dynamic explanation of the way expert users of the language manipulate generic conventions to achieve a variety of complex goals, thus uniting the advantages of a sociolinguistic perspective and the advantages of a cognitive perspective, particularly referring to the factual use of language.

And again we should emphasize the fact that it is primarily motivated by applied linguistic concerns, especially language teaching at various levels: it is necessary to develop the knowledge of the code which is the pre-condition for developing communicative expertise in specialist discourse; to provide for obtaining genre knowledge associated with the specialist culture; to acquire sensitivity to cognitive structures of specialist genres. Only then it is possible to become competent users of the discourse of their field, because to participate in any specialist communicative event it is important to understand the communicative aims of any particular discourse and to understand the communicative aim-oriented purposes of the specific use of genres, i.e. to become aware of appropriate rhetorical

procedures and conventions related to the specialist discourse community they want to join. Thus genre knowledge, procedural knowledge and social knowledge are necessary to produce, distribute and comprehend texts.

After acquiring genre knowledge and understanding the specific rhetorical and conceptual context, it is necessary to become familiar with the language means which are typically used to achieve communicative aims, to adapt to conventions and to become “genre-sensitive”. Numerous researches in the study of various academic texts indicated that there are specific lexicogrammatical differences caused by genres, e. g., review (critique) as a typical communicative academic genre is characterised by: a) the communicative aim of representing and evaluating new information and introducing the text which is evaluated into the system of ideas and even revealing intertextual specific features; b) conducting a regulating function; c) availability to trace the ties among the author of the text, the addressor/reviewer and the addressee; d) generalised format. It is the text discussing published information on a scientific topic or issue, collecting the current knowledge on the topic and/or suggesting a new interpretation marshaling evidence to persuade readers that the new interpretation is valid. In spite of the typical aim, general characteristics of review discourses, their compositions somewhat differ in Ukrainian and English texts.

Hedges. Another important aspect of scientific discourse is to weigh evidence and to draw conclusions from the data obtained. Because science is often seen and asserted as an objective discipline, considered as a series of impersonal statements of facts which add up to the truth, any academic discourse is both socially situated and structured to only accomplish rhetorical objectives. In reality, hedging appears to be the linguistic resource which conveys the fundamental characteristics of science, the commentative potentials of any language, the interactive elements which enable to connect the information in the text and the writer’s factual interpretation, because one of the fundamental characteristics of science is uncertainty, a kind of scepticism or doubt, i.e. researchers are inevitably express their attitude to the information they describe or prove. In one of the first study of hedges in various discourses J. Lakoff defined them as “fuzzy” words or phrases and stated that they are crucial elements of the academic discourse^{14,15}.

Thus hedges reveal the probabilistic nature of science – it is known from the history of science that it was much more deterministic before the second half of the 19th century when the first signs of its probabilistic nature were

¹⁴ Lakoff G. (1980) *Metaphors we live by*. Chicago: Chicago Univ. Press.

¹⁵ Lakoff G. (1996) *Moral politics: What conservatives know that liberals don't*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

noted. In English a completely unhedged writing would not be dealt with seriously, though in Ukrainian or Russian there is no strict limitation as far as hedging as the communicatively oriented mechanism is concerned, e. g. *the failure of the experiment is **most likely** caused by..., the **brittleness of this material is least unlikely** due to..., the unexpected loss of heat energy **seems**..., the **most likely** fracture of a piston, the **probable** fracture of the assembly line.*

Let's illustrate the statements with an example:

*"...we **might** say that engineering is the process of solving a **particular** kind of problem (involving the control or utilization of the forces of nature) in a particular way (by the application of principles of sciences, mathematics and special problem-solving methods) in order to achieve **certain** practical desired results. More simply, we **might** define engineering as the process of harnessing or directing the forces and materials of nature for the use and convenience of man... the word "process" **suggests** a continuing activity... We **can** also see that this simple definition clearly points out the basic difference between science and engineering".* (A. Nourse, 1962. So you want to be an engineer. – Harper and Brothers, N.Y., pp. 13–14). The extract was cited from L. Trimble's research on the English technical discourses¹⁶. It is of special interest that showing the technique of adapting original versions he again uses the following: *"We **might** define engineering as the process of harnessing or directing the forces and materials of nature for the use and convenience of man".* And again we face the differences in styling in Ukrainian and English academic texts, the former being much more categorical, deterministic and the latter being more hedge-oriented in expressing their conclusions.

Hedging, generally speaking, is considered as the process of reducing and softening categorical statements when the author wants to minimize the risk of imposing his view as the only relevant or valid. They, hedges, are sometimes defined as linguistic cues of bias which are used to avoid personal responsibility for this or that statement, to mitigate responsibility, to express tentativeness or evasiveness.

On the other side, hedges can be used to report or state some results or conclusions which present the addressor's vision of the information but he or she wants to "soften" the strong statement because the experimental data are not available, to mitigate two central positions expressed in scientific writing, to present the acceptance by the international scientific community:

¹⁶ Trimble L. (1992) *English for science and technology. A discourse approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge Univ. Press.

researchers do not underestimate their conclusions but they do emphasize that they do not overestimate their results¹⁷.

Moreover, hedges are also understood as “sophisticated rational strategies” or “humble servants of the scientific community”.

Much has also been written about the linguistic classification of hedges. The typical classification can be presented in the following way:

1. Modal verbs or adjectival, adverbial, nominal modal phrases: e. g., *may, might, can, could, would, should; possible, probable, likely, unlikely; maybe, perhaps, possibly, probably, likely.*

2. Lexical verbs, nouns, adverbs with the meaning of doubting or evaluating: e. g., *to seem, to appear, to believe, to assume, to suggest, to indicate, to tend, to argue; claim, assumption, suggestion.*

3. Quantifiers expressing the approximation of degree, quantity, time: e. g., *about, roughly, insignificantly, approximately, generally.*

4. Discourse markers which express the author’s personal doubt: e. g., *in our view, in our opinion.*

5. Hedge expressions: e. g., *as far as I am concerned, it would probably indicate that.*

All of them express personal opinion of the author based on some data or plausible arguments.

The Project we are describing here has also revealed the distributional variability in academic prose, the difference being attributable to variation in the communicative aim both of different genres and different sections within a text. Thus technical review articles are more heavily hedged than research papers: the more powerful the generalization to universality the more hedged the discourse is. The discourses in which their author’s argue, persuade, evaluate or appeal to wider audience have more hedged statements than the discourses which inform and describe.

The fact is that generalization causes the author to express judgement, assessment, instruction, e. g., review papers which aim is to supervise a number of relevant works on a particular problem though they are often controversial (scientific articles, patents, essays, synopses, reports specially collected, selected, ordered and analysed). On the other side, research papers require from their authors to suggest some ideas, to advise what to improve while reports, however, present almost pure description.

The frequency in the use of hedges and the variability of their use are also not uniform depending on particular sections of the paper. Thus in the Introduction section the author uses hedges when he wants the reader to

¹⁷ Swales J. (1990) *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. DOI 10.1075/z.184.513swa

understand that he (the author) proposes some hypothesis, that much has to be done in this field of study, that he is not certain about some results or conclusions. In the Methods section which is descriptive, factual and the least commentative, there are almost no hedges because the statements here are presumably confirmative. A relatively insignificant number of hedges is characteristic for the Result section because method and result sections are rather objective. But Discussion and Conclusion sections are quite opposite due to their subjective discursal nature: the authors are trying to explain, interpret their information or even put forward controversial ideas, explanations, interpretations as if trying to protect themselves from criticism or counter arguments.

To sum up, the comparative academic discourse analysis based on revealing their cross-cultural differences is a relatively new addition to the varieties of discourse analyses available at present but it enables to acknowledge the fact that authentic academic texts are produced and consumed not in isolation but in some real-world context.

CONCLUSIONS

In the contemporary global world culture, as the activities and ideas, is extremely significant, primarily, because an absence of culturally relevant schemata may lead to feelings of social or cultural dissonance in a variety of political, economic, cultural, educational, academic contacts in multicultural communication. Mass media model the human communicative behaviour and determine the selection of language means: dynamics of changes in nature, society, human conscience are immediately reflected in structure and semantics of lexemes, conceptual metaphors accomplishing the important linguocognitive function, and being the result of interaction between human cognition and semantic parametres of every particular language. Therefore they can be used as reliable and efficient devices for the applied comparative cross-cultural analysis. Academic discourses demonstrate another important field for cross-cultural studies, especially keeping in mind the fact that the English language is the global language for science and technology with its typical resources which are frequently different from other language resources, e. g., hedging is a language resource which are widely used in academic communication, when there is the need to modulate speech acts in order to guarantee a certain level of acceptability and the possibility of coexistence. Hedges in academic discourses are strategic stereotypes, and language users often resort to them to achieve their communicative aims and academic communal adherence, to more cautiously negotiate their claims when referring to other authors' works to anticipate criticism. The primary results obtained in the process of carrying out applied discourse analyses have proved their efficiency and promise to suggest further challenging studies.

SUMMARY

The author focuses the attention on cultural literacy and cultural awareness analysing some aspects of mass media and academic discourses, conceptual metaphors and hedges being the instruments for impacting readers and even managing their conscience. The selection of these types of discourses is stipulated by the aims of two cross-cultural projects initiated by the Department of Applied Linguistics of Admiral Makarov National University of Shipbuilding to study the differences in expressing modality of various nature, i.e. by conceptual metaphors in mass media discourses and hedges in academic discourses. It is emphasized that the importance of generating and perceiving English discourses for Ukrainians is primarily motivated by applied linguistic concerns, especially language teaching at various levels.

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Information about the author:

Filippova N. M.,

PhD in Philology,

Associate Professor at the Department of Applied Linguistics,

Admiral Makarov National University of Shipbuilding

9, Heroes of Ukraine Avenue, Mykolaiv, 54025, Ukraine

ORCID ID: orcid.org/0000-0002-8840-774X

FORMING OF PERSONALITY MEDIA COMPETENCE IN THE CONDITIONS OF DIGITAL TECHNOLOGIES DEVELOPMENT

Kostyrko T. N.

INTRODUCTION

We live in many spaces at once. The main ones are physical, informational and virtual. Today, while the coronavirus quarantined people, it underestimated the role of the physical space, but overestimated the status of information and virtual. We lack news, so the status of the information space is growing. Having gained a lot of free time, we overestimate the status of virtual space in our lives as a result. Our time has flowed from physical space to informational and virtual. And a person is determined by where it lives, where it spends more of his time. As a result, for many people TV series have become life, and life – TV series. By the way, many streaming services have opened free use of their resources, leading people away from real life. This clearly increases the probability of that we will react to everything according to the models of the heroes of TV series. Media competence must pay attention to diverting us from virtual role models for life¹.

The global use of digital media and network applications, as well as rapid technological progress in big data, machine learning, artificial intelligence and other new digital technologies have fundamentally changed the information and communication space around the world. New challenges have arisen, such as problems with data ownership and use, trust and privacy, dignity and human autonomy, increasing automation of decision-making processes, accountability and transparency of algorithms, and so on. The situation is also complicated by the fact that worldwide only a dozen technology giants play a dominant role in the regulation and development of technologies.

The technological revolution and the transformation of the media environment are also creating challenges for media information literacy

¹ Pocheptsov Georgiy. Koronavirus vskryvaet konflikty: media i feyki, politika i vragi [Coronavirus reveals conflicts: media and fakes, politics and enemies]. Retrieved from: <https://www.stopfake.org/ru/koronavirus-vskryvaet-konflikty-media-i-fejki-politika-i-vragi/>.

(MIL) education, which aims to develop the knowledge, skills, attitudes and competencies needed to access, search, critically evaluate, intelligently use and disseminate content, in order to work successfully and live in the age of digital technology. At the core of the MIL is a holistic approach that includes a rational, emotional, and cultural understanding that reflects the values of different civilizational approaches rather than technical skills. However, in the context of traditional MIL education, the implications of the introduction of new technologies are less discussed, while the potential of MIL is not fully exploited.

The concepts of media education, media literacy and media competence are now important categories for any science. Today, media education disciplines play an important role not only in the training of future professionals in the field of media, but also in the process of carrying out any professional activity. With the help of mass media (media) and the ability to properly use their resources, you can significantly simplify and increase the efficiency of certain aspects of the work of any specialist.

It is time to distinguish the concepts of information literacy and media literacy, information competence and media competence. Information competence and literacy reveal the technical aspect of product creation, these concepts are associated with computer technology, while media literacy and media competence involve the use by the individual of the media product that conveys the means of communication, in particular, using information technology².

1. Media information literacy of the individual – terminological diversity

In 2019, the term “information literacy” (IL) will be forty-five years old. It was first used by Paul Zurkowski in his report “The Information Services Environment: Relationship and Priorities” for the US National Commission on Libraries and Informatics, where he described the basic skills needed by service workers in the United States at the time³. The author of the term considered it a universal phenomenon and explained it by the following

² Onkovych Ganna (2013) *Mediakompetentnist – fakhova yakist suchasnoho spetsialista* [Media competence – the professional quality of a modern specialist]. *Mediakompetentnist fakhivtsia: kolektyvna monohrafiia* [Media competence of a specialist: a collective monograph]. Kyev: Logos, p. 7.

³ Chemerys I. M. (2008) *Formuvannia profesiinoi kompetentnosti maibutnikh zhurnalistiv zasobamy inshomovnykh periodychnykh vydan* [Formation of future journalists' professional competence by foreign language periodicals' means] (PhD in Pedagogical sciences). Kyiv: Institute of Higher Education of the National Academy of Pedagogical Sciences of Ukraine, p. 45.

three factors: 1) searches for information differ in time and purpose; 2) there are a variety of sources and methods of access, due to which approaches to addressing this issue are constantly and rapidly changing; 3) The information we work with reflects a much larger amount of human experience⁴.

Today, the word “literacy” is widely used to denote the availability of skills and basic knowledge in a particular subject area (in collective terms – computer literacy, health literacy, civic literacy). When the terms “literacy” and “computer” are combined to form a new concept (“computer literacy”), the meaning is obvious. However, in combination with the word “information”, the term “literacy” for different people took on a completely different meaning. Therefore, understanding the concept of “information literacy” for many today is still a problem⁵. Disagreements on this issue stimulated the search for other options. Expert of the European Network of School Libraries and Information Literacy, Professor of the University of Amsterdam Albert Bukkhorst in his analytical article “Media and Information Literacy and its “friends”⁶ notes that back in 1995, researchers established the existence of nineteen related terms. with information literacy: literacy of the adult population; increased literacy; basic literacy; double literacy; public literacy; computer literacy; critical literacy; cultural literacy; primary literacy; family literacy; functional literacy; informative literacy; marginal literacy; media literacy; minimum literacy; limited literacy; necessary literacy; visual literacy; literacy in the workplace. There are also many other types of literacy in scientific sources, such as: civic literacy; news literacy; information literacy; literacy in matters of health information; transliteracy; literacy in the field of copyright; skills of the century; information literacy of the XXI century; literacy in the field of augmented reality; literacy in the field of mobile information.

⁴ Chemerys I. M. (2008) Formuvannia profesiinoi kompetentnosti maibutnikh zhurnalistiv zasobamy inshomovnykh periodychnykh vydan [Formation of future journalists professional competence by foreign language periodicals’ means] (PhD in Pedagogic sciences). Kyiv: Institute of Higher Education of the National Academy of Pedagogical Sciences of Ukraine, p. 45.

⁵ Kurbanoglu S. (2013) Media Literacy: A Report of the National Leadership Conference on Media Literacy. Aspen, CO: Aspen Institute, 1993. Analiz kontseptsii informatsionnoy gramotnosti [Analysis of information literacy concept]. *Media- i informatsionnaya gramotnost v obshchestvakh znaniya* [Media and information literacy in knowledge societies]. Moscow: Mezhhregionalnyy tsentr bibliotekhnogo sotrudnichestva, p. 87.

⁶ Bukkhorst A. (2013). Media and information literacy and its “friends”. Media and information literacy in knowledge society. Moscow: Mezhhregionalnyy tsentr bibliotekhnogo sotrudnichestva, p. 35.

However, the term “information literacy” has taken root, and it is now widely recognized and widespread. For a long time it was actively used, primarily in the field of library and information, but gradually the concept went beyond it. The term was further developed in later documents approved at international forums. In particular, the Prague Declaration of 2003, entitled “Towards an Information Literate Society”, linked information literacy to the information society, and the Alexandria Declaration “Information Society Lighthouses” (2005) marked the relationship between information literacy and lifelong learning.

The Information Literacy Section of the International Federation of Library Associations and Institutions (IFLA) in 2006 discussed the possibility of replacing the term “information literacy” with one that is linguistically more acceptable for other major languages. However, as a result, it was decided to keep the term, given that it has already received international recognition. However, in each country it was recommended to choose the most appropriate term for your language. Today in Ukraine it is “information literacy”.

It should be noted that nowadays information literacy is more and more often mentioned in the context of a new combined term – “media and information literacy” (MIG). American professor J. Potter notes that a Google search yields 765,000 results for “media literacy”⁷, which underscores the growing interest in this issue, but to assess the importance of both theoretical and practical work in this area to date is not seems possible because there is a tendency of local conceptualization of approaches, which significantly complicates the understanding of media literacy as a phenomenon. R. Hobbs, an American media education specialist and director of the US Media Education Lab, compares media education to a child with a thousand names⁸.

Media literacy is a so-called umbrella term, as in social theory there is no single definition of this concept. The most common interpretation of media literacy is the following: media literacy is the ability to access, analyse and transmit messages of various types 1; media literacy is the attitude of questions to the content of what a person watches, reads, listens to⁹.

⁷ Potter W. (2010) James The State of Media Literacy. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media*, vol. 54(4). P. 675–696. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08838151.2011.521462>

⁸ Hobbs R. (1994) Pedagogical issues in U.S. media education. In S. Deetz (ed.). *Communication Yearbook 17*. Newbury Park CA: Sage Publications, p. 453.

⁹ Kotlyar P. S. (2017) Mediagramotnost v usloviyakh razvitiya tsifrovyykh tekhnologiy [Media literacy in the development of digital technologies]. *Herald of Vyatka State University: philosophical sciences*, no. 8, p. 26.

The term “media competence” is becoming more and more popular every year in scientific publications, mainly in the works of teachers, journalists, sociologists. And it is no coincidence that this concept is one of the central ones in the new concept of modern education. The growing flow of information requires from the individual not only adequate perception, effective processing of information, but also creative thinking and critical analysis of media messages. In this context, the formation of media competence of the individual becomes an integral part of modern education¹⁰.

UNESCO has held several expert meetings on various aspects of media and information literacy, including the Meeting on the Implementation of Media and Information Literacy Components in Teacher Training Curriculum (Paris, June 2008) and the Meeting on the Development of Media and Information Literacy Indicators (Paris, June 2008). Bangkok, November 2010). In 2017, UNESCO published the main provisions of the five rules it proposed on media and information literacy.

In these documents, UNESCO combines information and media literacy (LawsofMediaandInformationLiteracy, MIL), highlighting common concepts for both areas. The organization also positions these two areas as a combination of knowledge and skills needed by modern society around the world.

“It is important for citizens to understand the functions of the media and other sources of information, to critically evaluate their content, as well as to make informed decisions – both users and producers of media content and information,” – explained in the organization. The MIL rules cover all types of media and other sources of information – libraries, archives, museums and the Internet, regardless of the technology used. Particular attention will be paid to training teachers to involve them in the implementation of MIL in the learning process, providing them with appropriate pedagogical methods, curricula and resources.

Principle 1. Information, communication, libraries, media, technology and the Internet should be used critically by society. They are equal in stature and none is more relevant than the other or should be ever treated as such.

Principle 2. Every citizen is a creator of information / knowledge. Everyone has the right of access to information / knowledge and the right to self-expression. Media and information literacy must be for all – both men and women – and a nexus of human rights.

¹⁰ Zhizhina Marina (2016) Media Competence as Strategic Objective of Media Education: Criteria of Media Competence. *Mediaobrazovanie- Media Education*, no. 4, p. 47.

Principle 3. Information, knowledge and communication are not always value neutral, independent or impartial. Any conceptualization, use and application of MIL should make this statement transparent and understandable to all citizens.

Principle 4. Every citizen wants to know and understand new information, knowledge and messages as well as to communicate with others, even if he does not express this desire. Their rights must however never be compromised.

Principle 5. Media and information literacy is not acquired at once. It is a lived and dynamic experience and process. It is complete when it includes knowledge, skills and attitudes, when it covers access, evaluation/assessment, use, production and communication of information, media and technological content¹¹.

There are many definitions of “media competence” today. Media competence is the quality of a person media literate. It is the result of media education, which helps a person to actively use the opportunities of the information and educational field – television, radio, video, press, Internet, forms a culture of communication, develops creative, communicative skills, critical thinking, ability to perceive, interpret, analyze and evaluate media texts, teach various forms of self-expression through educational technologies, including media technologies. It is media competence that develops the skills of professionally oriented critical thinking, which help to make independent judgments and make competent decisions in response to information transmitted through mass media¹².

It should be noted that in Ukraine these concepts (IG, MG, MIG) are now used much less than in other countries whose higher education institutions have high ratings. And this is evidence that we are somewhat lagging behind in the development of those new areas of humanitarian knowledge that have been successfully developed in recent decades by the humanities of other countries. We usually use variations of the concept of “information and communication technologies”, which came to the humanities in the field of informatics, but is also basic in humanities research. Our review raises awareness of the need to operate with new terms that have become usual in the scientific and educational environment. And as soon as they are activated

¹¹ Media Sapiens (24 february 2017) UNESCO has published five principles of media and information literacy. Retrieved from: <https://ms.detector.media/mediaosvita/post/18453/2017-02-24-yunesko-opublikovala-pyat-printsipiv-mediinoi-ta-informatsiinoi-gramotnosti/>.

¹² Fedorov Alexander (2001). Media Education: History, Theory and Methods. Rostov: BBP. P. 168.

in the educational field of higher education, the more successfully the tasks of education will be solved¹³.

In addition, it is impossible to achieve success in lifelong learning without media education, no matter what the education system. This is a new philosophy of pedagogical activity, which probably needs its own educational system.

One of the most cited researchers O. Fedorov gives the following interpretations of the concept of “media competence of the individual” and “media competence of the teacher”¹⁴. Educator’s media competence – a set of its motives, knowledge, skills, abilities (indicators: motivational, contact, information, perceptual, interpretive / evaluative, practical-operational / activity, creative), which contribute to the selection, use, critical analysis, evaluation, creation and transmission of media texts in different types, forms and genres, analysis of complex processes of media functioning in society.

Ukrainian media educators have proposed a brief definition of the specialist’s media competence concept: it is an integral characteristic of the individual, which consists of individual partial competencies and is a feature of media culture¹⁵.

Currently A. Onkovich in his monograph “Media information literacy as an umbrella term”, draws the attention of the scientific and pedagogical community to the potential of vocational media education in higher education, through which the future specialist becomes media and information literate and can significantly modernize the learning process in the student auditorium. You can take advantage of the richness of the modern information environment by mastering media and information literacy in media education classes, which, in particular, attest to the work of graduate students of the Institute of Higher Education NAPS of Ukraine, approbation programs of special courses which are included in the collection “Media Didactics”¹⁶. The research of N. Dukhanina, I. Sakhnevych, I. Chemerys, O. Yanyshyn and others led us to understand that it is time to talk not just about media education, which some understand as “journalism

¹³ Kotlyar P.S. (2017) Mediagramotnost v usloviyakh razvitiya tsifrovyykh tekhnologiy [Media literacy in the development of digital technologies]. *Herald of Vyatka State University: philosophical sciences*, no. 8, p. 26.

¹⁴ Fedorov Alexander (2001). *Media Education: History, Theory and Methods*. Rostov: BBP, p. 295.

¹⁵ Onkovych Ganna, Dukhanina N. M., Sakhnevych I. A., Hurinenko I. A., Yanishin O. K., Onkovich A. D., Balabanova K. E. (2013) *Mediadydaktyka vyshchoi shkoly: prohramy spetskursiv* [Media didactics of higher school: special courses/programs]. Kyev: Logos (in Ukrainian), p. 17.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 18.

for all”, but about professionally oriented media education¹⁷. Media education in higher education involves the training of not only specialists for the media, media educators and media psychologists. In order to develop media information literacy, media educational elements should be included in the curricula of professionally-oriented humanitarian training cycle in other specialties in the appropriate volumes. Subject methods of media education, used today in higher education in Ukraine, testify to the prospects and feasibility of developing various media education technologies, as their availability and diversity contribute to the formation of professional competence of future professionals¹⁸.

2. Media literacy in the development of digital technologies

Today we can say that there has been an expansion of the set of physiological human needs. Thus, in line with the basic biological needs for rest, food, reproduction is the need of another nature – the need for information. The benefit of information is directly related to human needs – through information a person ensures their safety, recreation, well-being. However, those who have the ability to pay for traffic, the relevant competencies for the use of digital devices, as well as knowledge of reliable information sources and access to them, understanding the possibility of practical application of information can be involved in the information and communication system. The impossibility of fulfilling these conditions determines the emergence of an information gap between groups of the population, which allows us to speak of the emergence of a new class division: the information elite and the information plebs.

