

CHAPTER IV

LINGUISTIC AND PHILOSOPHICAL-EDUCATIONAL ASPECTS OF INTERNATIONAL AND CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATIONS

4.1. Philosophical aspects of cross-cultural communication in the context of a globalized society

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Abstract. *The article is devoted to the study of modern approaches to cross-cultural communication by analysing the globalised processes taking place in the modern world. The cross-cultural approach as a scientific and philosophical approach is currently undergoing significant expansion and modification, which is why there is a need to study this issue, especially because of its relevance. Cross-cultural communication is less and less opposed to ethnocentric studies of national peculiarities of states and more and more tends to intercultural processes and interactions. The main purpose of this research article is to analyse the methodological foundations and latest approaches to the study of cross-cultural communication through the prism of deep philosophical knowledge and in interaction with modern globalised processes taking place in different societies. The issue of defining the concepts of 'cross-cultural communication', 'intercultural communication', 'cross-cultural discourse', which are the aim of this study, is also important in this article. Among other things, such modern approaches as comparative, anthropological, communicative, hermeneutic, which focus on deciphering cultural codes, were used, and a conceptual approach was applied to study this issue. It is determined that cross-cultural interpenetration is most often observed in societies that have interdependent relations, both economic and social, political, public, tourism, ideological and many others. Researchers consider their interactions as a synthesis of cultural elements, which leads to the creation of a new multicultural intercultural and international space. Promising directions for further research on this topic may include the search for specific special tools for analysing cross-cultural communication, which will make it possible to appreciate the cultural characteristics of each nation while preserving one's own identity as a key value for a person of the twenty-first century.*

Keywords: *intercultural communication, cross-cultural communication, philosophy, society, human, globalisation processes.*

Introduction

Today, cross-cultural discourse is one of the empirical and scientific areas of research in philosophy, as well as in psychology, philology, sociology, and pedagogy. The term "cross-cultural" is found in many scientific works; however,

the boundaries of the definition of this concept are still blurred and require theoretical elaboration, which determines the relevance of this study. In addition, the field of studying the interaction of language and consciousness has been expanding recently, which necessitates a broad cultural and intercultural interaction and interdependence in texts through the prism of the communicative-activity approach. First, let's find out the meaning of this word in the reference and interpretive literature. For example, Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary (2003)¹ interprets the word "cross-cultural" as a feature that defines or implies the use of comparative characteristics in the study of two or more cultures or separate cultural spheres. In scientific usage, the term "cross-cultural" is related to the words "approach", "discourse", "comparison", "dialogue", 'research', and "literature". For this study, interdisciplinary terms such as cross-cultural discourse, cross-cultural research, cross-cultural comparison, and cross-cultural text are used, which are defined as follows: cross-cultural discourse of philosophy, cross-cultural research, cross-cultural comparison, and cross-cultural literature. Cross-cultural discourse is a set of scientific studies focused on linguistic and literary phenomena and linguistic and literary phenomena and components generated by the boundaries of culture and language. Within this discourse, the cross-cultural approach is a set of interpretations that result from intercultural influences and interactions, the overlapping of fragments of the cultural mosaic, which gives rise to various images, associations, and a variety of interpretations on the part of researchers. Cross-cultural research in philosophy involves the study of linguistic phenomena and components at the intersection of cultures through the prism of interpenetration and negation. Cross-cultural comparison in various studies involves the comparison of at least two languages or texts of national literature for the purpose of their typological linguistic and cultural comparison. Cross-cultural literature is a product of immigrant writers and is characterized by the interference of trends, styles and genres, on the one hand, and mutual influence, on the other.

The main purpose of this research paper is to analyze the methodological foundations and the latest approaches to the study of cross-cultural discourse in the system of philosophical studies, in particular, in the field of intercultural communication theory and cultural studies.

In contemporary philosophical thought, the idea of the importance and expediency of using a cross-cultural approach to the study of various phenomena that can ensure the success of communication in the modern globalized world is gradually being established.

This approach should be viewed in different aspects: on the one hand, as an approach to learning languages, including foreign ones, i.e. from the philological and pedagogical point of view as preparing a communicator for language interaction in a multicultural society, and on the other hand, as one of the approaches to literary analysis of a text or certain literary categories, such as image, myth, plot, composition, etc.

¹ Merriam-Websters (2003). Collegiate Dictionary. Eleventh ed., 1623.

Cultural semantic codes are the result of the interaction of the language system, communication, culture, communicative actions, and thinking. The interaction of language and culture is of a philosophical nature and is therefore a subject of study and research.

The purpose of this study is to analyze the latest approaches and methodological foundations to cross-cultural discourse, to identify the main aspects of cross-cultural communication in the system of philosophical knowledge through the prism of the development of the modern globalized world.

The objectives of the study are as follows:

1. To comprehend the nature and current trends in the study of cross-cultural discourse in the modern globalized world;
2. To analyze the methodological foundations of the cross-cultural approach to interpretation as part of the spiritual culture of the people to form the spiritual culture of the people and to form a generalized image of the national idea with its traditional images and motifs, features of the cultural paradigms of nations, etc.

Literature Review

The interdependence of language and thinking, and thus of language and culture, was scientifically substantiated by the linguist and philosopher of language W. Humboldt. The scientist argues that language outlines the worldview vectors of its speakers, thus building a unique “linguistic picture of the world” inherent only to a certain ethnic group. Thus, we get an initial idea of the “cultural code” of a particular native speaker through the decoding of linguistic artifacts. At the intersection of culture and language, Humboldt (1971)¹ formulated a postulate that is considered the methodological basis of cross-cultural discourse: a person is able to master a foreign language through cognition, comprehension of a different picture of the world, which is dynamic rather than static, so a person acquires new qualities and is enriched with new meanings, taking them from the languages and cultures he or she studies. In other words, by mastering foreign languages, a person also masters the culture of native speakers of that language, gains new cultural experience, and enriches his or her own worldview. Linguistic interaction with speakers of other languages not only generates a linguistic dialog, but also generates new cultural meanings and new codes, which, in turn, leads to mutual enrichment of languages through the intersection of different cultures and complements the linguistic picture of the world.

Therefore, Humboldt’s concept is considered fundamental to all cross-cultural studies in the fields of philology, philosophy, linguistics, and others. Aririguzoh (2022)² defines cultural diversity as the dynamism of intercultural communication and identifies 5 types of influence on intercultural communication: the power of distance; individualism versus collectivism; male/female role orientation for the long term; ability

¹ Humboldt W. (1972) *Linguistic Variability and Intellectual Development*. University of Pennsylvania Press. 320 p.

² Aririguzoh S. (2022) Communication competencies, culture and SDGs: effective processes to cross-cultural communication. *Humanit Soc Sci Commun*, 9, 96. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1057/s41599-022-01109-4>

to distinguish between high and low communication styles. Other researchers have systematically reviewed cross-cultural studies of five concepts, each of which coincides with distinct dimensions of mentalization: theory of mind, empathy, perspective taking, perspective taking, alexithymia, and mindfulness. Mentalization profiles may differ across cultures. They are explained by linguistic factors, value preferences, and peculiarities of upbringing. The subject of intercultural communication theory is mainly the interdependence between communication and culture. The emergence of this discipline became possible thanks to the American anthropologist Hall (1998)³, who emphasized the need to “cultivate a culture of communication with other peoples” and overcome intercultural barriers to communication as a prerequisite for successful interpersonal communication. The main issues of the theory of intercultural communication that require a cross-cultural approach are the issues of the theory of intercultural communication that require a cross-cultural approach in the study.

The specifics of the implementation of the act of intercultural communication, similarities and differences in the language messages of representatives of different cultures, the causes of misunderstandings and ways to overcome these obstacles in intercultural communication.

In addition, Hall introduced the concepts of “intercultural”, “cross-cultural” and “multicultural” into scientific circulation and developed a methodology for teaching a foreign language based on mastering not only its lexical and grammatical features, but also cultural artifacts inherent in the ethnic group as a native speaker of the language being taught.

The problem of cross-cultural and intercultural communication has been studied over the years by: O. Bogdanov (2012)⁴, W. Baker (2022)⁵, W. Baker and T. Ishikawa (2021)⁶, I. S. Bakhov (2012)⁷, Galitska M. M. (2014)⁸, J. Gray (2010)⁹, T. McConachy, I. Golubeva, and M. Wagner (2022)¹⁰, T. J. Young and I. Sachdev (2011)¹¹, H. Zhu (2019)¹², and others.

³ Hall E. T. (1998). *How cultures collide. Culture, communication, and conflict: readings in intercultural relations.* (pp. 9–16). Needham Heights, MA : Simon and Schuster Publishing.

⁴ Bogdanov O. (2012). Cross-cultural aspect of linguistics as a phenomenon of the latest philosophy of education. *Philosophy*, 1 (115), 150–152. DOI: [https://doi.org/10.21847/1728-9343.2012.1\(115\).16377](https://doi.org/10.21847/1728-9343.2012.1(115).16377)

⁵ Baker W. (2022). *Intercultural and Transcultural Awareness in Language Teaching.* Cambridge : Cambridge University Press. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108874120>

⁶ Baker W., and Ishikawa T. (2021). *Transcultural Communication through Global Englishes.* Abingdon : Routledge.

⁷ Bakhov I. S. (2012) Intercultural communication in the context of the globalising dialogue of cultures. *Bulletin of the National Academy of the State Border Guard Service of Ukraine*, 2, 9.

⁸ Galitska M. M. (2014) Intercultural communication and its importance for the professional activity of future specialists. *Educational discourse*, 2 (6), 23–32.

⁹ Gray J. (2010). *The Construction of English: Culture, Consumerism and Promotion in the ELT Global Coursebook.* Basingstoke : Palgrave Macmillan.

¹⁰ McConachy T., Golubeva, I., and Wagner, M. (2022). *Intercultural Learning in Language Education and Beyond: Evolving Concepts, Perspectives and Practices.* Bristol : Multilingual Matters.

¹¹ Young T. J., and I. Sachdev. (2011). 'Intercultural Communicative Competence: Exploring English Language Teachers' Beliefs and Practices.' *Language Awareness*, 20 (2), 81–98.

¹² Zhu H. (2019). *Exploring Intercultural Communication: Language in Action.* 2nd ed. Abingdon : Routledge.

Materials and Methods

The methodology of this article is based on the study of the philosophical aspects of cross-cultural communication that ensure the success of communication relations and understanding in the modern globalized world. The study of this topic is carried out by summarizing and systematizing information material that allows us to define and understand the meaning of these concepts for modern intercultural communication, as well as to assess their respective significance for a modern person who wants to achieve successful communicative intercultural discourse. Analysis and synthesis were widely used in the course of this study. With the help of analysis, a detailed analysis of scientific sources of information was carried out, including studies that combined the significance and influence of different cultures on the formation of the features of intercultural interaction. The process of formation of the concepts of cross-cultural communication and intercultural communication by W. Humboldt (1972)¹ and his first approaches to the linguistic features of a person and his interaction with culture to modern authors such as E. T. Hall (1998), A. Holliday (2011)², W. Baker (2022)³, R. Scollon, S. B. K. Scollon and R. H. Jones (2012)⁴, M. Byram (2021)⁵, A. Gladcova (2023)⁶ and others. The analysis of this literature allowed us to systematize the general aspects of cross-cultural communication that a modern person should have in order to put them into practice in successful intercultural communication. We also separately considered the challenges posed by the modern globalized world, which are faced by people in a world of transformational changes, conflicts, and open borders for successful cultural interaction.

The method of synthesis was used to combine the results obtained through analysis and construction into a single system. This method was also used to demonstrate the integration of various cross-cultural and intercultural communication opportunities for cultural interaction. It was in this way that the available data from various scientific sources were combined and a general idea of the possibilities of the relationship between people and culture was formulated.

Generalization as a method was used primarily to formulate the conclusions of this study. Based on the results of this study, it was concluded that by combining different philosophical aspects in cross-cultural communication, it is possible to achieve successful intercultural communication at the level of the modern globalized world. It is also worth noting that generalization as a method was used to identify general patterns of cultural influence on communication, and in this context, the method

¹ Humboldt W. (1972) *Linguistic Variability and Intellectual Development*. University of Pennsylvania Press. 320 p.

² Holliday A. (2011). *Intercultural Communication and Ideology*. London : Sage.

³ Baker, W. (2022). *Intercultural and Transcultural Awareness in Language Teaching*. Cambridge : Cambridge University Press. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108874120>

⁴ Scollon R., Scollon S. B. K., and Jones R. H. (2012). *Intercultural Communication: A Discourse Approach*. 3rd ed. Chichester : Wiley-Blackwell.

⁵ Byram M. (2021). *Teaching and Assessing Intercultural Communicative Competence: Revisited*. Bristol : Multilingual Matters.

⁶ Gladcova A. (2023). *Cross-Cultural Pragmatics*. Oxford Bibliographies. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1093/obo/9780199772810-0313>

of systematization was also used to present the main material of the study in a logical and consistent manner, from the beginnings of cross-cultural interaction to the possibility of successful intercultural communication. The systematization was also used to organize knowledge on culture, language, philosophy, and the processes of their formation and various aspects of their interaction. A careful selection of literature and scientific sources was made based on a large number of criteria, such as relevance, fundamental nature in terms of the historical formation of concepts, practicality of methods for improving thinking, and the modernity of the research. Articles and books describing modern approaches to the development of the possibility of interaction between communication and culture, as well as studies on the practical implementation of cross-cultural and intercultural communication were accepted for the study. The literature search was conducted in various scientometric databases, including Google Scholar, Web of Science, and Scopus. The key concepts used for scientific research were “intercultural communication”, “cross-cultural communication”, “philosophy”, “society”, “human”, “globalization processes” and others.

The use of popular databases made it possible to broadly cover scientific sources of information, on the basis of which the theoretical and practical aspects of the influence of culture on communication, and on intercultural communication in particular, were analyzed. The holistic application of the above methods made it possible to highlight the opportunities and challenges of cross-cultural communication for a modern person who seeks to succeed in today’s globalized world.

To summarize, the following methods were used in the study:

1. Analysis and synthesis – in the study of scientific literature and the identification of the latest trends in the development of cross-cultural communication – in defining the main terms of cross-cultural communication;
2. Comparative method – in comparing linguistic and literary phenomena at the intersection of cultural influences;
3. Historical method and the method of diachrony – in the study of the genesis of the cross-cultural approach in philosophy;
4. The method of synchrony – in the analysis of cross-cultural communication on the synchronous cut of the last decade;
5. The method of generalization – for the formation of scientific and theoretical conclusions about the features and benefits of using the cross-cultural approach in the modern globalized world.

Results and Discussion

The new experience of the universe, which is directly related to globalization processes, the development of science and technology, poses challenges to us: cross-cultural dialogue, which is conditioned by intercultural meanings and symbols of different peoples and historical epochs. The fight against egocentrism in the modern world order is of particular importance. The modern world is a world of dialogue between civilizations and cultures.

The principles of interaction between cultures are determined by the principles of interaction between people, since a person cannot exist in isolation from other

people, and no culture can function in isolation from other cultures and processes that take place in other nations at the intercultural level. In the process of its existence, it is necessary to constantly refer to its own historical past and to other cultures that have a separate experience. Today we have to recognize the fact that the existence of neighboring states also forms a synergy of “neighboring cultures”, since there are almost no isolated cultural communities in the world, except perhaps some tribal communities that exist in isolation. Interaction and communication between different cultures and societies is an absolutely normal state of affairs in the modern world, as countries are open to interaction, on the one hand, ready to share their unique traditions, and on the other hand, ready to accept cultural traditions of other countries. This type of activity and interaction between different cultures is called intercultural communication.

In the modern world, the process of interaction of cultural ties takes place through various spheres of human life, the process of interaction is realized through tourism, sports, personal contacts, etc. In addition, the changes that have been taking place in the world in recent years, both economic, social and political, have led to large-scale changes in migration and resettlement of people. As a result of these processes, the barriers of language, society, and, of course, culture are being erased. That is why there is a real interaction between different cultures, through the interaction of individuals, and this is how intercultural communication is realized.

The real understanding of the “global meanings” of cross-cultural communication depends on the cognitive capabilities of the communicator and the recipient of the message, the general context; depending on the interpretation strategies used, the knowledge gained, beliefs, attitudes, interests and goals, each participant in communication attributes to the discourse the meaning of their macrostructure of the text; different meanings are distinguished as basic, most important or interesting; cross-cultural communication is endowed with different themes and main content. Successful communication depends on whether language users share “common meanings and knowledge”. At the same time, the text is “a sign model of a particular mental content, i.e., some fragment of the conceptual system of a person. The content of the text grows out of the integral activity of the interpreter, which is a purposefully organized sequence of actions.

Successful intercultural communication is realized when two interlocutors are willing to find a compromise and hear and listen to each other despite the fact that they are representatives of different cultures. To summarize, intercultural communication is always interpersonal communication in a certain context, when one interlocutor finds unique features of another culture in the other interlocutor. Such communication causes a large number of problems that are related to the difference in expectations and beliefs that are inherent in each person individually, as well as inherent in different cultures as such. The uniqueness of cultures can be interpreted as the difference between verbal and non-verbal codes in a specific communication context.

At the same time, each interlocutor has his or her own system of rules that function so that the messages sent and received can be understood by both parties. The process

of interpretation and mutual understanding is influenced by age, gender, profession, social status, intellectual level and, of course, tolerance, personal experience and creativity.

Intercultural communication is characterized by the fact that its participants in direct contact use special language variants and discursive strategies that are different from those used in the process of communication between people belonging to the same culture. The concept of cross-cultural communication is often used, which usually refers to the study of a specific phenomenon in two or more cultures and has the additional meaning of comparing the communicative competence of interlocutors from different cultures.

The ability to separate the differences between different communicative competencies is inherent in all people, but the specific realization of this ability is conditioned by cultural characteristics. In addition, it is also conditioned by the unique individual experience of each person, which implies that in communication, through which messages are exchanged, meanings are constantly reproduced, since they do not coincide even among people who speak the same language, grew up and were brought up in the same culture. It is obvious that in the presence of different cultures and different languages, communication becomes so complicated that absolute understanding is not possible, but relative understanding is.

From birth, people belong to many groups, and it is in these formulations that their communication competence is defined. Larger groups, usually referred to as cultures, significantly determine the cognitive and pragmatic basis of communication activities.

In the process of communication, messages are exchanged, i.e., information is transferred from one participant to another. Since people cannot communicate directly – for example, by sending electrical impulses from one brain to another – information is encoded using a certain symbolic system. The information is transmitted and then decoded, or more broadly interpreted, by the recipient of the message. Thus, communication is a complex, symbolic, personal, transactional, and often unconscious process that is of necessity inaccurate. Communication allows participants to express some role external to them, in which they are in relation to each other.

The term “intercultural communication” in a narrow sense appeared in the literature in the 1970s. The famous textbook by L. Samovar and R. Porter “Communication between Cultures”, first published in 1972, gives a definition similar to the one above. By this time, a scientific field had also been formed, the core of which was the study of communication failures and their consequences in intercultural communication situations. Subsequently, the concept of intercultural communication was expanded to include such areas as translation theory, foreign language teaching, comparative cultural studies, contrastive pragmatics, etc. The results of the research were descriptions of cultural specificity in the expression and interpretation of situational language actions of communicators. From the very beginning, these studies were of great practical importance and were used in numerous developments for practical classes (trainings) for the development of cross-cultural communication.

Intercultural communication as a social phenomenon was caused by the practical needs of the world, because wars, which were ideologically supported by the interest that spread around the world from the beginning of the 20th century, also constructed a system of relationships. These needs provoked and shaped attitudes toward so-called “exotic” cultures and languages in the scientific community and in the public consciousness. Practical needs have arisen due to the rapid economic development of many countries and regions, revolutionary changes in technology associated with this globalization of economic activity. As a result, the world has become much smaller – the density and intensity of long-term contacts between representatives of different cultures have increased dramatically and continue to grow. In addition to the economy itself, the most important areas of professional and social intercultural communication were education, tourism, and science.

It should be said that the recognition of the absolute value of the world's diverse cultures, the rejection of colonizing cultural policies, and the realization of the fragility of existence and the threat of destruction of the vast majority of traditional cultures and languages have led to the growth of the respective disciplines, relying on the new in history, which are within each other. Among the many scholars, many anthropologists, ethnographers, linguists, and culturalists working on the traditional societies, cultures, and languages described above have contributed to the idea of the multipolarity of the human community, with special attention being paid to American researchers who have made a significant contribution to the development of this field. The linguist and anthropologist Franz Boas and his work “The Languages of the North American Indians”, which appeared in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

Today, there are vast territories on our planet that are structurally and organically united in one social system with their cultural traditions. For example, we can talk about American culture, Latin American culture, African culture, European culture, Asian culture, etc. These cultures are distinguished on a continental basis and are called macrocultures due to their scale. Within macrocultures, there are both subcultural differences and common features that allow us to speak of the existence of such macrocultures and to refer to the population of the respective regions as representatives of one culture. There are global differences between macrocultures that affect their communication with each other. In this case, intercultural communication is carried out regardless of the status of its participants in the horizontal plane.

At the same time, many people are part of certain public groups characterized by their cultural characteristics. Structurally, these are microcultures (subcultures) as part of macroculture. Each microculture has both similarities and differences with its parent culture, thanks to which its representatives perceive the world in the same way. However, the mother culture differs from the microculture by ethnicity, religion, geographic location, economic status, demographic characteristics, and social status of its members. In other words, subcultures are the cultures of different social groups and layers in one society, and the connection between subcultures runs in this society and is vertical.