The process of formation of information and practical orientation of users acts as the most actual problem which needs theoretical comprehension. In other words, the latest digital technologies with detailed instructions for their development are not full-fledged digital tools without addressing the issue of cultural-reflexive attitude of the user to the media. There is a number of problems associated with finding information, such as the low threshold of the expected result, when the user stops searching and is satisfied with the information he encounters. For example, researcher D. Cheney notes that students “usually use the information they come across rather than decide what information they need”; use of a limited set of search

¹⁷ Onkovych Ganna, Dukhanina N. M., Sakhnevych I. A., Hurinenko I. A., Yanishin O. K., Onkovich A. D., Balabanova K. E. (2013) Mediadydaktyka vyshchoi shkoly: prohramy spetskursiv [Media didactics of higher school: special courses/programs]. Kyev: Logos (in Ukrainian), p. 25.

¹⁸ Onkovich G. V. (2020) High school mediadidactics development: Ukrainian experience. *Printing Horizon*, vol. 1 no. 8, p. 130.

strategies; lack of verification of the received information and its uncritical perception. In today's density of information flows, people minimize the presence of negative content. This is reflected in the tendency to refrain from viewing news reports that report terrorist acts, natural disasters and other emergencies in favor of news about events in show business, sports, entertainment¹⁹.

Elements that contribute to the dissemination of information, at the same time act as factors that determine the relationship between man and the media sphere, in which the procedures for the exchange, translation and reproduction of information.

One of the main elements of the media is the interface. According to media theorist M. Kurtov, "interface" is a combination of "external hardware", such as display, keyboard, mouse and programming language²⁰. A key feature of the interface is its "transparency". Users do not perceive the interface directly, it is beyond their attention and manifests itself in moments of failure, when the user sees a graphical confirmation of the problem. The interface, taken in extreme form, is the surrounding human world. B. Gates and E. Schmidt predicted the dissolution of the Web in the world²¹.

Digital code is the language of storing and transmitting information to new media. Digital gadgets provide access to the information environment at any time. This is what caused the radical changes in the classical structure of information transmission using analog media. The digitization of traditional media actually marked a digital revolution, when a special digital environment emerged that changed the social characteristics, especially of spiritual production. Note the most important aspects of the transformation that has taken place as a result.

Hypertextuality is the subsequent interaction of the user and the digital environment. Hypertextuality (or "nonlinearity") is the main difference between digital and printed text.

Another unifying element of the digital sociosphere is interactivity. Interactivity as a phenomenon is an interaction between the participants of any modern dialogue or polylogue, in addition to changing the role of

¹⁹ Vahlberg V., Peer L., Nesbit M. (2008) *If It Catches My Eye: An Exploration of Online News Experiences of Teenagers*. Evanston, IL: Media Management Center, Northwestern University, 56 p. Retrieved from: URL: https://www.americanpressinstitute.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/09/NIE_If-it-catches-my-eye-2008.pdf.

²⁰ Kurtov Michael (2014) *Genezis graficheskogo polzovatel'skogo interfeysa. K teologii koda*. Sankt-Peterburg: TransLit, p. 34.

²¹ Kotlyar P. S. (2017) *Mediagramotnost v usloviyakh razvitiya tsifrovyykh tekhnologii* [Media literacy in the development of digital technologies]. *Herald of Vyatka State University: philosophical sciences*, no. 8, p. 26.

viewer-listener-user from passively perceiving, abstract to a key figure of the media space. For example, as a criterion for assessing the potential of a blogger's participation in an advertising campaign, the advertiser evaluates his audience, namely the number of likes and comments under his posts. The growth of interactivity transforms cultural logic. At the same time, interactivity creates an ambiguous phenomenon of new media of the old type, when a certain media source is on a digital platform, but denies its recipients the opportunity to participate equally in the production of content. This leads to the emergence of new information channels in which former recipients become producers of their own product. Such a change in user status is a compensation for monopolistic information discourse in favor of free interpretation of information.

High culture in its classical sense is being transformed into a new digital culture, and now mass culture is also becoming the object of digital determination, making it virtually impossible to differentiate the product consumed by the new recipient²². For example, attending a concert of a popular artist is a manifestation of interest in his work or a desire caused by the memofication of his content or personality? The ability to decode memes (media object) serves as a condition for successful network communication. Memofication is the main trend of the modern media environment. A meme is a unit of the information environment that can be replicated multiple times. M.Kronhaus defines a meme as follows: "... language clichés related to one specific situation or text (film, novel, etc.). Becoming fashionable, they are reproduced in many other situations, appropriate or inappropriate. Memes, having a real source, as they spread, become overgrown with new details, the authenticity of which is extremely difficult to verify. Sources are erased, disappear, important fragments are removed, and the legend becomes more important than reality"²³.

One of the components of the new media environment is mobility. The development of the Internet and gadgets has changed the identity of users and has become a major factor in cultural globalization. In this context, media devices and media content constitute an organic unity, an object of fetishization, which from a means becomes a way of existence.

Earlier we showed that the orientation of users within the information flows of new media includes an understanding of the principles of human

²² Kotlyar P. S. (2017) Mediagramotnost v usloviyakh razvitiya tsifrovoykh tekhnologiy [Media literacy in the development of digital technologies]. *Herald of Vyatka State University: philosophical sciences*, no. 8, p. 26.

²³ Krongauz M. A. (2013) Samouchitel olbanskogo [Albanian self-teacher]. Moscow: AST: CORPUS, p. 18.

interaction and digital technology. We proposed to consider this relationship from the standpoint of not an instrumental understanding of the media, but spatial. Thus, media literacy is a condition for the successful expansion of the media environment, which differs from the understanding of media literacy as a technical skill in a situation where a person uses digital technology only as a new form, losing the opportunity to constructively oppose media reality and accept their new subjectivity.

Analysis of research, project materials and documents on the competency approach shows that media literacy is not invariant in the current domestic and foreign concepts, but it is inevitably present in the descriptions of the components of various competencies. Thus, in the materials of the symposium “Key Competences for Europe” (Bern, 1996) skills and abilities to interact with media texts are attributed to the competencies associated with the growth of informatization of society, which provide readiness and need to competently and critically use modern sources of information in professional and domestic areas of activity²⁴. According to the classification of key competencies of I. A. Zymova, the goals and objectives of media literacy can be realized in the development of competencies of value and semantic orientation in the world and society, the competence of social interaction with society and communities, the competence of cognitive activity²⁵.

However, given the modern paradigm of information civilization and the role played by the media in creating an information environment, scientists consider it appropriate to consider media literacy as a separate, independent competence in the structure of professional competence of modern professionals and mark it as a key competence in the system “key – basic – special” competencies.

Highlighting media literacy as a key competence in the structure of professional competence of a modern specialist requires the definition of its structural components and content. Like any other competency, media literacy is a set of skills, abilities, value systems and attitudes. Attempts to structure the content of media literacy are presented in the works of most domestic and foreign theorists of media education. The most common version of the system of key concepts proposed by the British Film Institute

²⁴ Hutmacher W. Key (1997) Competences for Europe: Report of the Symposium (Berne, Switzerland, March 27–30, 1996). A Secondary Education for Europe Project. Council for Cultural Cooperation, Strasbourg, p. 56.

²⁵ Zimnyaya I. A. (2003) Klyuchevye kompetentsii – novaya paradigma rezultata obrazovaniya [Key competencies are a new paradigm of educational outcome]. *Higher Education Today*, no. 5, p. 34.

includes such categories as media agencies, media categories, media technology, media language, media auditors, media representation²⁶.

Approaches to the formation of media literacy, based on key concepts, have both obvious advantages (for example, allow the use of a unified set of categories when working with different types of media texts), and some disadvantages. In particular, according to E. Hart, claiming absolute neutrality in relation to the value systems preached by the media, these approaches risk creating a spiritual vacuum in the learning process²⁷.

Some researchers of media literacy suggest building its content around exclusively value, ideological or aesthetic components and focus the learning process, for example, on the study of ideological production in the media or the aesthetic component of media messages²⁸.

There are other approaches to describing the structure of media literacy in the scientific literature. For example, R. Hobbes, based on a common definition of media literacy, developed by an international group of experts, proposes to distinguish four groups of skills in its structure: the ability to access, the ability to analyze, the ability to evaluate and the ability to create media texts²⁹. All these skills, in our opinion, are indeed an integral component of media literacy, but in this case there is an unjustified narrowing of the structure of media literacy to the behavioral component. As in the above approaches, such a narrowing is illegal from the standpoint of considering media literacy as a key competence, determines the willingness of citizens to adequately interact with modern media culture.

Based on the provisions formulated in psychology on the characteristics of key competencies, which can be considered as general criteria for determining and evaluating their structure and content. Chicherina identifies four structural and substantive components of media literacy: motivational, cognitive, behavioral and value- semantic components³⁰.

²⁶ Hart A. (1997) Textual Pleasures and Moral Dilemmas: Teaching Media Literacy in England. Media Literacy in the Information Age: Current Perspectives. New Brunswick, p.199.

²⁷ Zimnyaya I.A. (2003) Klyucheveye kompetentsii – novaya paradigma rezultata obrazovaniya [Key competencies are a new paradigm of educational outcome]. *Higher Education Today*, no. 5, p. 39.

²⁸ Zettl H. (1998) Contextual Media Aesthetics as the Basis for Media Literacy. *First published in the Journal of Communication Winter*, vol. 48, no. 1, p. 81.

²⁹ Hobbs R. (1997) Expanding the Concept of Literacy. Media Literacy in the Information Age: Current Perspectives. New Brunswick; London, p. 163.

³⁰ Chicherina N. V. (2012) Media Literacy as a key competence of modern specialists: components and content. *Vestnik of Northern (Arctic) Federal University. Humanitarian and Social Sciences*, no. 1, p. 152.

1. Motivational component – readiness to demonstrate competence. The motivational component is formed, first, on the basis of personal awareness of the role and functions of modern media in society and each individual in the context of changes in social reality; secondly, on the basis of forming holistic ideas about oneself in the context of modern media culture; thirdly, on the basis of comprehension of own communicative needs and actualization of intellectual possibilities in the course of active mastering of the saved up human experience at interaction with media texts.

2. Cognitive component – knowledge of the content of competence, which includes knowledge grouped by key concepts of media literacy, that include the following concepts: process, context, media text and media representation.

3. Behavioral component – a set of skills that provide adequate interaction with media texts in a variety of standard and non-standard situations. The behavioral component of media literacy includes the following basic skill groups:

- ability to search and store information in various media sources;
- ability to analyze media text: determine the topic, subject, type, genre, target audience of media text; to establish the communicative intention of the author and the meaningful dominance of the media text; identify the main functions of media text; highlight the main thing, analyze the explicit and implicit content; determine the structural organization of the narrative; analyze verbal, audial, visual, graphic, multimedia ways of conveying meaning and content; identify and analyze socio-cultural concepts that are relevant in the media text; identify intertextual connections; determine the presence or absence of stereotypical representations; determine the means of influencing the audience; explore the social, historical, political, economic and cultural contexts of media text creation and perception;

- ability to critically evaluate the content of the media text: to interpret the content of the media text through the prism of personal experience, based on already formed values, attitudes, worldview, acquired knowledge; based on the analysis of social and cultural contexts to make assumptions about possible consequences, further events or logical conclusion of the represented situation;

- the ability of creative reproductive and productive recoding of information when creating a new media text: correctly identify and evaluate the audience or recipient of media messages; effectively and creatively use verbal, auditory, visual, graphic, multimedia means and methods of conveying meaning and content; to build a logical chain, to attract and hold

the attention of message recipients; to build communication taking into account features of a picture of the world of the partner on communication.

4. Value-content component – the attitude to the content of competence and the object of its application, formed on the basis of basic conceptual provisions of media literacy, is a kind of code that defines the “ideological basis” of the process of forming critical autonomy of media consumers: media texts are constructs, but, in turn, they construct reality; media texts have commercial, ideological and political implications; form and content are interdependent in all media, each of which has a specific set of characteristics; recipients of media texts construct their meaning and content.

In 2011, the Dutch organization that specializes in media literacy, Mediawijzer.net, turned to experts to determine the question “What is media literacy and how it can be measured”. A project team led by the EYE Film Institute has pioneered work to make media literacy measurable and provided a launch document, *Measuring Media Literacy*. Based on their answers, a model was created to which changes will be made every year – both minor and thorough. The end result is one comprehensive model that includes ten media literacy competencies. The competency model was published on November 15, 2012.

The Dutch model identifies four main components of media competence: understanding, use, communication, and strategy.

Understanding includes three competencies: understanding the current impact of the media on society; understanding of media construction; understanding how the media paint reality.

Use includes two competencies: use of hardware, software and applications; orientation in the media environment.

Communication includes three competencies: search and information processing; content creation; use of social networks.

Strategy: thinking about your own use of the media.

Understanding, Use and Communication are ultimately only conditions for the latter group of competencies: Strategies. As the meaning of the word implies, for the most part, the “media” is always a means to achieve personal, social, professional or social goals. In today’s media society, it is almost impossible to achieve personal, social, professional or social goals without the use of media in any way.

From the point of Dutch experts’ view, to be media literate means to realize one’s own goal, based on the assessment of the possibilities (and limitations) of the media, the effective use of the media for one’s own purposes. The unique way you do this ultimately determines your digital identity.

CONCLUSIONS

It seems obvious that media literacy is a necessary condition not only to meet the information and communication needs of modern man, but also mandatory for the formation of information culture.

The above components of media literacy determine not only the structure of the formed competence, but also the content of the learning process aimed at the development of media literacy as a key competence of the individual, that ensures adequate interaction of society with modern media culture.

The formation of media competence goes far beyond the ability to use media as a technical means: knowledge about the use of media is replaced by knowledge of how to navigate in the media space, and this requires the ability to analyze problems arising from rapidly changing and extremely flexible media technologies.

In this case, media competence is seen as an element and as the end result of media education. It becomes part of the professional subculture of professionals, a condition for the socialization of the individual in modern media, a factor in human success in a changing society. At the same time, media competence acts as a means of cognition of the multicultural world; an effective means of acquiring new knowledge; way of self-presentation and realization of potential opportunities of the person. Our analysis of the literature showed that currently research interest in the problems of media competence is only growing both in Ukraine and around the world, experts in related fields of scientific knowledge are connected to the study of this issue, programs in the field of media education are developed and implemented, media educational courses are introduced, the number of dissertations increases, develops grant support for research in the field of formation and development of media competence. All the work done and the future, written in various documents, testifies to the practical significance of the problem and the role played by media competence in the modern media world.

SUMMARY

The article is devoted to the problems of formation and assessment of media literacy and media competence of the individual, which are important today for almost all areas and levels of education modernization. The presented components of media literacy determine not only the structure of the formed competence, but also the content of the learning process aimed at the development of media literacy as a key competence. This ensures adequate interaction of members of society with modern media culture.

Media competence is seen as an element and as the end result of media education. It becomes part of the professional subculture of professionals, a condition for the socialization of the individual in the modern media, a factor in human success in a changing society. The structure of media literacy as

the main competence of the modern personality is considered. It is substantiated that the level of media literacy is the main factor in the formation of modern personality. Today, media education disciplines play an important role not only in the training of future professionals in the field of media, but also in the process of carrying out any professional activity.

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Information about the author:

Kostyrko T. N.,

PhD in Social Communication,
Director of the Scientific Library,

Admiral Makarov National University of Shipbuilding,
9, Heroes of Ukraine Avenue, Mykolaiv, 54025, Ukraine

ORCID ID: orcid.org/0000-0002-4175-9975

RHETORIC OF ADVERTISING INFLUENCE

Shcherbak O. V.

INTRODUCTION

Today the scientific observation of the phenomenon of advertising influence covers many research platforms, including *sociology* (T. Bulakh, N. Furmankevich, Yu. Shmyga, L. Teodorska, O. Zimina), *psychology* (I. Agapova, D. Dontsov, O. Hordyakova, O. Lebedev, V. Zazykin), *economics* (N. Borden, F. Kotler, J.-K. Larresche, I. Vinnikova, R. Wale, T. Yakovenko), *public administration* (V. Kiriyakova, S. Khudar, Ye. Romat), *art history* (P. Huzenko, A. Vuyma, S. Zarya), *culturology* (B. Matviychuk), *design* (M. Murashko), *philosophy* (Yu. Yuvkovetska). However, in the Eastern European scientific space the leading center of research of advertising influence is a branch of linguistics. In its space the relevant studies were first made possible by the tools of *suggestive linguistics* (Ye. Anikin, I. Bohdanova, I. Cherepanova, N. Chumichova, O. Horyachev, S. Romanyuk, O. Tolkunova, V. Zirka) and *neurolinguistic programming* or *NLP* (T. Kovalevska, I. Avdeyenko, R. Khalimova, A. Kovalevska, O. Oleksyuk, Yu. Stankevich). The provisions of *pragmatic linguistics* (G. Atakyan, I. Balabanova, Yu. Bulyk, A. Chernova, I. Horodetska, K. Ivanova, H. Karimova, L. Kirichuk, M. Kramarenko, N. Krivko, A. Makedontseva, O. Makedonova, K. Maksimenko, I. Murog, I. Negovorova, O. Popova, O. Pochtar, A. Segal, D. Sknarev, A. Vornachev, F. Yan), *communicative linguistics* (O. Areshenkova, O. Hasparyan, I. Kovalchuk, N. Kondratenko, O. Sokolova, I. Shukalo), *cognitive linguistics* (T. Chernyshova, O. Olenyuk, V. Okhrimenko, V. Samarina, T. Smirnova), *psycholinguistics* (V. Buryakovska, N. Kutuza, P. Mahnin, N. Shchennikova, M. Slavinska, A. Yampolsky) and others are also relevant for solving the outlined problems. Recently advertising influence has been sporadically studied in the *linguosemiotic paradigm* (G. Baeva, Yu. Kononets, T. Krutko, N. Lysa, N. Parshuk, M. Pchelintseva). The precondition for this scientific research is the fact that “two or more meanings can be assigned to one language form and, on the other hand, one meaning... can be expressed by several language forms”¹. This property is a

¹ Issers O.S. (2011). *Rechevoye vozdeystviye* [Speech influence]. Moscow: Flint: Science (in Russian), p. 41.

primarily characteristic of the rhetorical tools. The general issues of their functioning in advertising discourse have been successfully covered in the works of foreign (M. Lee, J. Linghong, E. McQueer, D. Mick, M. Salda, J. Weizinonien) and domestic (O. Areshenkova, O. Dubenko, I. Horodetska, I. Ivanova, V. Zirka) scientists. The problem of linguistic representation of rhetorical means of commercial advertising, taking into account their influential nature, is partly investigated on the materials of Russian (H. Atakyan, O. Horyachev, Ts. Zhu), English (O. Horyachev, S. Romanyuk, D. Terkulova, Ya. Yakub), German (H. Kudlynska-Stempen, O. Leshchenko, V. Samarina) and French (N. Kruvko) contexts. However, the systematization and scientific qualification of rhetorical tools of Ukrainian commercial television advertising, involving the latest research practices of suggestive linguistics, neurolinguistic programming and linguosemiotics, has not yet taken place. It fully meets the needs of the modern scientific matrix, because of the lack of semiotic and suggestive studies.

1. Influence and its various types in advertising

Today advertising and advertising discourse are fully “relevant factual array for the study of influential phenomena”². It is confirmed by the dissertations of T. Kovalevska, V. Zirka, I. Bohdanova, I. Horodetska, A. Kovalevska, L. Ilnytska, N. Kutuza, O. Olenyuk, S. Romanyuk, A. Segal, Yu. Stankevich, Yu. Shmyga and others. However, S. Johnson was one of the first to draw attention to the ability of advertising to influence, devoting a note to this issue in the magazine “The Idler” in 1761³.

Influence is a polysemantic concept. It is often used in psychology, economics, political science, philosophy and linguistics. Taking a wider view, it means primarily “the action that a person or object or phenomenon manifests in relation to another person or object”⁴. In addition, there are narrower interpretations. H. Bal and M. Burgin claim that “the influence of object B on object A is an event in which the object B (possibly together with objects C, D and others) causes or prevents some change in object A”⁵.

² Kovalevska T. Yu. (2008). *Komunikatyvni aspekty neyrolinhvistychnoho prohramuvannya* [Communicative aspects of neurolinguistic programming]. Odesa: Astroprint (in Ukrainian), p. 232.

³ Goddard A. (1998). *The Language of Advertising*. London – New York: Routledge (in English), p. 8.

⁴ Bilodid I. K. (1980). *Slovyk ukrayinskoyi movy* [Dictionary of the Ukrainian language]. Kyiv: Naukova Dumka. V. 1, p. 751.

⁵ Ball G. A., Burgin M. S. (1994). *Analiz psikhologicheskikh vozdeystviy i yego pedagogicheskoye znachenije* [Analysis of psychological influences and its pedagogical significance]. *Psychology*, no. 4, p. 56–66, p. 57.

It means that they emphasize that the consequence of influence is necessarily a change of someone / something. L. Skibinska considers that the definition above is sufficient and adds that influence is “any behavior of one person that changes the behavior, attitudes, feelings, etc. of another person”⁶. However, these definitions are formulated in one way or another on the basis of a review of shamanic rituals of Egypt, Syria, Sumer, ritual songs, Buddhist mantras, biblical texts, Orthodox prayers. They became “the roots of human influence”⁷. Their linguistic genesis served as a forerunner for the consideration of language as the main instrument of influence (J. Dzialoshinsky, L. Murzin), thanks to which the theory of influence became “an interdisciplinary branch, a component of which is the theory of speech influence”⁸.

According to O. Selivanova, “studies of speech influence date back to ancient Greek rhetoric”⁹, which were based primarily on the rules of logic and persuasion¹⁰. J. Sternin thinks that not only rhetoric is the theoretical and methodological basis of modern understanding of speech influence, which in most cases is defined as “speech communication, taken in terms of its purposefulness, motivational conditionality, planned effectiveness”¹¹. The researcher adds business communication and advertising as a science of effective promotion of goods on the market (in its textual, linguistic component)¹². However, even in this case, the researcher gives the primary role of rhetoric and assures that “with a broad understanding of it, it includes both interpersonal and business communication”¹³. In addition, the researcher rightly notes that “advertising influence is undoubtedly mainly in the field of the science of speech influence, because it is related to the text; however, the advertising impact also provides a technical side – graphics,

⁶ Skibiltsa L. I. (2009). *Liderstvo ta styl roboty menedzhera* [Leadership and style of work of the manager]. Kyiv: Knyha (in Ukrainian), p. 9.

⁷ Kovalevska A. V. (2017). *Suhestiya ta suhestyvni teksty: vytoky i spetsyfika* [Suggestion and suggestive texts: origins and specifics]. *Odeska linhvistychna shkola: u prostorakh interpretatsiy* [Odessa Linguistic School: in the spaces of interpretations]. Odessa: PolyPrint, p. 239–247, p. 239.

⁸ Selivanova O. O. (2008). *Suchasna linhvistyka: napryamy ta problem* [Modern linguistics: directions and problems]. Poltava: Environment. Kyiv (in Ukrainian), p. 569.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 693.

¹⁰ Sternin I. A. (2015). *Osnovy rechevogo vozdeystviya* [Fundamentals of speech influence]. Moscow – Berlin: Direct Media (in Russian), p. 6.

¹¹ Issers O. S. (2011). *Rechevoye vozdeystviye* [Speech influence]. Moscow: Flint: Science (in Russian), p. 20.

¹² Sternin I. A. (2015). *Osnovy rechevogo vozdeystviya* [Fundamentals of speech influence]. Moscow – Berlin: Direct Media (in Russian), p. 4–5.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 5.

design, visual aids, etc... By these aspects, advertising goes beyond the speech influence”¹⁴. This statement became the basis for the interpretation of advertising and advertising discourse as “a complex communicative phenomenon associated not only with the generation of the advertising text, but also placed in a complex relationship with a number of extralinguistic factors – knowledge of the world, intentions, guidelines and specific goals of the creator of the discursive space and the recipient of this discourse”¹⁵ (M. Alekseeva, Ye. Anikin, N. Bilousova, S. Huzenko, T. Tarasevich, O. Tkachuk-Miroshnichenko, N. Walter). Therefore, in scientific practice the approach to the consideration of the influential potential of advertising with the operation of a broader concept – “communicative influence” has become traditional.

Communicative influence should be considered as “a complex conglomeration of emotionally charged verbal-nonverbal factors that correct the emotional (and rational) state of the individual or create a motivational basis for its programmed activities, which reduces the criticality, logic and objective assessment of perception, and also certain emotional, behavioral strategies of the personality that influence neurophysiological states are artificially modeled”¹⁶. It follows that this definition points to a few facts. Firstly, the advertising discourse with its inherent influence is not only a communicative event, but also a rhetorical act, because “emotionally charged factors” are primarily tools of rhetoric¹⁷. Secondly, the nature of communicative influence is heterogeneous (I. Cherepanova, O. Issers, V. Karasyk, A. Kiselyova, A. Kovalevska, T. Kovalevska, N. Kutuza, O. Leontiev, J. Sternin, Yu. Stankevich) with “triune mechanics”¹⁸. The first group of factors is the “psychological (psychomental) properties of person,

¹⁴ Sternin I. A. (2015). *Osnovy rechevogo vozdeystviya* [Fundamentals of speech influence]. Moscow – Berlin: Direct Media (in Russian), p. 6.