Thus, the interaction of cultures can be considered at the macro, micro, and mixed levels. Intercultural communication at the micro level takes several forms. Such as:

- regional communication involves communication between residents of different regions (localities), whose behavior in the same situation may differ significantly;
- communication between social classes and groups is aimed at communication between social groups and classes of a certain society;
- countercultural communication takes place between representatives of the mother culture and its elements and groups that do not agree with the dominant values and ideals of the mother culture;
- interethnic communication is communication between people from different countries (ethnic groups);
- urban-rural communication – communication between urban and rural people in terms of lifestyle and pace of life;
- communication between representatives of different demographic groups, sexual ages;
- communication in business culture, i.e. corporate culture.

Intercultural communication at the macro level involves communication between peoples and states, as a result of which meanings, norms, knowledge are created, preserved and accumulated, and mutual enrichment of different cultures takes place.

It should be noted that, like any other type of communication, intercultural communication at all levels has its own goals, the realization of which determines the effectiveness (or ineffectiveness) of communication. The concept of “intercultural competence” plays an important role here, which is understood as the level of interpersonal experience and interaction with others.

In this regard, intercultural communication can be viewed as the ability to form someone else’s cultural identity (knowledge of the language, values, norms, standards of behavior of another communicative community); To succeed in contacts with representatives of another cultural community, even with insufficient knowledge of the basic elements of the culture of their partners.

The structure of intercultural competence includes the following groups of elements:

- affective elements – empathy and tolerance, which are the basis for effective intercultural interaction;
- cognitive elements – cultural and specific knowledge, which is the basis for an adequate interpretation of the communication behavior of representatives of another culture;
- procedural elements – strategies (for a successful course of interaction, motivation of speech actions, search for common cultural elements, strategies aimed at replenishing knowledge about the cultural background of the partner, used in situations of intercultural contacts.
 - based on the selected groups of elements, it is possible to identify ways to develop intercultural competence:
 - development of the ability to reflect one’s own and other cultures, which initially prepares a person for a friendly attitude to the manifestations of foreign culture;

- enhancing knowledge about the relevant culture for a deep understanding of the diachronic and synchronous relations between one's own culture and another;
- acquiring knowledge about the conditions of socialization and shelter in one's own and another culture, about social stratification, socio-cultural forms of interaction accepted in both cultures.

Intercultural communication research can be divided into psychological, sociological, and linguistic areas. This division depends on both the object of study and the methods used. Councils working in the field of intercultural communication use traditional survey methods with a certain number of selected groups of respondents. More general sociological problems are related to the social adaptation of migrants, the preservation or loss of traditional cultures in national minorities, etc.

Psychologists in the field of intercultural communication are primarily interested in the influence of cultural differences on the processes of interpretation and categorization, as well as in the nature of the corresponding behavioral stereotypes. Since the 1970s, the important concepts of anxiety, uncertainty, the potential scope of categories, the peculiarities of intergroup categorization, and many others have been studied using social psychology methods.

When it comes to communication, especially intercultural communication, it is very difficult to draw a line between philosophical, sociological, and psychological research. All of them deal with communication that occurs in the process or is transmitted through it and is marked by complex categories – meanings, motives, attitudes, stereotypes and prejudices. And only linguists are primarily interested in how this happens. What in a language message signals the presence of intercultural interaction? What exactly characterizes the messages exchanged by representatives of different cultures? In what communicative context does this manifest itself? How exactly does misunderstanding and incomplete understanding occur, and what linguistic features and mechanisms do or do not allow compensating for misunderstanding or understanding?

It should be noted that in recent decades, discourse has been studied as a kind of integral process central to communicative activity. The complexity and universality of the phenomenon of discourse, which attempts to identify the main factors influencing its forms, quickly led to the development of a number of areas that study the inappropriate linguistic constructs (besides grammar and vocabulary) that ensure the existence of discourse. Within the framework of pragmatic factors of discourse, cultural factors have been identified. Discourse is about the same thing, even if it is very rigidly established (e.g., a business letter, an expression of condolence, meeting at a meeting, apologizing for being late, etc. Not to mention traditional genres such as fairy tales or ritual formulas) – the topic is very different in terms of the actual discourse rules (macro and micro structures used), depending on the culture of the group within that communication. For example, in Southeast Asia, the text of a business letter is constructed inductively: first, the reasons, circumstances, and only at the end, the requirements or business proposals. Representatives of European and North American traditions have a different vision of writing a business letter.

For them, this style is not the language of business. From their point of view, such a letter should begin with a statement of the main requirement or sentence, followed by justification and details. Another version of research on the pragmatic aspects of discourse was the so-called cross-cultural pragmatics, which deals with the comparative analysis of certain principles that characterize communication activities and relevant cultural scenarios. Among the most important and at the same time it is the “principle of politeness” by P. Brown and S. Levinson and their numerous works on speech acts are somehow based on this principle – prohibition, apology. Cross-cultural differences are manifested, in particular, in the type of politeness – based on solidarity or on maintaining distance – that is characteristic of different cultures.

The term “cross-culturalism” was coined in the nineteenth century and means “crossroads of cultures”. A long time passed before it became relevant in American philosophy and then in psychology. According to a number of scholars, cross-culturalism is seen as a synthesis of linguistic and cultural studies and intercultural communication.

Modern philosophy considers cross-culturalism as a methodological basis for the study of the humanities. Cross-cultural trends in the development of philosophy do not mean the division of any particular culture, since in methodological terms, the intercultural approach excludes the predominant role of any system of concepts (Riker P.). From the intersectional position, the current situation in the world is considered hermeneutical as a way of conducting a dialogue of cultures, religions, and ideologies.

Proponents of modern intercultural philosophy seek to achieve the grounds that facilitate communication with “others” and to adopt a hermeneutic approach that speaks of the rejection of the absolutization of any culture (including one’s own) at both the individual and cultural levels. Cross-culturalism and interculturalism in philosophy is a polyphonic process that strives for harmony between different “voices” and a constant desire to understand someone else’s opinion. It should be noted that cross-culturalism contributes to a more accurate understanding of the problem of the cultural identity of a particular human community, considered in the process of cross-cultural interaction and mutual enrichment, the action of dynamics and constant cross-cultural relations and overcoming the unconditional priority of their own cultural traditions over the “unchanging” ones.

The cross-cultural approach is the most relevant in the description of linguistic facts at the present stage as a general methodological prerequisite for scientific knowledge. It involves tolerant relations between ethnic groups and the creation of favorable conditions for the development of language systems. Cross-culturalism in linguistic and linguistic aspects is the field of scientific knowledge about language, the formation of a personality’s linguistic paradigm in a multicultural world, the interconnection and mutual influence of language and culture. A linguistic personality who knows the culture of foreign communication is based on the ideas of anthropological linguistics and the teaching of linguistic features of the personality. National (ethnic) stereotypes are the most common and dangerous for intercultural communication.

Intercultural communication can be successful only if tolerance is observed – tolerant communication behaviour that involves the development of politeness, language etiquette, political correctness and communication culture. The three T's – Patience, Tolerance, Tolerance – are the formula for intercultural communication. A positive understanding of tolerance is achieved through clarifying its opposite – intolerance, or intolerance, which is based on the belief that your group, your system of beliefs, your way of life are superior to all others. The most common manifestations of intolerance are racism, nationalism, discrimination, exile, segregation, repression, religious persecution, etc. (Manakin, 2012)¹.

Cross-cultural linguistic research often takes the form of a comparative analysis of the “language” of two culturally opposite groups that seem to use one common language code. The most striking example of this kind is Deborah Tannen’s work on the peculiarities of the communicative behavior of men and women. The simplest statements made by representatives of these two groups are made in the same language. And the same English language, which is not understood by them in the same way in different scenarios.

So, when a “standard” woman complains about a “standard” man, their problems and they themselves find themselves involved in completely different communicative actions: the woman wants sympathy for herself, and the man at the same time believes that she expects practical advice from him. Tannen’s (1990)² most famous book is called *You Just Don’t Understand*.

Thus, cross-culturalism is not only and not so much a tool or method of cognition of reality, but, above all, cross-culturalism is seen as a new way of thinking, a worldview that accompanies tolerance and an essential component of the peaceful preservation of different peoples and the development of civilization in a multicultural society.

Conclusions

Summarizing the study of the philosophical aspects of cross-cultural communication in the modern globalized world, it should be noted that the cross-cultural philosophical approach to the study and analysis of interaction between different nations is equally important and relevant in the modern world of constant transformations and global conflicts. Anthropological philosophical research, from the historical and philosophical works of the founders of cross-cultural communication to the current state of society and the interaction of different nations and states, has had a significant impact on the formation of cross-cultural discourse. These studies are not abstract, but relate to quite practical specific vectors and forms of interaction between different people who are native speakers of language and culture and societies, nations, and states. In other words, modern cross-cultural communication is inseparable from anthropological, or rather anthropocentric communication of modern anthropologists, philosophers, cultural studies, sociologists, linguists and other scholars. The cross-cultural approach in philosophy is defined as a type of comparative research, the object and subject of which

¹ Manakin V. M. (2012) *Language and intercultural communication*. Kyiv, Akademia. 288 p.

² Tannen D. (1990) *You Just Don’t Understand: Women and Men in Conversation*. 342 p.

is cultural and linguistic interaction. The cross-cultural approach is mostly used as an empirical method, but in recent decades there has been a tendency to reach the level of thorough philosophical generalizations. Contemporary cross-cultural studies are mostly interdisciplinary in nature and try to take into account international interaction. They are conducted mainly at the intersection of such disciplines as philosophy, cultural studies, anthropology, linguocultural studies, cross-cultural pragmatics and intercultural communication. At the same time, the boundaries of the subject of philosophical aspects of cross-cultural communication are expanding, where the issue of interaction from “person-to-person” is moving to the level of “person-to-society”, trying to take into account national, cultural, linguistic and other aspects. Cross-cultural communication in the globalized world also reaches the level of social networks, public discourse, both at the level of one society and at the level of international relations. This study can be continued in the direction of specifying cross-cultural communication, for example, in the field of diplomacy or international perspectives.

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4.2. Socio-Political Challenges of Ukrainian Postwar Reality and the Phenomenon of Civic Maturity: Existential Quests in the Horizon of European Perspectives

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Abstract

The article is devoted to the analysis of modern socio-political transformations of Ukraine in the wartime and postwar period, the phenomenon of civic maturity as a response to the existential challenges of war, and the role of the European perspective in shaping a new political culture. The introduction outlines the context and problem of the study. The literature review discusses theoretical approaches to the concepts of civic maturity and social change during war, including the experience of Ukraine after the Revolution of Dignity. The main analytical part contains three subsections: (1) socio-political transformations of the war and prospects for post-war development; (2) manifestations of civic maturity (consciousness, mobilization, activism, responsibility) in the context of war; (3)

the importance of the European integration course and values in the formation of a new Ukrainian political culture. The conclusions summarize the results of the study and outline the challenges and opportunities on Ukraine's path to a European future.

Keywords: *civic maturity, Ukrainian post-war reality, political challenges, political life after the war, prospects for European integration.*

Introduction

Ukrainian society is facing unprecedented challenges caused by a large-scale war and the need for post-war reconstruction. Russian aggression has threatened the very existence of Ukraine as a sovereign state, while mobilizing Ukrainians to extraordinary unity and resilience. This war is taking on an existential dimension: it has become a confrontation between the democratic world and neo-imperial authoritarianism, between “liberal modernity and postmodern illiberalism”, where the future of the world order of values is at stake (Mariana, 2024)¹. In such conditions, new socio-political realities of Ukraine are being formed, which lay the foundation for a “democratic Ukraine forged in the crucible of war”.

The experience of the Revolution of Dignity of 2013–2014 (Euromaidan) laid the foundation for a new political culture and active civil society. As a number of researchers have noted, Euromaidan became a catalyst for the development of a “third Ukraine” – a modern Ukrainian identity with a strong civic (not just ethnic) core. It gave impetus to urban civic movements in Ukraine and encouraged many citizens to take greater responsibility for the country's fate. After the Maidan, there was a steady increase in local activism: in different regions, citizens self-organized to protect the rights of residents, preserve historical heritage, and control the authorities.

The volunteer movement that emerged in 2014 with the outbreak of the war in Donbas is particularly noteworthy. According to analysts, “the rise of civic participation after the Maidan was mainly aimed at countering Russian aggression: new grassroots initiatives to help the army and IDPs appeared all over Ukraine” (Shapovalova, 2017)². This experience of self-organization and volunteerism gained in 2014–2021 became a valuable capital of civil society, which fully manifested itself after the start of the full-scale invasion in 2022.

In the context of a full-scale war that has been going on since 2022, Ukrainian society has faced unprecedented existential challenges that require not only physical resistance but also profound transformations of political culture, consciousness, and civil society structures. These processes are becoming the subject of active scientific reflection in the global discourse. Researchers emphasize the phenomenon of civic maturity as one of the key factors of resistance, survival, and renewal of democratic identity in times of crisis. In particular, Leonchuk, Zetina-Beale, and Johnson (2023)³

¹ Mariana B. (2024, 1 July). *Safeguarding Ukraine's democracy during the war*. Brookings. URL: <https://www.brookings.edu/articles/safeguarding-ukraines-democracy-during-the-war/>

² Shapovalova N. (2017, 1 January). Chapter 8 Ukraine: civic volunteerism and the legacy of Euromaidan. URL: <https://www.jstor.org/stable/resrep26909.14>

³ Leonchuk L., Zetina-Beale R., Johnson E. (2023, 22 February). *Examining the Role of Civil Society in Ukraine during Wartime*. RTI International | Research Institute. URL: <https://www.rti.org/impact/examining-role-civil-society-ukraine-during-wartime>

analyze the wave of civic mobilization after the start of the full-scale invasion as a manifestation of deep civic responsibility and maturity.

At the same time, Zarembo (2023)¹ records the strengthening of social subjectivity, which is manifested in the growing participation of citizens in volunteer, humanitarian and political initiatives.

The global academic community interprets the war in Ukraine as a catalyst for civilizational choice (Leonchuk, Zetina-Beale, & Jojnsen, 2023)², which forces society to consolidate around democratic values and the European perspective. At the same time, researchers warn of the risks of “democratic compression” in a state of emergency – reduced pluralism, strengthening of the executive vertical, and postponement of elections (Mariana, 2024; Shumak, 2024)³. This creates a unique situation in which social mobilization and maturity coexist with challenges to democracy.

The issue of civic maturity is also studied in pedagogical and socio-psychological aspects. Buzhyna, Galitsan, and Imeridze (2020)⁴ emphasize that this quality is formed through a set of civic competencies – political consciousness, morality, legal orientation, and patriotism. In this sense, war acts as a forced space for civic education, in which new ethical and behavioral standards are formed for Ukrainians of all generations.

Against the backdrop of these processes, the issue of the European choice is becoming particularly relevant. Onuch (2024)⁵ shows that support for EU accession has become not only a geopolitical benchmark, but also a symbol of national dignity and value self-determination. In this context, EU integration appears as a key factor in shaping a new political culture based on the rule of law, transparency, accountability, and institutional trust.

However, as Koshiw (2023)⁶ and Terzyan (2024)⁷ note, post-war reconstruction and EU integration are not without challenges. Corruption, governance

¹ Zarembo K. (2023, 1 June). *The Resilience and Trauma of Ukraine's Civil Society*. Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. URL: <https://carnegieendowment.org/research/2023/06/the-resilience-and-trauma-of-ukraines-civil-society?lang=en¢re=europe>

² Leonchuk L., Zetina-Beale R., Jojnsen E. (2023, 22 February). *Examining the Role of Civil Society in Ukraine during Wartime*. RTI International | Research Institute. URL: <https://www.rti.org/impact/examining-role-civil-society-ukraine-during-wartime>

³ Shumak I., Batan Y., Kravchenko S., Hedulianov V., Bysaha Y. (2024). Representative democracy under martial law. *Revista Amazonia Investiga*, 13 (77), 159–169. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.34069/ai/2024.77.05.12>

⁴ Buzhyna I. V., Galitsan O. A., Imeridze M. B. (2024). Scientific approaches to the study of the problem of forming civic maturity in the process of professional training of future teachers. *Bulletin of the National University 'Chernihiv Collegium' named after T. G. Shevchenko*, 166 (10), 138–142.

⁵ Onuch O., Way L. (2024, May). *Why Ukraine's Elections Can Wait*. *Journal of Democracy*. *Journal of Democracy*. URL: <https://www.journalofdemocracy.org/online-exclusive/why-ukraines-elections-can-wait/>

⁶ Koshiw I. (2023, 24 Jan.). *Zelenskiy ramps up anti-corruption drive as 15 Ukrainian officials exit*. *The Guardian*. URL: <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2023/jan/24/zelenskiy-anti-corruption-drive-15-ukrainian-officials-exit>

⁷ Terzyan A. (2024). Dissecting the Political Landscape of War-Torn Ukraine: Between Internal Challenges and External Threats. *Journal of Liberty and International Affairs, Institute for Research and European Studies – Bitola*, 10 (2), 137–151. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.47305/jlia24102137t>

dysfunctions, population fatigue, and social fragmentation all require a high level of civic participation, active control, and critical thinking. That is why analyzing the phenomenon of civic maturity is essential for understanding the potential of sustainable democratic development.

The relevance of this study is due to the fact that the phenomenon of civic maturity in the Ukrainian context is insufficiently studied in a period of deep social crisis. The focus of scientific analysis remains on the general processes of mobilization, patriotism, and institutional transformation, while the specific mechanisms of formation and manifestation of civic maturity in relation to the European value horizon require further study.

The purpose of the study is to identify the key manifestations of civic maturity of Ukrainian society in the context of wartime and post-war reality, as well as to analyze its relationship with political culture and the European vector of development. The tasks include: (1) theoretical substantiation of the concept of civic maturity; (2) analysis of socio-political transformations related to the war; (3) identification of the role of European integration in strengthening democratic identity. The scientific novelty lies in a comprehensive approach to the phenomenon of civic maturity in the context of an existential threat, combining sociological, political and value perspectives.

Literature Review

The issue of the impact of war on society and the state has traditionally attracted the attention of scholars in the fields of political science, sociology, and philosophy. Classical theories indicate that in times of extreme threats, societies are capable of high cohesion and mobilization, but at the same time, there are risks of concentration of power and erosion of democratic institutions. From the first days of the full-scale invasion, researchers have recorded an unprecedented rise in patriotism, volunteerism, and civic solidarity in Ukraine, which is seen as a manifestation of the maturity of civil society. At the same time, analysts warn about “undercurrents” – the danger of a democratic rollback due to martial law, the growth of the power vertical, restrictions on pluralism, etc. Theoretically, these processes can be understood through the prism of the concepts of national consolidation (rally-round-the-flag effect) and the “compression” of democracy in wartime, as well as through the concept of resilience of society – its ability to adapt and preserve its core values under the pressure of existential threats. Special attention should be paid to the phenomenon of civic maturity. In the national scientific literature, this concept is closely related to civic competence, consciousness and activity of the individual. In particular, researchers and educators characterize civic maturity through a set of personality traits and values: “patriotism, legal consciousness, political awareness, morality, labor activity” (Buzhyna, Galitsan, & Imeridze, 2020)⁸. In other words, a mature citizen is aware of his or her rights and responsibilities, thinks critically,

⁸ Buzhyna I. V., Galitsan O. A., Imeridze M. B. (2024). Scientific approaches to the study of the problem of forming civic maturity in the process of professional training of future teachers. *Bulletin of the National University 'Chernihiv Collegium' named after T. G. Shevchenko*, 166 (10), 138–142.

upholds democratic principles, and takes responsibility for the community. The formation of such qualities is seen as the goal of civic education and the upbringing of a conscious patriot and professional capable of self-development and building a democratic society. In the scientific discourse, the problem of civic maturity in wartime is analyzed from an interdisciplinary perspective – political science, sociology, psychology and pedagogy. Considerable attention is paid to the analysis of the Ukrainian context, where war is a powerful factor in the transformation of civil society.

Shapovalova (2017)¹ emphasizes the influence of Euromaidan as a starting point for modern Ukrainian activism, which resulted in a powerful wave of volunteerism after the outbreak of war in 2014. Leonchuk, Zetina-Beale, and Johnson (2023)² consider the full-scale invasion of 2022 as a catalyst for new civic mobilization and responsibility, indicating a deep civic maturity. Zarembo (2023)³ emphasizes the formation of an active civic core that self-organizes under extreme stress while maintaining ethical norms and democratic values.

The pedagogical dimension of civic maturity is revealed by Buzhyna, Galitsan, and Imeridze (2020)⁴, who interpret it as a set of civic competencies: legal awareness, morality, political activism, and patriotism. This approach allows us to interpret war as an accelerated space for civic education.

Hordiichuk and Hrytsenko (2023)⁵ characterize civil society as a fundamental element of the democratic system, emphasizing the importance of self-organization, legal awareness and citizen engagement in times of war. In their research, Malinowska and Kryviuk (2023)⁶ emphasize the impact of war on national identity, which is gradually shifting towards an inclusive understanding of the political nation.

Thus, the research work covers both theoretical and practical aspects of civic maturity, revealing it through the prism of social mobilization, institutional transformation, ethical consciousness, and democratic identity. He confirms that civic maturity has become not only a reaction to the war, but also a foundation for Ukraine's future democratic progress.

¹ Shapovalova N. (2017, 1 January). Chapter 8 Ukraine: civic volunteerism and the legacy of Euromaidan. URL: <https://www.jstor.org/stable/resrep26909.14>

² Leonchuk L., Zetina-Beale R., Jojnsion E. (2023, 22 February). *Examining the Role of Civil Society in Ukraine during Wartime*. RTI International | Research Institute. URL: <https://www.rti.org/impact/examining-role-civil-society-ukraine-during-wartime>

³ Zarembo K. (2023, 1 June). *The Resilience and Trauma of Ukraine's Civil Society*. Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. URL: <https://carnegieendowment.org/research/2023/06/the-resilience-and-trauma-of-ukraines-civil-society?lang=en¢re=europe>

⁴ Buzhyna I. V., Galitsan O. A., Imeridze M. B. (2024). Scientific approaches to the study of the problem of forming civic maturity in the process of professional training of future teachers. *Bulletin of the National University 'Chernihiv Collegium' named after T. G. Shevchenko*, 166 (10), 138–142.

⁵ Hordiychuk O., Hrytsenko Y. (b.d.). The role of civil society in protecting the national security of Ukraine. URL: <https://conf.ztu.edu.ua/wp-content/uploads/2023/06/32.pdf>.

⁶ Malinowska O., Kryviuk D. (2023). A mechanism for involving the public in monitoring the activities of local self-government bodies. *Balanced nature using*, (4), 66–72. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.33730/2310-4678.4.2023.292711>

Materials and methods

The study was conducted in 2022–2024 on the territory of Ukraine, which was experiencing a full-scale war and the beginning of post-war reconstruction. The subject of the study was socio-political processes, civic engagement, and the transformation of the political culture of Ukrainian society. The choice of phenomena under consideration was determined by their impact on strengthening civic maturity, democratic institutions and integration prospects of Ukraine.

The study uses a comprehensive approach that includes qualitative and quantitative research methods. The main methods used were the analysis of scientific sources, documentary analysis, and the comparative historical method according to Tilly (2004). To analyze the state of civic consciousness and activity, the method of a sociological survey was used according to the standard Gallup methodology (Gallup, 2016).

The stages of the study included: formulation of the goal and objectives, selection and analysis of literary sources, analysis of the data obtained, comparative analysis of socio-political processes before and after the outbreak of war, and formulation of conclusions and recommendations.

Thus, scholarly approaches to the topic combine several perspectives: (1) security and political, which analyzes cohesion and governance during the war; (2) social and psychological, which focuses on civic consciousness, patriotism, and traumatic experiences; (3) value and civilization, which views the war as a struggle for European democratic values. All of these aspects are important for understanding how the existential challenges of war affect Ukrainian society and how a new quality of civic maturity and political culture is being formed on the European path.

Results and Discussion

The full-scale war has caused profound socio-political changes in Ukraine. First of all, there is an unprecedented level of national unity and mass mobilization of the population in support of the country's defense. In the face of a mortal threat, Ukrainians have united regardless of language, regional or political differences, forming a cohesive front against the aggressor. "Polls record phenomenal consolidation rates: as early as April 2022, about 80 % of citizens were involved in forms of resistance in one way or another, from information support and volunteering to participation in terrorist activities, in addition to the 3 % of the population who joined the Armed Forces" (Zarembo, 2023)⁷.

Volunteer and charitable initiatives covered all areas, from providing the army with equipment to helping refugees. In the first six months of the war alone, "86 % of Ukrainians financially supported defense or humanitarian needs (on average 9 times), 79 % participated in fundraising for the Armed Forces or terrorism, and 42 % personally volunteered" (Leonchuk, Zetina-Beale, & Jojnsen, 2023)⁸.

⁷ Zarembo K. (2023, 1 June). *The Resilience and Trauma of Ukraine's Civil Society*. Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. URL: <https://carnegieendowment.org/research/2023/06/the-resilience-and-trauma-of-ukraines-civil-society?lang=en¢re=europe>

⁸ Leonchuk L., Zetina-Beale R., Jojnsen E. (2023, 22 February). *Examining the Role of Civil Society in Ukraine during Wartime*. RTI International | Research Institute. URL: <https://www.rti.org/impact/examining-role-civil-society-ukraine-during-wartime>

“Importantly, more than half of these volunteers had never volunteered before, meaning that the war awakened civic engagement among those who had previously stayed away”¹.

“Each new enemy attack only strengthened society’s determination to resist: for example, after the massive shelling of Ukrainian cities on October 10, 2022, a number of funds raised \$5.6 million in donations in 12 hours” (Zarembko, 2023)². Thus, the war has become a catalyst for an unprecedented rise in self-organization and mutual aid, which is a sign of the maturity of civil society. Along with positive developments, wartime also brought complex political challenges. The imposition of martial law and the concentration of resources on warfare inevitably affected the functioning of democratic institutions. For constitutional reasons, the next elections in 2023 were postponed, and the terms of office of the president and parliament were actually extended until the end of hostilities (Mariana, 2024)³. The centralization of governance has intensified: emergency powers have been concentrated in the hands of the President and the government to ensure quick decisions in times of crisis. This situation is common in many countries at war, as “emergency circumstances strengthen the executive branch and push democracy to a dangerous limit”⁴. In Ukraine, this manifested itself in the creation of a single telethon of news, which limited the presence of opposition points of view in the media space. The difficult situation of the parliamentary opposition, as well as certain signals of pressure on critical voices (accusations against individual journalists, cases of forced mobilization interpreted as punishment for criticism)⁵. Therefore, it is important to understand the concepts of nation and civil society, as well as their characteristics.

Before the beginning of the military aggression of the Russian Federation, the main activities of Ukrainian civil society were: defending the interests, rights and freedoms of Ukrainian society in cooperation with the authorities; supporting reforms; promoting political change and improvement; participation in the implementation of anti-corruption policy; strengthening democratic mechanisms at the local level; charitable activities in various fields, including in the cultural (protection of cultural heritage) and social sectors (support for vulnerable groups); promoting social unity, strengthening

A nation is a society, a political community that emerges from national consciousness and the need for self-determination. It is formed as a result of cultural,

¹ Leonchuk L., Zetina-Beale R., Jojnsion E. (2023, 22 February). *Examining the Role of Civil Society in Ukraine during Wartime*. RTI International | Research Institute. URL: <https://www.rti.org/impact/examining-role-civil-society-ukraine-during-wartime>

² Zarembko K. (2023, 1 June). *The Resilience and Trauma of Ukraine's Civil Society*. Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. URL: <https://carnegieendowment.org/research/2023/06/the-resilience-and-trauma-of-ukraines-civil-society?lang=en¢re=europe>

³ Mariana B. (2024, 1 July). *Safeguarding Ukraine's democracy during the war*. Brookings. URL: <https://www.brookings.edu/articles/safeguarding-ukraines-democracy-during-the-war/>

⁴ Ibidem.

⁵ Ibidem.

historical and social factors (Malinowska & Kryviuk, 2023)⁶. Some scholars argue that the war has affected the identity and cultural values of assimilated persons. Conflicts prompt a redefinition of national identity, often forcing different social groups to identify with the state more intensely. “This can lead to an increase in nationalism, but also to the development of an inclusive political nation that includes diverse ethnic and social groups” (Semko, 2024).

“Civil society is characterized by developed economic, political, spiritual and other relations and ties, interacts with the state and functions on the basis of democracy and law. It is an integral part of a democratic state, and its representatives achieve certain goals by influencing local and national issues, uniting to protect their rights and interests, and creating relevant organizations, unions, institutions and volunteer movements. Civil society consists of citizens with a high level of legal awareness, education and responsibility, who are politically active, know their rights and responsibilities, cooperate with state institutions to protect them and influence public life” (Hordiychuk & Hrytsenko, 2023)⁷. Civil society in Ukraine has long been characterized as small and weak, which is a consequence of its colonial past, i.e. being part of other states and political entities, in particular, the destructive and disruptive influence of the Russian Empire and the Soviet Union⁸. Russian aggression and the outbreak of active hostilities in a large part of Ukraine in late February 2022 became the starting point for a test of Ukrainian statehood and the level of civil society development. Although not all Ukrainians were concerned about the ATO or the subsequent JFO in Donetsk and Luhansk oblasts, as well as the occupation of the Autonomous Republic of Crimea, the large-scale war affected everyone in one way or another. War is both a test for the system of state power and a challenge for both ordinary citizens and civil society organizations (Dokalenko, 2022)⁹. The armed invasion led to the intensification of the activities of volunteer organizations, the movement became nationwide and covered almost all of Ukraine (Shevchenko, 2023)¹⁰. Numerous volunteer initiatives that were born in the first months of the war later grew into large NGOs and charitable foundations that continue to provide assistance to war-affected people (Luniova, 2022)¹¹. Civil society is becoming increasingly

⁶ Malinowska O., Kryviuk D. (2023). A mechanism for involving the public in monitoring the activities of local self-government bodies. *Balanced nature using*, 4, 66–72. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.33730/2310-4678.4.2023.292711>

⁷ Hordiychuk O., Hrytsenko Y. (b.d.). The role of civil society in protecting the national security of Ukraine. URL: <https://conf.ztu.edu.ua/wp-content/uploads/2023/06/32.pdf>.

⁸ Ibidem.

⁹ Dokalenko V. (2022). Interaction between public authorities and civil society institutions in Ukraine in the context of a large-scale war. *Public*, 87–103.

¹⁰ Shvedenko P., Dubovych O., Muraviova I. (2025). The rule of law as a guarantor of human rights: challenges of the present and prospects for development. *Scientific Perspectives (Naukovi perspektivi)*, 1 (55). DOI: [https://doi.org/10.52058/2708-7530-2025-1\(55\)-1517-1528](https://doi.org/10.52058/2708-7530-2025-1(55)-1517-1528)

¹¹ Luneva, A. (2022, 9 June). *The role of civil society during Russia's war against Ukraine*. ZMINA. URL: <https://zmina.info/columns/rol-gromadyanskogo-suspilstva-pid-chas-vijny-rosiyi-proty-ukrayiny/>

important, and the population has more trust in civil society than is usually seen in other countries (Institute for Analysis and Advocacy (2023)¹.

The system of checks and balances built up in previous years (including the successful decentralization of 2015–2020) has partially receded into the background during the war, with a significant part of resources and decisions again concentrated at the central level for effective defense management (Mariana, 2024)². Ukrainian society is aware of the need for such centralization as a temporary wartime measure, but remains vigilant about potential abuses. Citizens and independent media are closely monitoring the government's actions, especially in the area of spending Western aid and domestic resources. In the midst of the hostilities of 2022–2023, anti-corruption scandals repeatedly erupted, forcing the government to respond with resignations and investigations, showing that society is not ready to tolerate corruption even in times of war (Landi, 2023)³.

Despite the enormous burden, civil society organizations continue to serve as a watchdog, monitoring potential violations and demanding transparency. According to observers, as the war and martial law drag on, “the line between necessity and abuse of power becomes increasingly blurred”, and therefore the role of civil society in keeping the country from slipping into authoritarianism is critical (Mariana, 2024)⁴. It is already clear that after the end of hostilities, Ukrainians will insist on a return to full-fledged democratic politics – holding elections, restoring a competitive political process, and an open public dialogue on post-war development. The demand for justice and accountability of the authorities will be extremely high: civic activists directly speak about the need to investigate not only the crimes of the Russians, but also the mistakes or inaction of the Ukrainian leadership during the war (Zarembko, 2023)⁵.

The prospect of the postwar period in Ukraine is perceived with both hope and awareness of new challenges. Obviously, after the victory, there will be a task of large-scale reconstruction of the destroyed infrastructure, reintegration of the de-occupied territories, and social adaptation of millions of veterans, IDPs, and refugees. However, this post-war reconstruction is seen not only as a technical process, but also as an opportunity to qualitatively rebuild the country on a new basis. Analysts note that the reconstruction will be a chance to “rebuild better”, modernize the economy and

¹ Institute for Analysis and Advocacy (2023, 17 October). *Development of civil society in times of war: recommendations for international partners*. URL: <https://iaa.org.ua/articles/civil-society-development-in-times-of-war-recommendations-for-international-partners/>

² Mariana B. (2024, 1 July). *Safeguarding Ukraine's democracy during the war*. Brookings. URL: <https://www.brookings.edu/articles/safeguarding-ukraines-democracy-during-the-war/>

³ Landi E. (2023, 30 June). *The Role of Civil Society in Ukrainian Reconstruction*. Centre for Strategic and International studies. URL: <https://www.csis.org/blogs/development-dispatch/role-civil-society-ukrainian-reconstruction>

⁴ Mariana B. (2024, 1 July). *Safeguarding Ukraine's democracy during the war*. Brookings. URL: <https://www.brookings.edu/articles/safeguarding-ukraines-democracy-during-the-war/>

⁵ Zarembko K. (2023, 1 June). *The Resilience and Trauma of Ukraine's Civil Society*. Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. URL: <https://carnegieendowment.org/research/2023/06/the-resilience-and-trauma-of-ukraines-civil-society?lang=en¢re=europe>

governance, and deepen integration into the European community. Reforms are already being planned to strengthen the rule of law, update the justice system (including the punishment of war criminals), and create effective mechanisms to control the use of international assistance (Landi, 2023)⁶.

The success of the postwar transformation will largely depend on preserving and realizing the level of civic consolidation and activism that was manifested during the war. In other words, the social capital accumulated by the people during the difficult war years will become the foundation for Ukraine's revival and development after the war. This aspect is directly related to the phenomenon of civic maturity, which we will discuss below.

One of the key social phenomena that distinguishes Ukrainian (post)war reality is the high level of civic maturity of the population. By this concept, we mean a mature civic consciousness and culture of behavior that manifest themselves at a critical moment in history. The war has become a kind of "maturity test" for Ukrainians, and a significant part of society has passed this exam with flying colors. The manifestations of civic maturity can be analyzed through four interrelated dimensions, which are highlighted in the topic of our study:

1. Civic consciousness. In the face of an existential threat, the civic consciousness of Ukrainians has increased dramatically – an understanding of a common national identity, the value of freedom and democracy, and an awareness of their rights and responsibilities to society. Millions of people have reconsidered their attitude to the state as an "alien apparatus" and felt themselves to be a direct part of this state, co-responsible for its fate. Polls show record levels of patriotism and readiness to defend the country in different regions and age groups. This awakened consciousness is fueled by an understanding of the historical choice facing the nation – to be free Europeans or to return to the imperial yoke. Therefore, Ukrainians massively support the course toward the EU and NATO as a civilizational choice, seeing it as a guarantee of their freedom. Civic consciousness also includes critical thinking and the search for truth: even in the face of military censorship, the population seeks diverse information, volunteers debunk enemy disinformation, and public discourse is not limited to propaganda clichés – there is an ongoing comprehension of the deeper causes and goals of the struggle.

2. Mobilization. The maturity of the community was most clearly manifested in its ability to self-organize and mobilize resources for common goals. From the first hours of the invasion, people organized themselves into initiative groups, volunteer units, terrorist defenses, and networks to help the army and the victims. Moreover, this mobilization was mostly horizontal: citizens acted proactively, not waiting for orders from above. Leaders and coordinators spontaneously emerged in every town and village to channel the community's energy into a constructive direction. Thanks to this, Ukraine was able to withstand the first critical weeks when the state

⁶ Landi E. (2023, 30 June). *The Role of Civil Society in Ukrainian Reconstruction*. Centre for Strategic and International studies. URL: <https://www.csis.org/blogs/development-dispatch/role-civil-society-ukrainian-reconstruction>

institutions were overloaded – citizens themselves covered many needs (evacuating people, arranging shelters, supplying food and medicine, repairing damage, etc.) The high level of mobilization readiness continues to be maintained: although the constant volunteer activity has somewhat decreased after the peak in the spring of 2022 (from 80 % of those involved in volunteering at the beginning of the invasion to about 40 % as of early 2023) (Zaremba, 2023)¹, a “core” of experienced volunteers has formed, ready to step up their efforts at any time in response to new challenges. As Ukrainians themselves note, their national identity is now closely linked to the ability to “come together when needed and do what needs to be done”². Such a flexible mobilization capacity is one of the most valuable resources of society.

3. Activism. The war has made mass civic activism the norm of everyday life. What used to be the work of enthusiasts has become a mass phenomenon: everyone who can, to the best of their ability and skills, volunteers. Ukrainians joke that now everyone has their own front – some fight with weapons, others volunteer or provide information. All social strata have joined the aid movement – from students to pensioners, from workers to businessmen. Sociologists record a high level of trust in volunteers and public initiatives: people willingly donate to foundations and support public fundraisers because they see real returns (Leonchuk, Zetina-Beale, & Jojnsen, 2023)³. At the same time, activism is not only about helping the army. Volunteer projects to support vulnerable groups (children, people with disabilities, lonely elderly), cultural initiatives (preservation of monuments during the war, documentation of war crimes), and environmental actions (e.g., demining, cleaning up destroyed facilities) continue to operate or are being strengthened. It is important that an active minority of society “infects” others with its energy – participation in a common cause has ceased to be something exotic and has become a socially approved norm (Shapovalova, 2017)⁴. As a result, a real movement of new generation civic activists has emerged in Ukraine, who have experience of self-organization in the most difficult conditions and the will to continue this activity in peacetime.

4. Responsibility. Civic maturity is impossible without a deep sense of responsibility, both personal and collective. Ukrainians have impressed the world with their maturity precisely because everyone in their place has taken on a part of the common burden. Ordinary people have sacrificed their own comfort, time, and often their lives for the sake of their neighbors and the country. This applies to both military volunteers and civilians – for example, volunteers often took risks by delivering humanitarian aid to the war zone or staying in frontline cities to keep

¹ Zaremba K. (2023, 1 June). *The Resilience and Trauma of Ukraine's Civil Society*. Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. URL: <https://carnegieendowment.org/research/2023/06/the-resilience-and-trauma-of-ukraines-civil-society?lang=en¢re=europe>

² Ibidem.

³ Leonchuk L., Zetina-Beale R., Jojnsen E. (2023, 22 February). *Examining the Role of Civil Society in Ukraine during Wartime*. RTI International | Research Institute. URL: <https://www.rti.org/impact/examining-role-civil-society-ukraine-during-wartime>

⁴ Shapovalova N. (2017, 1 January). Chapter 8 Ukraine: civic volunteerism and the legacy of Euromaidan. URL: <https://www.jstor.org/stable/resrep26909.14>

life there (Zaremba, 2023)⁵. Responsibility was also manifested at the level of local communities: mayors, village elders, and local activists took the initiative when the central government was overwhelmed. The society demonstrated maturity, not falling into panic and anarchy, but rather maintaining order and mutual assistance even in extraordinary circumstances. It is significant that despite all the hatred for the aggressor, Ukrainians have not generally descended into mass acts of lynching or human rights violations within the country; on the contrary, there is an understanding that humanity and the rule of law must be respected, as these are the values for which the fight is being fought. Collective responsibility is also manifested in attitudes toward the future: Ukrainians are already thinking about what post-war Ukraine should look like, holding public discussions about reforms, and monitoring the government's promises. Intellectuals and civic leaders have formed a kind of public "manifesto for sustainable peace", which outlines a vision of a just postwar Ukraine – from punishing criminals to EU and NATO membership (Zaremba, 2023). All of this indicates a high level of responsibility for the country's fate: citizens feel that it is largely up to them to determine what Ukraine will look like after the victory.

Thus, the phenomenon of civic maturity in modern Ukraine has manifested itself vividly and comprehensively. The society, going through the crucible of war, demonstrates maturity of thought and action: understanding of common goals, ability to self-organize, willingness to act and take responsibility. This is in line with the classical notion of an established political nation and a mature civil society. At the same time, it should be understood that it is difficult to maintain such a high level of mobilization on a regular basis, as fatigue and burnout inevitably set in. Even now, volunteers note a tendency towards partial normalization of life, when the share of active participants decreases compared to the peak period (Zaremba, 2023)⁶.

However, the basic elements of civic maturity-consciousness, active stance, and demanding attitude toward the government-do not disappear. They have become the property of a large part of Ukrainians and will determine social development in the postwar years. In fact, hopes for a better future are associated not only with the victory over the enemy, but also with the fact that the people will be able to transfer this capital of maturity into peaceful life, building a successful European state.

Ukraine's European choice serves as a strategic guideline that gives meaning to the sacrifice of the Ukrainian people and outlines a vision for future development. The war has finally confirmed Ukraine's membership in the community of European democracies and made EU integration a non-negotiable goal for most citizens and elites. While before 2022, European integration was subject to political debate and fluctuations (especially in the east and south of the country, where support for the EU has historically been lower), public opinion has changed dramatically since the full-scale invasion. According to polls, as of August 2023, almost 90 % of Ukrainians were

⁵ Zaremba K. (2023, 1 June). *The Resilience and Trauma of Ukraine's Civil Society*. Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. URL: <https://carnegieendowment.org/research/2023/06/the-resilience-and-trauma-of-ukraines-civil-society?lang=en¢re=europe>

⁶ Ibidem.

in favor of Ukraine's accession to the EU¹. Moreover, the growth of support occurred in all regions: even in the South and East, the share of pro-European attitudes increased by 25–30 % compared to the pre-war period (Zarembko, 2023). Such consolidation around European integration has not only a rational but also a deep value-based basis. The European Union is now perceived by Ukrainians not so much as an economic club as a “beacon of democratic normative order” – a community of freedom and justice, opposed to the Russian model of despotism (Zarembko, 2023). In the eyes of Ukrainian society, the war is a struggle for these European values, and therefore the future of Ukraine is seen only in a single family with the countries of Europe.

From a geopolitical dream, the European horizon has turned into a concrete political process. Ukraine formally applied for EU membership in the midst of the fighting (on the fifth day of the invasion), demonstrating that it was fighting not only for its land but also for the right to belong to a united Europe (Odarchenko, 2024)². The European Union heard this signal: in June 2022, the European Council unanimously granted Ukraine the status of an EU candidate.