¹⁵ Alekseeva M. S. (2009). *Pretsendentnyye fenomeny v internet-reklame predpriyatiy restorannogo biznesa* [Precedent phenomena in the Internet advertising of restaurant business enterprises] : (PhD Thesis), Nizhny Tagil: Nizhny Tagil State Pedagogical University, p. 47.

¹⁶ Kovalevska A. V. (2017). *Suhestiya ta suhestyvni teksty: vytoky i spetsyfyka* [Suggestion and suggestive texts: origins and specifics]. *Odeska lnhvistychna shkola: u prostorakh interpretatsiy* [Odessa Linguistic School: in the spaces of interpretations]. Odessa: PolyPrint, p. 239–247, p. 240.

¹⁷ Zirka V. V. (2005). *Yazykovaya paradigma manipulyativnoy igry v reklame* [The language paradigm of a manipulative play in advertising] : (Doctor Thesis), Dnepropetrovsk: Dnepropetrovsk National University, p. 83.

¹⁸ Kovalevska T. Yu. (2008). *Komunikatyvni aspekty neyrolinhvistychnoho prohramuvannya* [Communicative aspects of neurolinguistic programming]. Odessa: Astroprint (in Ukrainian), p. 182.

determined by the peculiarities of deep correlative relationships at the levels of intersocial and interpersonal interactions, as well as in the segment of intrapersonal reflections”¹⁹. The second group is represented by the “neurophysiological characteristics of personality, described in the theory of interhemispheric asymmetry of the brain. Its integrative activity is provided by two systems: sensory perception system (right hemisphere psyche) and system of symbolic description of the environment in natural language elements (left hemisphere), which have a simultaneous-successive nature of mental activity”²⁰. The third group contains the factors that determine “the specificity of psychosemantic and general semiotic characteristics of situational contexts, as well as their information structure (canceling, pretending, indefinite transformations), which are most pronounced in discourses with immanent suggestibility”²¹.

Addressing the question of determining the components of communicative influence, it is advisable to focus primarily on the works of A. Baranov, V. Zazykin, O. Leontiev, J. Sternin, T. Chmut, G. Chaika, M. Lukashevich, I. Osechynska, O. Shelestyuk. The models of this phenomenon with certain differences in quantitative and semantic indicators are presented in the research of these scientists. Therefore, T. Kovalevska synthesized their views and determined 4 fundamental components of influence. These are 1) properties of the suggestor (high social status and rating, intellectual and characterological superiority); 2) characteristics of the suggestend; 3) the relationship between them, which are based on trust in the influencer, 4) the method of constructing the message, that is, the actual language level of the discourse in the projection on the specifics of its information representation²².

The typology of communicative influence is considered to be practically an undeveloped problem today²³, although much has been done to fill this lacunar segment of the research area. In particular, scientists distinguish the

¹⁹ Kovalevska T. Yu. (2014). Milton-model yak suchasna neyrolinhvistychna tekhnolohiya doslidzhennya movlennyevoho vplyvu [Milton model as a modern neurolinguistic technology for the study of speech influence]. *Odeska linhvistychna shkola: intehratsiya pidkhodiv* [Odessa Linguistic School: integration of approaches]. Odesa: Publisher Bukaev Vadym Viktorovych, p. 346–358, p. 348.

²⁰ Ibid., p. 348.

²¹ Ibid., p. 349.

²² Kovalevska T. Yu. (2014). Aktualni napryamy doslidzhennya verbalnoyi suhestiyi [Actual directions of research of verbal suggestion]. *Odeska linhvistychna shkola: u intehratsiyi pidkhodiv* [Odessa Linguistic School: integration of approaches]. Odesa: Publisher Bukaev Vadym Viktorovych, p. 323–331, p. 324.

²³ Selivanova O. O. (2008). *Suchasna linhvistyka: napryamy ta problem* [Modern linguistics: directions and problems]. Poltava: Environment. Kyiv (in Ukrainian), p. 697.

following varieties: 1) direct and indirect; 2) overt and covert (H. Sokolova)²⁴; 3) verbal and nonverbal, 4) monologue and dialogic²⁵; 5) individual and group, 6) adequate and inadequate, 7) contact and distant; 8) suggestion and self-suggestion²⁶; 9) proof, persuasion, suggestion, order, request, coercion (J. Sternin)²⁷; 10) social, influence through artistic images, information, proof, argumentation, introduction, simulated dialogue, persuasion, appeal, command, coercion, evaluation, emotional influence, mental programming (L. Fedorova, O. Shelestyuk)²⁸; 11) safe (information, persuasion and dialogue); relatively safe (managing the communicative situation, the use of provocative statements and actions, the use of fictitious figures and other forms of mimicry, social responsibility technology); dangerous (misinformation technologies, pseudo-technological technologies, psychological manipulation, psychological violence); highly dangerous (technologies of social induction, suggestive technologies and NLP) (J. Dzialoshynsky)²⁹; 12) infection, wilting, persuasion (B. Parigin); 13) informing, instructing, stimulating (V. Olshansky); 14) persuasion, self-promotion, suggestion, infection, awakening of the impulse of imitation, formation of attachment, request, coercion, destructive criticism, manipulation (E. Sidorenko); 15) suggestion, request, persuasion, bribery, threat, order (P. Melnyk)³⁰ etc.

T. Kovalevska notes that the commercial advertising, which is the object of our study, “is based on suggestive mechanisms. They focus on the right hemisphere, influence the guidelines of the individual and community and

²⁴ Sokolova G. (2014). Vidy rechevogo vozdeystviya na kommunikanta [Types of speech impact on the communicant]. *The word in the context of time*. T. 1. Minsk: Belarusian State University, p. 388–392.

²⁵ Navasartyan L. G. (2017). *Yazykovyye sredstva i rechevyie priyemy manipulyatsii informatsiyey v SMI (na materiale rossiyskikh gazet)* [Language tools and speech techniques for manipulating information in the media (based on Russian newspapers)] : (PhD Thesis), Saratov: Saratov State University, p. 11–13.

²⁶ Ibid., p. 142–143.

²⁷ Sternin I. A. (2015). *Osnovy rechevogo vozdeystviya* [Fundamentals of speech influence]. Moscow – Berlin: Direct Media (in Russian), p. 81–83.

²⁸ Tolkunova E. G. (1998). *Semanticheskoye opisaniye sovremennykh russkikh reklamnykh tekstov (suggestologicheskyy aspekt)* [The semantic description of modern Russian advertising texts (suggestological aspect)] : (PhD Thesis), Barnaul: Barnaul State University, p. 58–59.

²⁹ Dzyaloshinsky I. M. (2012). *Kommunikativnoye vozdeystviye: misheni, strategii, tekhnologii* [Communicative impact: targets, strategies, technologies]. M. : HSE (in Russian), p. 79.

³⁰ Kuzmin O., Kolinko N. (2013). Metody vplyvu yak efektyvnyy instrument kerivnoyi innovatsynoyi [Methods of influence as an effective tool of leading innovative activity] *Visnyk of Ternopil National University of Economics*, vol. 2, p. 71–80.

accordingly reduce the logical element of perception, causing holistic-intuitive decoding of messages”³¹. Therefore, we have reason to say that the Ukrainian commercial television advertising also has a suggestive orientation, and therefore, among all the variety of types of communicative influence of further concretization needs the concept of suggestion.

Suggestion is “the process of influencing the mental sphere of person, associated with a decrease in criticality in the perception and implementation of the suggested content”³². This is confirmed by the analytical conclusions of scientists (V. Zazykin, V. Zirka, A. Kovalevska, L. Navasartyan, Yu. Stankevich, V. Stepanov, O. Tolkunova). This type of influence also “ensures the launch of subconscious programs, through which the human psyche and / or physiology must obey, finding in the external environment ways to perform the suggested tasks”³³.

According to their suggestive effect, advertising texts are not identical, because “different people have different degrees of suggestion, level of susceptibility to suggestion, subjective readiness to feel the suggested influence and succumb to it”³⁴. V. Zazykin notes that the implementation of the suggestive influence on the recipient of advertising contribute to both personal (insecurity, anxiety, timidity, low self-esteem, feelings of inferiority, increased emotionality, vulnerability, weakness of logical analysis) and situational (mental) states (calm, relaxation, stress, fatigue, disease), low level of awareness, high significance of the product / service, uncertainty, lack of time) factors³⁵. The main task of suggestive influence in advertising, as stated by O. Tolkunova, is to create images of the product and the addressee with a plus factor, as well as the use of stereotypical ideas in a new context³⁶. Achieving these goals is possible primarily due to the specificity and imagery of the keywords of the advertising text, the specificity and imagery of the advertised product, the absence of “no” in the

³¹ Kovalevska T. Yu. (2008). *Komunikatyvni aspekty neyrolinhvistychnoho prohramuvannya* [Communicative aspects of neurolinguistic programming]. Odesa: Astroprint. (in Ukrainian), p. 210.

³² Petryk B. M. (2011). *Suhestyvni tekhnolohiyi manipulyatyvnoho vplyvu* [Suggestive technologies of manipulative influence]. Kyiv: CJSC “VIPOL” (in Ukrainian), p. 43.

³³ Shelestyuk E. V. (2014). *Rechevoye vozdeystviye: ontologiya i metodologiya issledovaniya* [Speech influence: ontology and research methodology]. Moscow: FLINT: Nauka (in Russian), p. 51–52.

³⁴ Zazykin V. G. (1992). *Psikhologiya v reklame* [Psychology in advertising]. Moscow: DataStrom (in Russian), p. 25.

³⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 25–26.

³⁶ Tolkunova E. G. (1998). *Semanticheskoye opisaniye sovremennykh russkikh reklamnykh tekstov (suggestologicheskiy aspekt)* [The semantic description of modern Russian advertising texts (suggestological aspect)]: (PhD Thesis), Barnaul: Barnaul State University, p. 34–35.

advertising text, speech and nonverbal dynamics of advertising, the use of certain sounds³⁷, etc. We add that suggestive mechanisms of influence in advertising “under certain conditions can become manipulative”³⁸. However, they in no way eliminate its suggestive core.

Consider this on the example of such linguosemiotic components of advertising as rhetorical codes.

2. Rhetorical codes of advertising: semiotic polymanism

The concept of “rhetorical code” in the terminological apparatus of linguosemiotics has a broad and narrow interpretation. In a broad sense it is defined by U. Eco and interprets it as “established stylistic figures and formulas”³⁹. This definition actually represents the identification of the rhetorical code with the stylistic figure and the path, which diffuses the semantic amplitude of the term. R. Bart gives a narrow understanding of the rhetorical code and considers it as “a field of associations caused by certain rhetorical figures”⁴⁰. Such a comprehensive approach is generally supported in the works of V. Stepanov. But the researcher’s definition has a purely pragmatic orientation, because, in his opinion, the rhetorical code consists of two subcodes – emotionally expressive means (traditional tropes and figures of speech) and speech genres⁴¹.

According to our observations, rhetorical figures are almost always indicators of the genre, because this concept is broader than the concept of stylistic figure or trope. This thesis, in the end, resonates with the position of A. Singaivska and S. Topachevsky, who believe that “the division of texts by genre is carried out taking into account the compositional and stylistic features”⁴², but “for the differentiation of genres can be important only one

³⁷ Zazykin V. G. (1992). *Psikhologiya v reklame* [Psychology in advertising]. Moscow: DataStrom (in Russian), p. 27.

³⁸ Stankevich Yu. V. (2011). *Movni suhestoheny v tekstakh politychnoyi reklamy* [Lingual suggestion categories in the political advertising texts] : (PhD Thesis), Odesa: Odesa I. I. Mechnikov National University, p. 8.

³⁹ Khlebnikova O. V. (2006). Semioticheskiye kody v filosofskom tekste [Semiotic codes in a philosophical text]. *Bulletin of the Omsk State Pedagogical University* (electronic journal), vol. 1, no. 13 Retrieved from: <http://www.omsk.edu/article/vesnik-omgpu-11.pdf> (accessed 3 May 2020).

⁴⁰ Ibid.

⁴¹ Stepanov V. N. (2012). Semioticheskiye kody v reklamnom tekste [Semiotic codes in the advertising text]. *Culture* (electronic journal), vol. 13, no. 2. Retrieved from: www.culturalnet.ru/main/getfile/1813 (accessed 5 May 2020).

⁴² Singaivska A. V. (2009). Problema reklamnykh zhanriv u konteksti normatyvno-tekstual'noyi etyketyzatsiyi reklamnoho diskursu [The problem of advertising genres in the context of normative-textual labeling of advertising discourse]. *Language and Culture*, vol. 126, p. 32–42.

of the selected features”⁴³. It is clear that the stylistic criterion is of particular relevance for determining the genre status of the advertising text by analyzing the rhetorical codes in it. To this end, we will rely on the conception of I. Imshynetska, in which the genre status of advertising text is determined by the goals of marketing activities, which can be sale and image⁴⁴. We will also add that the genre of advertising text will be qualified as a subcode of rhetorical code, and tropes and figures will consider their markers. After identifying the subcodes of rhetorical codes and their markers, we will determine the semiotic status of the latter based on Pierce’s classification, where the leading role is played by the copy signs, index signs and symbol signs⁴⁵. According to this classification the copy signs “indicates the object that it denotes”⁴⁶, the index sign “refers to the object it denotes, based on the fact that it is really affected by this object”⁴⁷, and the symbol signs “refers to the object designated by it by law – usually, associations of general ideas..., to force us to interpret the symbol as a reference to this object”⁴⁸.

Thus, according to our observations, rhetorical codes have two subcodes:

1) **subcode of sale advertising texts** aimed at “stimulating the activity of buyers”⁴⁹ It is represented by stylistic means that function in the language system of the texts themselves (excluding advertising slogans as their components), such as (in descending order):

- metaphor (over 380 cases): *There are moments of pleasure, and there are moments of **paradisaal pleasure*** (chocolate “Baunty”);
- repetition of words, phrases and sentences (over 345 cases): *“Tide” with amplifier of purity and **brightness** gives **brightness** to both white and colored things* (washing powder “Tide”);

⁴³ Singaivska A. V. (2009). Problema reklamnykh zhanriv u konteksti normativno-tekstual'noyi etyketyzatsiyi reklamnoho dyskursu [The problem of advertising genres in the context of normative-textual labeling of advertising discourse]. *Language and Culture*, vol. 126, p. 32–42.

⁴⁴ Imshynetska I. A. (2007). *Rechevoy stil' kommercheskoy reklamy v yeye zhanrovyykh raznovidnostyakh* [The speech style of commercial advertising in its genre variations] : (PhD Thesis), Perm: Perm State University, p. 9.

⁴⁵ Selivanova O. O. (2008). *Suchasna linhvistyka: napryamy ta problem* [Modern linguistics: directions and problems]. Poltava: Environment. Kyiv (in Ukrainian), p. 124.

⁴⁶ Pierce Ch. S. (2000). *Selected philosophical works*. Moscow: Logos (in English), p. 185.

⁴⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 186.

⁴⁸ *Ibid.*

⁴⁹ Imshynetska I. A. (2007). *Rechevoy stil' kommercheskoy reklamy v yeye zhanrovyykh raznovidnostyakh* [The speech style of commercial advertising in its genre variations] : (PhD Thesis), Perm: Perm State University, p. 14.

– dubitation or “questions to the imaginary interlocutor, which serve to pose the problem and justify the form of reflection”⁵⁰ (over 200 cases): *Have you already experienced the first symptoms of allergies? Itching, tearing, red eyes, runny nose and nasal congestion, continuous sneezing? Do allergies affect your health and your life? “Edema”* (drug “Edem”);

– epithet (more than 190 cases): *For each of them many surprises, unexpected impressions, delicious moments and incredible summer meetings* (ketchup “Torchin”);

– comparison (more than 70 cases): *Ice cream “Hercules” is better than eggs, better than duck* (ice cream “Hercules”);

– hyperbole (over 65 cases): *I have a superpower steam shock* (iron “Tefal Anti Calc”);

– rhyme (over 45 cases);

– personification (more than 15 cases): *Black Friday has already arrived in Eldorado* (shop “Eldorado”).

The most common markers of this subcode are tropes (metaphors, epithets, comparisons, hyperboles, personifications). We include them in the category of symbol signs, because “their figurative means are incomprehensible”⁵¹. O. Brazgovska classifies metaphors as copy signs due to the presence in their structure of “two referents, between which similarity relations are established on a certain basis”⁵². We insist on the iconic-symbolic expression of metaphors, because in their tectonics there are so-called nonspecific nouns, “the semantic originality of which lies in the internal uncertainty of a set of reference and situational features of the context”⁵³. They denote abstract concepts. Markers, expressed by stylistic figures, we interpret as index signs. In some cases, they are instructions,

⁵⁰ Bernadskaya Yu. S. (2008). *Tekst v reklame* [Text in advertising]. Moscow: UNITY-DANA (in Russian), p. 101.

⁵¹ Meshcheryakova N. V. (2012). *Stilisticheskiye i pragmalingvisticheskiye osobennosti reklamnykh tekstov sotsialnoy napravlenosti (na materiale tekstov sotsialnoy reklamy na russkom i nemetskom yazykakh)* [Stylistic and pragmalinguistic features of social advertising texts (based on social Russian and German advertising texts)]: (PhD Thesis), Moscow: Moscow State M. V. Lomonosov University, p. 13.

⁵² Sokolova G. (2014). *Vidy rechevogo vozdeystviya na kommunikanta* [Types of speech impact on the communicant]. *The word in the context of time*. T. 1. Minsk: Belarusian State University, p. 388–392.

⁵³ Kovalevska T. Yu. (2008). *Komunikatyvni aspekty neyrolingvistichnoho prohramuvannya* [Communicative aspects of neurolinguistic programming]. Odesa: Astroprint. (in Ukrainian), p. 153.

because “strengthen certain parts of the statement”⁵⁴ (repetitions), in others they represent the relationship between the lexical components of the advertising text (dubitation and rhyme);

2) **subcode of image advertising texts** “fix in the minds of a wide range of people a positive image of the product or company... and usually have the form of a slogan”⁵⁵. It has the following rhetorical means (in descending order):

- metaphor (over 130 cases): *Touch of softness* (trimmer “Veet Sensitive Precision”);
- epithet (over 70 cases): *The perfect combination of juice and tea flavors* (tea “Lipton”);
- hyperbole (more than 60 cases): *Together we can do everything* (bank “TasComBank”);
- comparison (over 45 cases): *“Comfy” is even steeper* (store “Comfy”);
- rhyme (more than 25 cases);
- play-on-words (over 20 cases): *Phenomenally! No, mephenomenally!* (drug “Mefenaminka”);
- antithesis (more than 10 cases): *One sauce – many recipes* (sauce “Novaro”).

It should be noted that in this subcode metaphors, epithets, hyperboles, comparisons, and rhymes have the same semiotic properties as the corresponding markers modeled in the previous subcode (see above). This is primarily due to their identical stylistic status. Antitheses, which are characteristic only for the subcode of image advertising texts, are index signs, because they are situational. They form the “stylistic basis of graduality”⁵⁶ by contrasting the two phenomena, but out of context, each component of antonymous pairs loses such a semiotic rank, tending to the

⁵⁴ Terkulova D. R. (2004). *Lingvostilisticheskiye i kommunikativno-pragmaticheskiye osobennosti angliyskogo reklamnogo teksta (na materiale tekstov reklamy delovyykh uslug)* [Linguostylistic, communicative and pragmatic features of the English advertising text (based on texts of advertising business services)] : (PhD Thesis), Moscow: Moscow State Pedagogical University, p. 136.

⁵⁵ Imshinetskaya I. A. (2007). *Rechevoy stil' kommercheskoy reklamy v yeye zhanrovyykh raznovidnostyakh* [The speech style of commercial advertising in its genre variations] : (PhD Thesis), Perm: Perm State University, p. 10.

⁵⁶ Terkulova D. R. (2004). *Lingvostilisticheskiye i kommunikativno-pragmaticheskiye osobennosti angliyskogo reklamnogo teksta (na materiale tekstov reklamy delovyykh uslug)* [Linguostylistic, communicative and pragmatic features of the English advertising text (based on texts of advertising business services)] : (PhD Thesis), Moscow: Moscow State Pedagogical University, p. 136.

paradigm of symbols. The play-on-words is in the form of symbol signs, because the play-on-words is “the process of creating new, virtual worlds with the help of language: by saying something, a person creates a special world that does not exist in reality”⁵⁷. This operation is carried out arbitrarily, therefore the symbol signs have a high degree of arbitrary communication with the referent.

Thus, in both subcodes there are common markers, expressed primarily by metaphors, epithets, comparisons, rhymes and hyperboles, which have, however, different semiotic status. In turn, repetitions, dubitations and personifications are recorded only within the subcode of sales advertising texts, and the play-on-words and antitheses express the rhetoric of the subcode of image advertising texts.

3. Vectors of rhetorical codes’ influence in advertising

To identify and describe the vectors of influence of rhetorical codes in advertising, we will take into account the relationship of suggestion with the mental functions of the human brain. These are the functions related to the control of attention (object for the suggerend are the words of the suggestor, his image, hypnogenic objects of concentration (audiovisual, tactile)); control of emotions (suggestor “infects” the suggerend or tries to cause the latter polar sensations and feelings); control of memory (the suggerend recalls various acts of previously experienced states or records in the mind or subconscious new suggested information)⁵⁸. We believe that taking into account the above data will provide a holistic view of the dynamics of the rhetorical codes as sensitizers of influential effects in advertising texts. We will also rely in part on the neurolinguistic Milton-model. According to T. Kovalevska, it is relevant precisely “for the identification of suggestive properties of language”⁵⁹. Its influential mechanism “is based on the provisions of N. Khomsky’s transformational grammar about the discrepancy between the deep structures of the message and their superficial

⁵⁷ Terkulova D. R. (2004). *Lingvostilisticheskiye i kommunikativno-pragmaticheskiye osobennosti angliyskogo reklamnogo teksta (na materiale tekstov reklamy delovykh uslug)* [Linguostylistic, communicative and pragmatic features of the English advertising text (based on texts of advertising business services)] : (PhD Thesis), Moscow: Moscow State Pedagogical University, p. 128.

⁵⁸ Goncharov G. (2017). *Suggestiya: teoriya i praktika. Velikaya sila gipnoza* [Suggestion: theory and practice. The Great Power of Hypnosis]. Moscow: Publishing Solutions (in Russian), p. 46–47.

⁵⁹ Kovalevska T. Yu. (2008). *Komunikatyvni aspekty neyrolinhvistychnoho prohramuvannya* [Communicative aspects of neurolinguistic programming]. Odesa: Astroprint. (in Ukrainian), p. 193.

representations realized in speech, reflecting the processes of deletion, generalization and distortion of information described in NLP⁶⁰. The processes of deletion and generalization include universal quantifiers, modal operators of possibility / necessity, comparators of meaning, judgment, spectrum of nonspecific vocabulary, nominalization, and the processes of distortion include speech signatures⁶¹.

We present the results of this study:

1) in the **subcode of sale advertising texts**:

Metaphors often activate the NLP-process of deletion, because in their structure there are “nomenclature with a generalized reference index”⁶². We have in mind the non-specific nouns and nominalizations. Nonspecific nouns are the “semantically insufficient words in absolute usage”⁶³ (*Discover all **shades of taste** of the perfect Nescafe coffee*). Nominalizations are the “verb nouns, the using of which leads to a reduction of dynamics in verb semantics, resulting in significant semantic uncertainty of messages”⁶⁴ (for example, “*Morshinskaya*” from the reserved *Morshinska sources daily gives a natural **renewal*** (mineral water “Morshinskaya”), where the selected nomen is used in its figurative sense. This same process, which provides semantic diffusion, but is already focused on “not on its neurological expansion, but on the darkening reduction of the comparison subject”⁶⁵, update the comparison. For example: *We change our look to be **better** for you* (beer “Chernihiv”). In this context adjectives of the highest degree of

⁶⁰ Stankevich Yu. V. (2011). *Movni suhestoheny v tekstakh politychnoyi reklamy* [Lingual suggestion categories in the political advertising texts] : (PhD Thesis), Odesa: Odesa I. I. Mechnikov National University, p. 7.

⁶¹ Kovalevska T. Yu. (2014). Milton-model yak suchasna neyrolinhvistychna tekhnolohiya doslidzhennya movlennyevoho vplyvu [Milton model as a modern neurolinguistic technology for the study of speech influence]. *Odeska lnhvistychna shkola: intehratsiya pidkhodiv* [Odessa Linguistic School: integration of approaches]. Odesa: Publisher BukaeV Vadym Viktorovych, p. 346–358, p. 349.

⁶² Kovalevska T. Yu. (2008). *Komunikatyvni aspekty neyrolinhvistychnoho prohramuvannya* [Communicative aspects of neurolinguistic programming]. Odesa: Astroprint. (in Ukrainian), p. 223.

⁶³ Avdeenko I. A. (2001). *Suggestivnyye svoystva verbalnykh sostavlyayushchikh reklamnogo teksta* [Suggestive properties of the verbal components of the advertising text] : (PhD Thesis), Komsomolsk-na-Amur: Komsomolsk-na-Amur State Pedagogical University, p. 35.

⁶⁴ Stankevich Yu. V. (2011). *Movni suhestoheny v tekstakh politychnoyi reklamy* [Lingual suggestion categories in the political advertising texts] : (PhD Thesis), Odesa: Odesa I. I. Mechnikov National University, p. 7.