This decision was historic and unprecedentedly fast, taken in response to the heroism of Ukrainians and as a sign of faith in their European future. Subsequently, despite the ongoing war, Kyiv made efforts to fulfill the EU's initial requirements (reforms of the High Council of Justice, media legislation, anti-corruption steps, etc.) As a result, in December 2023, the EU agreed to start formal accession negotiations, which actually started in June 2024³. Thus, the process of European integration has become irreversible: Ukraine is gradually synchronizing its legislation and institutions with the European ones, preparing to become a full member of the Union.

The European horizon has a powerful modernizing influence on Ukrainian political culture. First, European integration sets specific standards and criteria in the areas of rule of law, human rights, good governance, and economic policy. Completion of the “homework” for accession encourages the Ukrainian authorities to implement reforms even during the war, and civil society to closely monitor this process. In particular, over the past year and a half, important European integration laws have been adopted (on media, national minorities, anti-corruption changes, etc.), judicial reform is underway, and the government is being cleansed of corrupt officials. All these steps simultaneously bring the country closer to EU membership and change the political culture, enshrining the values of transparency, accountability, and respect for legal procedures. Second, the European course strengthens the sense of common purpose and historical optimism in society. Despite the difficult military routine, two-thirds of Ukrainians believe that in the

¹ Zarembko K. (2023, 1 June). *The Resilience and Trauma of Ukraine's Civil Society*. Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. URL: <https://carnegieendowment.org/research/2023/06/the-resilience-and-trauma-of-ukraines-civil-society?lang=en¢re=europe>

² Odarchenko K. (2024, 19 Dec.). *Ukraine seeks further progress toward EU membership in 2025*. Atlantic Council. URL: <https://www.atlanticcouncil.org/blogs/ukrainealert/ukraine-seeks-further-progress-toward-eu-membership-in-2025/>

³ Ibidem.

next 5 years the standard of living in Ukraine will approach the European one (Onuch, 2024)⁴.

It is “not just a hope, but a deep conviction in the transformative power of European integration”⁵ – a conviction that motivates and inspires work for change. Thirdly, the European horizon contributes to a rethinking of national identity: more and more Ukrainians define their identity not only through their ethnic origin or Soviet past, but through belonging to European civilization. According to historians, the aspiration to Europe has become a part of modern Ukrainian patriotism and a consensus national idea (Onuch, 2024).

One of the central topics is the functioning of democracy under martial law. The imposition of martial law is accompanied by objective restrictions on democratic procedures, such as *a moratorium on elections*, concentration of power in the hands of the executive branch and military command, and restrictions on certain rights and freedoms. The researchers emphasize that the main task is to preserve the core of the democratic system even if temporary restrictions are necessary. The collective work of Shumak et al. (2024)⁶ concludes that in the context of prolonged martial law, it is important to ensure that all restrictions *are proportionate and temporary*, backed by democratic oversight, including control by civil society. This is in line with the assessments of European institutions: the European Commission’s 2024 report states that *restrictions on fundamental rights* in connection with the war generally remain proportionate to security needs (Sydorenko, 2024)⁷. Despite wartime, no direct censorship was introduced in Ukraine – although television switched to a single information marathon, pluralism and criticism of the authorities remained in the online media, and a new law on media was adopted at the end of 2022 as part of European integration. At the same time, scholars warn that the risks to democracy increase in the event of prolonged martial law: the gradual erosion of checks and balances, the narrowing of the space for public debate, and possible abuse of power (there are signals such as the scandals of surveillance of journalists by the SBU). Therefore, studies emphasize the importance of constant public control and readiness *to restore normal democratic processes* as soon as possible after the security situation improves (Shumak, 2024)⁸.

Due to the martial law, the next national elections in Ukraine were postponed, raising questions about the legitimacy of the government in the long run. This topic has become the subject of both academic research and public debate. In an article

⁴ Onuch O., Way L. (2024, May). *Why Ukraine’s Elections Can Wait*. *Journal of Democracy*. *Journal of Democracy*. URL: <https://www.journalofdemocracy.org/online-exclusive/why-ukraines-elections-can-wait/>

⁵ Ibidem.

⁶ Shumak I., Batan Y., Kravchenko S., Hedulianov V., Bysaha Y. (2024). Representative democracy under martial law. *Revista Amazonia Investiga*, 13 (77), 159–169. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.34069/ai/2024.77.05.12>

⁷ Sydorenko S. (2024). *Ukraine fulfils 2022 requirements for EU candidate status, including Hungarian minority rights – European Commission*. *European Pravda*. URL: <https://www.eurointegration.com.ua/eng/news/2024/10/30/7197332/>

⁸ Shumak I., Batan Y., Kravchenko S., Hedulianov V., Bysaha Y. (2024). Representative democracy under martial law. *Revista Amazonia Investiga*, 13 (77), 159–169. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.34069/ai/2024.77.05.12>

by V. Lebediuk (2023)¹, on the political dynamics in Ukraine during the war, it is noted that holding elections in wartime is extremely difficult and risky, and the Ukrainian authorities face a dilemma: on the one hand, pressure from certain external actors and formal democratic principles, on the other hand, the practical impossibility of organizing elections safely and fairly

Most experts agree that *the forced postponement of the elections* is a justified step to preserve Ukraine's statehood (Onuch, 2024)².

Importantly, Ukrainian society also supports this position. According to polls (KIIS, December 2023), 84 % of citizens opposed holding elections during the war, preferring to postpone them until the end of martial law; more than 2/3 of respondents agree that the current president should continue to perform his duties until victory (Onuch, Ukrainians' Unwavering Path Toward the EU, 2024). Even opposition leaders share this consensus position, publicly acknowledging that now is "*not the time to go to the polls*" and that the government's legitimacy is backed by broad public support. Olha Onuch (2024) and Lucan Wei Unwavering (2024) point out that despite the pause in the electoral process, Ukrainian politics remains pluralistic – the opposition continues to exist, different opinions are voiced, and social mobilization of the "grassroots" actively influences decision-making. This, according to the authors, is a sign of democratic resilience and *a good sign for the future* of Ukraine's democratic development after the war. At the same time, legal scholars emphasize the need to work out in advance the legal mechanisms for holding elections in the post-war transition period. In particular, Ukrainian researchers M. Afanasyeva and I. Andrushko (Shumak, 2024)³ analyze in detail the legal conflicts and organizational challenges of the electoral process under martial law and immediately after its completion. Their works discuss the issues of updating legislation, registering IDP voters, ensuring the participation of the military and refugees in voting, etc. – all of which are part of the set of tasks that need to be resolved before elections become possible and safe. The general conclusion of the authors is that *democracy in Ukraine is currently "on pause" but not canceled* – institutions should maintain continuity, and electoral processes should resume as soon as circumstances allow (Lebediuk, 2023)⁴.

The dramatic changes in the security situation have challenged Ukraine to rethink its public administration system. In the first days of the invasion, elements of *over-centralization* were actually introduced: critical decisions were made quickly at the central level, and military administrations were established in the regions. Some researchers talk about the temporary curtailment of public policy (e.g., the disappearance of public debates in parliament, the transition of most political

¹ Lebediuk V. (2023). Political Dynamics in Ukraine After Russia's Full-Scale Invasion. *Studia Europejskie – Studies in European Affairs*, 4, 93–107. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.33067/se.4.2023.6>

² Onuch O., Way L. (2024, May). Why Ukraine's Elections Can Wait. *Journal of Democracy*. *Journal of Democracy*. URL: <https://www.journalofdemocracy.org/online-exclusive/why-ukraines-elections-can-wait/>

³ Shumak I., Batan Y., Kravchenko S., Hedulianov V., Bysaha Y. (2024). Representative democracy under martial law. *Revista Amazonia Investiga*, 13 (77), 159–169. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.34069/ai/2024.77.05.12>

⁴ Lebediuk V. (2023). Political Dynamics in Ukraine After Russia's Full-Scale Invasion. *Studia Europejskie – Studies in European Affairs*, 4, 93–107. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.33067/se.4.2023.6>

forces to the mode of supporting the government) for the sake of unity in the face of aggression⁵.

Ihor Pavchuk (2024)⁶ has studied the legal status of the newly created military administrations. He notes that military administrations have become a new institution of public authority that replaces or supplements local self-government in frontline or occupied communities. At the same time, the legislation contains gaps: for example, the Law of Ukraine “On the Legal Regime of Martial Law” does not provide an exhaustive list of grounds for early termination of powers of local councils and introduction of military administrations at the community level.

This has already caused conflicts – in particular, the creation of the Kyiv City Military Administration caused discussions, as the Kyiv City Council continued to work, and the legal justification for the parallel existence of the military administration was not sufficiently transparent. Pavchuk (2024) concludes that the legislation needs to be improved to clearly define the limits of state interference in local self-government during the war and the criteria for returning to a normal constitutional order on the ground.

The issue of strategic development management in wartime is discussed in the article by Dzvinchuk et al. (2023)⁷. The researchers note that Russian aggression *has disoriented the development planning system*: government programs and regional strategies have lost their relevance, as defense has become a priority. The authorities’ efforts were aimed at immediate response, while a unified long-term strategy for the country’s reconstruction and development is still being formed. The authors analyzed the National Recovery Plan and other documents and concluded that the *goals and activities of disparate programs are not consolidated into a single strategic document* that would set a coherent direction for development. They emphasize that the absence of such a national strategy creates a risk of uncoordinated actions of the regions in the postwar period. It is recommended that strategic planning processes be amended to ensure that the plans of individual communities and regions are aligned with national goals and interregional solidarity. In other words, in the postwar period, a new approach to public development management is needed – a more integrated one, taking into account the experience of the war and involving all levels of government.

Another important topic is the fate of decentralization reform during the war. On the one hand, the need for a single decision-making center for defense has led to a certain “rollback” towards centralization of power. On the other hand, it was the decentralization achievements of the previous years that largely contributed to the

⁵ Lebediuk V. (2023). Political Dynamics in Ukraine After Russia’s Full-Scale Invasion. *Studia Europejskie – Studies in European Affairs*, 4, 93–107. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.33067/se.4.2023.6>

⁶ Pavchuk I. (2024). The administrative and legal status of military administrations in Ukraine depending on the order of their creation. *Visegrad Journal on Human Rights*, 2, 91–98. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.61345/1339-7915.2024.2.16>

⁷ Dzvinchuk D., Hladii V., Popovych V., Petrenko V. (2023). On the expedient changes in the management of strategic development of Ukrainian regions in the conditions of war (on the example of Ivano-Frankivsk region). *Public Administration and Regional Development*, 20, 398–422. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.34132/pard2023.20.06>

effective defense and viability of the home front (local communities independently addressed humanitarian issues, hosted IDPs, and provided terrorism defense). In their article, Oleh Kulinich and Oleksandr Popov (2024)¹ emphasize that decentralization has had a positive impact on the government's ability to respond to the challenges of war. They cite evidence that communities acted flexibly and targeted during the crisis: resources were quickly redistributed locally to meet priority needs, and local decisions were made that could not be effectively made centrally.

Decentralization has made it possible to attract additional resources (volunteer assistance, international grants) directly to communities, which has increased the resilience of the regions (Kulinich & Popov, 2024). At the same time, the authors note that the war has objectively *slowed down the planned development of communities*, switching it to a model of survival and mobilization. In their opinion, the success of the decentralization reform both during the war and post-war periods will depend on the level of civic engagement and involvement of residents in local decision-making (Kulinich & Popov, 2024). According to Kulinich and Popov, *the priority areas of decentralization* in post-war Ukraine should include strengthening the financial independence of communities, developing local democracy, and integrated regional planning for reconstruction (Kulinich & Pop, 2024).

European experts confirm the importance of this: EU recommendations advise Ukraine to continue strengthening public administration and decentralization as a component of post-war reforms (Sydorenko, 2024)².

Corruption has traditionally been one of the main problems in Ukrainian politics, and the war has brought new challenges to this area. On the one hand, martial law requires concentration of resources and may reduce the priority of anti-corruption measures – “*when the country is fighting for survival, the fight against corruption falls by the wayside*”, as Kos (2022)³ notes. Kos – analyzing the situation at the beginning of the war – stated that in 2022, the anti-corruption infrastructure (NABU, NAPC, SAPO, etc.) continued to work, but its capabilities were limited and the appointment of leaders was delayed.

The war creates new risks: weakened control, shortages of goods and funds, and a massive influx of Western aid all increase the likelihood of corruption (Kos, 2022) ... On the other hand, the awareness of these risks has prompted the Ukrainian authorities to demonstrate the political will to fight corruption even during the fighting. In early 2023, a high-profile *anti-corruption purge* took place: following a series of journalistic and NABU investigations, more than 10 high-ranking officials, including a deputy minister and several heads of regional administrations, were fired or suspended.

¹ Kulinich O., Popov O. (2024). The impact of power decentralisation on the regional development of Ukraine under martial law. *Philosophy and Governance*, 1, 1–10. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.70651/3041-248x/2024.1.01>

² Sydorenko S. (2024). *Ukraine fulfils 2022 requirements for EU candidate status, including Hungarian minority rights – European Commission*. European Pravda. URL: <https://www.eurointegration.com.ua/eng/news/2024/10/30/7197332/>

³ Kos D. (2022). War and Corruption in Ukraine. *eucriim – The European Criminal Law Associations' Forum*. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.30709/eucriim-2022-007>

President Zelenskyy publicly announced a “zero tolerance” policy toward corruption, assuring that there would be no return to the old corrupt practices (Koshiw, 2023)⁴.

These steps have been positively received in society and abroad as a signal that even on the “domestic front”, Ukraine continues to reform.

Both of these trends are documented in scientific publications. A. Terzyan (2024)⁵ notes that despite the war, Ukraine *continued to implement anti-corruption reforms* in 2022–23: the National Anti-Corruption Strategy for 2021–2025 was adopted, and the state anti-corruption program for its implementation was approved. Moreover, in 2023, Ukraine slightly increased its score in the Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI) – from 33 to 36 out of 100, which is considered one of the best progresses in the world for that period.

This signals some successes, including improvements in the legal framework and institutions (launch of the High Anti-Corruption Court, election of the head of the SAPO, etc.) However, the level of corruption remains high, and military circumstances give it “*new forms*”: experts warn of the risks of embezzlement of funds for reconstruction, the emergence of schemes with humanitarian aid and military procurement (Terzyan, 2024).

Drago Kos (2022)⁶ warned that after the war, Ukraine’s anti-corruption system could be weakened, while the temptation to misappropriate some of the huge reconstruction resources would be very high. Therefore, it is necessary to establish mechanisms for transparent and accountable distribution of international assistance, restore the full-fledged work of anti-corruption bodies and strengthen the capacity of civil society to control the authorities. It is important that the fight against corruption is one of the criteria for EU membership. The aforementioned conclusion of the European Commission (October 2024) noted that Ukraine *has strengthened its anti-corruption institutional system and improved the results of prosecuting high-level corruption*, although additional efforts are still needed (Sydorenko, 2024)⁷. Recommendations for Ukraine include continuing to clean up the judiciary (as corrupt justice feeds impunity) and ensuring that the slogan of “impunity” for top officials is actually implemented.

Thus, the scientific discourse agrees that *corruption remains a serious threat to postwar development*, but at the same time, there is an understanding of the problem and a basis for overcoming it (institutions, public demand, international pressure). Victory in the war must be accompanied by a “*victory on the anti-corruption front*”, without which successful reconstruction and European integration

⁴ Koshiw I. (2023, 24 Jan.). *Zelenskiy ramps up anti-corruption drive as 15 Ukrainian officials exit*. The Guardian. URL: <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2023/jan/24/zelenskiy-anti-corruption-drive-15-ukrainian-officials-exit>

⁵ Terzyan A. (2024). Dissecting the Political Landscape of War-Torn Ukraine: Between Internal Challenges and External Threats. *Journal of Liberty and International Affairs, Institute for Research and European Studies – Bitola*, 10 (2), 137–151. <https://doi.org/10.47305/jlia24102137t>

⁶ Kos D. (2022). War and Corruption in Ukraine. *eu crim – The European Criminal Law Associations’ Forum*. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.30709/eu crim-2022-007>; Koshiw I. (2023, 24 Jan.). *Zelenskiy ramps*.

⁷ Sydorenko S. (2024). *Ukraine fulfils 2022 requirements for EU candidate status, including Hungarian minority rights – European Commission*. European Pravda. URL: <https://www.eurointegration.com.ua/eng/news/2024/10/30/7197332/>

are impossible (Kos, 2022)¹. Combining the findings of various studies, we can outline the main risks and prospects for Ukraine's political development in the wartime and postwar periods. Among the risks, the most obvious is the weakening of democratic institutions due to the prolonged absence of elections and the concentration of power. Although martial law is justified, the researchers warn of the danger of getting used to it: if the war drags on, Ukraine may find itself without elections for 4–5 years, which will test the strength of democratic traditions. There is a risk that certain elements of authoritarianism may take root (an overly centralized style of governance, suppression of criticism under the pretext of military necessity, etc.). The second major risk is corruption and ineffective governance during the transition period. Unless transparency is ensured in the spending of reconstruction funds and full control of the parliament and the public over the executive branch is restored, there is a threat that old problems of Ukrainian politics will intensify and discredit the government in the eyes of citizens and international partners (Kos, 2022).

The third set of risks is related to socio-political tensions in the postwar period: the return of millions of veterans and IDPs, the need to reintegrate the de-occupied territories, and the resolution of transitional justice issues for collaborators will all require great wisdom from the state to avoid internal conflicts. The political system must be prepared for the emergence of new actors (there may be a demand for political representation of veterans and volunteers), and if democratic channels of participation do not work, there is a risk of radicalization of certain groups. Finally, the impact of the war on international support remains an external challenge: the Ukrainian government must maintain the trust of the West by proving its commitment to reforms and democratic course – otherwise, there is a risk of losing some aid or pressure to make compromises unacceptable to Ukraine.

At the same time, the literature also notes significant positive preconditions and prospects. First of all, the war consolidated Ukrainian society around the idea of defending freedom and democracy. As noted, for example, by G. Goshovska et al. (2024)², the establishment of democratic values has become the basis for the consolidation of modern Ukrainian society

Mass volunteer participation of citizens in defense, volunteerism, and mutual aid all strengthen civil society and create an active demand for good governance from the authorities. According to the IISI, in 2023, more than half of Ukrainians expressed trust in civil society organizations, and the balance of trust in volunteers, the army, and local government was record-breaking positive (Kaplan, 2024). This means that *social capital* and the level of civic awareness have increased, which is good ground for the development of democratic institutions after the war. Onuch & Way (2024)³

¹ Kos D. (2022). War and Corruption in Ukraine. *eucrium – The European Criminal Law Associations' Forum*. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.30709/eucrium-2022-007>

² Shumak I., Batan Y., Kravchenko S., Hedulianov V., Bysaha Y. (2024). Representative democracy under martial law. *Revista Amazonia Investiga*, 13 (77), 159–169. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.34069/ai/2024.77.05.12>

³ Onuch O., Way L. (2024, May). Why Ukraine's Elections Can Wait. *Journal of Democracy*. *Journal of Democracy*. URL: <https://www.journalofdemocracy.org/online-exclusive/why-ukraines-elections-can-wait/>

noted the phenomenon of a sharp increase in the share of Ukrainians convinced that democracy is the best form of government (over 75 % of citizens).

Thus, the public demand for democracy and transparent governance has only strengthened during the war – Ukrainians are actually fighting not only for independence, but also for the right to live in a democratic state. This gives reason to expect that after the victory, the realization of this demand will become a top priority.

The next prospect is European integration as a roadmap for reforms. Despite the war, Ukraine achieved official EU candidate status in 2022–2023 and continued to implement the necessary reforms. The European Commission recognized the key requirements of candidate status (including judicial reform, anti-corruption efforts, and the law on national minorities) as fulfilled. Further movement toward EU membership will be a powerful incentive for political development: it *will insure* against authoritarian deviations, as democratic standards and the rule of law are mandatory. There are already signs that Ukraine is generally on course: even in the face of war, the authorities “*continued to ensure integrity in the judiciary and strengthen anti-corruption institutions*” (Sydorenko, 2024)⁴.

The prospect of receiving financial and expert assistance from the West for reconstruction also depends on adherence to the principles of good governance. Thus, Ukraine’s European choice will serve as a guide and a safeguard for the political system in the postwar period.

As for institutional prospects, researchers expect a return to competitive politics after the victory, but this politics will be different. The military experience is likely to change the configuration of the party system – as Lebediuk (2023)⁵ notes, new political forces may emerge that will grow out of the current unity and volunteer movement, and the old “pro-Russian” forces will not have legitimacy in the eyes of voters

The de facto *ban of pro-Russian parties* in 2022 and the general patriotic consensus position of the main elites during the war created preconditions for a more pro-European and reformist political spectrum in the future (Onuch & Way, 2024)⁶. In post-war Ukraine, the central political issues will be reconstruction, modernization of the country, integration into the EU and NATO, and support for veterans – that is, an agenda that unites the nation. Based on this, scholars make cautiously optimistic predictions: if Ukraine *survives as a democratic state until the end of the war*, then after the victory there is every chance not only to restore but also to significantly *strengthen democratic institutions*. Ukraine’s “warring democracy”, as the experts of the Center for Political and Legal Reforms (Shumak, 2024)⁷ aptly put it, demonstrates resilience and can become even stronger after going through the crucible of trials.

⁴ Sydorenko S. (2024). *Ukraine fulfils 2022 requirements for EU candidate status, including Hungarian minority rights – European Commission*. European Pravda. URL: <https://www.eurointegration.com.ua/eng/news/2024/10/30/7197332/>

⁵ Lebediuk V. (2023). Political Dynamics in Ukraine After Russia’s Full-Scale Invasion. *Studia Europejskie – Studies in European Affairs*, 4, 93–107. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.33067/se.4.2023.6>

⁶ Onuch O., Way L. (2024, May). *Why Ukraine’s Elections Can Wait*. *Journal of Democracy*. URL: <https://www.journalofdemocracy.org/online-exclusive/why-ukraines-elections-can-wait/>

⁷ Shumak I., Batan Y., Kravchenko S., Hedulianov V., Bysaha Y. (2024). Representative democracy under martial law. *Revista Amazonia Investiga*, 13 (77), 159–169. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.34069/ai/2024.77.05.12>

Specific prospects include holding fair elections as soon as the situation stabilizes, restarting the decentralization process in light of new realities, continuing judicial reform and cleansing the state apparatus, and integrating veterans into government and administration. Ukraine will have a unique chance to “re-found” itself on the principles of integrity and efficiency.

The Ukrainian political system has faced unprecedented challenges since February 24, 2022. Academic studies for 2022–2024 comprehensively cover these challenges – from preserving democracy under martial law, holding elections, ensuring good governance and fighting corruption, to continuing decentralization and reforms. Despite the obvious risks of wartime, the overall tone of academic assessments is cautiously optimistic. The war brought Ukraine not only destruction, but also *the consolidation of society*, the rise of civil society, and a clear civilizational choice in favor of democracy. Researchers agree that if the war is successfully over, Ukraine has every opportunity to enter a new stage of political development, one that is more mature and sustainable. The foundations for this are already being laid: despite the military difficulties, the homework for the EU is being done, pluralism is being preserved, and the government’s accountability to society is not being lost. The Ukrainian case does not have many historical analogues—a democracy that continues to function under bombs—and is therefore the subject of close attention by scholars. Their works help to understand what decisions are needed today so that *tomorrow Ukraine’s political system will emerge from the war not weakened, but reformed and strengthened*. This is a guarantee that the sacrifices of the Ukrainian people will not be in vain, and after the victory, the country will develop as a democratic, legal and effectively governed state.

The newest Ukrainian political culture is being shaped by the war and European integration as a synthesis of civic engagement and European values. On the one hand, the war made society more cohesive, taught it to trust its own strengths and bottom-up initiatives. On the other hand, the European path sets the direction of development from above, offering an institutional framework and value guidelines. A qualitatively new political reality emerges at the intersection of these two factors. Its features are: high subjectivity of citizens (they feel like creators of history, not passive observers), intolerance to authoritarianism and corruption (after so many sacrifices for freedom, society will not allow usurpation of power or return of the old order), openness to the world and desire for partnership with democracies (Ukrainians feel like an organic part of the “West”). Relatively speaking, Ukraine’s existential search for its place in Europe continues: Ukrainians are rethinking their historical trauma and experience in order to integrate into the European community as an equal partner, while preserving their identity. Europe, for its part, is also learning from Ukraine’s sacrifice and courage, and is increasingly recognizing Ukraine as an integral part of a united Europe.

It is important to emphasize that the European perspective does not guarantee an automatic solution to all problems, but it provides a roadmap for reforms and unites society around a positive project for the future. In the post-war period, civil society, together with the government and with the support of European partners, is expected to ensure the country’s progress through democratic transformations. According to researcher Orysia Lutsevych, Ukraine’s civil society is already preparing to become

an integral part of the post-war reconstruction process, ensuring transparency, control and involvement of citizens in decision-making (Landi, 2023)¹

Integration into European institutions is viewed by both society and experts as a mechanism to protect Ukrainian democracy from internal and external threats in the future. After all, membership in the EU will mean inclusion in the system of collective security, the rule of law, and the common market, which creates an environment incompatible with authoritarianism. This civilizational choice, confirmed by the blood and sweat of Ukrainians, will be the best tribute to their civic maturity.

Conclusions

The Ukrainian war and post-war reality poses enormous socio-political challenges, but at the same time opens up new horizons for national development. The analysis shows that Ukrainian society has demonstrated an extraordinary level of civic maturity, responding to the existential threats of war with unity, self-sacrifice, and active participation in a common cause. Massive mobilization of volunteers, high patriotism, maturity of thought and responsibility of citizens became a factor that significantly strengthened the country's defense capability and changed the quality of interaction between the state and society. At the same time, the war revealed the vulnerabilities of the political system – the risks of concentration of power, corruption, and violation of democratic norms. Overcoming these risks is part of the public demand and a prerequisite for a successful future.

The phenomenon of civic maturity in Ukraine should be viewed as a multidimensional phenomenon that includes the maturity of consciousness, the ability to self-organize, a culture of activism, and a deep sense of responsibility. These qualities did not appear out of nowhere – their roots can be traced back to the events of recent decades (Maidan 2004, Revolution of Dignity 2014, civic reforms 2014–2019). However, it was the extreme conditions of the war that fully unleashed the potential of Ukrainian civil society, hardening it and bringing it to a new level of maturity. Now the task is to preserve and increase this potential in peacetime, to direct it to the post-war reconstruction and modernization of the country.

The European horizon plays a key role in shaping a positive scenario for Ukraine's future. European integration has become a consolidating idea for the Ukrainian nation, giving meaning to the current struggle and outlining the desired model of the state – democratic, rule of law, and prosperous. Obtaining EU candidate status and the start of accession negotiations strengthened Ukrainians' belief in the inevitability of their European path (Odarchenko, 2024)².

Successful integration into European structures will require continued reforms and high civic engagement, which are the very traits that make up civic maturity. Thus, the phenomenon of civic maturity and European perspectives are mutually reinforcing:

¹ Landi E. (2023, 30 June). *The Role of Civil Society in Ukrainian Reconstruction*. Centre for Strategic and International studies. URL: <https://www.csis.org/blogs/development-dispatch/role-civil-society-ukrainian-reconstruction>

² Odarchenko K. (2024, 19 Dec.). *Ukraine seeks further progress toward EU membership in 2025*. Atlantic Council. URL: <https://www.atlanticcouncil.org/blogs/ukrainealert/ukraine-seeks-further-progress-toward-eu-membership-in-2025/>

mature citizens have won a chance for a European future, and the European choice motivates them to remain active and responsible.

In conclusion, it should be emphasized that Ukraine's path remains difficult. There are difficult challenges ahead in terms of post-war recovery, economic reform, and healing social wounds. But the lessons of the war give grounds for cautious optimism. Ukrainian society has shown that it is able to "come together when necessary and see things through" and thus is able to build the country it dreams of (Zaremba, 2023)¹.

It will be crucial to maintain the democratic course: victory must be not only military, but also a victory of values. As aptly noted, it is extremely important that Ukraine, having won, remains a democratic state – and this democracy should not just survive, but be forged in the fire of war, hardened and strengthened (Leonchuk, Zetina-Beale, & Jojnsen, 2023).

Only under such conditions will the sacrifices and efforts of Ukrainians make full sense, and the nation's historical existential quest will be crowned with success in the horizon of European prospects.

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4.3. Language and International Communication: the Impact of English as a Global Lingua Franca on Enhancing Ukraine-UK Bilateral Relations

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Abstract

The scientific work outlines the extremely important role of English as a global lingua franca in international communications and its critical impact on enhancing bilateral relations between the United Kingdom and Ukraine, in particular, in condition of war on Ukraine's territory. It proves that the UK-Ukraine partnership is vital for both states and has the potential to grow in the coming years, so relations between Ukraine and the United Kingdom aim to build a strong and long-term partnership based on shared interests and values, and to work together to address the challenges facing the global community. Using content analysis of electronic source database, formal reports and legal backgrounds on the issue raised, it was also found that 1) the adoption of the Law on the use of the English language in Ukraine on June 5, 2025 as one of the international communication languages has become an important step towards integrating our country into the global European community; 2) in conditions of war, the United Kingdom has become a leading partner in providing vital support to Ukraine with diplomacy, military, non-military, humanitarian aids, recovery and reconstruction, energy, sanctions, war crimes and justice, trade, etc.; 3) One Hundred Year Partnership Agreement between the United Kingdom and Ukraine, as a major step in supporting Ukraine's long-term security, was signed January 16, 2025. Bearing in mind that English as a global lingua franca is the most common contact language for international communication, an influential factor in shaping and implementing geopolitics, global socio-political, socio-economic, cultural-information, and educational processes, it, undeniably, plays the key role in shaping and enhancing the UK-Ukraine bileraral relations and has great potentials for further research. The research findings can be used in the following scientific theoretical studies on perception English as a global lingua franca in international communications, in particular, in the UK-Ukraine bilateral relations.

Keywords: *global lingua franca, international communication, bilateral relations, legal framework, cooperation, diplomacy, support.*

Introduction

The early 21st century has been marked by complex transformations caused by globalization challenges, ethnic and religious intensifications, dramatic shifts in the international arena and the security system as well. The modern military-political situation in the world has acquired qualitatively new signs and is changing rapidly, shaping under the influence of powerful and fast processes taking place in the area of international relations. It is determined by both intensifying integration at the global and regional levels and growing competition between global and regional centers of power for maintaining and strengthening their influence.

Overcoming the difficulties and failures of the first years of independence, gaining its own experience and taking into account the experience of other newly independent states and developed democracies, Ukraine has defined new goals and prospects in its

foreign policy, enshrining in the Constitution its foreign policy priorities for European and Euro-Atlantic integration. By exercising its sovereignty, Ukraine is becoming a full-fledged subject of international relations and playing a significant role in the international security system. All this requires further detailed research of Ukraine's international activities and public perception of these processes.

Simultaneously, the widespread interest in communications, as an important individual, national, and international linguistic component of human culture, has been actively progressing early 21st century in light of globalized communicative processes and digitalized society, which have led to the volume of human knowledge doubling at least every year, stimulating linguistic research into the phenomenon of communication. The concept "communication" comes from the Latin *commūnicātiō* ("message, transmission"), related to the verb *commūnicō* ("to make common; to inform; to connect"), which is derived from *commūnis* ("common"). In the narrow sense, it primarily refers to the fact that during interactions, people exchange various thoughts about a particular issue, perceptions of future events, ideas, interests, moods, feelings, etc. Nowadays, in fact, each individual spends about 70 % of own time on communication.

Having analyzed a wide range of linguistic diversities, it is important to highlight that about one and a half billion people belong to the English-speaking world. English is already the second language for citizens of the European Union with a population of about 500 million people; it dominates in the global economy, global business environment, commerce and trade, business correspondence, intercultural communication, international travel and tourism, politics, international law, diplomacy, mass media, as well as in science.

Much of the world's information and knowledge is available in English too, including scientific publications, news articles and academic journals. The English language skills provide access to this vast source of data and knowledge, taking into account the fact that more than 90 % of scientific journals of international prestige are published in English, the most multicultural language, 80 % of world information is stored in English too, and its volume doubles every 18 months. Many multinational companies require their employees to have a high level of English language proficiency. Therefore, knowledge of English can increase job prospects and opportunities for professional growth; it can significantly improve communication skills and increase the ability to communicate effectively with people from all over the world, provide a deeper understanding of a rich cultural heritage and increase exposure to other cultures.

At the same time, it ceases to be tied to native speakers and begins to exist separately from them, no longer being American or British, but more and more becoming precisely global English as an unprecedented phenomenon of widespread language contacts, language change as well as language spread across cultures. It already has its own name, "Globish", or "Word Standard Spoken English". Thus, analyzing English as a Lingua Franca (hereinafter – ELF) – the phenomenon of linguistic study, we should notice the fact that, without doubts, nowadays, English is considered the most

powerful, influential language for intercultural communication and due to this fact it has attracted a great deal of attention from many linguistic research areas. English, together with Internet resources, gives people access to global, advanced knowledge and technology, allows them to do business around the world, and to share their ideas with a wider audience.

On June 5, 2024, the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine adopted in the second reading Draft Law No. 9432¹ regarding the use of the English language in Ukraine. This step not only brings our country closer to EU membership, but also opens new horizons for Ukrainian business, science, and education. The English language now gains the status of a language of international communication in Ukraine. The goal is to enhance Ukraine's competitiveness in the international arena and improve key competencies of Ukrainians in the context of globalization. The adoption of the Law on the Use of the English Language in Ukraine as one of the languages of international communication is an important step towards integrating our country into the global community and provides for: mandatory study of English by children of older preschool age; the ability to submit information about healthcare facilities in English; the identification of positions in the field of education and science for which candidates are required to know English, etc.

It is well-known fact that international relations between Ukraine and the United Kingdom have historically been friendly and cooperative. The United Kingdom was one of the first countries to recognize Ukraine's independence in 1991 and since then has provided Ukraine with significant political, economic and humanitarian aid. According to online encyclopedia "Ukraine-UK relations – Ukrainians in the UK", "Relations between Ukraine and the United Kingdom reached a new level after Ukraine declared independence in August 1991. In November of that year, the United Kingdom opened its Consulate General in Kyiv, and on 31 December, it recognized Ukraine's independence. Diplomatic relations between the two countries were established on 10 January 1992. Shortly afterwards, the Consulate General in Kyiv was upgraded to the status of the British Embassy in Ukraine, and Simon Hamans was appointed the first British Ambassador to Ukraine. In September 1992, Ukraine opened its Embassy in London, headed by Serhiy Komisarenko, the first Ukrainian Ambassador to the United Kingdom, and in February 2002, the Consulate General of Ukraine in Edinburgh was opened"².

Bilateral relations between Ukraine and the United Kingdom have only grown stronger in recent years, especially after Russia's annexation of Crimea in 2014 and Russian aggression in 2022. The United Kingdom actively supports Ukraine's sovereignty and territorial integrity and has imposed sanctions on Russia for its actions in Ukraine. Nowadays, the United Kingdom has become one of Ukraine's largest military and economic strategic partners. The two countries have also

¹ Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine. English as a language of international communication: the law has been adopted. URL: <https://mon.gov.ua/news/anhliiska-iak-mova-mizhnarodnoho-spilkuvannia-ukhvaleno-zakon>

² Ukraine-UK relations – Ukrainians in the UK. Online encyclopedia. URL: <https://www.ukrainiansintheuk.info/eng/01/ukraineuk-e.htm>

expanded their economic cooperation. Cultural ties between Ukraine and the United Kingdom have also strengthened: an increasing number of Ukrainians study, work and live in the United Kingdom. The two countries also participate in various cultural exchange programmes and events. Thus, the United Kingdom has become a leading partner in providing vital support to Ukraine with diplomacy, military, non-military, humanitarian aids, recovery and reconstruction, energy, sanctions, war crimes and justice, trade, etc.

Russia's invasion of Ukraine in February 2022 led to massive displacement. According to UN estimates, as of 13 June 2024, around 6 million Ukrainian refugees had arrived in European countries. Another 558,000 were registered outside Europe. The largest numbers of Ukrainian refugees were registered in Germany (1.2 million), Poland (958,000) and the Czech Republic (347,000). Approximately 4 per cent of Ukrainian refugees in Europe – 42,000 people – arrived in the United Kingdom.

M. Cuibus et al. (2024) in the “Briefing. Ukrainian migration to the UK” prove, “the United Kingdom ranked fourth in total arrivals, although many countries in Central and Eastern Europe experienced a larger influx of Ukrainian refugees relative to their population. As of June 30, 2024, around 217,000 Ukrainians were living in the United Kingdom. Approximately 210,000 individuals arrived in the United Kingdom through Ukrainian family and sponsorship programs as of July 16, 2024. This is out of a total of 342,000 applications and 261,000 visas granted. The weekly arrival numbers for the two main visa programs for Ukrainians peaked at 10,000 individuals in May 2022 and fell below 1,000 individuals after March 2023. In March 2024, several hundred people arrived weekly under the sponsorship scheme. The family visa program was closed in February 2024”³.

Thus, it has become essential to outline the UK-Ukraine relations at the current stage, especially in the conditions of war in Ukraine, to analyze its historical development, legal background, areas of bilateral cooperation, prognosticate the future perspectives of bilateral relations, to learn the fundamental principles of conducting trade relations, implementing free trade and investment policies, intercultural communication, social interactions between the two peoples. The research objectives are: 1) to consider the English language as a global lingua franca and determine its vital role in shaping and enhancing the UK-Ukraine bilateral relations in the light of contemporary challenges; 2) to provide a general description of the relationships between Ukraine and the United Kingdom in the historical retrospective, analyze them, and anticipate the future perspectives; 3) to gain the knowledge necessary to navigate the relations' complexities from the perspective of analyzing history, legal frameworks and general principles of bilateral relations between the two states.

Literature review

From a historical perspective (seven ages of English can be outlined, including Pre-English period (– C. AD 450), Early-Old English (C. 450–850), Later Old English

³ Cuibus M., Walsh P. W., Sumption M. Briefing. Ukrainian migration to the UK. The migration observatory at the University of Oxford. URL: <https://migrationobservatory.ox.ac.uk/wp-content/uploads/2023/08/2024-Briefing-Ukrainian-migration-to-the-UK.pdf>

(C.850–1100), Middle English (C. 1100–1450), Early Modern English (C. 1450–1750), Modern English (C. 1750–1950), Late Modern English (C. 1950–), globalization of the English language can be clearly explained. In essence, English, originating from the West Germanic dialect spoken by the English and Saxon tribes, spread to the southeast of Scotland through the Anglo-Saxon Kingdom. Later, English in the United Kingdom colonial regime became a common language in the British Empire colonies. The newly formed peoples began speaking English to avoid political difficulties. Overall, as an aftermath of the British Empire rise, the language spread to North America, India, Africa, Australia and many regions. The English hegemony, which began in the mid-20th century in the United States, accelerated the spread of English globally. It appeared in America in the 17th century in the English-speaking British colonies, formed from immigrants who arrived to North America¹.

Encyclopedia Britannica² define the concept of “Lingua franca” as “language used as a means of communication between populations speaking vernaculars that are not mutually intelligible. The term was first used during the Middle Ages to describe a French- and Italian-based jargon, or pidgin that was developed by Crusaders and traders in the eastern Mediterranean and characterized by the invariant forms of its nouns, verbs, and adjectives”. Cambridge dictionary interprets the concept of “Lingua franca” as “a language used for communication between groups of people who speak different languages”. English lingua franca (ELF) is the language form that facilitates communication at the intercultural level and is used exclusively as a second or foreign language. The language content is defined as modified and must be recognized as legitimate for use as an international means of communication. The functional range of English as a lingua franca allows its users to express themselves more freely, without the need to adhere to specific norms that represent a particular socio-cultural identity.

According to the TESOL Encyclopedia of English Language Teaching (2018), “English as a Global Lingua Franca was initially identified and advocated in the early 1980s by two scholars from Germany, Werner Hüllen and Karlfried Knapp. Originally, lingua franca was employed to refer to an Italian-Provençal-lexified pidgin with elements of Arabic, French, Greek, Persian, Portuguese, Spanish, and Turkish, which was used by early Crusaders and tradesmen as a trade language in the Levant, on the eastern Mediterranean coast, from the time of the Crusades until the 19th century”. It also predicts, “English is going to be the last lingua franca, that no triumph of any languages or lingua francas is permanent, and that all languages rise and fall. English, like all previous lingua francas including Arabic, Greek, Latin, Persian, and Sanskrit, will cease to function as a lingua franca. It can be argued that in the future as in the past, linguacultural landscapes will change in line with political, economic, and sociocultural realities”³.

¹ Khrystiuk S., Schuka O. (2021). A comparative analysis of languages in the area of international relations. *International journal of philology*, 12 (3), 107–111. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.31548/philolog2021.03.107>

² Encyclopedia Britannica. URL: <https://www.britannica.com/topic/lingua-franca>

³ The TESOL Encyclopedia of English Language Teaching, First Edition. John Wiley & Sons, Inc. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/322976210_English_as_a_Lingua_Franca

J. Jenkins, professor of Global Englishes, director of the Centre for Global Englishes at the University of Southampton, and founding co-editor of the *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca* (2012) notes, “English has served as a means of communication among speakers of different first languages (i.e. a lingua franca) for many centuries. During the 20 years or so, since it was first identified and empirically researched, ELF has grown from a minority interest within applied linguistics to a major field of study in its own right. Moreover, most recently, attention has turned to its implications for the ELT classroom”⁴

David Graddol, a prominent British applied linguist who contributed a number of unique ideas to the study of English futurism, emphasizes the following points in his book “The Future of English” (1997), “1) the future development of English as a global language may be less straightforward than anticipated; 2) the global spread of English raises not only linguistic, educational, and economic issues but also cultural, political, and ethical ones; 3) key drivers of change include demographic, economic, technological, and long-term trends in society; 4) the relationship between the English language and globalization is complex: economic globalization has facilitated the spread of English, but the spread of English has also contributed to globalization; 5) the rise of China will have a significant impact on the world in which English is used and learned; 6) countries such as India, where English is widely used as a second language, will play an important role in the development of global English”⁵. In his second book “English Next” (2006), the author questions why global English may signal the end of “English as a foreign language”, and underscores the fact that one of the main challenges facing many countries is how to maintain their identity in light of globalization and increasing multilingualism. He adds that there are grounds for regulating the status of the English language, but it is necessary to find ways to rethink national identity based on a distinctive blend rather than a single language⁶.

S. Bukhari (2023) in the research work “The Impact of a Global Englishes Course on Teachers’ Attitudes towards Teaching English as a Global Language” considers the concept of “Global Englishes” as “an inclusive paradigm looking at the linguistic, sociolinguistic and sociocultural diversity and fluidity of English use and English users in a globalized world encompassing all fields of study in the dynamism of English such as World Englishes, English as a lingua franca (ELF) and English as an international language. The field of ELF furthers its interest in multilingualism, translanguaging and plurilingualism to explore the complexity, fluidity and diversity of communications in dynamic contexts among non-native English users with or without the presence of native English users”⁷.