⁶⁵ Kovalevska T. Yu. (2008). *Komunikatyvni aspekty neyrolinhvistychnoho prohramuvannya* [Communicative aspects of neurolinguistic programming]. Odesa: Astroprint. (in Ukrainian), p. 223.

comparison “provide either a complement (better than something), or a comparative contract predicative unit”⁶⁶. We will add that their absence does not reduce their function of intensification of the advertising message. They maximize it.

Due to repetitions and rhymes “the automatism of perception of the message from the point of view of normal (entropic) distribution of phonological units and combinations, tokens, syntactic constructions is broken”⁶⁷. Thus, with the help of repetitions (*Wherever you go, **your** landscapes, **your** dances, **your** music are everywhere* (beer “Baltika 7”)) not only provides an increase in the memorability of the advertising message, but also achieves the effect of so-called the indirect suggestion. There is a deliberate duplication of the same information. Therefore the influence is no longer on the conscious, but on the subconscious component of the human psyche. In turn, rhyme is used to enhance the memorability of advertising text or its individual fragment, as well as to ensure the association and recognition of advertising among a variety of similar products.

Dubitation (*Does your throat hurt? Do you feel constant discomfort? Try “Lizak”!* (drug “Lizak”)) is correlated with such a technique of the NLP-process of distortion, as reading thoughts. It is “a class of semantically incorrect surface structures, connected, first, with the speaker’s conviction of what another person may know, think or feel, without having direct messages about it from this person, secondly, with the speaker’s confidence that the other person knows what the speaker is thinking or feeling”⁶⁸. These rhetorical techniques, according to Yu. Stankevich, “create the illusion of suggestor’s awareness of the inner experiences, thoughts, feelings, intentions of the suggestend”⁶⁹. However, we also emphasize their perception as hidden imperatives, because the relevant means are the tools of the so-called rhetorical strategy “problem – its solution”.

Hyperboles indicate the connection with the process of generalization, “in which all elements or parts of the model of an individual break away

⁶⁶ Avdeenko I. A. (2001). *Suggestivnyye svoystva verbalnykh sostavlyayushchikh reklamnogo teksta* [Suggestive properties of the verbal components of the advertising text]: (PhD Thesis), Komsomolsk-na-Amur: Komsomolsk-na-Amur State Pedagogical University, p. 36.

⁶⁷ Ibid., p. 91.

⁶⁸ Kovalevska A. V. (2011). *Metamodel linhvistychnoyi suhestyvnosti politychnykh reklamnykh slohaniv* [Metamodel of political advertisement slogans’ linguistic suggestion]: (PhD Thesis), Odesa: Odesa I. I. Mechnikov National University, p. 73.

⁶⁹ Stankevich Yu. V. (2011). *Movni suhestoheny v tekstakh politychnoyi reklamy* [Lingual suggestion categories in the political advertising texts]: (PhD Thesis), Odesa: Odesa I. I. Mechnikov National University, p. 8.

from the original experience, which gave rise to these models, and begin to represent the whole category for which this experience is only a single case”⁷⁰. First of all, we have in tropes in the structure of which there are universal quantifiers “lexicalized in the pronoun-adverbial paradigm and cause the destruction of local-temporal identification”⁷¹. For example: *In your dreams **everything is possible** with the new “Danissimo Shake & Go”* (yogurt “Danissimo Shake & Go”).

Influence of other means from this subcode, namely epithets (*Gentle bianco ice cream*, *crunchy Belgian chocolate*, *gourmet Italian cream fior de latte* (ice cream “Impreza”)) and personifications (*The whole planet holds its breath* (drink “Coca Cola”)) we explain their focus on enhancing imagery in the advertising texts. Especially personification contributes to this effect, due to it “the advertising image is perceived more vividly”⁷². For example: *A great **helper** in the kitchen is a superfunctional Phillips HD multicooker for a super price of UAH 2,499*. The advertised product (multicooker “Phillips”) in the text fragment is perceived as a person, because the primary meaning of the word *helper* is one who helps someone in something;

2) in the **subcode of image advertising texts:**

The trajectories of the influence of metaphors, epithets, hyperbole, comparisons, rhymes (their examples are in paragraph 2) coincide with the corresponding orientation of relevant markers recorded in the models of the subcode of sales advertising texts (see above). This is due to their identical rhetorical genesis and the same suggestions in the tectonics of the rhetorical figures and tropes. Because of this, only such rhetorical tools as play-on-words and antithesis need a more detailed analysis from the standpoint of suggestive linguistics and NLP in the subcode of image advertising texts.

Play-on-words is introduced into the advertising text in order to create a game effect, giving it novelty, originality, expressiveness, involvement of recipients in communication. This is confirmed in particular by the following example: *Yogurt family menu* (yogurt “Zhyvynka”), in which the rhetorical technique is mainly constructed on the basis of the reference

⁷⁰ Kovalevska T. Yu. (2008). *Komunikatyvni aspekty neyrolinhvistychnoho prohrumavannya* [Communicative aspects of neurolinguistic programming]. Odesa: Astroprint. (in Ukrainian), p. 156.

⁷¹ Kovalevska T. (2012). *Aktualni tekhnolohiyi stvorenniya suhestyvnosti v medyynykh dyskursakh* [Actual technologies of creating suggestibility in media discourses]. *Intercultural communication: problems and prospects*, vol. 1, p. 194–200, p. 197.

⁷² Livshits T. N. (1999). *Spetsyfika reklamy v pragmaticheskom i lingvisticheskom aspektakh* [Specificity of advertising in the pragmatic and linguistic aspects] : (PhD Thesis), Taganrog: Taganrog State Pedagogical Institute, p. 155.

affiliation of the advertised product / service: yogurt – yogurt (formed from the noun “yogurt” first by forming a verb without *do* or *make*, and then its forms of the imperative mood). In addition, there are cases of relevant rhetorical formations with a pragmatonymic origin: *Let be prom* (site “Prom.ua”). We see their suggestive potential in the fact that they have the ability to violate the logic of perception through a pronounced game nature and transfer meaning, because “the recipient by engaging in the game receives positive emotions”⁷³. These units have a right hemisphere orientation.

The antithesis serves as a rhetorical technique “to design the selection, emphasize the statement and the idea of the uniqueness of each specific advertising offer (promise) and each specific activity of the company”⁷⁴. For example: *Less doubt – more pleasure* (drug “Eroton”). Therefore, the antonymous pairs of words in the slogans have “high persuasive potential, as they are associated with the representation of the advertised object as changing the world, demonstrating the situation before and after and proof through comparison”⁷⁵. We also insist on the ability of the antithesis to accelerate the mnemonic fixation of information in the minds of advertising recipients, because, as the results of research by I. Cherepanova show, “the less similarity between the meanings of comparable words, the easier it is to blur their boundaries”⁷⁶, primarily semantic. This causes the strengthening of suggestive effects.

Thus, rhetorical codes illustrate not only the stylistic diversity in advertising texts, but also outline their powerful suggestibility, because in both subcodes there are tools of semantic scattering, expressiveness,

⁷³ Samarina V. V. (2010). *Nimetskomovnyy reklamnyy dyskurs: prahmatychnyy, kohnityvnyy ta lnhvostylistychnyy aspekty* [German-language advertising discourse: pragmatic, cognitive and linguistic-stylistic aspects] : (PhD Thesis), Kharkov: Kharkov National M. Kazarin University, p. 12.

⁷⁴ Terkulova D. R. (2004). *Lingvostilisticheskiye i kommunikativno-pragmaticheskiye osobennosti angliyskogo reklamnogo teksta (na materiale tekstov reklamy delovykh uslug)* [Linguostylistic, communicative and pragmatic features of the English advertising text (based on texts of advertising business services)] : (PhD Thesis), Moscow: Moscow State Pedagogical University, p. 120.

⁷⁵ Semenyuk T. P. (2017). *Kohnityvno-semantychni ta prahmatychni osoblyvosti nimetskomovnykh polikodovykh tekstiv (na materiali komertsiynoyi reklamy)* [Cognitive, semantic and pragmatic peculiarities of German polycode texts (based on commercial advertising)] : (PhD Thesis), Luts'k – Zaporozhzhya: Lesya Ukrainka Eastern European National University; Zaporizhzhya National University, p. 185.

⁷⁶ Cherepanova I. Yu. (1999). *Dom kolduni. Yazyk tvorcheskogo bessoznatelnogo* [House of the witch. The language of creative Unconscious]. Moscow: “KSP +” (in Russian), p. 175.

multiple duplication of information, imagery, etc., which have a hemispherical orientation.

CONCLUSIONS

Many scientific objectifications of the phenomenon of influence, primarily communicative, confirm the paramount role and powerful effectiveness of methods of suggestive linguistics and neurolinguistic programming in relevant observations. At the same time, this testifies to the prospects of this aspect for linguosemiotic research. The origin and the current status of the scientific explanation of the communicative influence are also considered and a number of vague discussion views are especially indicated. Among the types of communicative influence, suggestion in the content of Ukrainian commercial television advertising is its basic mechanism, which involves blocking rational (critical) thinking during the perception of information and differs from manipulation primarily by the purpose.

We considered the rhetorical code as the linguosemiotic code, which consists of two subcode (according to V. Stepanov's classification). We first identified its markers, which are stylistic figures and tropes. Then we determine the semiotic status of the fixed markers (according to Ch. Pearce's classification). The last action is the describing of their influential (suggestive) potential.

The rhetorical code is represented by the subcode of sale advertising texts and subcode of image advertising texts in which the metaphor has the dominant positions.

It is worth noting that within the subcode of sales advertising texts all tropes are symbol sings, and rhetorical figures are index signs. But in the block of image advertising texts this trend is characteristic only for tropes, because the figures are expressed as index signs (antitheses) and symbol sings (play-on-words).

In the subcodes of rhetorical codes many markers are aimed at launching neuro-linguistic processes of deletion, distortion and generalization. The processes of deletion are provided mainly by metaphors and comparison short circuits, processes of distortion are by dubitation, and processes of generalization are by hyperboles.

SUMMARY

The article is devoted to the problem of determining the influential rhetorical codes potential in the texts of Ukrainian commercial television advertising in which they are linguosemiotic elements. The author of the article revealed the essence of such concepts as "influence", "communicative

influence”, “rhetorical code”. The mechanism of suggestive influence is described in detail, because suggestion is relevant for commercial advertising.

The author determined that the rhetoric of advertising is determined by two subcodes that have similar and different markers (stylistic figures and tropes). These markers have different semiotic status, but mostly symbolic.

The author described the influential vectors of the most relevant rhetorical advertising codes and drew attention to the fact that their influence is associated with the generation of NLP processes.

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Information about the author:

Shcherbak O. V.,

PhD in Philology, Senior Lecturer,

Department of Applied Linguistics,

Admiral Makarov National University of Shipbuilding

9, Heroes of Ukraine Avenue, Mykolaiv, 54025, Ukraine

ORCID: orcid.org/0000-0003-3097-7878

CROSSCULTURAL COMMUNICATION IN ENGLISH-SPEAKING COMMUNITIES: SPEECH ACTS OF COMPLIMENTING

Solodka A. K., Luis Perea

INTRODUCTION

Speech acts take an important role in communication. Austin defines speech acts as the minimal unit of communication. Austin divides speech acts into locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts¹.

One of the most interesting acts to study is complimenting. Herbert studies speech acts such as compliments and compliment responses because there is not an agreement or a common pattern on what is the correct way of complimenting and responding to a compliment, even within the same speech community. Holmes claims that a compliment is: “a speech act which attributes credit to someone other than the speaker, usually the person addressed for some ‘good’ possession, characteristic, skill etc.”²

At the same time, communication in foreign language sometimes is strictly technical by using grammar, syntax, morphology, phonetics, phonology. It omits a very important cultural part of languages. Such a lacking part is the speech acts and the appropriate pragmatic knowledge to really obtain good crosscultural communication.

People who only know the technical part of the language may not understand a large percentage of a conversation or how speech acts work. All this implies knowing how to communicate in social contexts appropriately. Communicators need what Canale & Swain explain as sociolinguistic competence which is the component made up of two sets of rules: “sociocultural rules of use and rules of discourse”, and strategic competence which is the “component that consists of verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence”³.

¹ Austin J. L. (1975) *How to Do Things with Words*, Second Edition, Oxford: Oxford University Press, p. 24.

² Holmes J. (1988) Paying compliments: A sex preferential positive politeness strategy. *Journal of Pragmatics*, no. 12 (3), p. 446.

³ Canale M. & Swain M. (1980) Theoretical bases of communicative approach to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, no. 1, p. 29.

All this together forms what is called communicative competence; which enables the speaker to produce and to understand and infinite set of sentences appropriately and accurately. Communicative competence includes pragmatic competence. Pragmatics analyzes and studies the conversation and the speech acts, in a general way, the functions of the linguistic sentences and their characteristics in the communication processes are also studied (Van Dijk).

Pragmatic competence is learnt by individuals when they obtain their first language. Pragmatic competence is defined by Thomas and Nordquist, as the ability to use language successfully in order to achieve a specific purpose and to understand language in context; Thomas also states that “pragmatic competence in these situations is very important because without it, speakers would have pragmatic failure”⁴. Pragmatic failure is when the utterance has totally failed to achieve the speaker’s goal; it is also defined as the language learners’ inability to understand what is meant by what is said (Nordquist).

The aim of this research is to define the ways of complimenting in Ukrainian, Russian and American English to avoid misunderstandings and pragmatic failure. To achieve this goal, the following tasks were set out: to compare American, Ukrainian and English compliments in order to know the patterns being used by the speakers, as well as to find what are the similarities and differences in: (compliment frequency; attributes praised; role relationship between the speakers; gender of the speakers; tone used and compliment form that includes: number of words, adjectives and verbs used in the compliments).

1. Theoretical background of the research

Pragmatics and pragmatic competence

As it was mentioned before, second language learners besides having the grammatical knowledge; they need the knowledge of the appropriate use of language in a context and the sociolinguistic rules of a speech community, all this is concerned with the study of Pragmatics. Additionally, if a second language speaker wants to understand an utterance in the target language, he/she needs pragmatic competence that is the knowledge needed to determine what sentences mean when they are spoken in a certain way and context (Fraser).

Pragmatics is the study of linguistic interaction between people (Wierzbicka). Pragmatics analyzes the conversation and the speech acts (Nordquist). In a general way, it studies “the functions of the linguistic

⁴ Thomas J. (1983) Cross-cultural pragmatic failure. *Applied Linguistics*, no. 4, p. 91.

sentences and their characteristics in the communication processes as well as the language use in a context and in particular situations”⁵.

Fraser explains pragmatic competence as “the knowledge to determine the meaning of any sentence depending on when it is spoken, the way and the specific context”⁶. Also, any time a speaker uses the language in a social context, he/she is performing one or more speech acts such as: requesting, complimenting, declaring, apologizing, criticizing, etc. So when they are expressing such speech acts, they are showing their pragmatic competence (Fraser; Kasper).

According to Bialystok, pragmatic competence is “the ability to use and interpret language in contexts”⁷. Bialystok also mentions the speaker’s ability to use language for different purposes and the listener’s ability to understand the real intention of the speaker.

Thomas postulates that “it is the ability to use language successfully in order to achieve a specific purpose and to understand language in context”⁸. Thomas also concerns that pragmatic competence in these situations is very important because without this, speakers would have pragmatic failure. Consequently, the results are misunderstanding, communication breakdowns, frustration etc. (Beebe, Takahashi & Uliss-Weltz; Nguyen, Pham, & Pham; Farshi, & Baghbani; Loiseau, Hallal, Ballot, & Gazidedja).

Thomas states that pragmatic patterns are important to be able to use the appropriate utterances in a context, in addition if a hearer wants to understand and interpret what the speaker intended through his utterance, such a hearer must take into account both “contextual and linguistic cues”⁹. According to Thomas, there are “2 kinds of pragmatic failure: *pragmalinguistic failure* that occurs when speech acts are inappropriately transferred from L1 to L2 and *sociopragmatic failure* which refers to the social conditions placed on language in use, it also covers patterns such as social distance, gender and intimacy of relationship”¹⁰.

All the situations which cause misunderstandings, are transferring the inappropriate form of language from L1 to L2 (Wolfson; Solak & Bayar). That is the reason why speech acts, speech events and pragmatic competence

⁵ Van Dijk T. (1985) *Handbook of Discourse Analysis*, London: Academic Press, p.81.

⁶ Fraser B. (1990) Perspectives on Politeness. *Journal of Pragmatics*, no. 14, p. 221.

⁷ Bialystok E. (1993) Symbolic representation and attentional control in pragmatic competence. In Kasper, G., & Blum-Kulka, S. (Eds.). *Interlanguage Pragmatics* (p. 43–57). Oxford: Oxford University Press, p. 44.

⁸ Thomas J. (1983) Cross-cultural pragmatic failure. *Applied Linguistics*, no. 4, p. 92.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 98.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 99.

are important to understand the reasons which provoke pragmatic failure (Shi). And it is helpful to conduct cross-cultural research to investigate student's L1 strategies (Rajabi & Farahian; Halenko & Jones; Allami & Naeimi). Finally, pragmatic competence plays an important role in the acquisition of a language because speakers avoid pragmatic failure and it helps to understand the meaning and purpose of the utterance in any context.

Compliments

The speech act of complimenting in this study was selected because Ukrainian and Russian L2 learners of English get confused when they try to make or understand a compliment in a different way than native speakers do. In addition, it is essential to mention the fact that sometimes some of those expressions in both languages are part of the personal or regional way of expressing in those places; all this leads to the slang in the USA. (Nelligan).

Aceves in her study of compliments, states that the study of the compliment speech act contributes "valuable information that concerns when and how and to whom, one may offer a compliment as well as how to interpret implicit social and cultural meanings; and how to respond appropriately when one receives a compliment. Compliment as a general term means giving praise, credit, eulogy, to a person for any possession, characteristics, skill, etc."¹¹

Chung-Hye defines a compliment as "a speech act which explicitly or implicitly attributes credit to someone other than the speaker, usually the person addressed, for 'good' (possession, characteristics, skill etc.) which is positively valued by the speaker and the hearer"¹².

Manes defines compliments as those speech acts which have the reflection and expression of cultural values because of their nature as judgments, over expressions of approval or admiration of another's work, appearance or taste.

Holmes suggests three functions of compliment exchanges. (1) That compliments are usually used as mean of expressing liking when used as positive affective speech acts. In other words, compliments allow increase solidarity between people. Example: *How nice you look today!* (2) That compliments can serve as positive politeness strategies before a face threatening act (FTA). All this means that a compliment can be used in a very stressed situation in order to obtain something; a compliment is used

¹¹ Aceves P. (1996) *A Comparative Study of the Use of "Compliments" by Native Speakers of American English and Native Speakers of Mexican Spanish*, Puebla: Universidad de las Americas, p. 21.

¹² Chung-Hye H. (1992) A comparative study of compliment responses: Korean females in Korea interactions and in English interactions. *Working Papers in Educational Linguistics*, no. 8 (2), p. 18.

before asking what you want. Example: *Doesn't your hair look wonderful! By the way, could I borrow your Spanish book?* (3) That compliments may be face threatening acts themselves as they indicate an intrusive desire on the speaker's part towards the hearer's possessions. As a consequence, the compliment will be included in the request. Example: *can I borrow your wonderful Spanish book?*¹³.

Another author who states the importance of the compliments is Bolton, and he proposes three conditions for a compliment to be performed:

1. Hearer has certain quality Q.
2. Speaker believes Q is admirable.
3. Speaker wants hearer to know/believe that speaker admires Q.

In addition, Manes claims that "the major function of the compliments is the establishment or reinforcement of solidarity between the speaker and the addressee as well as they play an important role because make possible judgments, expressions of approval or admiration of another's work"¹⁴.

Finally, Wolfson concludes that "compliments are also windows through which we can view what is valued by a particular culture"¹⁵. For instance: In the United States, Americans complement each other on personal appearance, new acquisition and work, suggesting that Americans value these attributes. In Japan, people are more apt to compliment skill and study, suggesting that Japanese people value skill and study. However, in Mexico, people is less expressive than Americans, suggesting that Americans were more expressive than Mexicans.

Wolfson and Manes note different cultural differences in complimenting and observe that Iranians and Arabic speakers tend to use proverbs and other ritualized expressions when complimenting. Al Rawashdeh Al Balqa, investigating Arabic Jordanian compliments (Mujamaleh) and politeness expressions versus their counterparts in American English, shears these ideas. Holmes & Brown state than American people like to compliment in a very frequent way.

Nelson, Al-Batal, & Echols compare Egyptian Arabic and American English compliments by using a similar methodology used by Wolfson & Manes. They find that American compliments are shorter and less complicated than Egyptian compliments. Egyptians use a lot of similes and

¹³ Holmes J. (1988) Paying compliments: A sex preferential positive politeness strategy. *Journal of Pragmatics*, no. 12 (3), p. 451.

¹⁴ Manes J. (1983) Compliments: A mirror of cultural values. In N. Wolfson and E. Judd (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and Language Acquisition* (pp. 82–95). Rowley, MA: Newbury House, p. 18.

¹⁵ Wolfson N. (1988) The bulge: a theory of speech behavior and social distance. In Fine, J. (ed) *Second Language Discourse: A Textbook of Current Research*, p. 19.

metaphors and long series of adjectives in complimenting as well as their compliments are less frequent than the American ones.

Aceves and Perea-Hernandez study on Spanish compliments using the methodology employed in Barnlund & Araki.

Nelson conducted a study of Mexican Spanish and American English compliments. The differences are related to gender. Also, American males compliment another male on appearance even more than Mexican males. Another factor is the fact that Mexican females are more frequently complimented more than American females by males. American females and males compliment acquaintances more than Mexicans. Also, intimates are complimented by Mexican females even more than intimates being complimented by American females.

2. Methods and materials of research

Method of data collection

This study is based on ethnomethodology to collect data because it will research compliments on a day to day interaction. Valdes, Holmes & Brown, Wolfson, Herbert, Herbert & Straight and others use ethnomethodology to collect their data about speech acts.

Ethnography is described by Fetterman as “the art and science of describing a group or culture”¹⁶. The ethnographer is concerned about people’s daily lives, thus, “the most important element of fieldwork is being there – to observe, to ask questions, and to write down what is seen and heard”¹⁷. The method is essentially to work with people in their natural contexts.

The present study uses a method that was adapted owing to its necessities and circumstances because two different cultures (Ukrainian and American) and three different languages (Ukrainian, Russian and American English) are compared.

Also, as these techniques and instruments have their advantages and disadvantages, they are used to collect data because they have proven effectiveness in gathering data on compliments. However, it is often argued that speech acts should be studied in their natural contexts using ethnomethodology, it is difficult for cross-cultural studies due to problems of comparability. For this reason, the present study uses a method which was developed by Barnlund & Araki (1985), also used and expanded by Nelson (1993) and to collect the compliment data.

¹⁶ Fetterman D. M. (1989) *Ethnography Step by Step*, Newbury Park, CA. Sage, p. 11.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 19.

Subjects

81 American participants (USA), 179 Ukrainian speakers of Russian (Ukraine) and 118 Ukrainian speakers (Ukraine) participated in the online survey via SurveyMonkey. The Ukrainian participants consisted of university students, professors and people from all over Ukraine including cities such as Mykolaiv, Kiev, Odessa, Lviv, Chernivtsi, etc. from middle class between ages 15–60 years old approximately.

The American participants consisted of university students, professors and people from all over the USA and some people living overseas. They were middle class between ages 16–70 years old. The universities students belong were from: Portland State University, George Fox University, University of Texas at San Antonio, University of the Incarnate Word and several cities from the USA. A small source of data collection consisted from finding compliments in the social media (Facebook), TV, Movies, etc.

Instrument

An interview is developed to collect the data. First of all, it is necessary to mention that the interview designed by other researchers in collecting compliments, was taken as reference in this study because it gave successful results. Such an interview is taken from the studies of Aceves & Nelson, and it was adapted and added more information considering the necessities and the subjects of the present study.

A. Characteristics of the interview:

- Open questions.
- English/Russian/Ukrainian version – 26 questions
- Personal information of the participants.
- Variables or aspects studied.

B. Questions of the interview:

1. Interviewed person – Do not include your real name (Please use a pseudonym that identifies your gender; e. g. Mary or John, etc.)
2. Please select your gender
3. Place of birth (state or region and city) and Age.
4. To what socio economic level do you consider yourself? (Upper level class, middle class, etc.) and where do you currently live?
5. What is the last compliment that you have given to somebody else? What were your exact words?
6. About what did you comment on?
7. What tone did you use?
8. How long ago did you say the compliment?
9. Which is your relationship with the person who received the compliment?
10. The person who received the compliment was male, female or a group of people?

11. What was the approximate age of the person who received the compliment?
12. What is the last compliment that you have received, and what were the exact words?
13. What kind of tone did the person who told you the compliment use?
14. What was the point of the person who told you the compliment?
15. When did you receive the compliment?
16. The person who told you the compliment was male or female?
17. What was the approximate age of the person who told you the compliment?
18. Which is your relationship with the person who told you the compliment?
19. What is the last compliment that you have heard someone else tell to someone else?
20. What were the exact words?
21. About what did those persons comment on?
22. What tone was used?
23. When did you last listen to the compliment?
24. Which was the relationship between those persons?
25. The person who received the compliment was male, female or a group of people?
26. The person who gave the compliment was male or female?
27. What were the approximate ages of the people who complimented each other?

Correspondence of variables to the questions of the interview was the following: compliment form – questions 5, 12, 19; attributes praised – questions 6,14,20; relationship between giver and receiver – questions 9, 18, 23; gender of the compliment giver and receiver – questions 10, 16, 22, 24, 25; frequency of compliments – questions 8, 15, 22; tone used – questions 7, 13, 21.

Data analysis

The compliments are coded sociolinguistically. First it is coded the data and established the categories, which are *data driven* (the categories are based on the data that is gathered) and based on the studies of Aceves, Nelson, Wolfson, & Manes. The categories are established according to similar patterns found in their studies.

3. Results and discussion

The analysis was made on the data that included: 445 Russian, 231 Ukrainian and 245 English compliments. Participants consisted of native speakers of English interviewed in the United States and native speakers of Russian and Ukrainian from all over Ukraine.

Average age of participants. Average age of Russian speaking participants was 25.7 years old, Ukrainian speaking participants – 26 years old, English speaking participants – 31 years old.

Compliment form

Compliment form is the language used to express the compliment. The Ukrainian, Russian and American compliments shared similarities in form, and the majority of them were short and adjectival. The following table shows the examples of compliment forms' similarities.

Table 1

Similarities of compliment forms

Russian	Ukrainian	English
<p><i>PRON+HAVE+ADJ+ N/NP</i> Example: <i>У тебя красивые глаза (You have beautiful eyes).</i></p>	<p><i>PREP+PRO + HAVE + (intensifier) ADJ + N/NP</i> Example: <i>В тебе такі хороші парфуми (You have very good perfume)</i></p> <p><i>ЯКИЙ (HOW)+HAVE+ (INTENSIFIER) ADJ+N</i> Example: <i>Який у тебе гарний парфум! (How good perfume you have)</i></p>	<p><i>PRO+HAVE+ADJ+NP</i> Example: <i>Wow, you have very white teeth.</i></p>
<p><i>PRO+ADV(intensifier)+ ADJ</i> Example: <i>Ты очень умный. (You are very clever.)</i> <i>PRO+ADJ</i> Example: <i>Ты красивая. (You are beautiful.)</i></p>	<p><i>PRO + (intensifier) + ADJ</i> Example: <i>Він дуже влучний (He is very accurate)</i></p>	<p><i>PRO+BE+ADJ+COMP LEMENT</i> Example: <i>You will be successful anywhere you go</i></p>
<p><i>PRO+LOOK+ADV</i> Example: <i>Она выглядит изумительно. (She looks gorgeous!)</i></p>	<p><i>PRO/ADV+LOOK</i> Example: <i>Класно виглядаєш (You look cool)</i></p>	<p><i>PRO/NP+LOOK+ ADJ+COMPLEMENT</i> Example: <i>You look beautiful today. Like a model!</i></p>

Table 1 (ending)

Russian	Ukrainian	English
ADJ Example: <i>Милая. (Pretty.)</i>	ADJ(+) Example: <i>Розумний (Smart)</i>	ADJ+NP Example: <i>Great job!</i>
<i>I like/love+</i> <i>(intensifier)+ your +N</i> Example: <i>Мне нравится твоя обувь.</i> <i>(I like your shoes.)</i>	<i>I LIKE (YOUR)+N</i> Example: <i>Мені дуже подобається твоя зовнішність</i> <i>(I like your appearance so much)</i>	<i>I+like/love+NP</i> Example: <i>I really like your neighborhood!</i>
PRO+ADV+V Example: <i>Ты приятно пахнешь.</i> <i>(You smell good.)</i>	PRO+ADV+V Example: <i>Ти гарно посміхаєшся.</i> <i>(You smile beautifully)</i>	PRO+VERB+ COMPLEMENT Example: <i>I wish I had your legs.</i> <i>You are all legs!</i>

During this study, the most frequent patterns identified were:

Ukrainian: PRO + (intensifier) + ADJ (28, 1%). Ukrainian compliments used this pattern and PREP+PRO + HAVE + (intensifier) ADJ + N/NP (22%): *Ти дуже непередбачувана (You are very unpredictable). У тебе дуже гарні очі (You have very beautiful eyes)*

Russian: PRO+HAVE+ADJ+N/NP (18.6%): *У тебя красивые глаза. (You have beautiful eyes.)*

American English: PRO+BE+ADJ+COMPLEMENT (26%) and PRO/NP+LOOK+ADJ+ COMPLEMENT (26%): *You're awesome. You're a 10/10, for real, you're so beautiful. You look really professional in that outfit-I love the cardigan.*

Some other patterns that resulted in a minor frequency were:

Ukrainian: You are (my) +THE MOST+ADJ+N (0,4%), NP + VERB + ADJ +COMPLEMENT (0,4%), and PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE + NP (0,4%): *Ти найкраща подруга в світі (You are the best friend in the world). Пиріг приготований просто чудово (Pie is cooked absolutely great). На тобі дуже гарні прикраси (You have very beautiful jewelry).*

Russian: N+ADV+V (1, 1%) and ADV (intensifier) + ADJ (1,5%): *Очень красивая. (Very beautiful). Платье очень хорошо скроено (The dress is cut out very well).*

American English:

NP+BE+ADJ+COMPLEMENT (1%): *The food was great! The pastor is a wonderful preacher.*

IMPERATIVE VERB+COMPLEMENT (1%): *Look at you!!! Go Luis! Great job, keep up the good work!*

IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION (1%): *Way to go. Congrats.*

QUESTION+COMPLEMENT (1%): *Can you try not to be so awesome? You are making the rest of us look bad.* INTERJECTION+NP (1%): *Bravo, my intellectual friend!*

Both types of compliments also used a limited number of syntactic patterns although the Ukrainian compliments were more varied in their syntactic form. The Ukrainian and Russian data set included compliment forms that did not occur in the American data, the Ukrainian and Russian data included one-word compliments, whereas the American data did not:

Ukrainian: ADJ (3,8%): *Розумний (Smart). Мила (Cute). N (1,7%): Красуня (Beauty). Молодець (Well done).*

Russian: ADJ (3,3%): *Красивая (Beautiful). N (2,2%): Молодец (Good job.)*

In addition, some other patterns of Ukrainian compliments were identified which are not used in Russian and American English. These expressions start with particle *Як, Який. Яка (How)*. That accounted 3,2%: *Який (how) + HAVE + (intensifier) ADJ + N (1,2%): Яка в тебе чудова сукня! (How beautiful dress you have). Яка (how) + ADJ + N (1,2%): Яка чудова погода (How great weather is). Яка (how) + ADJ/PRO + N (0,8%): Яка ти красуня (How pretty you are).*

Compliment length

The compliment length is the approximate number of words that each compliment showed in this study. These results showed a very interesting aspect that is the existence of simple and complex compliments. The simple compliments are those formed by one sentence or expression with a single compliment that denotes the flattery impact, and all together makes the meaning.

Table 2

Compliment length

Russian compliments	Ukrainian compliments	English compliments
5,9 words (445 compliments – 2025 words)	4,32 words (231 compliments – 1263 words)	5,5 words (245 compliments – 1360 words)

Examples of simple and complex compliments

<i>Simple compliments: Ты прекрасна! (You are so beautiful!)</i>	<i>Simple compliments: Дуже гарно! (Very nice!)</i>	<i>Simple compliments: Hey beautiful! Excellent report!</i>
<i>Complex compliments: Ты очень умная и красивая девушка и я хочу быть с тобой рядом каждую секунду (You are a very smart and beautiful girl and I want to be with you every second) В Ваших глазах можно кататься на яхте потому, что они как два океана (In your eyes I can sail because they are like two oceans).</i>	<i>Complex compliments: Ви дуже гарна та загадкова незнайомка, але ці квіти я купив саме для Вас (You are very beautiful and mysterious woman, but I bought these flowers for you). В тебе дуже гарна посмішка! Посміхайся частіше (You have beautiful smile! Smile more often!).</i>	<i>Complex compliments: So honored to work with such great and talented future English teachers, interpreters and philologists from Ukraine!!! Got the privilege to visit and listen to the awesome presentations from these bright kids!! I feel excited to work with them and I look forward to it!</i>

Adjectives

It is also interesting to show the results found in this study in terms of adjectives. Most of all the compliments found in three languages were adjectival. The adjectives found in the American compliments were varied. 44 different types of adjectives were identified. The most usual were, *good* (+*the best*) 19%, *great* 14, 9%, *nice* 9,2%, *beautiful* 9,2%, *awesome* 5,1%, *amazing* 3,6%, *cute* 3%, *wonderful* 2,6%, *pretty* 2,6% *handsome* 2%, *smart* 2%. These 11 adjectives accounted 76,3%.

In the study 35 different adjectives in Ukrainian compliments were identified. 10 the most frequent Ukrainian adjectives (84,9%) are: *гарний*(*pretty*) 25,2%, *розумний* (*smart*) 15, 4%, *вродливий* (*beautiful*) 10,3%, *добрий* (*good, kind*) 8,1%, *смачний* (*tasty*) 7,5%, *щирий* (*sincere*) 6%, *турботливий* (*thoughtful*) 3,5%, *хазяйновитий* (*handy*) 3,4%, *найкращий* (*best*) 3%, *веселий* (*jolly*) 2,5%.

The amount of Russian adjective is almost the same as American ones. 45 different adjectives are identified and 11 (61, 9%) of them are the most frequent in use. Among them: *красивый* (*pretty*) 31,5%, *умный* (*smart*)

5,1%, шикарный (*elegant*) 3,5%, прекрасный (*beautiful*) 3,5%, вкусный (*tasty*) 3.2%, милый (*nice*) 2.8%, хороший (*good*) 2.8%, отличный (*excellent*) 2,2, крутой / классный (*cool*) 2.2%, лучший (*best*) 1,9%, добрый (*kind*) 1,9%.

Verbs

In this study in the American compliments, the most usual (6 verbs from 10) were: *to look* (33.3%), *to like* (22.2%), *to have* (13.3), *to love* (11.1%), *to do* (11.1%). Other verbs (9%) are found in a minor frequency. In the Ukrainian compliments were found 6 verbs from 21 the most frequent in use: *насувати/ личити (to suit)* 10%, *виглядати (to look)* 26%, *мати (to have)* 10%, *подобаться (to like)* 11, 2%, *пахнути (to smell)* 8%, *робити (to do)* 14%. In the Russian compliments, 16 different verbs were found and the most usual were: *выглядеть (to look)* 31.8%, *идти/ подходит (to suit)* 13.2%, *нравится (to like)* 9.7%, *готовить (to cook)* 7.07%, *любить (to love)* 2.6%.

Adverbs

Ukrainian and Russian compliments are characterized by using of a great number of adverbs: 18 different adverbs in 171 from 231 Ukrainian compliments, 26 different adverbs in 95 from 445 Russian compliments. In comparison, 5 different adverbs in 28 from 245 English compliments were found.

Tone employed

During this study, it was identified and analyzed the tone used in the compliments. The kinds of tone were classified in: *positive* or *sincere* way and *negative* or *sarcastic* way. A 98% of the compliments were told sincerely by Americans. Females (2%) and males (2.2%) told compliments sarcastically. In the Ukrainian compliments a 97% (Russian compliments – 98%) was sincere and a 3% (Russian compliments – 2%) was sarcastic in general. Ukrainian speaking females said a 98,2% (Russian speaking females – 99.1%) of the compliments sincerely and a 1.8% (Russian speaking females – 0.8%) sarcastically, whereas Ukrainian speaking males said a 95.5% of the compliments sincerely (Russian speaking males – 96%) and a 4.5% sarcastically (Russian speaking males – 4%).

Attributes praised

First of all, it is important to mention the categories used in this study. Such categories were called: “appearance”, “traits/personality”, “skill/work”, “personal property”, and “other”. Also, all these attributes were branched in order to give a clearer vision of each category as follows:

A. Appearance. It involves the general looks of the persons involved. It was subdivided in: “general appearance” that is a general subdivision because it involved somebody’s whole appearance referred to the body or clothe, not praising a specific part of the person. Another subdivision was:

“body”, that involves any part of the body where in American compliments are praised: hair, eyes, feet, calves, and butt, whereas in Ukrainian compliments are praised: eyes, smile, hair (haircut, hairdo, hairstyle, hair color), voice (timbre, laugh), figure, nails (manicure), face, age. In Russian compliments to this list the following can be added: eyelashes, eyebrows and tattoos.

Another subdivision was: “clothes” that are all the items that perform a good or bad look in the persons, are used in the body, and they can be directly identified. Americans praised: skirts, dresses, pants, shoes, shirts, glasses, sweaters, and bags; whereas in Ukrainian compliments are praised more assessors, and makeup, in Russian compliments – style (new image, cool image, fashionable, good taste).

B. Traits/personality. It involves the general personality of the persons. It also was subdivided in: “personality” that is the way a person behaves in a negative or positive way. Personal traits that are praised in Russian compliments: *faithful, devoted, native soul, strange, cool, kindhearted, funny, cheerful, nice, charismatic, sincere, open, positive, mystic, brave, active, sociable, artistic, sense of humor, taking difficulties easy*; in Ukrainian compliments: *cool, kindhearted, funny, cheerful, nice, charismatic, sincere, open, positive, mystic, brave, sociable, artistic, sense of humor, vulnerable, mysterious, honest, curious, awesome, caring, communicative*; in English compliments: *talented, active, friendly, hard-working, cool, funny, cheerful, nice, sincere, positive, brave, sociable, artistic, sense of humor, taking difficulties easy*.

C. Skills/work. It involves the general abilities of any person to perform any activity or job. It was subdivided in: “job well done” that is any well-performed activity in the job and the school. Another subdivision is: “good meal or taste” that is the capacity to cook, and “skill/effort that denotes someone’s general skill to do something. In American, Ukrainian and Russian compliments these 3 subdivisions were complimented.

D. Personal property. It involves items not being used by the person on his/her body, those can be houses, cars, cats, dogs, etc., and items that are not identified or seen in the person’s body. Americans praised an outfit, a new car, whereas praised a perfume, which was not directly seen or identified because it was a smell, a fragrance.

E. Other. This category refers to any compliment that did not fit in the previous classifications. It was identified in compliments in the Ukrainian/Russian data (poem, song, decoration) and English data (photo in social network/blog post, attention/presence). In the table, all the results are exemplified in terms of attributes praised found in this study in the Russian, Ukrainian and English compliments.

Table 4

Attributes praised by Russian, Ukrainian & English compliments

<i>Russian compliments</i>						
Appearance	Traits/Personality	Skill/work	Taste	Natural Human Traits	Other	Total
164 (36,8%)	100 (22,4%)	58 (13%)	54 (12, 1%)	58 (13%)	9 (2%)	445 (100%)
<i>Ukrainian compliments</i>						
Appearance	Traits/personality	Skill/Work	Personal property	Natural Human Traits	Other	Total
98 (42,4%)	28 (12%)	16 (7%)	22 (9,5%)	62 (27%)	5 (2,1%)	231 (100%)
<i>English compliments</i>						
Appearance	Traits/Personality	Skill/work	Personal property	Other	Total	
50 (20, 4%)	40 (16, 2%)	92 (36, 45%)	36 (14,7%)	27 (10, 95%)	245 (100%)	

Gender of the compliment giver and receiver. According to the data American females complimented both males and females in appearance, but they also praised more males in personality and in skill/work, but not in the category: property and other. American males complimented more males in skill/work but females in appearance. They praised both females and males only in traits/personality. Only one compliment was given to males in property but none to females in this category.

In contrast, Ukrainian females complimented more females in appearance, and males to traits/personality, and in property, although both females and males were complimented in skill/work. Concerning the Ukrainian males (Russian and Ukrainian speakers), they extremely complimented females in appearance, traits/personality, and in skill/work but not in other and property. Males were less praised in appearance, personality, and the category other and none in skill/work and property.

Finally, it is important to mention that Ukrainian males (Russian and Ukrainian speakers) praised females even more than American males to females. Ukrainian females (Russian and Ukrainian speakers) complimented females more than American females to females, but American males

praised males a lot because it is very normal in the American culture. However, it is not common in Ukraine to see males complimenting other male so if they do it, it is performed in a sarcastic way. In the relationship female to male, both cultures praised almost the same number of males. Also, it is usual for American culture to compliment to a group of people or an even.

Table 5

Attributes praised in compliments

<i>Russian speaking participants</i>						
Gender	Appearance	Traits/personality	Skill/work	Taste	Natural Human Traits	Other
Total	164 (36,8%)	100 (22,4%)	58 (13%)	54 (12%)	58 (13%)	9 (2%)
<i>Ukrainian speaking participants</i>						
Gender	Appearance	Traits/personality	Skill/work	Personal property	Other	
Total	98 (42,4%)	28 (12%)	16 (7%)	22 (9,5%)	62 (27%)	
<i>American English speaking participants</i>						
Total	50 (20, 4%)	40 (16,2%)	92 (36, 45%)	36 (14,7%)	27 (10, 95%)	

Role relationship between the compliment giver and receiver. First, it is essential to mention the scheme used in this study to categorize the relationship between the participants. The categories used were *relatives* that cover all the family members; *acquaintances* that cover classmates, coworkers, teacher/student relationships, boss/employer relationship, casual acquaintances, neighbors, and customer/worker relationships. Another category was *friends* that covers friends and roommates; *intimates* who are boyfriends or husband/wife only; the category *strangers*, who are totally unknown people, and the category *other*, referred to a relationship different to these ones.

The results indicated that both Americans and Ukrainians (Russian and Ukrainian speaking participants) praised friends, Americans with a 28.5% and Ukrainians with 36,3% (Ukrainian speaking participants) and 35.5% (Russian speaking participants). Americans complimented then: acquaintances, including classmates, coworkers, teacher/student,

boss/employer, casual acquaintances and customer/worker with a 22% whereas Ukrainians praised a 16.5–17.3%, including all the subcategories mentioned above, plus neighbors. However, Americans did not praise strangers (10.1%), as much as Ukrainians did (Ukrainian speaking participants – 9%, Russian speaking – 6/9% participants). In addition, Americans only praised intimates, with a 7.4%, whereas Ukrainians did it with a 14.6% (Ukrainian speaking participant) and 13.9% (Russian speaking participants). Ukrainians praised relatives with a 14.3% (Russian speaking participants) and a 10.8% (Ukrainian speaking participants) although Americans did it with a 11.8%. Consequently, Ukrainians praised more intimates, friends and acquaintances than Americans, but both nationalities don't praise strangers.

Compliment frequency

The results show that Americans complimented an average every 58 hours (2 days and 10 hours), Russian speakers – every 134.5 hours (5 days), and Ukrainian speakers – every 37 hours (1 day and 13 hours). According to the results in compliment frequency, Ukrainian speaker are more expressive than English and Russian speakers and more open in communication.

CONCLUSIONS

In this research there were investigated the ways of complimenting in Ukrainian, Russian and American English to avoid misunderstandings and pragmatic failure. American, Ukrainian and English compliments were compared in order to know the patterns being used by the speakers: compliment frequency; attributes praised; role relationship between the speakers; gender of the speakers; tone used and compliment form that includes: number of words, adjectives and verbs used in the compliments.

As we have observed in these preliminary results, there exist numerous implications from this study into pragmatics competence. We can see the importance of understanding the syntactical formulas in the three languages. It will help L2 speakers to avoid pragma-linguistic failure. Communicators wishing to produce these speech acts can better understand the structure of the expressions and follow the aforementioned formulas. Adjectives are also important to consider as part of the cultural lexicon used within those languages and utilize those that are the most familiar in the second language context. Another important aspect is paying attention to the attributes praised and see how native speakers of English (living in the USA), Russian and Ukrainian (living in Ukraine), tend to compliment people. These results also allow speakers to take a glance through a window into the cultures where these languages are used, and see what is valued by different nations in different situations.

Upon completion of the data analysis on the current study, further information on variables such as role relationship of the giver and receiver of the compliment, attributes praised by gender according to nationality, some factors of meaning toward the compliments, to avoid false interpretations of the compliments, and even a deeper analysis in terms of semantics, metaphorical language can be provided.

SUMMARY

Compliments as speech acts have the reflection and expression of cultural values. Many of the values reflected through compliments are personal appearance, new acquisitions, possessions, talents and skills. It is especially important in linguistic interaction between people. This research aims to analyze the speech acts of complimenting in Ukrainian and American cultures. Defining the ways of complimenting in Ukrainian, Russian and American English help to avoid misunderstandings and pragmatic failures. This study uses a method of ethnomethodology. Speech acts are studied in their natural contexts. To carry out this research native speakers of English in the United States and native speakers of Russian and Ukrainian from all over Ukraine were interviewed on-line. The analysis was made on the data that included: 445 Russian, 231 Ukrainian and 245 English compliments. Results of this study show how native speakers tend to compliment people: syntactical structure of expressions, cultural lexicon, attributes praised and language context. Knowing how to use speech acts allows the speaker to have pragmatic competence. Upon completion of the data analysis on the current study, further information on deeper analysis in terms of semantics and metaphorical language can be provided.

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Information about the authors:

Solodka A. K.,

Dr hab., Professor at the Department
of German Philology and Translation,
V.O. Sukhomlynsky National University of Mykolaiv
24, Nikolska str., Mykolaiv, 54000, Ukraine
ORCID ID: orcid.org/0000-0003-1703-7996

Luis Perea,

Lecturer,
Department of Bilingual Bicultural,
Studies at University of Texas at San Antonio, USA
ORCID ID: orcid.org/0000-0002-9353-5738

DISSIDENT COMMUNICATIONS: NON-PERIODIC UKRAINIAN SAMIZDAT (1960–1987)

Spanatiy O. S.

INTRODUCTION

From the time of the appearance of Ukrainian samizdat (self-printed or self-published texts) and until 1987, many different works and documents were prepared and distributed (we recorded 618 titles) they were distributed in Ukraine and abroad, some documents reached numerous circulations. This significant amount of printed information is not streamlined and systematized, because so far the researchers have not considered the documents of the Ukrainian samizdat as a separate type of unofficial publishing products.

O. Obertas in his monograph “Ukrainian samizdat: literary criticism and journalism (1960s – early 1970s)” systematizes the documents of Ukrainian samizdat by subject. He singles out documents aimed at protecting the Ukrainian language and culture, the struggle for civil liberties and rights, documents devoted to the national question and national policy of the USSR, information and protest documents, and “professional” literary-critical documents¹.

In the first issue of “Ukrainian Herald”, V. Chornovil systematized self-published texts on a chronological and thematic basis and singled out literary documents (until 1963), anonymous articles on social and national problems (1963–1965), articles with author’s signatures, in which the problems of public life were analyzed from the Marxist-Leninist platform². G. Kasyanov took the same periodization as a basis in his research³.

Given these facts, we set the goal to examine the documents of Ukrainian samizdat using the typological method from the perspective of publishing, to highlight the characteristics and to classify the documents of Ukrainian samizdat based on them.

¹ Обертас О. Український самвидав: літературна критика та публіцистика (1960-ті – початок 1970-х років). К. : Смолоскип, 2010. 300 с.

² Чорновіл В. Твори: у 10 т. К. : Смолоскип, 2006. Т. 3: Український вісник. Випуски I–VI. С. 153.

³ Касьянов Г. Незгодні: українська інтелігенція в Русі Опору 1960–1980-х років. К. : Либідь, 1995. С. 89.

1. Typological characteristics of texts of non-periodic Ukrainian samizdat (1960–1987)

After analyzing the materials of Ukrainian samizdat, which were distributed from 1960 to 1987 for their intended (functional) purpose, we found that there are more names of socio-political documents. Their share of the total number of analyzed documents is 87.22%. The following positions are occupied by literary and artistic works – 6.63%, official – 4,21%, reference – 1,29%, scientific – 0,65%.

A significant amount of socio-political material can be explained by the high demand in society for information of this type and the inability to satisfy it with official print media. The documents described resonant events, were hushed up by the authorities, for example, in the article “Regarding the trial of Pogruzhalsky”, Ye. Sverstyuk reported the arson on May 24, 1964 of the Kiev Public Library of the Academy of Sciences of the Ukrainian SSR, the document “Repressions in Dnepropetrovsk” spoke about repressions by the authorities. Public speeches were distributed: “Speech at the funeral of Alla Gorsky” by I. Gelya, “Speech at the evening dedicated to the 30th birthday of Vasily Simonenko” by I. Dziuba, “Last word on the court” by V. Chernovol and others. Regarding the future of Ukraine and the USSR began a political discussion on the pages of Ukrainian samizdat, for example: “Communist Thoughts on the Present and Future of the Ukrainian People” by Ye. Pronyuk, “Modern Imperialism”, “Economic Monologues” by M. Rudenko.

The number of titles of socio-political documents has been increasing since 1963 (8 titles), in 1964 – 12 titles, and in 1965 – 28 titles. In the future, each year the number of such documents appears at the same level, with the exception of 1970, when 66 socio-political documents were recorded, 1977 – 51 names, 1979 – 53 names. Since 1981, interest in documents of this direction as well as in samizdat has been declining, only 15 names have been recorded. In the following years, this trend continued, and in 1987 we recorded only four names. On average, from 1960 to 1987, 20 titles of socio-political documents appeared each year.