⁴ Jenkins J. (2012). English as a Lingua Franca from the classroom to the classroom. *ELT Journal*, 66 (4), 286. URL: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/262243160_English_as_a_Lingua_Franca_from_the_classroom_to_the_classroom/stats

⁵ Graddol D. (1997). *The Future of English? A guide to forecasting the popularity of the English language in the 21st century*. The British Council: The English Company (UK) Ltd. 66 p. URL: https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/sites/teaching/files/pub_learning-elt-future.pdf

⁶ Graddol D. (2006). *English Next*. The British Council: The English Company (UK) Ltd. 132 p. URL: https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/sites/teaching/files/pub_english_next.pdf

⁷ Bukhari S. A. (2023). The Impact of a Global Englishes Course on Teachers’ Attitudes Towards Teaching English as a Global Language. *International Journal of English Language Teaching*, 11 (5), 25–42.

Finnish researcher Anna Mauranen (2015) proves “English will keep changing as it has done throughout its history, with second-language users as an increasingly important influence in the heavily globalized contemporary world. It is unlikely to supplant local languages in its function as a lingua franca, but to complement the linguistic diversity that lives on locally and regionally. The rate of change is harder to foresee – language change never takes place at even speed – but one might surmise that the magic number of three generations, which holds for a variety of social changes, including language shift might be something to go on in predicting major changes in the use and forms of English. At present, we are really talking about the first global generation of ELF, if we date it back to roughly the adoption of the Internet. The one thing we can predict with certainty is that English will keep changing”¹.

S. Khrystiuk (2022) in the scientific work “Formation of Foreign Language Communicative Competence in the Context of the English Perception as a Global Lingua Franca” defines the concept of ““English as a global lingua franca” as the most common contact language for interethnic communication, which implies a global use of English linguistic data by speakers with different linguistic and cultural characteristics; it can be defined as a dynamic resource experiencing constant change and perceived as a modifiable means of communication rather than an established model”². The author stresses that communicative competence contributes to personal success and will allow the individual to participate effectively in many social spheres; and adds, “The humanity needs new paradigms and perspectives for linguistic and pedagogical research and for understanding the linguistic creativity as well as innovation in cross-cultural multilingual context. It is quite possible that English, in some way will forever find itself in the global service”.

N. Pozhydaieva (2019) in her work “On the Problem of Formation and Development of English Lingua Franca” notes, “ELF achieves global significance and rises to the level of structuring its linguistic systems, while undergoing changes at the phonetic, lexical, and structural levels”³. Among the factors, contributing to accelerating such changes the author identifies the use of English lingua franca by those who speak the language at various levels. More and more, the process of intercultural communication does not aim to require its participants to adhere to grammatical or phonetic norms. Moreover, industry frameworks limit the communicators’ vocabulary, as ELF is predominantly spoken within certain professional cultures. Therefore, the processes of change in the linguistic systems of ELF can be characterized as internationalization and de-standardization. Having experienced certain deviations, ELF exists separately

¹ Mauranen A. (2015). English as a global Lingua Franca: changing language in changing global academia. In Murata, K. (ed.) *Exploring ELF in Japanese Academic and Business Contexts*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. 29–46. URL: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/283098122_English_as_a_global_lingua_franca_Changing_language_in_changing_global_academia

² Khrystiuk S. B. (2022). The Formation of Foreign Language Communicative Competence in the Context of the English Perception as a Global Lingua Franca. *Mižnarodnij filološki časopis*, 13 (3), 112–120.

³ Pozhydaieva N. (2019). On the Problem of Formation and Development of English Lingua Franca. *Research Bulletin. Series: Philological Sciences*, 1 (176), 388–393. URL: <https://journals.indexcopernicus.com/api/file/viewByFileId/831853>

and independently to some extent from the norms established by native speakers of Standard English.

Ukrainian scientist Ye. Panasenko (2019) emphasizes the importance of the English language in the era of globalization calling it “a communicative inter-mediator in the context of individual nations and ethnic groups and encompassing the entire global community, becoming a global, worldwide, polyethnic, and multicultural conglomerate.”⁴ In the process of establishing global languages, English has taken a leading role and is an influential factor in shaping and implementing geopolitics, global socio-political, socio-economic, cultural-information, and educational processes. Despite various views among scholars regarding the weakening role of the English language in the international arena, its place and status will remain unchanged for a long time, provided there is a linguistic reconstruction of the very structure of the language, which will facilitate its use among speakers of other languages in the global communicative process.

Without a shadow of a doubt, knowledge of any foreign language not only improves the quality of an individual's life but also opens up a world of new culture, a world of entirely unfamiliar new thinking and worldview. People who learn foreign languages have more flexible and original thinking. Knowledge of foreign languages is the key to success in the modern world, where communication in foreign languages and processing huge amounts of information is becoming increasingly important (Table 1).

Materials and Methods

The theoretical and methodological basis of the research is a comprehensive analysis of the essence of English as a global lingua franca and its impact on enhancing Ukraine-UK bilateral relations. It is based on electronic source database, media reports and formal diplomatic instruments, including briefing on Ukrainian migration to the United Kingdom by the migration observatory at the University of Oxford, encyclopedia Britannica, online encyclopedia, the TESOL Encyclopedia of English Language Teaching, Cambridge dictionary, data of State Statistics Service of Ukraine, Ethnologue Statistics, the Integrated Review of Security, Defence, Development and Foreign Policy by Cabinet Office, the British Council facts, a guide to forecasting the popularity of the English language in the 21st century, Council of Geostrategy Policy Paper, Discussion Paper of Foreign Policy Audit: Ukraine- the United Kingdom, Strategy of National Security and Defence Council of Ukraine, the world's largest ranking of countries and regions by English skills, press releases, Policy Paper of UK support to Ukraine, sayings on the importance of learning foreign languages, the legal framework of the UK-Ukraine bilateral relations, etc.

Various research methods such as historicism, description, objectivity, chronological sequence, analysis, generalization, systematization, etc., have been used to assess the importance of English as a global lingua franca and its impact on international relations in general as well as on enhancing Ukraine-UK bilateral relations in particular.

⁴ Panasenko Ye. O. (2019). English as lingua franca and its role in contemporary world political and economic processes. *State and regions. Series: Public administration. Zaporizhzhia: Classical Private University*, 3 (67), 96–103. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.32840/1813-3401-2019-3-18>

Table 1. Fifteen sayings on the importance of learning foreign languages

Saying	Author
How many languages you know – that many times you are a human being	Johann Wolfgang von Goethe, German poet, prose writer, playwright, thinker, and naturalist
Knowing one language allows you to enter the corridor of life, knowing two languages – opens all the doors in this corridor for you	Frank Smith, Canadian psycholinguist
If you speak to someone in a language, he understand, you are speaking to his head. If you speak to a person in his native language, you are speaking to his heart	Nelson Mandela, South African human rights activist, politician, and lawyer, president of the Republic of South Africa from 1994 to 1999
He who knows no other languages knows nothing of his own	Johann Wolfgang von Goethe, German poet, prose writer, playwright, thinker, and naturalist
To fully open up to a language, you must be in love with it	Oles Honchar, Ukrainian writer, literary critic, public figure
Free curiosity is much more important than a formidable knowledge when learning a language	Aurelius Augustine, Christian theologian and church figure
A language disappears not because others do not learn it, but because those who know it do not speak it	José María Arce, Spanish politician
We must learn languages – it is the only thing that is useful to know even poorly	Kato Lomb, Hungarian translator, writer, one of the first simultaneous interpreters in the world
A well-expressed thought sounds reasonable in all languages	John Dryden, English poet, playwright, critic, fabulist
Another language is another vision of life	Federico Fellini, Italian director and screenwriter
The limits of my language mean the limits of my world	Ludwig Wittgenstein, Austrian philosopher
The customs of a people are reflected in its language, and on the other hand, it is largely the language that shapes the people	Ferdinand de Saussure, Swiss linguist, founder of structuralism
The spirit of the nation is in the language	Wilhelm von Humboldt
Language is a roadmap of a nation's culture. It tells us where this nation has come from and where it is going	Rita Mae Brown, American writer
Knowing many languages means having many keys to the same lock	François Voltaire, French philosopher

Source: compiled by the author

It has used theoretical analysis of scientific publications to determine the current status of the issue raised in linguistic theory and socio-political practice of bilateral relations; comparison of various definitions of the key concepts “English as a global lingua franca”, “Ukraine-UK bilateral relations”; content analysis to study the role of the English language in international communications; generalization to systematize publications, media content, and official reports related to the English impact

on enhancing Ukraine-UK bilateral relations; classification to view English as a global lingua franca as an unprecedented phenomenon of widespread language contacts, language change as well as language spread across cultures, as a dynamic resource experiencing constant change and perceived as a modifiable means of communication rather than an established model.

The existence of similarities and differences in Ukraine-UK bilateral relations has been established based on the comparative-historical and synchronous-comparative methods, systemic and synchronous-diachronic analysis, and the method of comparison. In the research paper, a thorough and comprehensive research has been carried out, the method of comparing the history of the two countries was widely used, comparing and learning that if a country has a great influence (it does not always depend on the territory, but rather on a strong and stable economy and developed culture) on others, then the language dominates the world.

Results and Discussion

Presently, there are virtually no states worldwide that do not cooperate with each other in implementing own domestic and foreign policies directly or through relevant international organizations, ministries, departments and other governmental agencies; almost all states realize that this is the only way to achieve not only global progress, but also the appropriate development of each state based on their equal cooperation and peaceful coexistence.

English culture serves as a benchmark for diplomats, and the language is recognized internationally not only because it is relatively easy to learn. There are several reasons why English fulfills such a role: 1) The United Kingdom was a maritime country whose sphere of influence extended across various continents. In particular, the language, etiquette, and cultural traditions were widespread; 2) The English are known for their cool-headedness, pragmatism, and calmness, which undoubtedly reflect in their linguistic and cultural traditions. Agreeably, English measured yet persistent diplomacy will prove more effective than the communication of representatives from cultures that are more emotional.

The best recommendation for English as the language of diplomacy is the fact that it is recognized as one of the six working languages of the United Nations next to French, Arabic, Chinese, Spanish, and Russian. In fact, English is the primary working tool for most diplomats in the world. English is currently widespread on all continents, serving as a lingua franca (a language for interethnic communication or a common means of communication), as an international language of science, trade, etc. (Table 2). Therefore, most countries support this trend – business and conversational English is available online on dozens of language platforms, training sessions, including a course from the British consulate.

According to the world's largest ranking of countries and regions by English skills (2024) based on test results of 2.1m adults in 116 countries & regions, Ukraine ranks 40th out of 116 countries with the Moderate proficiency index¹.

¹ The World's largest ranking of countries and regions by English skills. URL: <https://www.ef.com/wwen/epi/>

Table 2. Top List of Language Translation “Ethnologue Statistics” (2025)

№	Name of Language	Number of carriers worldwide
1	English	Over 1,4 billion
2	Chinese	Over 1,1 billion
3	Hindi	-602+ million
4	Spanish	-559+ million
5	Arabic	-372+ million
6	French	-309+ million
7	Bengali	over 272 million
8	Portuguese	-263+ million
9	Russian	-254+ million
10	Urdu	-231+ million
11	German	-134+ million
12	Indonesian	over 199 million
13	Japanese	over 125 million
14	Vietnamese	-85+ million
15	Nigeria Pidgin	over 120 million

Source: compiled by the author

The English, who ruled the seas and oceans for many years, held a significant share of international trade. This involves a substantial flow of goods and solid investments, making English, as the language of business communication and contracts, perfect with no ambiguities in reading and well-considered formulations. In addition, business English is significantly different from conversational English. As an international language, business communication is very important, and many countries are initiating to make it the second official business language in state affairs. This approach is primarily aimed at changing the psychology of doing business, which needs to feel part of global business processes, stimulating its entry into international markets.

The earliest data on Ukrainian-British relations dates back to the period of Kyivan Rus. In 1017, after the conquest of England by the Danish king Cnut, Edward and Edmund, sons of King Edmund II of England, took refuge in Kyiv. Around 1074, the future Grand Duke of Kyiv, Volodymyr Monomakh, married Gita, the daughter of King Harold II of England. Until the 17th century, Ukrainian-British contacts were generally sporadic.

In the 1620s, when Europe was divided into Catholic and Protestant camps, England considered the possibility of using the Ukrainian (Orthodox) Cossacks against Catholic Poland. In this regard, the British Ambassador to Constantinople, Thomas Rowe, informed his government about the Cossacks. The national liberation war of the Ukrainian people (1648–1657) under the leadership of Bohdan Khmelnytsky, which the revolutionary England of that time led by Oliver Cromwell perceived as a struggle against a common enemy – Catholicism, further awakened interest in Ukraine between the English. Cromwell followed the events in Ukraine and tried

to establish ties with Khmelnytsky. Interest in Ukraine in the 17th and 18th centuries spread to wider circles of British society. Diplomats, scholars, and travelers wrote about Ukraine and its people: Richard Knowles, Peter Gaylin, Paul Rickow, Edward Brown, John Bell, Joseph Marshall, William Cox and others. The English newspapers “Mercurius Politicus”, “London Gazette”, “Moderate Intelligencer” and others reported the events in Ukraine.

At the beginning of the 20th century, the struggle of Ukrainians for national rights in the Russian and Austro-Hungarian empires became an important factor in the Ukraine-UK relations. Even before the outbreak of World War I, the political status of Ukrainians began to appear more frequently in the British press as well as among influential British circles. The United Kingdom was one of the first states to recognize the Ukrainian People’s Republic, which emerged after the collapse of the Russian Empire in 1917. After the proclamation of the Ukrainian People’s Republic in 1917, the British government began to treat the Ukrainian issue with greater respect, although its official stance on the Ukrainian national struggle was restrained. However, the Ukrainian People’s Republic did not last long, and in 1922, Ukraine was incorporated into the Soviet Union.

During World War II Ukraine was occupied by Nazi Germany and many Ukrainians fought on the side of the Axis powers. However, there were Ukrainian nationalists who fought against both the Nazis and the Soviets, some of whom received support from the United Kingdom. After the Second World War, Ukraine remained part of the Soviet Union until its dissolution in 1991.

Ukrainian-British relations reached a new level after establishing an independent Ukrainian state. The United Kingdom recognized Ukraine’s independence from the Soviet Union on December 31, 1991, and just two weeks later, official diplomatic relations were established between the two countries. The first visit to Ukraine by Secretary of State for Foreign and Commonwealth Affairs David Hird has marked the beginning of direct discussions on prospects for establishing Ukrainian-British intergovernmental relations. The negotiations resulted in the signing of a Memorandum on Unrestricted Freedom of Movement, which guaranteed unrestricted freedom of movement within the territories of the two countries for not only members of the diplomatic missions, but also for representatives of political, public, or trade union organizations, businesspersons, journalists, tourists, and others. In addition, the parties prepared and adopted a Joint Declaration, which outlined the key principles of Ukraine-the United Kingdom cooperation and defined a specific order of practical measures, including those regarding further development of bilateral political relations.

According to Discussion paper on Foreign policy audit: Ukraine-the United Kingdom¹ several periods of particularly active contacts and interactions between the United Kingdom and Ukraine can be identified:

- 1992–1996 – the initial stage with the establishment of relations between the two countries;

¹ Solodkyy S., Bieliesskov M. (2017). Foreign policy audit: Ukraine- the United Kingdom. Discussion paper. URL: https://neweurope.org.ua/wp-content/uploads/2017/10/Aud_Ukr_GB_eng_inet.pdf

- 2008–2009 – intensification of collaboration against a background of attempts by Ukraine to gain a NATO Membership Action Plan;
- from 2014 to the present – intensification of collaboration against a backdrop of Russia's aggression against Ukraine and the conducting of internal reforms.

A. Zlenko's visit initiated a targeted effort to establish the political and legal frameworks of Ukrainian-British cooperation, which became an important preparation for the first official visit of Leonid Kravchuk to the United Kingdom on February 10–12, 1993. The result of his negotiations with Prime Minister John Major was the signing of the Agreement on the Principles of Relations and Cooperation between Ukraine and the United Kingdom, which expanded and specified the main provisions of the Joint Declaration of September 15, 1992. Following a rather productive visit by Anatoly Zlenko, the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Ukraine, in the summer of 1992, the Ukrainian embassy in London began operating (in addition to the embassy, Ukraine currently has a Consulate General in Edinburgh, opened in 2002), and programs for the internship of Ukrainian officers in the United Kingdom were also initiated.

It is worth noting, that the United Kingdom first intervened in Ukraine's security issues in 1992, when Ukraine launched plans to dismantle strategic nuclear weapons inherited from the Soviet Union. By signing the Budapest Memorandum, the United Kingdom, Russia, and the USA committed not to violate Ukraine's territorial integrity in exchange for Ukraine's renunciation of the remnants of Soviet nuclear weapons. While Ukraine began to perceive the United Kingdom as a great power, the United Kingdom continues to view Ukraine as an European country in need of strategic support.

In the early years of Ukraine's independence, the United Kingdom provided significant political and economic support to assist Ukraine in transitioning to a market economy and establishing democratic institutions. The two countries have also developed closer cultural ties, and an increasing number of Ukrainians studied and worked in the United Kingdom. Ukrainian presidents made four official visits to the United Kingdom: in February 1993, December 1995, October 2005, April 2017, and October 2020. President V. Zelensky has made six official visits to the UK from 2020 to 2025.

In December 1995, President Leonid Kuchma visited the United Kingdom. A Ukrainian-British declaration was signed, in which the British side emphasized its support for Ukraine's aspirations to get closer to the EU and even possible membership. In mid-October 2005, a working visit by President of Ukraine Viktor Yushchenko to the United Kingdom took place. On October 17, Viktor Yushchenko was awarded the Chatham House Prize, the former name of the Royal Institute of International Affairs. The award was personally presented to the President of Ukraine by Queen Elizabeth II, which adds significance to this event in the eyes of both the British and the international community as a whole. President of Ukraine Viktor Yushchenko emphasized, "The courage and dignity of the entire Ukrainian people deserve this award" and reminded those present that Ukraine is geographically the heart of Europe, and Europe cannot live without a heart. The two-day visit of President Petro Poroshenko to the United Kingdom on April 18–19, 2017, was

supposed to be one of the most inconspicuous working visits of foreign officials to London. Nonetheless, it was an important step in relations between Ukraine and the United Kingdom since they had been on pause for about eight years. The last Ukrainian president to visit London was Viktor Yushchenko in January 2009. The United Kingdom reluctantly shook hands with the infamous successor of Yushchenko and predecessor of Poroshenko.

On June 23–25, 1998, there was a visit to Ukraine by the Deputy Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs and Commonwealth Affairs of the United Kingdom, D. Henderson, who was received by B. Tarasiuk, the Minister of External Affairs. The British government representative assured that the United Kingdom is committed to supporting good relations with Ukraine and will promote the establishment of closer ties between Ukraine and the EU. In his opinion, bilateral Ukraine-UK cooperation should become an important factor that will contribute to developing Ukraine's relations with the European Union on the path to associated partnership. The Ukraine-UK dialogue on European integration continued on February 1, 1999, during negotiations between Foreign Minister B. Tarasiuk and his British counterpart R. Cook in London. Overall, during B. Tarasiuk's visit to the United Kingdom from February 1–3, 1999, ways to strengthen political contacts between the two countries were identified, directions for developing trade and economic relations were outlined, and cooperation in the military area as well as prospects for improving the legal framework were discussed.

The years 2001–2002 were marked by a slight deterioration in Ukraine-UK relations. The British government repeatedly criticized the sluggishness and failure of Ukrainian reforms and the rise of undemocratic trends in Ukraine, including the attack on freedom of speech. However, the change of Ukraine's ruling elite after the presidential elections of 2004 and the clear pro-Western orientation of the new Ukrainian government's foreign policy created the preconditions for overcoming the alienation in diplomatic relations between the two countries. Overall, the years 2008–2009 were characterized by an intensification of bilateral relations and a large number of visits at all levels. The change in political leadership in Ukraine and the United Kingdom after the elections of 2010 did not affect the fundamental nature of the bilateral dialogue between Kyiv and London. Active political contacts between the leadership of both countries continued.

Thus, from 1991 to 2014, Ukraine-UK relations went through several stages of development: from establishing a contractual and legal framework to direct political interaction. On the one hand, the United Kingdom supported Ukraine's accession to the European Union; while on the other hand, it was unacceptable for the United Kingdom not to see an equal number of deputies and votes represented by Ukraine in the European Parliament and the Council of Ministers. However, Ukraine itself was not ready for EU membership, as it did not meet the membership requirements. Ukraine's future depended on us, and the closer Ukraine got to the European community, the more it could hope for a change in the tone of the euro-integration dialogue with it.

Since the Revolution of Dignity and the Russian aggression against Ukraine in 2014 and 2022, the United Kingdom has actively supported our state. The United Kingdom initiated and supported international sanctions against Russia for its aggression in Ukraine and the occupation of the Autonomous Republic of Crimea, including the exclusion of Russia from the G8. The United Kingdom continues to actively assist Ukraine in defending its national sovereignty and territorial integrity in international organizations such as the UN, OSCE, NATO, the Council of Europe, the EU, and UNESCO. Until 2016, the United Kingdom was firmly part to the EU and provided steadfast support for Ukraine's aspirations to join the EU and NATO; both countries largely viewed each other, though not exclusively, through the lens of the EU and NATO. C. Mills (2022) states, "The first changes became evident following the Kerch Bridge incident in November 2018, after which the United Kingdom increased its support for the development of Ukraine's Navy"¹.