Socio-political documents are divided into nine types on the basis of information: articles, letters, statements, petitions, complaints, explanatory notes, public speeches, diaries, protests. Briefly describe each of these types of documents.

Letters. By the number of names we recorded letters – 203 names, 39,11% of the total. We discovered the first letter distributed by the Ukrainian samizdat in 1963, and their number increased over the years. In 1964, two similar documents were already recorded: the first was entitled “I share your indignation...” (correspondence of V. Lobko and M. Rylsky)

and “Appeal of a group of believers to the World Council of Churches”, in 1965 seven names were recorded. The maximum number (27) is registered in 1977. After 1980 (ten titles), the number of letters decreases to one or two per year. The popularity of this type of document is explained by the simplicity of its creation and its legality in case of sending to any authority.

It was more difficult for the KGB to prove that the document was anti-Soviet if it was sent to an official state institution. This also applied to other documents that were distributed. On average, 7.5 letters appeared annually.

Articles. For this period we identified 148 articles, which is 28,51% of the total number of non-periodic socio-political documents. The first article was recorded in 1961, the number of such documents gradually increased, 25 article titles were fixed in 1970. Later, articles appeared irregularly in Ukrainian samizdat. 13 articles were recorded in 1975 and 12 articles were recorded in 1979.

Since 1981, the number of names has been sharply reduced to one or two per year. The articles covered historical events, for example: “From the history of the struggle of the Ukrainian people for their liberation during the Civil War” by M. Masyutko, anonymous article “Lessons of History”. The political polemic was especially active in 1965: “On a Political Mistake” by S. Karavansky, “Class and National Struggles at the Present Stage of Human Development”, “Nationalists?” and etc.

In 1966, I. Svitlychny arranged documents related to the trial of members of “The Ukrainian Workers and Peasants Union” (L. Lukyanenko, I. Kandyba, S. Virun, etc.) entitled “To the case of Levko Lukyanenko and others”. With his introduction, these documents were sent to party, Soviet, law organizations, and illegally were sent abroad, where they were published in a separate brochure entitled “Ukrainian Lawyers under the KGB Court”⁴.

After repressions against dissidents increased, lawsuits and prosecutions are described in the articles: “Arrests and Trials in Kharkov” (1970), “Svyatoslav Karavansky Process” (1970), “Another Massacre of V. Moroz is being Prepared” (1970) and etc. In 1979, all articles were devoted to repressed persons, for example: “Before the arrest of Mykola Horbal” by M. Landa, “On the fate of Vasyl Dolishny”, “The Process of Vasyl Ovsienko” and others. In total, 5,5 articles appeared annually during the study period.

Statements. According to our data, there were 93 such documents, which is 17,92% of the total number of non-periodic socio-political texts. The first statement is dated 1965. In it, V. Lutskiv addressed the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Ukraine. The author said that he was intimidated

⁴ Українські юристи під судом КГБ. Мюнхен : Сучасність, 1969. 107 с.

and forced to sign fabricated protocols. Since 1967, statements have been steadily distributed by Ukrainian samizdat, although their number was not constant. Most applications were recorded 1979 (17 names), for example: I. Sokulsky's statement "For the right to be a Ukrainian", V. Chornovil's "Application for admission to the UGG", V. Stus's "Application to the Prosecutor of the USSR in defense of Mykola Horbal" and others. Since 1980, the number of applications has been reduced and does not exceed one names per year. On average, 3,4 statements were distributed annually by Ukrainian samizdat.

Public performance. These socio-political documents account for 5% of the total, 26 titles are recorded. This type of Ukrainian samizdat documents has been distributed since 1963. It was then that the paper versions of the speeches of I. Svitlychny and Ye. Sverstyuk at the evening in memory of V Symonenko at the Kyiv Medical Institute were published for the first time. For another ten years, until 1973, public speeches were systematically distributed by the Ukrainian samizdat for two or three titles a year, but from 1974 to 1987 only four such documents were recorded. In the beginning of the 60s speeches on literary topics were mainly distributed, then after 1965 there were "last speeches" in court: The court statement and the last word on the court in Lviv" by M. Gorynya (1965), "The last word on the court in Lviv" by V. Chornovil (1967), "Instead of the Last Word" by V. Moroz (1970) and others. On average, one public appearance was distributed each year.

Complaints. During the study period, we recorded 20 complaints, which is 3,85% of the total number of socio-political documents. These documents appeared in the Ukrainian samizdat in 1965. This year, A. Horska's "Complaint to the Prosecutor of the USSR" and 17 mothers' collective "Complaint to the Ministry of Education" were distributed. Complaints were circulated regularly from 1965 to 1981, but were no longer recorded. Most of them were related to lawsuits against Ukrainian dissidents and were aimed at protecting the authors, for example: "A Complaint to the Prosecutor General of the USSR about the illegality of the trial against him and six others" by L. Lukyanenko (1967), "Cassation appeal to the Supreme Court of the Yakut USSR" by V. Chornovil (1980), "Complaint to the Supreme Court of the USSR" (1981) by S. Sichko and others. On average, 0,4 complaints appeared each year during this period.

Petitions. They occupy a small part of the socio-political documents of Ukrainian samizdat, only 2,2%, 11 titles. Such documents were distributed only for a short time from 1964 to 1970. Probably, this situation has developed due to the specificity of this type of documents and the narrow scope of their application. But some documents were quite popular and

widely distributed, for example: “Petition to the Prosecutor of the USSR about serious mistakes and the proclamation of Russification by the Minister of Higher and Secondary Education of the USSR Yu. M. Dadenkov” by S. Karavansky. On average, 0,4 petitions were appeared in the Ukrainian samizdat each year.

12 titles of *protests* were recorded, which is 2,31%. Two protests date back to 1967: “Protest of 64 citizens by LI Brezhnev, P. Yu. Shelest and I. Kh. Golovchenko against the actions of the police on June 22, 1967 – the day of the annual commemoration of Taras Shevchenko” and “Protest to the head of camp 17-A, Lieutenant Kishka”. Such documents appeared irregularly, the next two protests were recorded in 1970. In general, almost all protests are dedicated to the protection of dissidents from various actions by the authorities. On average, 0,4 protest names appeared each year.

Diaries are one of the few types of socio-political documents, which is only 0,58% or three titles. Such documents did not appear regularly. V. Symonenko’s Diary was the first in the Ukrainian samizdat, the author shared his thoughts about the state of Ukraine, the Ukrainian language and criticized Soviet bureaucrats. This document was distributed by I. Svitlichny. In 1976, M. Rudenko’s diary was distributed under the title “Case history (diary of a candidate for schizophrenics)” and in 1979, G. Snegirev’s “Diary” was distributed.

Explanatory notes. These are the least common documents: we have recorded only three names, which is 0,58%. The first explanatory note dates from 1963. In it, I. Dziuba expressed his indignation at the authorities’ attempts to ban the evening in memory of Lesya Ukrainka, and also explained why this evening took place in the Central Park of Culture and Recreation in Kyiv on July 31, 1963. Later, in 1965, M. Masyutko’s “Explanations to the Prosecutor of the Ukrainian SSR” were distributed, and in 1979, V. Striltsiv’s “Explanations to the Director of the Dolyna Plant of Reinforced Concrete Products and Structures” were distributed.

According to contemporaries, in the early 1960s *literary works* were quite popular. But we recorded only 41 names, 6,63% of the total. Such documents appeared regularly every year

Most of all literary works were recorded in 1965 (nine titles), including literary articles “Literature and pseudo-literature in Ukraine” by M. Masyutko, “Taras Shevchenko as assessed by Boris Grinchenko” by V. Chornovil, “A cleansing and life-giving raven: motives of national shame and national self-criticism in Shevchenko’s poetry” by I. Dziuba and a collection of poems by V. Stus, I. Kalynets. A small number of titles of literary works is explained by the absence of a ban on literary activities by the authorities, by the reorientation of Ukrainian samizdat to other types of

documents, in particular socio-political. On average, two titles of literary works appeared each year during this period.

According to the information feature, literary works are divided into articles (13 titles) and literary works (28 titles), which is 32% and 68%, respectively. Literary articles were distributed only until the mass repressions against participants in Ukrainian samizdat in 1972. These are literary articles by I. Dziuba, Ye. Sverstiuk, V. Chornovil, M. Masyutko and others, that were not officially published due to administrative pressure on the authors. Most literary works are collections of poems, for example: “The Twirl” by V. Stus, “Summing up the silence” by I. Kalynets, “Slave’s cries” by Z. Krasivsky etc. This type of documents of the Ukrainian samizdat also includes the autobiographical novel “The Thorn” by M. Osadchy and the novel “Cathedral” by O. Gonchar.

We have recorded 26 *official documents*, which is 4,21% of the total number of documents. The first official document has been circulating since 1960. It was a “Certificate of release from prison after 15 of the 25 years sentenced for treason” by S. Karavansky. Later, such texts appeared irregularly in the Ukrainian samizdat until 1969. Since 1966, after the completion of the first trials of Ukrainian dissidents, more official documents have appeared in the samizdat, court verdicts have been distributed: “Verdict of the Kyiv Court in the case of Yaroslav Gevrych”, “Verdict of the Lviv Court in the case of Ivan Gel and Yaroslava Menkush” etc.

On the basis of information, we distinguish the following types of official documents: court verdicts, letters, certificates, articles. Judgments are the main part of official documents (65%, 17 titles), letters – 27%, 7 titles, the certificate is recorded only one – 4% and one article – 4%. Official letters include documents prepared by the Ukrainian Helsinki Group, for example: “Memoranda”, “Appeal of the Ukrainian Helsinki Group” (1977) etc.

Only 1,29% of the total number (8 titles) of *reference documents* were recorded. The first document was recorded in 1966. This is “The List of 58 Ukrainians administratively persecuted for their beliefs”. This small anonymous leaflet provided information about the administrative persecution of Ukrainians.

Next year, V. Chornovil prepared the most famous reference document: “Woe from Wit, or Portraits of 20 “criminals”, which “Radio Liberty” in “the Collection of samizdat documents” called an encyclopedia⁵. All reference documents of that period informed about the repressions against Ukrainians.

⁵ Музей-архів українського самвидаву “Смолокип”, п. № 18.

Among the texts of the Ukrainian samizdat, we recorded only four *scientific* examples – 0,65% of the total. “Internationalism or Russification?” by I. Dziuba in 1965 and “Speech by Vasyl Lobko at the All-Ukrainian Republican Scientific Conference on the Culture of the Ukrainian Language on February 12, 1963” were the first to spread. The next year, M. Baichevsky’s article “Accession or Reunification” was published, and in 1969 K. Kozub’s article “On B. Antonenko-Davidovich’s Article “A Letter to Be Longed For” was distributed.

We divide documents of non-periodic samizdat by material construction into sheets, photocopies, copies of the “Era” and linotype prints. Sheet documents are documents printed on a regular typewriter, on A4 sheets, regardless of the number of copies loaded in the typewriter and of the paper’s quality. Most of the documents of the Ukrainian samizdat were created and distributed in this form. Among all the documents recorded by us, 99% of titles (612 units) can be included in the sheets.

Ye. Sverstyuk described the process of creating and reproducing sheet documents: “I remember how Ivan Svetlichny came to me with records of Danylo Shumuk’s memoirs and asked to find a typist, because he needed copies. By the way, I somehow managed to find typists, brave typists, and in different places. For example, one of them worked in the Central Committee of the Communist Party. However, the typist also wants to make money in the Central Committee, and she had more paper of good quality. Later this typist was so brave that she began to reprint “Internationalism or Russification?” by Ivan Dziuba⁶.

Among the self-published documents, only 1% of the titles can be attributed to photocopies (six units). However, this does not mean that photocopies were uncommon at the time. Films with re-photographed documents took up little space, were easy to hide, and the information stored on them was easily reproduced even at home, of course, with the necessary technical means.

I. Dziuba recalls the process of making photocopies: “We had a small illegal workshop where photocopies of samizdat materials were made. By the way, Kabalyuk brothers and Hryhoriy Tymenko did this, Tymenko had already disappeared without a trace by that time. My work and Chornovil’s book were copied there. The KGB really wanted to get to this workshop ... In the end, they didn’t find this workshop”⁷.

⁶ Бердиховська Б., Гнатюк О. Бунт покоління: Розмови з укр. інтелектуалами. К. : Дух і літера, 2004. С. 67.

⁷ Ibid., с. 143.

According to the Virtual Museum of the Dissident Movement, J. Gevrych personally made photocopies of documents, the disabled artist P. Morgun (he had one hand) helped him for some time. Photocopies of the samizdat were made from the film that J. Gevrych received from Ye. Pronyuk⁸. An example of the distribution of photocopies of documents is in L. Svitlychna's memoirs: "A photocopy of A. Avtorkhanov's book "Technology of Power" appeared in Kyiv. There was a queue to read it. When Ivan's turn came and a photocopy of the book appeared in our apartment, everyone started reading on the conveyor belt, passing the pages to each other – Ivan, his cousin, also Ivan Svitlychny, and I. The second part was in Nadia..."⁹.

Often it was not sheet documents that were sent abroad, but their photocopies. Thus, on May 26, 1966, at a scientific conference in Uzhhorod, G. Avrahov approached Yuri Bach and offered to read an interesting book in the form of a pack of photocopies. Since there was no time to read it, Yu. Bach asked to take it with him (he had no idea about the content of the book) and only at home he realized that it was "Internationalism or Russification?" by I. Dziuba¹⁰.

In the 1960s, "Era" Soviet copy machines were often used. Such machines were located in large institutes or government agencies, and although their work was strictly monitored, they were often used to replicate samizdat. The verdict of the Judicial Board for Criminal Cases of the Supreme Court of the Ukrainian SSR in the case of Yu. Prober may be evidence of such use. On March 17, 1970, he was found guilty of "working as an operator of an electrographic reproduction apparatus at the Promstroyproekt Institute, and then at the Ukrdniprotsukor Institute, taking advantage of the uncontrollability of the management of the institutes, Yu. Prober systematically produced and distributed printed works defaming the Soviet state and social system"¹¹. The court verdict states that Prober personally produced and distributed anti-Soviet literature on the Era apparatus: "Pamphlet Reflections on Progress, Peaceful Coexistence and Intellectual Freedom" by Sakharov, "An Open Letter to Stalin", "An Open Letter to M. Sholokhov, author of The Quiet Don" by F. F. Raskolnikov,

⁸ Геврич Ярослав *Музей дисидентського руху*. URL: <http://archive.khpg.org/index.php?id=1257671444>.

⁹ Доброокий: Спогади про Івана Світличного. Упоряд. Леонід і Надія Світлична. К.: ЧАС, 1998. С. 35.

¹⁰ Спанатій О. С. Канали перевезення самвидаву на Захід у 1960–1980-х рр. *Наукові записки Інституту журналістики*: науковий збірник. К., 2009. Т. 35. Квітень-червень. С. 40–42.

¹¹ ЦДАВО України. Ф. 24, оп.: 16, од. зб.: 1113, спр. № 05-205. Арк 70.

“Open Writers’ Party Meeting, Moscow 1965” by G. Ts. Svirsky, “European Pop” by B. Slutsky, “Notes on the Autobiography”, “A Short Record of the Meeting of the Great History Department World War II Institute of Marxism-Leninism under the Central Committee of the CPSU of February 16, 1966”, “Letter to I. G. Erenburg”, “Speech at the seminar “Personality in the Twentieth Century” by Ye. Yevtushenko and other literature. In total, 2,084 copies and 603 titles of various documents were confiscated from Yu. Prober. Documents were prepared for sale, and this indicates a high demand in society for samizdat and other information prohibited for distribution in the USSR¹².

There is also evidence of the production of samizdat documents using a self-made glass graph. The verdict of the Judicial Board for Criminal Cases of the Supreme Court of the Ukrainian SSR of September 21, 1967 states in the case of V. Kyrylko that he lived in Kyiv and was an active member of the community of Evangelical Christian Baptists from 1966 to 1967, had typewriter and self-made duplicator – glass graph, chemicals and other means of printing, produced illegal literature, which was distributed in Kiev, Kiev region and other cities of the USSR. The investigation established that 1,120 copies of the magazine “Brotherly Leaflet” and “Appeal” were sent to Lviv, Rivne, Volyn, Chernihiv, Fastov, Bila Tserkva, Vinnitsia, Zhytomyr, Homel and other areas. During a search of V. Kirilko’s apartment, 35 magazines “Bulletin of Salvation”, 38 magazines “List of Prisoners” were confiscated¹³.

Documents of the Ukrainian non-periodical samizdat are grouped by volume in accordance with the current standard DSTU 3017–95¹⁴. Of the documents we registered, it was not possible to establish the volume of 72 documents, which is 11,65% of the total. Postcards contain more than half of the samizdat texts, 331 titles (53,56%) have been registered. Brochures were registered a smaller share (29,13% of the total – 180 titles). The least number of books was registered (35 titles or 5,66% of the total).

Postcards were distributed in Ukrainian samizdat only in 1964, we registered eight names. Later, the number of such documents increased until 1970 (37 titles were registered), during the years of mass repression (1971–1973) the number of postcards decreased to six per year, but since 1974 their number has increased again. The maximum number of postcards was recorded in 1977. There were 44 titles. The prevalence of four-page

¹² ЦДАВО України. Ф. 24, оп.: 16, од. зб.: 1113, спр. № 05-205. Арк 70.

¹³ Ibid., арк 67.

¹⁴ ДСТУ 3017-95. Видання. Основні види. Терміни та визначення. К. : Держстандарт України, 1995. 47 с.

documents in the Ukrainian samizdat can be explained by the ease and speed of production and reproduction. The prevalence of four-page documents in the Ukrainian samizdat can be explained by the ease and speed of production and reproduction. Large documents required more time for reprinting or photocopying and big material costs. The postcards were actively distributed until 1980, after which their number began to decline sharply.

Due to their small volume, the brochures were also widely distributed in the Ukrainian samizdat, and their distribution began a little earlier than postcards' and books' distribution. In 1967 and 1970, 17 titles of brochures were recorded, and in 1979 their number reached 19 titles. The decrease in the number of brochures in the Ukrainian samizdat has been recorded since 1980. Ukrainian books appeared in the samizdat in 1963 and were regularly distributed until 1980 in the amount of two titles per year.

According to the composition of the main text, monodocuments are the majority of recorded documents – 93,68% of the total number (579 titles), collections are only 6,32% (39 titles). This advantage of monodocuments is explained by the fact that each author distributed works separately from others, without enclosing them in collections but without combining articles by other authors. Monodocuments have been distributed by the Ukrainian samizdat since 1960, their number gradually increased and in 1970 reached 71 titles. The collections have been distributed since 1963, and we were the first to record “Documents on the events in the Holy Dormition Pochayiv Lavra”. Collections were distributed more or less regularly until 1980, on average, 1,6 titles per year. Most of the recorded collections are poetry collections by I. Kalynets, V. Stus, V. Holoborodko, Z. Krasivsky, M. Kholodny, L. Kostenko and others.

The picture of the periodicity of Ukrainian samizdat documents looks interesting. Most of them are non-periodicals. They accounted for 98,06% of the total (606 titles). Only 1,94% of documents (12 documents, five titles) were recorded as serial documents. Serial documents are divided into periodic and continuing. Periodic documents include documents issued with a certain periodicity (once a quarter, month, week, daily, etc.) with increasing numbering, with unique information material, under one name, in the same type of design¹⁵. Only two recorded documents can be attributed to this type: “The Noise of Perestroika” (1987) and “Chronicle of the Catholic Church in Ukraine” (1987).

Continuing documents are published without clearly defined pre-intervals, as the accumulation and editorial preparation of materials, they

¹⁵ Тимошик М.С. Книга для автора, редактора, видавця : практ. посіб. 2 вид., стер. К. : Наша культура і наука, 2006. С. 96.

have own numbering and typical artistic and technical design¹⁶. Only three titles of documents belong to the continuing ones: “Will and Motherland” (1964), “Ukrainian Herald” (1970) and “Information Bulletin of the Ukrainian Public Group” (1980).

Serial documents are divided into newspapers, magazines and bulletins on the basis of information. The concept of “newspaper” includes the publication “The Noise of Perestroika”, magazines “Volya i Bat’kivshchyna”, “Ukrainian Herald”, “Chronicle of the Catholic Church in Ukraine”, and the bulletin “Information bulletin of the Ukrainian public group”. Serial documents were distributed by Ukrainian samizdat irregularly and always by the efforts of a small group of people in conditions of conspiracy. However, KGB officers were particularly meticulous in their attempts to create unauthorized texts in Ukraine, so the arrest of the organizer was only a matter of time. Obviously, there have been so few attempts to establish such publications because of this factor. We observe this picture until 1987, when after Gorbachev’s proclamation, the KGB stopped persecuting the citizens of their country for illegal publishing activities, and since that year a large number of unofficial periodicals have been published¹⁷.

There are two groups of self-published texts, divided by the originality of the content. It should be noted that the original language of writing documents in Ukraine was both Ukrainian and Russian, although the documents were not written on Russian very often. However, in Ukraine, in parallel with the Ukrainian, the documents of the Russian samizdat and other republics were distributed, so it is difficult to say unequivocally which language prevailed in the uncensored circulation. Most of the recorded documents are original (94,98% (587 titles)) and only 5,02% (31 titles) are considered translated.

There are four types of documents according to the author: anonymous, departmental, own and collective. By analogy with the current standard, we call our “own” documents those that were prepared by one author and distributed under his signature. This group includes most of the documents – 69,74% (431 titles). The second largest number is the type of anonymous documents – 16,02% (99 names), collective documents are recorded slightly less – 11,33% (70 names), and only 2,91% (18 names) are departmental documents.

¹⁶ Тимошик М.С. Книга для автора, редактора, видавця : практ. посіб. 2 вид., стер. К. : Наша культура і наука, 2006. С. 96.

¹⁷ Кіпіані В. Самвидав як проба протистояти цензурі // Дивен Світ. URL: <http://dyvensvit.org/suspilstvo/178-suspilstvo-statti/3111-vahtang-kipiani-samvydav-jak-sproba-protystojaty-cenzuri>.

In the first issue of “Ukrainian Herald” V. Chornovil notes that anonymous articles, which touched on acute social and national problems were distributed from 1963 to 1965. According to V. Chornovil, these articles caused the arrests in 1965¹⁸. Anonymous documents really began to be distributed since 1963, but their number gradually increased until 1970, in which 19 names were recorded. Then, the number of anonymous documents continues to decline, although they appear fairly regularly until 1981. Anonymous documents include “Ukrainian Herald”, among other things, in the first issue of which, it was declared that “in its content and purpose it (the publication) is completely legal and constitutional” and explained that “we have frequent violations of constitutional guarantees and unlawful persecution of socially active people”¹⁹. Short reports of certain events were often anonymous: “Returned from Prison” (1970), “Trial in Dnipropetrovsk” (1970), “Arrests and Courts in Kharkiv” (1970) and others.

The distribution of collective documents has been recorded since 1964 and continues until 1971. After a two-year hiatus related to repression, collective documents continued to be distributed by Ukrainian samizdat until 1981. The vast majority of collective documents are aimed at protecting civil rights and freedoms in general or a specific person. The most famous collective document is considered “Letter 139” sign by more than 150 people. The letter expressed protest against political processes against young people from among creative youth and scientific intelligentsia and against a violation of the principle of publicity. Immediately after the letter, “Ukrainian Herald” submitted a list of those who had been punished for signing it²⁰. Obviously, due to the repressive actions of the authorities and the low efficiency of collective appeals and documents, they were not widely used in Ukrainian samizdat.

The least common type of affiliation to the author are departmental documents. These include those that have been prepared by government agencies. Such documents have been distributed by Ukrainian samizdat not regularly since 1960. More departmental documents were recorded in 1970 – four names, such documents were distributed until 1983. On the basis of information, the majority of departmental documents comprise court sentences, of the 18 recorded documents, 15 are court verdicts. “Verdict of the Kyiv Court in the case of Yaroslav Hevrych” (1966), “Verdict of the Lviv Court in the case of Ivan Hely and Yaroslav Menkush” (1966),

¹⁸ Чорновіл В. Твори: у 10 т. К. : Смолоскип, 2006. Т. 3: Український вісник. Випуски I–VI. С. 153.

¹⁹ Ibid., с. 61.

²⁰ Ibid., с. 129.

“Decision of the Supreme Court of the Ukrainian SSR in the case of Valentin Moroz” (1970) and others were spread. Distribution of certificates, summonses, documents on criminal cases, etc. was also recorded.

The study analyzed the documents of the Ukrainian samizdat on the basis of language. In total, we recorded 460 documents written in Ukrainian, which is 74% of the total. 158 documents are written in Russian, which is 26% recorded. It is worth noting that some of these documents in the original were written in Ukrainian, however, Russian translations came into our view and vice versa.