In 2020–2021, Ukraine adopted a number of strategic documents that outline its vision for foreign and security policy. In all of them, the United Kingdom appears as a major state whose cooperation is necessary to achieve national security goals. The United Kingdom is mentioned twice in Ukraine's National Security Strategy of 2020 and seven times in Ukraine's Foreign Policy Strategy of 2021. Article 99 confirms the "strategic nature" of relations with the United Kingdom, as stated in the National Security Strategy of 2020. According to National Security and Defence Council of Ukraine (2021)², Articles 109 and 110 of the National Security Strategy of 2020 further elaborate Ukraine's strategic vision regarding relations with the United Kingdom. The United Kingdom is referred to as "an influential state outside the EU" and "a strategic partner that plays an important role in shaping and maintaining international solidarity in support of the state sovereignty and territorial integrity of Ukraine".

On October 8, 2020, the President of Ukraine Volodymyr Zelensky and the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom Boris Johnson signed in London the Agreement on Political Cooperation, Free Trade, and Strategic Partnership between Ukraine and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. Among other things, the President of Ukraine received an invitation to speak in the House of Commons, and Boris Johnson, the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom, made two unexpected visits to Kyiv in early April and mid-June 2022, respectively. These gestures are the peak of relations that have been established for more than three decades.

According to A. Lanoszka et al. (2022), the United Kingdom, along with the USA, was the first major state to indicate that it was paying serious attention to the possibility of a new Russian attack on Ukraine. It was also the first to actively disseminate intelligence data in December 2021 and January 2022, trying to undermine the Kremlin's plans for an invasion of Ukraine³.

¹ Mills C. (2022). Military Assistance to Ukraine 2014–2021. House of Commons Library. URL: <https://bit.ly/3Qmac4g>

² Strategy of Ukraine's foreign policy. National Security and Defence Council of Ukraine. URL: <https://bit.ly/3zz4vdm>

³ Lanoszka A., Rogers J., Shelest H. (2022). Deepening British-Ukrainian relations in a more competitive era. Council of Geostrategy Policy Paper. No. SBIPP08. URL: <https://www.geostrategy.org.uk/app/uploads/2022/07/SBIPP08-20072022.pdf>

On Wednesday, March 8, 2023, the President of Ukraine Volodymyr Zelensky made an unexpected visit to the United Kingdom to speak in Westminster Hall and meet with King Charles at Buckingham Palace. During his visit to London on February 8, the Ukrainian president called on parliamentarians for “powerful English planes”. Speaking at Westminster Hall, the President presented the Speaker of the House of Commons with a pilot’s helmet inscribed: “We have freedom, give us wings to protect it”. During the meeting with King Charles, Mr. Zelensky (2023) said, “In the United Kingdom, the king is a pilot of the Air Force. In Ukraine today, every Air Force pilot is a king”⁴. Prime Minister Rishi Sunak offered to train Ukrainian pilots; the government responded only that they would look into the possibility of providing aircraft.

The United Kingdom condemned the unprovoked and deliberate invasion of Ukraine by the Russian government and stated that the United Kingdom supports Ukraine, its democratically elected government, and its brave people during this awful time. According to some observers, the recent support for Ukraine from the United Kingdom is the largest from any state aside from the United States, and it even came as a surprise. The UK government is providing Ukraine with various economic, humanitarian, and defense military assistance, as well as implementing additional sanctions against Russia and Belarus. In total, the United Kingdom has allocated nearly £400 million, of which £220 million is for humanitarian aid (for essential medicines and other forms of assistance). In the context of military assistance, it is important to emphasize the wide range of equipment, including main battle tanks, helicopters, thousands of anti-tank weapons, surface-to-air missiles, multiple rocket launch systems, armored personnel carriers, artillery, small arms, ammunition, helmets, body armor, rations, and medical equipment. In 2022, the United Kingdom trained 10,000 Ukrainian soldiers in basic infantry skills and promised to train another 20,000 in 2023. On February 8, according to the UK government’s response to the Russian invasion of Ukraine (2023), the Prime Minister announced plans for an additional UK-led training program that will include Ukrainian fighter pilots and marines. Since Putin’s invasion of Ukraine, the United Kingdom has imposed sanctions against over 1000 individuals, legal entities, and subsidiaries, including 69 leading oligarchs, and has coordinated sanctions with allies, including a joint decision from all G7 countries to exclude Russian banks from the SWIFT system⁵.

One Hundred Year Partnership Agreement between the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and Ukraine, as a major step in supporting Ukraine’s long-term security, was signed January 16, 2025. The UK Prime Minister Keir Starmer (2025) stated, “1) Putin’s ambition to wrench Ukraine away from its closest partners has been a monumental strategic failure. Instead, we are closer than ever, and this partnership will take that friendship to the next level; 2) This is not just about

⁴ Ukraine war: President Volodymyr Zelenskyi visits the UK. (2023). URL: <https://www.bbc.com/news/in-pictures-64573568>

⁵ The UK government’s response to the Russian invasion of Ukraine. (2023). URL: <https://www.gov.uk/government/topical-events/russian-invasion-of-ukraine-uk-government-response/about>

the here and now, it is also about an investment in our two countries for the next century, bringing together technology development, scientific advances and cultural exchanges, and harnessing the phenomenal innovation shown by Ukraine in recent years for generations to come; 3) The power of our long-term friendships cannot be underestimated. Supporting Ukraine to defend itself from Russia's barbaric invasion and rebuild a prosperous, sovereign future is vital to this government's foundation of security and our Plan for Change"¹

According to policy paper "UK support to Ukraine: factsheet" (2025)²: 1) the UK-Ukraine 100 Year Partnership will foster broader and closer collaboration across nine key pillars, including defence and security, science and technology, and economy and trade (signed at leader-level on 16 January 2025);

2) the UK has supported UNGA resolutions condemning:

- Russia's invasion of Ukraine: 24 February 2022, 23 February 2023 and 2 March 2022;
- Russia's attacks on Ukraine's critical energy infrastructure, including nuclear facilities: 24 July 2024;

- Russia's attempted illegal annexation of 4 eastern Ukrainian regions: 12 October 2022;

3) In military area, the United Kingdom has committed £7.8 billion in military support for Ukraine since the Russian invasion;

- sent around 400 different capabilities to Ukraine, with a new £150 million package including drones, tanks and air defence systems announced on 12 February 2025, a £225 million package including drones, boats and munitions announced on 19 December 2024, and 650 lightweight multirole missiles announced on 6 September 2024;

- trained over 51,000 Ukrainian personnel in the UK under Operation INTERFLEX and the training scheme has been extended until at least the end of 2025; the UK will sustain £3 billion a year in military aid until 2030 to 2031 and for as long as it takes, contribute £2.26 billion to the G7 'Extraordinary Revenue Acceleration' Loans for Ukraine;

4) the UK's non-military commitments to Ukraine since the start of the invasion come to £5 billion including £4.1 billion in fiscal support through World Bank loan guarantees and £977 million committed in bilateral assistance to February 2025;

5) the UK is providing at least £120 million in humanitarian assistance through to the end of financial year 2024 to 2025, bringing our total humanitarian contribution to £477 million for Ukraine and the region since the start of the full-scale invasion, £15 million, delivered through UNHCR and UNICEF, will support those most in need as temperatures in Ukraine plummet;

6) Overall, the UK has committed over £400 million for energy security and resilience in Ukraine through grant, in-kind support and loan guarantees;

7) the UK has sanctioned over 2,200 individuals and entities, over 2,000 of which have been sanctioned since Russia's full-scale invasion. UK, USA and EU sanctions

¹ UK and Ukraine sign landmark 100 Year Partnership to deepen security ties and strengthen partnership for future generations. Press Release (2025). URL: <https://www.gov.uk/government/news/uk-and-ukraine-sign-landmark-100-year-partnership-to-deepen-security-ties-and-strengthen-partnership-for-future-generations>

² UK support to Ukraine: factsheet. Policy paper. Updated 28 February 2025. URL: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/uk-support-to-ukraine-factsheet/uk-support-to-ukraine-factsheet>

have deprived Russia of over \$450 billion in revenue since February 2022, equivalent to nearly 3 more years of funding for the invasion;

8) the UK announced £4.5 million of new funding to support Ukraine's domestic war crimes investigations, gave an additional £2.3 million to the International Criminal Court, the United Kingdom is an active member of the 'core group' scoping options for achieving accountability and a founding member of the International Register of Damage to support claims by Ukrainians who have suffered losses as a result of the war.

The legal framework of the UK-Ukraine bilateral relations includes more than 30 international treaties of different kinds, diverse in design and scope, and having binding effect (Table 3), including:

Table 3. The legal framework of the UK-Ukraine bilateral relations

Kinds of international instruments	Example
Joint communiqué	Joint communiqué on the Establishment of Consular Relations between Ukraine and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (1991)
Joint Declaration	Joint Declaration between Ukraine and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (1992)
Treaty	Treaty between Ukraine and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland on the Principles of Relations and Cooperation (1993–1994)
Agreement	Agreement between the Government of Ukraine and the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland on Cooperation in the Fields of Education, Science and Culture (1993)
	Agreement between the Government of Ukraine and the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland on Mutual Assistance in Combating Illicit Drug Trafficking (1996)
	Agreement in the form of an exchange of notes between the Government of Ukraine and the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland on the Profitable Activities of Family Members of Diplomatic Staff (1998)
Protocol	Protocol between the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine on Amending the Memorandum of Understanding between the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine on the Exchange and Mutual Protection of Information with Limited Access in the Field of Defense (2018)
Memorandum	Memorandum of Understanding between the Government of Ukraine and the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland on Administrative Mutual Assistance between the Customs Services (1998)
Convention	Convention between the Government of Ukraine and the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland on the Elimination of Double Taxation and the Prevention of Fiscal Evasion with respect to Taxes on Income and on Capital Gains (1993)

Source: compiled by the author

A wide range of the UK-Ukraine international instruments is concluded between states, governments, particular ministers, departments (Table 4), etc.

Table 4. Subjects participating in conducting the UK-Ukraine international instruments

Participants	Kinds of international instruments
States	Treaty between Ukraine and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland on the Principles of Relations and Cooperation (1993–1994).
Governments	Agreement between the Government of Ukraine and the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland on the Promotion and Mutual Protection of Investments (1993); Memorandum of Understanding between the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine and the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland on the Exchange and Mutual Protection of Information with Limited Access in the Field of Defense (2004); The One Hundred Year Partnership Agreement between Ukraine and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (2025).
Particular ministers	Memorandum of Understanding on Military Contacts and Cooperation between the Ministry of Defence of Ukraine and the Ministry of Defence of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (1993); Protocol on Further Development of Military Cooperation between the Ministry of Defense of Ukraine and the Ministry of Defense of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (1995); Agreement on Information Exchange between the Ministry of Environmental Protection and Nuclear Safety of Ukraine and the Health and Safety Executive of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (1997); Memorandum of Understanding between the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine and the Government of Great Britain in the person of the Ministry of International Development on the implementation of the Program for Improving the Living Standards of the Rural Population of Ukraine (2002).
Departments	Memorandum of Understanding on Participation and Support of the International Chernobyl Center for Nuclear Safety, Radioactive Waste and Radioecology (1997); Memorandum of Understanding on Cooperation and Coordination between the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Ukraine and the Foreign and Commonwealth Office of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (2000); Agreement (in the form of exchange of notes) between the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Ukraine and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Commonwealth Affairs of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland on the Simplified Procedure for Issuing Visas to Officials of Both Countries (2001); Memorandum of Understanding between the State Financial Monitoring Service of Ukraine and the Financial Intelligence Unit of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland as agreed by the Director General of the National Crime Agency on Cooperation in the Field of Counteraction to Legalization (Laundering) of Proceeds from Crime, Terrorist Financing and Financing of Proliferation of Weapons of Mass Destruction (2018).

Source: compiled by the author

In addition, Ukraine has formalized its succession to 10 bilateral international treaties concluded between the USSR and the United Kingdom. Valid bilateral agreements create a broad political and legal framework for the development of the UK-Ukraine relations in key areas of bilateral cooperation. Work is underway to finalize a number of draft bilateral international agreements, in particular in the military, financial, and other areas.

The UK-Ukraine trade relations have a long and successful history. It is worth noting that bilateral trade between the United Kingdom and Ukraine has been on an upward trajectory for the last 20 years. According to State Statistics Service of Ukraine (2022)¹, the trade turnover between Ukraine and the United Kingdom increased by almost 57 % to \$2.2 billion in 2021. Exports grew particularly actively (+62 %), reaching over \$1 billion. Thus, exports from the United Kingdom to Ukraine increased by 36 %, while Ukrainian exports to the United Kingdom rose by 45 % from 2020 to 2021. Furthermore, the United Kingdom is one of the few countries that have nearly parity in Ukrainian trade in goods and services. Although the United Kingdom has never been among the top 10 trading partners of Ukraine in goods trade, in 2021 it ranked fourth in services trade. Thanks to the cancellation of import duties and tariff quotas, Ukrainian businesses will be able to increase the export of high value-added goods in the future. This primarily concerns flour, grains, dairy products, meat and poultry semi-finished products, tomato paste, honey, corn, wheat, juices, mushrooms, sugar, etc. Ukraine traditionally exports these goods to the United Kingdom. Thus, this will contribute not only to the development of Ukrainian production but also to an increase in foreign exchange earnings and strengthening the Ukrainian economy.

According to State Statistics Service of Ukraine (2022)², the biggest export items from Ukraine to the United Kingdom were ferrous metals (26.6 % of total), fats and oils of animal or vegetable origin (16.6 %), oil seeds (15.1 %), grains (13.4 %), and electrical machinery (7.5 %). In turn, the United Kingdom exported land transport, except railway (22.6 % of total), nuclear reactors and machinery (15.3 %), chemical products (8 %), mineral fuels, oil and products of its distillation (8 %), alcohol (6.6 %) to Ukraine. In terms of services, 2021 statistics have shown that Ukraine exported telecommunications and information technology (62 % of total), transport services (19.1 %), and business services (13.6 %).

In addition, the United Kingdom is one of the largest foreign investors in Ukraine, especially in recent years. In 2020, total UK investment in Ukraine was \$768 million, making the United Kingdom the fifth largest foreign investor in the country. The majority of the United Kingdom investments in Ukraine are in the energy, agriculture and manufacturing sectors, with notable investments in renewable energy sources such as wind and solar power plants. British companies have also invested in Ukraine's information technology sector, which has grown rapidly in recent years. The United Kingdom has also provided technical assistance to help Ukraine develop its economy

¹ Foreign trade in certain types of goods by country in 2021. State Statistics Service of Ukraine (2021). URL: <https://bit.ly/3u403Q3>

² Ibidem.

and attract more foreign investment. The UK Department for International Trade is supporting British companies wishing to invest in Ukraine and has signed trade and investment promotion agreements with Ukrainian government agencies.

In addition to investment, the United Kingdom has also provided financial assistance to Ukraine to support economic and political reforms in Ukraine and has contributed to international financial assistance programmes for Ukraine. The United Kingdom investments in Ukraine have played an important role in promoting national economic growth, job creation and innovation as well. They have also strengthened bilateral ties between the two countries and contributed to Ukraine's integration into the global economy.

It is also important to highlight the crucial role of the British Council as the UK's international education, culture and art center. Since 1992, the British Council has been operating in Ukraine, an organization representing the United Kingdom abroad in the fields of education and culture, with offices in Kyiv, Donetsk, Lviv, Odesa, and Kharkiv. The same year, the BBC World Service began broadcasting daily radio programs in Ukrainian for listeners in Ukraine. An official inter-parliamentary deputy group for relations with Ukraine was established in the Parliament of the Slovak Republic. Other organizations through which Ukrainian-British relations are conducted include the British-Ukrainian Law Association (established in 1993), the British-Ukrainian Chamber of Commerce (1997), the Ukrainian-British City Club (2005), the Friends of Ukraine Foundation (2005), and the British-Ukrainian Society (2007).

On February 10, 1993, the governments of Ukraine and the United Kingdom signed the Agreement on Cooperation in the Field of Education, Science, and Culture, which is a fundamental sectoral document. This and other documents allow Ukrainian culture to be represented in the United Kingdom and vice versa. Ukrainian folk groups participate in music festivals in the United Kingdom, and Ukrainian artists hold exhibitions of their works.

However, on the 30th anniversary of diplomatic relations, 2022 was meant to be the year of Ukrainian culture in the United Kingdom and British culture in Ukraine, but Russian aggression hindered these plans. Nevertheless, adjustments were made, and on June 24, 2022, the British Council and the Ukrainian Institute launched the "season" of UK-Ukraine and shifted the focus to the "changing needs and priorities of the Ukrainian cultural sector"¹.

It is obvious that the UK-Ukraine cultural interactions have significantly increased recently, as more and more Ukrainians study, work, and live in the United Kingdom. Likewise, interest in Ukrainian culture and traditions among Britons is growing. One of the main avenues for cultural exchange between the two countries is education. Many Ukrainian students receive higher education in the United Kingdom, and British universities offer scholarships and exchange programs. This fosters the exchange of ideas, knowledge, and cultural experiences between the two countries. Cultural events and exchanges are another way of cultural interaction. For example, the British Council in Ukraine implements a number of programs that promote

¹ UK / Ukraine season: About British Council and Ukrainian Institute. URL: <https://bit.ly/3u49e2W>

cultural exchange, such as the British Film Festival, the Literary Exchange between the United Kingdom and Ukraine, and the Partnership in the Performing Arts between the United Kingdom and Ukraine.

Ukrainian cultural festivals, such as the Kyiv International Short Film Festival and Gogol Fest in Kyiv, have also gained popularity in the United Kingdom. Ukrainian music and dance, such as traditional folk music and Cossack dances, are also showcased at various festivals and events in the United Kingdom. The growing UK-Ukraine cultural interactions have led to establishing cultural centers and associations in both countries. For example, the Ukrainian-British City Club in London serves as a hub for cultural and social events, as well as opportunities for networking for Ukrainians in the United Kingdom. Thus, the UK-Ukraine cultural interactions play an extremely important role in building greater understanding and mutual respect between the two nations, as well as strengthening their ties.

The UK-Ukraine social interactions have grown over the years because of increased migration, tourism and business activity between the two countries. Many Ukrainians have migrated to the United Kingdom to work, study or as refugees and have formed communities in different parts of the country. These Ukrainian communities have come together in cultural associations, religious groups and social clubs, providing a platform for Ukrainians to interact with each other and with wider British society. The Ukrainian community in the United Kingdom has also become more visible in recent years, participating in cultural events, festivals and charity events.

On the other hand, British tourists and business people are increasingly visiting Ukraine, attracted by its rich history, culture and natural beauty. This opens up opportunities for social interactions between Britons and Ukrainians, such as cultural exchange, language learning and networking.

Social media has also played a significant role in developing the UK-Ukraine social interactions: many Ukrainians and Britons communicate online, sharing experiences and thoughts in English. It is extremely important to note that many factors have played a decisive role in establishing the English language as global, including global modernization, a great English literature, the reform of the world order after World War I, and then World War II, which led to the creation of new international organizations and alliances. This resulted in an unprecedented need for an international language, which is widely described by Ian Mackenzie (2014) as adaptive, conditional, creative, changeable, diverse, dynamic, flexible, fluid, fragmented, vague, heterogeneous, hybrid, mutable, open, mobile, limitless, unpredictable, unstable, mutable, yet a self-regulating system, as well as a special, specialized, and emergent form of everyday communication implying a virtual speech community, or various constellations of speakers of diverse individual language styles who participate in each individual interaction².

Ukraine and the United Kingdom will continue to work together to build closer ties in higher education. The United Kingdom will support the reform of English

² Mackenzie Ian. (2014). *English as a lingua franca. Theorizing and Teaching English*. London and New York : Taylor & Francis Group.

language teaching in the Ukrainian education system, including the New Ukrainian School reform. The new Future English programme will provide research, advice and continuous professional development for the Ministry of Education and Science, as well as launching a new online education platform that will create professional development opportunities for 25,000 teachers in all regions of Ukraine over the next three years.

Thus, both the United Kingdom and Ukraine need to deepen their bilateral relations, as both countries are committed to supporting their own sovereignty, including the protection of their national institutions and democracy, the right to determine their own affairs and way of life, and to supporting an open international order, especially in Europe and neighboring regions and seas. Both countries recognize the strategic importance of NATO and the EU, even if the United Kingdom is only a member of NATO, while Ukraine aspires to membership in both organizations – a goal it enshrined in its Constitution. Ukraine has a growing service sector in terms of its role as a digital center for information technology and software development. Militarily, the United Kingdom has a strong navy, while the Ukrainian armed forces are becoming increasingly battle-hardened. Ukraine has become a central hub in the United Kingdom's new vision for Europe, which stretches from the "northern" to the "southern flank of Europe". Given Russia's expansionist intentions, Ukraine has become a central defensive bastion of the Euro-Atlantic space, as it has been destined to absorb aggressive advances from Russia. Both states are also critically important to each other in their efforts to expand multilateral cooperation in Europe: the trilateral group formed in February 2022 with Poland has significant potential for expanding both scope and functions.

Conclusions

In the current context, the United Kingdom has a clear position in supporting Ukraine's territorial integrity and state sovereignty, particularly within the framework of international organizations (UN, OSCE and Council of Europe). The United Kingdom, as a permanent member of the UN Security Council, regularly speaks out in support of Ukraine's statehood.