2. Thematic characteristics of the texts of the Ukrainian non-periodical samizdat (1960–1987)

To facilitate the work with the documents of the Ukrainian samizdat and optimize the search for the necessary information, they should be classified by topic. Today, both researchers and publishers and readers use different systems to classify any publishing product: publishers use the Library Bibliographic Classification (BBC), and modern bookstores use the Unified Classification System for Literature for Publishing (ECCL). The Book Chamber of Ukraine uses the “Universal Decimal Classification” (UDC). The latter classification is characterized by in-depth detail of the main tables and has significant opportunities for the introduction of new headings using determinants, thus being considered one of the most developed universal classifications²¹. Documents can be classified according to any of the systems, but in none of them the texts of samizdat are singled out as a separate thematic group. Their identification is possible only on general principles. In our opinion, this approach will only confuse and complicate the work with documents.

Taking into account the specifics of samizdat documents, we single out the most important topics of Ukrainian samizdat and on their basis classify various documents. Most documents directly or indirectly relate to human rights issues, as the very fact of the existence of samizdat testifies to the struggle in society for the right of citizens to disseminate and receive any information. To this topic are added several other important topics: human rights, the national question, the protection of the Ukrainian language, literature, religion and the Jewish question.

Human rights issues include all documents directly requesting protection (“Open letter to the editorial board of Literary Ukraine in defense of V. Chornovil” (1968), “Appeal of 3 Ukrainian political prisoners to the

²¹ Універсальна десяткова класифікація. *Національна бібліотека України ім. В. І. Вернадського*. URL: <http://www.nbuv.gov.ua/texts/libdoc/udc.htm>

Commission on Human Rights at UN (1969)), or providing information on political prisoners, political trials (“Arrests and trials in Ivano-Frankivsk and other cities of Ukraine in 1967–1968”) (1968), Judgment of former UPA soldier Myron Simchyk (1970), or relating to the materials of the UGG “Memorandum № 2 of the Ukrainian Public Group for Promoting the Implementation of the Helsinki Accords” (1977) and others.

Most of the documents are human rights issues, this group includes 70,87% of the total. This concentration of Ukrainian samizdat activists on the human rights situation is not accidental, as the repressive actions of the authorities were aimed at punishing those who disagree with official policy, to destroy them physically, which was quite often possible. In this situation, dissidents were forced to appeal to any instance, seek help and disseminate information about violations of civil rights in the USSR and abroad.

Human rights texts have been regularly distributed in Ukraine since 1963. (“Explanatory note to the Union of Soviet Writers of Ukraine on the evening in memory of Lesya Ukrainka in Kyiv on August 17, 1963” by I. Dzyuba), but at this time there are not many of them. Immediately after the arrests in 1965, in 1966 their number increased to 27 titles (“Record of the trial of teacher Mykhailo Ozerny”, “Lviv court verdict in the case of Ivan Gel and Yaroslava Menkush”, “List of 58 Ukrainians who were administratively persecuted for their convictions” etc.).

In 1970, an increase in the number of documents on human rights issues was recorded. There were 50 titles a year (“Another massacre of V. Moroz is being prepared”, “Massacre of “Gomon”, “Petition to the USSR Prosecutor’s Office from S. Karavansky, convicted by the Vladimir Regional Court 23.04.70 under Article 70 Part 2 for a total of up to 10 years of special regime correctional labor camps”, etc.). The decline in the distribution of documents is recorded from 1971 (19 titles) to 1973 (six titles), but in 1974 we recorded 19 titles of documents and further their number increases. Each year, on average, about 16 titles of human rights documents were distributed during the study period.

We recorded significantly fewer documents on the national issue – only 10,84% of the total (70 titles). The regular distribution of such documents has been recorded since 1964, when the following publications appeared: “About the trial over Pogruzhal’sky” by Ye. Sverstyuk, anonymous “Appeal to all communists of the people’s democratic and capitalist countries, to the leaders of the communist and workers’ parties of the world” and the first issue of magazine of the Ukrainian National Front “Volya i Bat’kivshchyna.

In the period from 1964 to 1965, the number of titles devoted to the national question (17 titles) was dominated by human rights documents (8 titles), which indicates an increased public interest in this topic,

which was restrained only by repression. Despite pressure from the authorities, documents on this subject were distributed from 1966 to 1969, but their number did not exceed three to five titles a year. An increase in the number of documents devoted to the national question was recorded in 1970. This happened due to the activity of V. Moroz, who distributes his political essays “Chronicle of Resistance”, “Among the Snows”, which diverged in Russian and Ukrainian.

This year there are three issues of “Ukrainian Herald” and an article by V. Chornovil “What and how B. Stenchuk defends (66 questions and comments by “internationalists”, an article by N. Plahotniuc “Truth is behind us”, an anonymous article “The same process of “internationalism” and others. In the future, the number of names of such documents did not increase. In the period from 1971 to 1978 no more than three units a year appeared. In the future, these documents were not recorded until 1987.

We investigate all Ukrainian literary works distributed by the Ukrainian samizdat, as well as articles devoted to fiction. In total, 10,03% of the total number of such documents (63 titles) was recorded. Interest in documents on this topic has been recorded since 1960, when I. Dziuba’s article “Poetic and Ordinary Life” was distributed. Later, in 1962, another article by the same author “Our first mind is Grigory Skovoroda” was distributed. After V. Symonenko’s death, in December 1963, his “Diary” was distributed, and the speeches of Ye. Sverstyuk and I. Svitlychny at the evening of remembrance dedicated to the poet were also published.

In 1965 there was an increase in the number of common titles of documents to 12, among these documents: “Literature and pseudo-literature in Ukraine” by M. Masyutko, “Through the eyes of a prominent publicist (Taras Shevchenko in the assessment of Borys Hrinchenko)” by V. Chornovil, poetry collections by I. Kalynets and etc. In the following years, interest in literary subjects remained at the level of two to five titles per year until 1979. In the future, only single documents on this topic are recorded.

Religious topics occupy a relatively small percentage – 3,56. The Ukrainian community of Evangelical Baptists was the most active in defending their rights. The Decisions of the Supreme Court of the Ukrainian SSR have been preserved, in which activists of this community were condemned for distributing religious literature and other materials. Thus, V. Kyrylko, a resident of Kyiv, was sentenced in 1967 to three years in prison for distributing the “Brotherly Leaflet”, “Appeal”, etc., which he reproduced with a homemade glass recorder²². A year later, another member

²² ЦДАВО України. Ф., 24, оп.: 16, од. зб.: 975, спр. № 725. Арк 67.

of the Evangelical Baptist community, V. Lavrinek, was convicted of copying and distributing religious literature in Kyiv and a homemade glass recorder was confiscated from his home²³. In 1969, Lviv residents M. Datsko, V. Petlyokha and G. Lukyanchuk were convicted for such activities²⁴.

Much of the information was spread through the efforts of one of the community's leaders, G. Vince, and his family: "An open letter to Brezhnev from Evangelical Baptist youth demanding the rehabilitation of nine Baptists" (1969), "Appeal of a group of believers to the World Council of Churches (Odessa) with a complaint about the illegal interference of the secular authorities in the affairs of spiritual administration", "Short record of the trial over G. Vince in Kyiv" and others.

Representatives of the Greek Catholic Church were also persecuted. In 1969, V. Velychkovsky was sentenced to three years in prison for "systematically disseminating oral and written false fabrications in the Soviet state and social order, and for writing the book "The History of the Miraculous Icon of God mothers of constant help"²⁵. A total of 22 titles of religious documents were recorded, which is 3.56% of the total. Documents on this topic were regularly distributed from 1963 to 1979.

The topic of protection of the Ukrainian language was directly raised in 1964–1965 along with the national question. During this period, V. Lobko's letters to M. Rylsky were distributed, in which the author asked the writer to more actively defend the Ukrainian language and to use it not only in literature²⁶. In another appeal to the Verkhovna Rada of the Ukrainian SSR, the Presidium of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Ukraine, the Council of Ministers of the Ukrainian SSR entitled "Our Proposals" V. Lobko and several other people propose to expand the use of the Ukrainian language. Also in 1964, an anonymous leaflet "Comrades, parents of schoolchildren!" was distributed. It proposed to introduce teaching in the Ukrainian language in the schools of the Ukrainian SSR. S. Karavansky's "Petition to the Prosecutor of the Ukrainian SSR about Serious Mistakes and the Proclamation of Russification by the Minister of Higher and Secondary Education of the Ukrainian SSR Yu. M. Dadenkov" was quite resonant.

In total, language issues account for 1,94% of the total number or 12 recorded names. A characteristic feature of this thematic group is that the documents were distributed only for two years in the indicated period, later only individual documents were recorded: in 1969, "On the situation of the

²³ ЦДАВО України. Ф. 24, оп.: 16, од. зб.: 1012, спр. № 05-526К. Арк. 68.

²⁴ ЦДАВО України. Ф. 24, оп.: 16, од. зб.: 1068, спр. № 0547. Арк. 69.

²⁵ Ibid.

²⁶ Музей-архів українського самвидаву "Смолоскип". СДС. Т. 18.

Ukrainian language in the Crimean Pedagogical Institute” by V. Skrypka, “Letter of Reflections on the Question “About the deep crisis in the use of the Ukrainian language in the publication of scientific research and scientific works of the USSR Academy of Sciences” by V. Kumpanenko, “On the article by B. Antonenko-Davidovich “The Letter They Long For” by K. Kozub and in 1974, “Reflections on the Ukrainian language and culture in the Donetsk region” by O. Tykhy.

The Jewish national movement in the USSR intensified during the Stalinist thaw, during which time a small number of Jews were allowed to emigrate to Israel: in 1954 – 53 people, in 1955 – 106, in 1956 – 753. The centers of these processes were Moscow, Leningrad, the Baltics, however, these processes took place in Ukraine. There were two Zionist groups in Odessa in the late 1960s: one under the leadership of Abram Shifrin, the other was headed by Moshe Melher. In Kyiv, B. Kochubievsky wrote and distributed a self-published article “Why am I a Zionist?”, “For which I ended up in the dock in 1968”²⁷. Information about him was also disseminated by the Ukrainian samizdat, “Summary of the court hearing in the case of Borys Kochubievsky”, a letter to L. I. Brezhnev and P. Yu. Shelest with a demand to release B. Kochubievsky to Israel. In general, among the documents distributed, the central place was occupied by requests to leave the USSR for Israel, for example, “Please release me from the USSR (request sent to the Ministry of Internal Affairs of the USSR)” by Yu. Dziuba. Documents on the Jewish question occupy 1,94% or 12 titles among those recorded.

The period of active dissemination of these documents dates back to 1968–1974, which coincides with the period of the national rise of the Jews after the victory of Israel in the Six Day War of 1967. After 1974, such documents were not recorded, this is due to a change in the policy of the USSR leadership in this matter. Responding to increased support for the struggle of Soviet Jews in the West, counting on the weakening of the Zionist movement in the USSR after the departure of the “rebels”, the Soviet leadership sharply increased the number of exit permits. In 1971, 12 900 Jews left the country, in 1972 – already 31 900²⁸.

CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, for the first time, it is proposed to consider the texts of the Ukrainian samizdat as an underground publishing product; its main types are identified and on their basis a typological analysis is carried out. It was revealed that for the purpose (functional) purpose, the majority are

²⁷ Бейзер Михаэль *Еврейское агентство для Израиля*. URL: <http://www.jewishagency.org/JewishAgency/Russian/Education/Jewish+History/40/hhis.htm>.

²⁸ Ibid.

socio-political documents, the total share of which is 87,22%, literary works are only 6,63% of the total, official – 4,21%, reference – 1,29%, scientific – 0,65%. By material design the bulk of the texts, about 99%, are sheet-fed, printed on a conventional typewriter. Only one percent are photocopies. It was also established that the self-published works replicated on the Era machine, as well as on self-made glass-recorder, however, we have not recorded similar ones.

By volume 53,56% of the identified texts of Ukrainian samizdat are postcards. Brochures are only 29,13%, the smallest number of books recorded, only 5,66%. We note that it was not possible to establish the amount of about 11,65% of the total number of non-periodic samizdat documents. Monographs account for 93,68%, and collections are 6,32%. It was established that only 1,94% of the total number of texts can be considered serial, 98,06% are non-periodicals. The majority (94,98%) are original texts, translated only 5,02%.

Four types of documents belonging to the author are analyzed: proprietary, anonymous, collective and departmental. Own, or those distributed with a signature, are the majority of recorded documents (69,74%). Less anonymous texts were found – 16,02%, collective are 11,33%. Departmental texts are only 2,91% of the total. The majority of identified documents are written in Ukrainian, their share is 74%, in Russian – 26% of all documents.

SUMMARY

In this work, the author explores the non-periodic Ukrainian samizdat, in particular, finds out its thematic and typological characteristics. He concludes that in the study period, texts of human rights topics dominated, the amount of which is about 70,87%. Texts on the national question take the second place in terms of prevalence – 10,84%. Literary themes were recorded slightly less, only 10,03%. Religious topics include 3,56% of recorded texts, and only 1,94% of all texts are devoted to the protection of the Ukrainian language and the Jewish national question.

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Information about the author:

Spanatij O. S.,

PhD in Social Communications,

Department of Social Studies and Humanities,

Admiral Makarov National University of Shipbuilding

9, Heroes of Ukraine Avenue, Mykolaiv, 54025, Ukraine

ORCID ID: orcid.org/0000-0003-1939-3900

HUMANIZATION OF COMMUNICATION IN THE EDUCATION OF THE HUMANISTIC IDEAL OF SENIOR TEENAGERS

Trybulkevych K. H.

INTRODUCTION

The vital activity of democratic countries of the world is ensured by the functioning of civil society, the spiritual sphere of which presupposes the rule of law, pluralism in ideology, real freedom of speech, press, conscience, and high level of political, legal and moral culture. But the main feature of this society is people with their inherent humanistic morality. The morality of members of civil society is based on the recognition of man as the highest value, and his rights as a priority of society and the state.

For a real progressive transformation of social relations, the creation of a democratic state governed by the rule of law, it is necessary to fill the ideals of people with new meaning, to humanize their inner world, cultivating humanity, mercy, tolerance, and kindness. Without the awakening of such moral phenomena as patriotism, responsibility, self-esteem, and diligence, we can hardly count on improving the situation in our country. Humanistic morality is a regulator of human behavior, a guarantor of respect for all people and nations, and their cultural heritage. Freedom is based on it. Traditionally, the Ukrainian mentality is characterized by a valued attitude to the native land. The priority in interaction with the world is kindness, justice, responsibility, conscientiousness, and diligence. These values of an individual in the period of transition to the market relationships, which have not yet become civilized, perform the functions of harmonization of personal and public interests, and provide a peaceful resolution of social conflicts, positively distinguishing Ukraine from other post-socialist countries.

Unfortunately, despite the great importance of these phenomena in people's lives, they do not have a proper place in the value system of the younger generation. Today, crime, drug addiction, resentment, and a nihilistic attitude toward moral norms are growing in the student community.

There is extreme egocentrism, a low level of communication culture, unwillingness to take responsibility, insufficient patriotism, loss of life optimism, and any ideals. An important place in the actualization of humanistic values belongs to secondary school, in particular extracurricular

activities, where senior teenagers gain experience of humane treatment of themselves, other people, learn to protect nature, raise the level of culture of democracy.

1. Education of the human essence of senior teenagers' personality

Scientific approaches to the education of a humane personality in modern conditions have been developed in the studies of Bekh, Bilousova, Boryshevskiyi, Honcharenko, Dubrovskiyi, Duranov, Zhyska, Kononko, Kuzya, Malovanyi, Naidyonov, Rostovtseva, Stolyarenko, Tanyukhin, Chorna, Shingireyi, etc. The humanization of school life is a necessary prerequisite for building a democratic society, whose citizens defend their rights and freedoms in a civilized way, as well as show personal interest in the development of the state through understanding the connection of personal interests with public ones.

Such a person will live for moral self-improvement, personal well-being, and the good of others, without disturbing the peace and harmony in society. The education of humanistic traits is the key to the European integration of our state when Ukraine enters the world community as an equal partner.

The urgency of the problem of senior adolescents' education is important since this age is a favorable ground for understanding their mental qualities and traits, socio-moral self-esteem, self-education, self-expression, and self-affirmation. The main features of adolescence are the assessment of the effectiveness of their activities, relationships with peers and adults; formation and development of self-awareness.

Characteristic of senior teenagers, the growing need for communication, and expression of emotions lead to the increased influence of friends on the personality of teenagers. As a rule, the greatest intensity of the relationship of students acquires in leisure time. That is why extracurricular activities provide the most favorable conditions for the education of the humanistic ideal of senior teens.

Given the logic of the study, the **humanistic ideal of senior teenagers** can be understood the image formed in the individual consciousness of their "better self", which serves as a motive for the transformative activities of the subject, based on internalization and realization of basic moral values; principles of values to oneself, other people, Motherland, humanity, nature; awareness of their rights and freedoms and the ability to protect them¹. The humanistic worldview is the ideological basis.

¹ Doroshenko K. H. (2003) Vychovannia humanistychnoho idealu starshykh pidlitkiv u pozaklasnii diialnosti [Upbringing the humanistic ideal of older teenagers in extracurricular activities]. (PhD Thesis), K., 235 p., p. 21. (in Ukrainian)

Starting an experimental study of the effectiveness of the technology of educating the humanistic ideal of older adolescents, we relied on the researches of Bern, Bekh, Bogdanova, Mudryk, Semichenko, who state that communication is one of the leading factors influencing the education of moral values of students. They suggested that the humanization of communication between students will have a positive effect on increasing the level of values towards themselves and others. After all, communication is a necessary condition for the entry of the individual into society. It provides the appropriation of a certain system of values and priorities, the inheritance of patterns of behavior, transmission, and receipt of information, the implementation of speech interaction with other people.

The process of communication is a “complex interaction of people, in which the exchange of thoughts, feelings, experiences, behaviors, habits, as well as meet the needs of the individual in support, solidarity, compassion, friendship, belonging, etc.”² And the more diverse and richer human communication with others is, the more successful the personality develops. However, this process will be effective only if the principles of humanization of communication are observed.

Humanization of communication is one of the main components of education of the humanistic ideal of senior teenagers, characterized by the establishment of subject-subject interaction between participants in the communication process, the development of students’ culture of communication, the formation of students’ self-esteem, shaping the experience of the value related to a person the display by senior teenagers of the best qualities.

The priority sign of humanization of communication is the **culture of communication**. It characterizes a set of moral norms and behaviors that are based on a deep understanding of the value of another person and ensure the optimal course of communication between people. The effectiveness of communication is determined by the equivalence of the exchange of thoughts, feelings, and experiences with a partner, which involves a mutual spiritual, moral, and psychological return.

In organizing the experimental work on the humanization of communication, we used the results of researches by Bandura, Benedict, Bronfenbrenner, Gesell, Erickson, Levin, Mead, Piaget, Selman, Freud, Hevighurst, and guided by an eclectic interdisciplinary approach (Rice, Bekh), which is based on a comprehensive study of adolescent personality,

² HoncharenkoS. (1997) *Ukrainskyi pedahohichnyi slovnyk*. [Ukrainian Pedagogical Dictionary]. K.: Lybid, 356 p., p. 317. (in Ukrainian)

taking into account its physiological, psychological, cognitive characteristics and features of social, environmental and anthropological development.

The study of the age characteristics of senior teenagers led us to the conclusion that the natural environment for the education of the humanistic ideal in this period is a group of peers because friends give the teenager strength and help to define the boundaries of their “I”. With the help of friends, young people acquire the necessary personal and social skills that help them to become part of the adult world. Searching for optimal activities, as well as the conditions under which the humanistic ideal is most effectively formed, we assumed that such a form is extracurricular activities. Extracurricular activities are an integral part of the educational process of the school, one of the areas of organization of extracurricular activities of senior teenagers to educate them in the humanistic ideal.

In extracurricular activities it is possible to combine the purpose of education with the needs and interests of students and provided them the development of the ability to interact with themselves and the world through communication. The deepest and most vivid expression of the feelings of a young person, which contributes to personal growth and connection with the world, occurs during training sessions. Training helps to overcome the internal problems of the individual and teaches to interact with himself and others at a more constructive and qualitatively higher level.

Based on these statements, we decided that the optimal form of extracurricular activities to humanize communication is psychological and pedagogical training. We formed training groups based on seventh and eighth grades, guided by the principles of voluntariness and encouragement. The objects of the study were secondary schools № 53, 56, 57 of the city of Mykolayiv and Khmelnytskyi gymnasium № 2, in which experimental and control classes were allocated.

2. Experimental work

The experimental work covered 620 students. Verification of the representativeness of the sample was carried out according to the Student's formula, thanks to which we were able to obtain the most reliable results³:

$$n = \frac{Nt^2 p \cdot g}{N_{\Delta}^2 + t^2 p \cdot g}$$

³ Volovik P. N. (1969) Teoriya veroyatnosteyi matematicheskayas tatistika v pedagogike. [Probability Theory and Mathematical Statistics in Pedagogy]. K.: Radyanska shkola, 221 p., p. 120. (in Russian)

The number of pupils according to the formula is 413. To develop the culture of communication of senior teenagers, as an important manifestation of the humanistic ideal, we organized training groups of mixed type. Their activity was based on the principles of functioning of T-groups (development of personality in the interpersonal space) and G-groups (self-actualization and self-regulation).

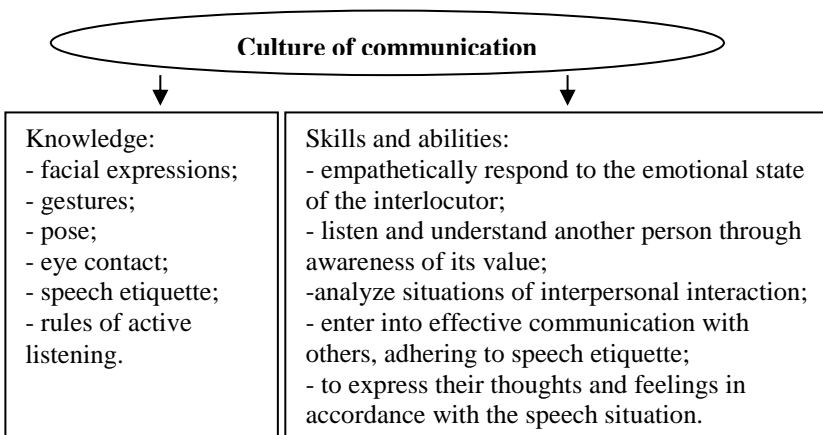
Work in training groups of mixed type (which we identified as experimental and covered the activities of 620 students) included the following aspects: the development of self-affirmation by overcoming insecurity, rigidity, and insincerity; developing the ability to listen and understand another person, provided that they are aware of its value; formation of skills of situational analysis in interpersonal interaction; formation of self-confidence in the process of developing communication skills and understanding of one's value.

In contrast to the experimental ones, the activities of the control groups (covering 610 people) did not involve the humanization of communication through training sessions, but included two thematic classes on the topics "Learning to listen" and "A polite interlocutor". The training sessions included work with students of the average and low level of humanistic ideal's formation. After all, as evidenced by the observational experiment, both categories of senior teenagers can be described as those who do not have sufficient knowledge of the basics of communication culture. This was evidenced by observations of students, and conversations with them.

At the initial stage of experimental work, only 9.03% (56 students) of the total number had a high level of communication culture formation. Thus, the vast majority needed help in mastering the culture of communication. Pupils with a high level of communication skills also needed to practice their skills in practice and develop a fuller awareness of values towards themselves and other people.

In the work of training groups we relied on the interdependence of rational, emotional, and activity components of personal development, building training so that teenagers could not only develop their knowledge of communication culture, but also "live" emotionally the moment of personal communication. This stimulated them to carry out personally significant charitable activities.

Classes in training groups involved the acquisition of knowledge about the basics of communication culture and the development of practical skills and abilities of effective communication, which can be transferred through the scheme (Fig. 1). According to the scheme, we have developed a plan for training sessions: Acquaintance. Adoption of group work rules (2 hours); People nearby (2 hours); Facial expressions. Eye contact (1 hour); Gestures. Poses (1 hour); We learn to listen. Results (2 hours).



The purpose of these training was to activate the need of each teenager to improve communication skills, to acquaint students with the basics of communication culture, and to develop skills and abilities to implement it. Each lesson was based on an algorithm that contained six blocks:

1. Introduction. The actualization of the need for communication.
2. Performing exercises and practical tasks.
3. The message of theoretical material.
4. Performing exercises and practical tasks.
5. Reflection.
6. Lesson results.

The task of the first block was to stimulate the activity of senior teenagers, update their experience, and setting students up for productive work. The second block involved the implementation of exercises and practical tasks aimed at consolidating the material learned in previous classes and to prepare for the perception of new material. The message of the theoretical material took place in the form of dialogical conversations, in which all the information was presented based on the experience of students through questions and answers.

To learn new material, we used a set of exercises and practical tasks that contained new information. After each exercise and task, both in the second block and in the fourth, a mini-reflection was performed. During it, teenagers shared their impressions and experiences that arose during and after the exercises; tracked changes in the emotional state; compared their feelings with previous experience; allocated tools that helped or hindered certain types of communicative activities.

These conclusions were summarized during the final reflection of the lesson (fifth block); new perspectives of personal development stood out. The sixth block provided for the definition of goals for further activities and the provision of tasks for independent work.

As the work in the training groups showed, this structure of classes allowed to combine theoretical and practical components and contributed to the assimilation of new information along with the consolidation of already known knowledge. Besides, special attention was paid to the creation of a person-centered field in which students received optimal opportunities to acquire the necessary communication skills and express their inner needs.

The educator's personality played an extraordinary role in this process. Accepting, understanding, and recognizing young people, the educator humanized the environment of their lives, showing due attention to all areas of senior teenagers' communication to provide them with emotional comfort and balance. The atmosphere of trust created in the classroom was transferred to everyday life, which contributed to the self-disclosure of students and the humanization of their communication.

According to the theory of moral development of Kohlberg, the formation of moral guidelines senior teenagers should correspond to the I-III level, according to which students adhere to the principles of compliance with generally accepted norms and begin to develop moral principles.

However, the first training session with students showed that they have a very simplistic understanding of the rules of interaction between group members. Thus, among the basic rules of group interaction, they stood out as follows: "Raise your hand", "Do not shout", "Do not disturb the order". By posing a system of questions as one of the effective methods of activating creative forces and updating knowledge about interpersonal interaction, the following system of rules of group work was developed together with students:

1. Trust the group. Tell only the truth.
2. Each member of the group receives at least one good word.
3. Do not insult a friend. Criticize actions, behavior but not the person.
4. Address others by name.
5. Listen carefully and don't interrupt anyone.
6. Communicate with everyone in the group.
7. Speak specifically.
8. Do not substitute the subject of the conversation.

The rule of trust in the group was not always perceived unequivocally – the pupils were afraid to reveal the world of their feelings and experiences. However, during the training, communication barriers were reduced and

trust in-group members was increased. Thus, in the first lesson, during the exercise “Presentation” (according to Prutchenkov⁴), which aimed to develop communication skills, develop listening skills, empathy and values to other people, teenagers briefly described their friend (after pair work, highlighting the features that distinguish it from others and for which it can be valued).

Speaking about her friend Rita, Katya noted: “Rita is a good friend and when I ask her for, she will always keep a secret”. During the discussion, Valya asked Katya: “Will Rita keep a secret only when you ask her for? She can’t understand it by herself?” Katya answered: “Yes. She knows when to keep something in a secret”. Having heard this, Rita began to defend herself verbally. Students remarked because only the speaker had the right to speak in this situation. Valya later said, “I didn’t notice Rita doing that”. In this situation, Valya asked what was bothering her, because not so long ago she was trying to make friends with Rita. And Rita could not accept criticism with dignity, did not trust others because she was afraid of losing her authority. However, during the training, in the fifth lesson, there was an increase in the level of trust in the group, there was a greater looseness in the expression of their feelings.

Here are some statements from the group members after the fifth session (eight classes in total): “It’s not easy to communicate with someone who isn’t your friend, but I feel it works for me”; “I think I have found a friend, now I can trust him”; “Working in a group has changed something, we have less resentment and kicks during lessons and breaks,” “I have learned how to communicate like a gentleman. Girls like it”.

Training **methods** (finding and working out optimal forms of interaction with one’s “I” and the world around in the process of reflective analysis and practical actions), conversations (the advantage is that the educator is in direct contact with the students. It helped to create an atmosphere of trust in the classroom and master the culture of communication, assisted to understand experiences, conflicts, find their causes, restore the inner integrity of the “I” and the attitude to themselves as values; find new meanings of life; bring to the choice of ways to overcome existing complications, solve critical situations and equip them with the knowledge that will help to understand humanistic ideal); testing (contributed to constructive self-analysis and further self-improvement of humanistic traits).

⁴ Prutchenkov A. S. (2001) Sotsialno-psihologicheskiiytrening v shkole [Social and psychological training at school]. Seriya “Prakticheskayapsihologiya”. M.: EKSMO-Press, 2001, 640 p., p. 222–224. (in Russian)

During the interviews, the students' attitude to the problem of communication culture was considered and theoretical information was provided, which was tested immediately. Thus, to master the culture of communication, senior teenagers became acquainted with the concepts of facial expressions, gestures, poses, and eye contact; studied the rules of active listening and behavior of a person in a crowded place.

A lot of material was perceived ambiguously, and therefore a constant companion of the theoretical part of the training session was a discussion. Thus, in the fourth lesson, devoted to the features of facial expressions and eye contact, students received information that provoked discussion. Here is a fragment of it.

The tutor: "Obviously, everyone will agree that the gaze plays an extraordinary role in communication. It reflects our attitude to the interlocutor. What percentage of the conversation do you think we look at the speaker?"

Andriy: "Probably seventy percent".

Anna: "And I think sixty".

Oleg: "When a person is unpleasant, I do not want to look at him at all".

Stanislav: "However, you see her but she will not disappear".

Andriy: "Maybe it takes ten or twenty percent".

Oleg: "I will tell you, Andriy, that it will take five percent. However, this does not mean that I look at everyone that way. Twenty to sixty percent of my attention is on other people".

The tutor: "Psychologists believe that we look at the interlocutor from thirty to sixty percent of the time talking, but this information is common. Maybe some of us hold the gaze on the other person's face longer, and some less. The main thing is that both you and those who communicate with you, it will not cause discomfort.

After all, it is known that prolonged holding of the gaze on the face of the interlocutor irritates him, and the inseparable gaze of wide-open eyes is perceived as a manifestation of aggression and a threat to the communication partner. Such controversy stimulated the analysis of one's behavior and caused changes in the view of interpersonal communication.

Much attention was paid to the fact that the acquired knowledge is not a template or a model for action, but only an indicative scenario of communication, because each person is individual, and within a certain ethnic or social group acquires even more significant differences. And the students found these differences. Thus, when considering the peculiarities of eye contact and human gaze, it turned out that different participants interpret the gaze in completely different ways: from contempt to dishonesty, while most psychologists (Lozovskyi, Piz, Rogov, etc.) tend to give it the meaning of suspicion or doubt.

Special attention was paid to the development of empathy. For this purpose, we helped senior teenagers to model the image of them who aim to help others, feel the joy and anxiety of another with their heart, their thoughts, and experiences. We strengthened the students' belief that they were good and capable of doing good deeds.

Complications in this aspect of the work were inadequately underestimated self-esteem of 34.03% – 211 students (according to the results of the first stage of the experiment). Thus, one of the students, Vyacheslav, – an anxious and insecure young man who likes to show off his strength, said at one of the first classes: “Why do you say that you hope that I will cope with this task because I am kind, attentive? You think I’m bad and stupid”.

Much training took place before Vyacheslav “warmed up”, believed in his good nature and looked at others differently, and empathy exercises played a leading role in this process. The development of empathic understanding was given a place in each practical lesson, but the greatest attention was paid to the lesson “People around”.

Thus, the purpose of the exercise “What are we like” (according to the method of Soldatova, Shaigerova, Sharova)⁵ was to develop a sense of unity of the group, the formation of empathy and values towards others. During the exercise, one of the participants was invited from the circle based on real or imaginary similarity, for example: “Olga, please come out because we have the same hair color (or similar because we are inhabitants of the Earth, the same height, etc.)”. The person summoned went out and invited any of the participants to leave the circle in the same way. The exercise lasted until the whole group was in the center of the circle. At first, it was difficult for the students to distinguish the external and internal signs of community with others. Some of them could spend more than a minute in the center of the circle, thinking about whom to call and on what basis of similarity. The main signs of commonality that stood out: the same hair color, jeans are the same color, and fun.

However, the implementation of this exercise made the participants closer, forced them to discover new features in others and to see that those around them can have something in common with them, and thus be close. This was the first step in building empathic understanding.

Exercise “Attention, there is a man!” also played a significant role in the formation of empathy (according to Khryashcheva⁶). This task made an

⁵ Soldatova G. U., Shaygerova L. A., Sharova O. D. (2006) *Zhit v mire s soboydrugimi: Treningtolerantnostidlyapodrostkov*. [Living at peace with yourself and others: Tolerance Training for Teens]. M.: Genezis, 112 p., p. 29. (in Russian)

⁶ Psihogimnastika v treninge[Psycho-gymnastics in training]. Pod red. N. Yu. Hryashevoy (2010) – SPb :“Rech”, InstitutTreninga, 256 p., p. 99-100. (in Russian)

unforgettable impression on the students. The exercise was as follows: each teenager received a card with the name of one participant. It was necessary to read its contents so that no one could see it. After the word “Start!”, everyone began to follow the person whose name was written on the card to see what gestures this student was making, what was happening to him. At the same time, the participant had to remain unnoticed during the observation and tried to notice who was watching him. In the end, everyone answered the question “Who was watching you?”, and if the answer was correct, the watching observer called the gestures he saw while completing the task. During the exercise, the following tendency was observed: tracking gestures was not another problem, but it was difficult to notice who was watching another student. Only 1/5 of the group could unmistakably determine who was watching them. Performing this exercise caused a more active manifestation of observation concerning others, the development of the ability to combine certain activities with the observation of what is happening with others, and thus stimulated the formation of attentive attitude to people.

The exercise “Notice of a change” served as a continuation of working out of the given skill. During the exercise, one person was called to test his observation. He looks closely at everyone present, trying to remember their location and posture. After that, the observer was taken out of the door, and some participants changed the place, and positions. When the observer returned, his task was to name the changes he noticed. The exercise was repeated 3–4 times with other observers. Analyzing the changes and feelings that observers felt during their fixation, the students noted that at first they found change easily, felt a little confused, but the ability to mentally reproduce the original picture of the group members helped them establish the maximum number of changes. Teenagers noted to be attentive to people and notice external changes, it is necessary to keep in mind the question: “What are the others feeling now? What are they thinking about?” Both a person’s posture and facial expressions can help to understand the world of his feelings. The following training were devoted to deepening the knowledge of facial expressions, gestures, postures, and practicing the skills to recognize and apply them.

At the lesson “Facial expressions and eye contact” students had the opportunity to independently acquire knowledge about the peculiarities of human facial expressions by completing the task “Can you read the mood?”. During the performance, the members of the group were asked to recognize nine models of human facial expressions (strong anger; hostility; shy joy; disappointment, sadness; indifference; joy; deep sadness; surprise; stormy joy), schematically depicted on paper, and next to the ordinal number to

indicate the emotion corresponding to a particular person. It was difficult for teenagers to be concentrated on this task. They needed a long demonstration of models of human facial expressions. There were difficulties with distinguishing shades of emotions. It was not easy for everyone to “read” the emotions of surprise and indifference. The disappointment was not always distinguished, and shy joy was called insidiousness, but when analyzing the task, comparing their answer with the correct one, the students understood the models of human facial expressions. The immaturity of adolescents’ ability to learn about another person’s mood from facial expressions has highlighted the need to focus the practical work on developing empathic skills.

The “Feel and Listen” exercise was designed to develop empathy. To do this, each participant received a card with the name of one of the above emotions. Students had the following instructions for the card: “Nobody but you should know what is written on the card. In pairs, one of you will tell a short story, trying to use facial expressions to convey your emotion. The interlocutor’s task is to listen carefully, using the necessary gestures, and to understand what emotion the other is experiencing. Then you change roles”. During the exercise, students used a wide range of aids. Thus, Yuri, conveying the emotion of stormy joy, used facial expressions (eyebrows raised high, a wide smile), gestures (head raised, arms outstretched), and means of intonation (voice cheerful and loud). His partner, Anatoliyi, was so absorbed in Yuri’s story that he took the meaning of the story, which was only a means of conveying emotion, not the truth.

Students gained new opportunities to express emotions. They came to understand how to support another if he/she has negative experiences. It means to help a person to discharge emotion, and to create conditions in which the most complete expression of emotions reduces their intensity for a while, after which it is possible to eliminate the source of negative experiences and prevent their recurrence. This is a manifestation of humanism. Observing the manifestations of emotions of strong anger, frustration, sadness, and grief, and hostility, teenagers learned to listen to the person around, in what mood he/she would be, and to accept a person as he/she is. This exercise helped to develop feelings of compassion and empathy, which is a condition for the development of empathy.

Reflection contributed to the humanization of communication. In the process, the teenagers shared their impressions of the exercise as follows: “I felt sorry for Andryi, I realized that he was deeply saddened. In such moments it is better to have a friend who listens to him” (according to Anatoliyi’s answer), “This exercise made me understand: sometimes even the fact that you were just listened to brings understanding” (from Yana’s answer). So the students, listening to others, showed them their

understanding, respect, and valued them, which contributed to the formation of value attitude towards their personality, (because “if I am capable of good deeds, I am good”). Also, the experiment showed that there is a direct relationship between values towards oneself and others: if a teenager deeply despises his/her personality, he/she will despise and hate others, but if he/she feels respect and trust, he/she will also trust others and respect them.

The formation of a culture of communication among senior teenagers included the inculcation of information about “open” behavior, which consisted of gestures, postures, gaze, and even the manner of wearing clothes. The development of “open” behavior skills and the development of communication skills was the goal of the “Call for Trust” exercise. During the exercise, the students were divided into pairs. One partner showed secrecy and unwillingness to communicate openly. The second task was to show with the help of posture, gestures, and facial expressions in conversation how to inspire confidence in the interlocutor, and “open” him to communicate. Then they changed roles.

This exercise, along with the development of communication skills, helped to distinguish signs of “open” and “closed” behavior, influenced the development of empathy. Students used a wide range of means by which it was possible to “open” the interlocutor, and how they caused confidence in themselves, were not always immediately on the list, but later replenished it. Thus, during the reflection, Tatiana singled out among the means that help to “open” another person for communication, such as a smile and hugs. When her friend, Oksana, called the orientation of the body to the interlocutor with his head tilted to the side, Tatiana agreed with her and said that these tools will be used in communication, because they “opened” her for communication, and it worked. Thus, the exchange of ideas during the reflective analysis was important for the formation of a culture of communication between students and the acquisition of new experiences.

The exercise “Cheer up the partner” (after Girnyk and Shpalerchuk)⁷ had a similar character, in which the participants were tasked in turn to remember something sad in pairs, and to get depressed. The task of the partner was to cheer up the other and to make him smile. It was forbidden to touch the partner. Performing this exercise caused pleasant emotions in the group. Many of the participants showed their hidden sadness during the performance. For example, Mykhailo told Oleg about misunderstandings with his mother, that bothered him; Elena shared her concern about the dog’s

⁷ Hirnyk A. M., Shpalerchuk I. N. (2001) Treninh komunikatyvnykh umin (metodychnimaterialy). [Communication skills training (teaching materials)]. *Praktychna psykholohiia ta sotsialna robota*, № 2, p. 11–16, p. 14. (in Ukrainian)

disappearance. The partners listened to the problems of the partners and with the help of facial expressions, gestures, and words tried to calm down first, and then make the other laugh.

It worked out for almost everyone. The teenagers thanked each other during the discussion because the painful problems no longer seemed so hopeless. However, not everyone coped with the task. Igor failed to make his partner laugh. During the discussion, the group expressed their opinion to Igor: “You told funny stories and burst out laughing, but the person was feeling sad, and she needed your attention first, and maybe advice, and then, probably, jokes”.

Igor thought deeply and did not even object. In the next exercise “Anecdote”, he told a funny story, staring into the eyes of the interlocutor, monitoring his inner state and reaction to the story, and when telling jokes in a circle was one of those who most accurately conveyed the content of the story and sense of the speech. Thus, interaction with peers and adults helped Igor realize the need to value others and work on his personality to develop a culture of communication.

We attached great importance in the art of understanding the other to the development of active listening skills. To do this, students were informed about the peculiarities of human perception and determined the rules of active listening. Mastering the rules of active listening was an inner need for senior teenagers.

The exercises “Back to Back”, “Call for Confidence”, “Anecdote”, “Understand Me”, “Broken Phone” and “I Wish” stimulated the development of communication skills, listening skills, empathic understanding, attentiveness and value of others.

In the process of the experiment, we created various conditions for communication: so that the interlocutors, showing communication skills in different situations, could optimally use them in real life. Thus, when performing the exercise “Back to back”, teenagers were not able to receive information from others through gestures and facial expressions. For 3–5 minutes, participants maintained a conversation sitting with their backs to each other. Most of them spent the first minute exchanging a couple of phrases and only then found a common topic for conversation, and communication started. After completing the exercise, the students made the following generalizations: “It was not like talking on the phone, because the interlocutor was nearby, so it was difficult to speak at once. But you can get used to communicating like that, if there is a need, for example, when you want to say something in class to a friend at another side of the classroom” (Oles), “ It is interesting and unusual to speak in this way, but it teaches to communicate differently than usual” (Rita). Thus, the unusual situation of

communication aroused the interest of teenagers and led to the development of their communication skills.

When conducting exercises to develop the ability to engage in effective communication, express their thoughts and feelings about the speech situation, we paid attention to mastering the skills of speech etiquette. After all, without understanding the need to address others politely, to use normative vocabulary in communication, the communicative act will not be humane.

The fact that most of the training was conducted playfully optimized the formation of a culture of communication between students. On the one hand, in students acquired practical skills and abilities of humane attitude to people, to their inner world, and on the other, they trained their communication skills.

In the experimental work, we preferred simulation games, the relevance of which was caused by the need to find methods of processing new human behavior patterns in unfamiliar conditions, because they involve modeling situations and practice the behavioral skills of the individual, and the rules of behavior in them. We also used these games to test the rules of active listening, as one of the components of the culture of communication, which took place in the process of developing empathy and communication skills.

The exercise “Understand me” developed to listen carefully to the problem of the partner, to try to understand its essence. Here is what the teenagers said after the exercise: “It’s weird, but I was completely understood (Olga)”, “Knowing the rules of communication are to interfere with speaking, but it’s at first glance. You just think more about words and understand more about others. In my opinion, this is an important thing” (Zhanna).

This exercise helped to develop a deep understanding of the inner world of another person, empathic perception of people around. But the key to effective communication is not only the ability to see the inner state in words but also to be able to accurately perceive the content of the message and convey it to another interlocutor as needed.

The exercise “Broken phone” was created to develop this skill. Students were offered the following instruction: “We will play in turn. Now one of you will remain, and five will go out the door. We will call them one by one so that they can listen to the text from a friend and pass it on to another as accurately as possible. It is forbidden to prompt spectators. Their task is to register mistakes when telling the text and to indicate (after the exercise) who made them”. During the exercise, the text was read to the first participant. Then the second participant was called and the first to retell the text to him. Then the second told it to the third, and so on until the end. After

the last answer the original was read. The game could be repeated two or three times with other participants. For retelling, we selected texts that carried a humanistic load.

The first passage revealed the essence of a good man, the second – the need to preserve the beauty of nature, and the third called to become responsible creators of their lives and the lives of others, and the Motherland. The texts were taken from the works of Amonashvili and Sukhomlynskiy.

Using such texts for interpretation, we pursued not only the goal of developing communication skills and the ability to listen but also the formation of values towards the Motherland, nature, another person based of kindness, responsibility, diligence, and justice. By retelling these passages, the students not only acquired the skills of attentive listening, the adequate transmission of the information, but also internally perceived the content of the text. When discussing the exercise, they expressed the following thoughts: “Not all my moral values are developed at a high level, but I know what to do now” (Oleg), “Being good is not a weakness. Kindness supports others, both people and nature need it” (Anastasia). To make the results of the analysis more objective, we offered students additional sources of analysis of their character traits. One of them was testing “Pleasant interlocutor” by Prutchenkov⁸.

Analysis of test results, self- and mutual assessment of communication culture allowed us to conclude that senior teenagers have different levels of communication skills: 74.03% (459 students of experimental groups) can be attributed to the middle level and 25.97% (161 students) – to high. During experimental work, approximately 40% (248 students) of the experimental groups rose from the middle level to high, when in the control classes this figure was only 14.83% (92 students).

To obtain the most representative data and clarify information about the humanization of communication, the core qualities of which are the values of self and other people, we used the author’s exercise “I wish”, during which each group member said “I wish ...” and “I wish all of us ...” During this training, it was possible to observe the change of attitude among participants of the teams and the growth of the ability to openly, fully express their own opinions. Students wished each other and themselves confidence, freedom, patience, attention. For example one of the students, Irina, wished humanity, kindness, which she believed can help in any life situation.

⁸ Prutchenkov A. S. (2001) Sotsialno-psihologicheskiiytrening v shkole [Social and psychological training at school], Seriya “Prakticheskayapsihologiya”. M.: EKSMO-Press, 640 p., p. 322–325. (in Russian)

CONCLUSIONS

In the process of generalizing the data of testing, self- and mutual evaluation, exercises and observations of students, three levels of the culture of communication and value attitude towards themselves and other people as interdependent factors of the humanistic ideal of older adolescents were revealed.

The first level, high, is characterized by completeness, thoroughness, and deep awareness of senior teenagers of knowledge about the basics of communication culture. These students have a persistent need to deepen them for self-improvement. Teenagers with a high level of communication culture accept themselves, value their qualities, and respect the thoughts and actions of people around them. Pupils emotionally respond to the experiences of others, able to put themselves in the place of the interlocutor. They can listen and speak effectively, adhering to the humanistic principles and requirements of speech etiquette, to express their thoughts and feelings following the situation of speech.

The second level, intermediate, is characterized as follows: senior teenagers' knowledge of the basics of communication culture is complete, but not deeply understood. Students do not have a constant need to acquire knowledge about the basic features of the culture of communication, and they acquire them in the process of self-study. They are not fully aware of the value of their personality and other people.

The manifestation of empathy for others is unstable. Students can react emotionally to the experiences of others, but do not always want and can put themselves in their place, fully understand people around them and support them. The ability to effectively listen and speak by the humanistic principles and requirements of speech etiquette, to express their thoughts and experiences in the context of the speech situation is partially formed.

The third level (low) can be described as following: students' knowledge of the basics of communication culture is superficial. Senior teenagers do not need to obtain information about the features of facial expressions, gestures, poses, and eye contact; mastering the rules of speech etiquette and active listening. They do not believe in their strength. Emotionally respond only to the experiences of loved ones, but can't always listen to them carefully and provide moral support. They communicate without the rules of speech etiquette. They do not know how to express their thoughts and feelings under the situation of speech with humanistic principles.

The work on the humanization of communication has shown the indicators shown in the table, where there are the following abbreviations: exp. gr. – experimental groups, count. gr. – control groups, h. l. – high level, m. l. – middle level, l. l. – low level, v.a. – value attitude, c. c. – the culture of communication.

Table 1

**The dynamics of the formation of values towards themselves
and other people and the culture of communication**

The levels of formation	at the beginning of the experimental work, %						at the end of the experimental work, %					
	In exp. gr.			In cont. gr.			In exp. gr.			In cont. gr.		
	v.a. to self	v.a. to others	c. c.	v.a. to self	v.a. to others	c. c.	v.a. to self	v.a. to others	c. c.	v.a. to self	v.a. to others	c. c.
1. h. l.	10,84	8,07	9,03	7,71	9,03	9,03	25,97	25,97	25,97	13,83	12,92	13,88
2 m. l.	73,01	40,93	52,75	74,81	42,13	55,26	74,03	74,03	74,03	81,17	50,11	65,18
3 l. l.	16,15	51	38,22	17,48	48,84	35,71	0	0	0	5	36,97	20,94
The number of respon- dents.	620			610			620			610		

The information presented in the table shows that out of 620 students who participated in training on the formation of the basics of communication culture, values of self and others are formed at a high level in 155 students, and the rest of the participants, 465 senior teenagers are on the middle level.

Thus, as they learned the basics of communication culture as a mandatory component of humanizing communication and educating the humanistic ideal of senior teenagers, students began to realize the need for values to themselves and others, which confirmed our assumption at the beginning of the experiment. Based on the results of experimental research and analysis of psychological and pedagogical experience, we can conclude that one of the most important keys to the education of the humanistic ideal of senior teenagers is the humanization of their communication.

SUMMARY

The research raises the problem of humanization of communication of senior teenagers to form in them a humanistic ideal, as developed in the individual consciousness image of his “best self”, which serves as a motive for the transformational activity of the subject, based on internalization and realization of basic moral values; principles of values to oneself, other people, Motherland, humanity, nature; awareness of their rights and freedoms and the ability to protect them. Its ideological basis is a humanistic worldview.

Based on the experimental work, it was found that the humanization of communication of senior teenagers has a positive effect on the growth of their values towards themselves and other people under the conditions of involvement of senior teenagers voluntarily, desire to improve participation in psychological and pedagogical training; establishing subject-subject interaction between participants in the communication process; the creation by the educator of a personally oriented space to ensure the psychological comfort of students; cultivating the value of another person and forming the image of a “good other”; development of self-improvement in the process of overcoming rigidity and insecurity; developing the ability to listen and understand another person through awareness of his/her value; formation of skills of analysis of situations of interpersonal interaction; building self-confidence in the development of communication skills and understanding of self-value.

The humanization of communication of senior teenagers is also facilitated by mastering the basics of communication culture (disclosure of the concepts of facial expressions, gestures, poses, eye contact, speech etiquette, rules of active listening and behavior in a crowded place); the combination of rational, emotional and activity components in mastering the culture of communication: the use of methods of exercises, conversations, testing, supervision of students; appealing to the method of simulation games as a possible step in the readaptation of the personality of a teenager to build constructive behavior; encouraging students to carry out the process of self-education ensures the effectiveness of extracurricular activities to humanize the communication of them.

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Information about the author:

Trybulkevych K. H.,

Doctor of Pedagogy,

Head of the Department of Social and Humanitarian Disciplines,

Admiral Makarov National University of Shipbuilding

9, Heroes of Ukraine Avenue, Mykolaiv, 54025, Ukraine

ORCID ID: orcid.org/0000-0002-1907-7011

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