Bilateral relations between Ukraine and the United Kingdom have existed since Ukrainian independence from the Soviet Union in 1991 and historically have been friendly and partnership-oriented. The United Kingdom was one of the first countries to recognize Ukraine's independence on December 31, 1991 and has provided significant political, economic, and humanitarian assistance to Ukraine. Relations between Ukraine and the United Kingdom have only strengthened over the following decades, especially after Russia's aggression in 2014 and 2022. At the political level, both countries strive to develop and maintain strong and constructive relations based on shared values of democracy, human rights and the rule of law. This includes cooperation in regional security, conflict resolution and the promotion of democratic governance. In the economic sphere, Ukraine and the United Kingdom aim to develop bilateral trade and investment as well as work together to improve the business and investment environment in both countries. This includes promoting economic

reforms, reducing barriers to trade and investment, and supporting small and medium-sized enterprises. In the cultural sphere, Ukraine and the United Kingdom seek to foster cultural exchange and mutual understanding, as well as strengthen closer ties between their peoples. This includes promoting language learning, holding cultural events, and student exchange programs.

The United Kingdom and Ukraine have signed a 100-Year Partnership Agreement. It is designed to build strong ties between the two countries across the entire spectrum of relations: from trade, security and defence to science and technology, education, culture, etc. The relevant document will promote military cooperation among countries in maritime security through a new framework to enhance security in the Baltic, Black, and Azov seas and to deter ongoing Russian aggression. It will also bring together experts to develop scientific and technological partnerships in areas such as healthcare and diseases, agrotech, space and drones, as well as to build friendship through educational projects. The document also strengthens the position of the United Kingdom as a priority partner for Ukraine in the energy sector, the strategy for extracting critically important minerals, and the production of “green” steel. In the British Office, it was also emphasized that the 100-year partnership is “an important step in supporting Ukraine’s long-term security”, ensuring that “it will never again be vulnerable to the same brutality inflicted by the Russian Federation”. The agreement commits the United Kingdom to stand shoulder to shoulder with sovereign Ukraine for the next century.

Thus, the relationships between Ukraine and the United Kingdom are aimed at establishing a strong and long-term partnership based on shared interests and values, as well as on joint efforts to address the challenges facing the global community. The partnership between Ukraine and the United Kingdom is vital for both states and has the great potential for growth in the coming years. The United Kingdom holds the most steadfast position among partners, not balancing between Russia and Ukraine, stands for Ukrainian interests and the victory of Ukrainians with all his might.

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4.4. Interstate and Interlingual Contacts in Europe as a Reflection of Diplomatic Policy

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Abstract

The study aims to identify and analyse the role of Latin terminology, including catchphrases and specialised terms, in the formation and evolution of diplomatic discourse in the European region. The study aims to show how historical interstate and interlingual contacts, driven by diplomatic policy, have influenced the adaptation of Latin terms in modern European languages, reflecting not only historical continuity but also functional necessity in a globalised world. The material for the study was based on explanatory dictionaries and encyclopaedias, as well as translation dictionaries. The research hypothesis. Latin terminology, which was spread through historical interstate contacts and economic ties, played a key role in shaping diplomatic discourse in Europe, undergoing adaptation in modern languages but retaining semantic continuity. It lies in the fact that terms with finite elements of classical origin have undergone varying degrees of adaptation in modern European languages. They are characterised by a 'standard set' of semantic groups of meanings, and the terms go back to classical languages. What internal changes have occurred in the words, is it possible to rethink lexical meanings – the author tries to answer these questions by examining the internal structure of the terms. The article uses the cognitive method to analyse how conceptual metaphors and frames influence the formation of a world view in different cultures; the discourse analysis method revealed the formation of a diplomatic style and rhetoric based on Latin terminology, while the methods of translation analysis and corpus linguistics revealed strategies of modern translation and trends in the use of classical terms in modern European languages. The conclusions of the paper are generated by the analysis and synthesised in accordance with the research objectives and hypothesis. They illustrate typical metamodels in which information is encoded. All of this is illustrated by this comparative study, which contains recommendations for the application (the terminological matrix exists and needs to be followed; the latest technologies and related artificial intelligence are polished by the linguistic units that form textual passages; elements of terminology can be extrapolated).

Keywords: languages of the European area, interlingual contacts, terminological matrix, scientific concept, borrowed lexemes, classical languages, jurisdiction and codification of legal norms.

Introduction

In the context of the rapid development of modern natural sciences and humanities, the processes of differentiation and integration of scientific knowledge, and the emergence of new scientific disciplines, the problem of synthesising scientific knowledge is becoming particularly relevant. Forming new links between different fields of science requires a comprehensive approach to creating a holistic scientific picture of the world. Historically, the Latin language has played and continues to play an important role in the professional activities of scientists, being international in nature. Its influence on the formation of scientific terminology and the development of scientific thought is undeniable. Interlingual contacts and borrowings have become an integral part of modern languages, and the constant exchange and interpenetration of cultures is a prerequisite for the development of society. In this context, the Latin language, as well as Ancient Greek, which was transmitted through it, had a dominant influence on the languages that developed on the Latin basis or were formed during the period of scientific and cultural prosperity of Latin. Thus, integration processes in modern science require not only an interdisciplinary approach but also an awareness of the historical context of the development of scientific thought. Latin, as one of the key elements of this context, continues to play an important role in the formation of scientific terminology and the development of scientific communication.

Today, multilingualism and multiculturalism are considered essential for the citizens of the new Europe, and, accordingly, Ukraine. Objectively speaking, scientific activity is international in nature, which is why one or another language, under certain historical circumstances, plays the role of the 'language of science'. In particular, Latin, French, and English have been used in this capacity in Europe at different times. Since the first half of the last century, the latter has become the language of the global scientific community. The languages of Europe are rich in terms related to international diplomacy, which are key to understanding international relations and global issues. No one will be surprised to hear diplomatic sovereignty or diplomatic immunity, which refer to the rights of a state when it comes to resolving conflicts on the basis of international treaties.

Terms are those units of the language system that help it to communicate in a particular field together with the commonly used lexicon (Selivanova O., 2020)¹. The lexical fund of European languages includes words, phrases and expressions that reflect various concepts and concepts, reflecting the cultural and historical heritage of each language. The rapid change of vocabulary and its social significance are considered by scholars in nominative terms as part of the national fund, studied in the projection of the semantic function when compiling dictionaries, and analysed in terms of paradigmatic and syntagmatic dynamics – new words that arise in connection with the development of society, scientific or technological progress, politics and culture, break into scientific circulation, and the parameters of modern stratification (activity, usage, colouration) are related to our reflections. Therefore, the chosen topic cannot but be considered relevant: the process of globalisation of social

¹ Selivanova O. (2020) Linguistic encyclopedia. Poltava : Dovkolyia-K. 844. P. 736.

and economic life, which is now sweeping our planet, has initiated an increase in the tendency to internationalise the vocabulary of not only Indo-European languages, but also genetically unrelated languages. In addition, scientific and technological progress and the development of new high technologies create an urgent need for nominative language activity, which is carried out mainly with the involvement of the international component.

In the process of communicative interaction, especially in the legal sphere, the ability of participants to quickly adapt to changing circumstances and adjust their own communicative behaviour is revealed. This, in turn, leads to the identification of specific units of speech activity that are components of communicative skills (Vakulyk, 2010)². The specificity of the addressee of legislative messages lies in its dual nature: on the one hand, it is a mass (abstract) addressee, and on the other hand, it is a clearly defined one. For successful communication in the legal sphere, both subjects must have a common knowledge of legal norms, a common information base and presuppositions that form the so-called 'code'. This allows the sender to 'encode' the pragmatic objectives and purpose of the law through certain linguistic means, and the recipient to successfully 'decode' this information (Vakulyk, 2024)³. The inclusion of legal speech in public life has led to the formation of a specific relationship between language and law, between the written word and the law. Language is the only means through which law can exercise its regulatory influence by conveying information about the content of legal orders. Legal norms exist exclusively in certain lexical and grammatical forms, and the legislator's thought is formalised through language, becoming accessible to the addressees of legal requirements (Artykutsa, 2004; Zadorozhna, 2021)⁴.

G. Pocheptsov (2006)⁵, rightly notes that verbal communication is based on lexically defined units that reflect or focus on the realities of the world. A successful communicator, like an actor with experience of numerous performances, uses pre-tested ways to communicate effectively. This knowledge of the metacultural plan, which is achieved at a professional level, allows you to accurately predict the behaviour of the audience based on proven approaches. Possessing metacommunicative knowledge, a communicator can manage the process of information transfer so accurately that it significantly increases the level of achievement of the required result. The communicator activates all internal and external receptors that influence the formation of different types of behaviour, transforming linguistic parameters into social ones.

² Vakulyk I. (2010). Roman law in Latin terminology: a methodological guide. Kyiv : Publishing Center of NUBP of Ukraine, 2010. 140.

³ Vakulyk I. (2024). Dynamism of information-saturated life as a reality of society existence. In: the international community and Ukraine in the processes of economic and civilizational progress: current economic-technological, resource, institutional, security and socio-humanitarian problems. P. 157–176. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.30525/978-9934-26-480-1-6>

⁴ Artykutsa N. V. (2004). Language of law and legal terminology : a textbook. Kyiv : Stylos, 277. URL: <https://ekmair.ukma.edu.ua/server/api/core/bitstreams/9b536924-c480-4cb2-91c8-493aae9be4b8/content>; Zadorozhna Ye. (2021). Legal terms, ways of their translation from Spanish into Ukrainian. URL: <http://rep.knlu.edu.ua/xmlui/handle/787878787/2511?show=full>

⁵ Pocheptsov G. G. (2006). Communication theory. Kyiv : "Vakler". 656.

“This is professional-level knowledge of the metacultural plan. A professional clearly predicts the further behaviour of his or her audience based on the testing of various approaches. Endowed with metacommunicative knowledge, ... the communicator can so accurately control the process of information transfer that the level of achievement of the required result increases dramatically ...» (Pocheptsov, 2015)¹.

A significant role is played by the so-called markers, which can be played by Latin maxims. Scientists have proven that catchphrases (maxims, aphorisms) belong to the phenomenon of human memory not only because they are known to all educated native speakers and are used for figurative, expressive speech, but also as a product of the collective ethnic consciousness of native speakers. Although the term 'winged words' was first used by the German linguist G. Büchmann in his book of the same name in 1864, the phrase 'winged words' itself dates back to Homer, and they have not lost their relevance today.

The use of Latin traditional phrases is a prerequisite for the effective work of a modern diplomat. The frequency of their use indicates the effectiveness of the metaphor's impact on the audience, since, according to G. Pocheptsov (2006)², an effective metaphor must correspond to the listener's world model. The decoding process consists in recognising signs, and, according to the experimental data of O. Selivanova (2020)³, perception focuses on long, less familiar, rare, key words and the last word in the sentence. Examples are the Latin expressions: non exemplis, sed legibus iudicandum; non numeranda, sed ponderanda argumenta; et post malum segetem serendum.

Thus, communicative competence subordinates linguistic competence, and thus differentiates knowledge, generates and perceives new information. Sometimes, in the complex mechanism of perception and understanding of language units, there are shifts that affect the adequacy of text understanding. In language practice, stereotypes of thinking and stereotypes of speech patterns can arise, so it is always necessary to be set up for a logical, rational perception of the word. After all, speech activity is a complex mechanism, a complex mental and physiological phenomenon, so the individual is a key figure in every speech act.

In scientific circulation, there is an increasing emphasis on lifelong learning, the effectiveness of communication in a foreign language and multiculturalism (Chaika, Vakulyk, Hutyriak, 2023; Vakulyk, 2022)⁴. In the light of global digitalisation and automation of management processes, the international component is becoming more and more demanding in the search for profound solutions and advanced technologies. And terminology, as a branch of linguistics serving all spheres of human activity, does not stand aside from intercultural communication (Kimmeyer et al.,

¹ Pocheptsov G. (2015). Modern information wars. Kyiv : Kyiv-Mohyla Academy, 495.

² Pocheptsov G. G. (2006). P. 78.

³ Selivanova O. (2020) Linguistic encyclopedia. Poltava : Dovkolyia-K. P. 687.

⁴ Chaika O., Vakulyk I., Hutyriak O. (2023). Multiculturalism in education: teaching foreign languages and translation. *Ad Alta*. 2023. 13 (01). XXXI. URL: <https://surl.li/bbztz>

Vakulyk, I. (2022). The concept of “information space” of the present: Sources, state, prospects. *International Journal of Philology*, 26 (4). DOI: 10.31548/philolog13 (4_1).2022.008

2020)⁵; (Muratoglu et al., 2021)⁶; (Racontez-moi terminologie, 2016)⁷. Therefore, when it comes to the dimension of professionalism, fresh innovative views are demonstrated mainly with an emphasis on interdisciplinarity (Smagorinsky, 2001)⁸. This opinion is confirmed by the research of the Terminology Coordination Unit of the European Parliament (Terminology Coordination, 2018)⁹; Teun A. van Dijk (2009)¹⁰. This is a kind of immersion concept that is accompanied by certain models (Lifelong learning, 2023)¹¹ that help to learn a language in the diachronic dimension and in the synchronous cut – the effectiveness is not lost, but rather the depth is traced.

The material for the study was based on explanatory dictionaries and encyclopedias (Slovník ukrajinskoyi movy, 2020)¹², translated dictionaries, as well as the Ukrainian lexicon of the late XVIII – early XXI centuries: Dictionary-index: in three volumes (Hrytsenko et al., 2017)¹³. Let us consider the following final terminological elements, which, in our opinion, are typical, explaining their origin and peculiarities of functioning in modern languages. The research hypothesis. The historically determined interstate and interlingual contacts in the European region, which were formed under the influence of diplomatic policy, not only reflect political and economic realities, but also actively influence the formation and evolution of diplomatic discourse. In particular, Latin terminology, including catchphrases and specialised terms, has played a key role in the codification, translation and adaptation of diplomatic principles and norms, and its use in modern diplomacy is evidence not only of historical continuity but also of functional necessity in a globalised world. At the same time, terms with finite elements of classical origin undergo varying degrees of adaptation in modern European languages, which is manifested in changes in their semantics, grammatical form and functional load, while maintaining a 'standard set' of semantic groups of meanings typical of classical languages.

⁵ Kimmeyer L., Wortman K., Kitayama S., Lemelson R., Cummings K. (2020). Culture, mind and brain: new concepts, models and applications. *Contemporary perspectives in the social and behavioral sciences*. Cambridge : Cambridge University Press. 2020. DOI: 10.1017/9781108695374

⁶ Muratoglu N., Halleran A., Shimeka S. (2021). Implementing eTwinning in National Education Policies from Practice to Policy: Monitoring Report 2021. *European Commission. European Education and Culture Agency*. Office of Publications, 2021. URL: <https://data.europa.eu/doi/10.2797/6391>

⁷ Racontez-moi terminologie (2016). Parlement europeen. URL: <http://surl.li/bcrf>

⁸ Smagorinsky, P. (2001). Rethinking protocol analysis from a cultural perspective. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*. 2001. 21, 233–245. DOI: 10.1017/S0267190501000149

⁹ Terminology Coordination Unit of the European Parliament. (2018). Why is terminology your passion? The fourth collection of interviews with prominent terminologists. 2018. URL: <http://surl.li/bcrhq>. DOI: 10.2861/969631

¹⁰ Teun A. van Dijk (2009). *Society and Discourse How Social Contexts Influence Text and Talk*. Cambridge University Press. 299. URL: <http://surl.li/ddczq>

¹¹ Lifelong learning: models and methods of implementation. (2023). Collective monograph. Kharkiv : PC Technology center, 2023. P. 148. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.15587/978-617-7319-70-1>

¹² Slovník ukrajinskoyi movy u 20 tomakh (2010–2020). URL: <https://services.ulif.org.ua/exp/Entry/index?wordid=57412&page=1830> [in Ukrainian].

¹³ Hrytsenko P. Yu., Horodenska K. H., Dyundyk O. A., Karpilovska Ye. A., Klymenko N. F., Kozyreva Z. H. (Eds.). (2017). *Ukrainian lexicon of the late 18th – early 21st centuries: a dictionary-index: in three volumes*. Kyiv : Publishing House “Dmitry Burago”.

The purpose of the study is to examine the vocabulary of the subsystem of the language of international diplomacy in the entire richness of the lexical fund of modern European languages, as well as to investigate the sources of formation of legal terms in European languages through the prism of maxims.

Literature Review

Traditionally, final affixes have been attributed grammatical and word-forming functions. Back in the last century, scholars studied the origin and spread of suffix models, historical changes, word-formation features (narrowing or widening their range), and transsemantisation (based on the material of the Polish language); determined the criteria for homonymic differentiation of suffixes associated with nouns and the scope of their homonymisation; studied the structural types of Latin borrowings and the degree of their productivity, described the peculiarities of interlingual contacts between Slavs, Latins and Greeks; studied the elements of language as a collective consciousness. N. Klymenko (2017)¹ analysed the word structure and semantics of compound words, the functions of suffixes and the degree of productivity of suffixes and suffixoids. Researchers have also linked the development of the word-formation structure of the Ukrainian language to the internationalisation of vocabulary, but in the first half of the XXI century K. Horodenska (2024)² and her colleagues in the scientific field studied suffixal borrowed lexemes, their functional activity, compatibility with the bases of Slavic and foreign language origin. Ye. Karpilovska (2024)³ studied the suffix subsystem of the modern Ukrainian literary language on the material of about 120 thousand simple words (Karpilovska, 2023)⁴.

Materials and methods

To demonstrate a comprehensive analysis of the influence of the Latin language on the formation of European languages and cultures, the study uses a combination of different methods, which allows for a comprehensive examination of interstate and interlingual contacts in European countries, since it was here that the foundations of diplomatic policy were formed. Thus, thanks to the historical method, the development of the Latin language is traced, starting from ancient times and ending with the Renaissance; a comparative-historical “united” the grammars of various European languages (Romance and Germanic); and a consideration of the cultural context shows how the Latin language influenced various spheres of cultural life, including education and science.

¹ Klymenko N. F. (2017). Word formation in the Ukrainian scientific style of the early 21st century. *Visnyk of Lviv University. Series Philology*, 64 (1), 1–13. URL: <https://hdl.handle.net/20.500.12528/1304>

² Horodenska K. H. (2024). Grammatical studies of the Ukrainian language in the context of Slavic studies. *Ukrainian language*. 2024. 4, 30–47. URL: <http://jnas.nbuv.gov.ua/article/UJRN-0001544396>

³ Karpilovska Ye. A., Kysliuk L. P., Klymenko N. F. (2024). System and structure of the Ukrainian language in the functional-stylistic dimension: monograph. Kyiv: Institute of Ukrainian Language of the National Academy of Sciences of Ukraine. 351 p. URL: https://iul-nasu.org.ua/wp-content/uploads/2024/02/MONOGRAFIYA_strukturalisty.pdf

⁴ Karpilovska Ye. (2023). Metalanguage in lexicography. *Lexicographical Bulletin*. 2023. 32, 274–275. URL: <http://jnas.nbuv.gov.ua/article/UJRN-0001520975>

Results and Discussion

Ukraine has long been at the crossroads of trade routes from Asia to the West, to Europe. Such centers were Olbia (on the Southern Bug River), Chersonesos (near Sevastopol), the colonies of Odess (east of present-day Odessa), and Panticapaeum (modern Kerch). This is evidenced by archaeological finds of Greek-origin artifacts (black-lacquered ceramics, amphorae, and others). Close economic relations between the local population and the Black Sea antique colonies, and the flow of antique goods became a solid base for intensive trade.

“Old Romania” – this is what the territories of Italy, Portugal, Spain, France, Southern Belgium, Western and Northern Switzerland, Romania, Moldova, which were part of the Roman Empire and became the zone of distribution of Romance languages, were called.

The Italian language, which dominated the territory of the Apennine Peninsula, arose as a result of historical changes in the Latin language; French developed on the territory of the former Gaul (a country that encompassed the territories of modern France and Belgium, and from the 6th century to Northern Italy), conquered by the Romans in the first half of the 2nd century BC and Romanized from 191 BC, as well as thanks to the military campaigns of Julius Caesar (in particular, the Gallic Wars of 58-61 BC, described in “*Commentarii de bello Gallico*” (“Notes on the Gallic War”).

From the middle of the 2nd century BC, in the era of the Great Migration of Peoples, the Goths, who belonged to the East Germanic tribes, penetrated the territory of the Roman Empire, and through Gaul to the Iberian Peninsula.

Constant attempts by Roman warriors to conquer the Germanic tribes east of the Rhine in the 1st century BC – 1st century AD, and as a result of the economic relations of the Romans with the Germans, the names of German cities appeared: *Köln* (< Latin *colonia* “settlement”), *Koblenz* (< Latin *confluentes* “where rivers flow together”), located between the Moselle and *Rhine*, *Regensburg* (< Latin *castra regina* “imperial residence”), *Vena* (< Latin *Vindobona* “fortified point in Upper Pannonia”); the conquest of Britain (in the broad sense of Albion, i.e., England and Scotland) for almost five centuries before the fall of the Roman Empire (476 AD) had a significant impact on the gradual formation of new Western European languages.

Latin remained the state language in the early feudal Frankish kingdom, formed at the end of the 5th century, which encompassed a significant territory of the Western Roman Empire. The adoption of the title of emperor by Charlemagne in 800 transformed the state into the Frankish Empire, which in the middle of the 9th century disintegrated into independent states of Western Europe – Italy, France, Germany.

In the Middle Ages, Latin retained its significance as the language of science: it was the language of instruction both in elementary schools and universities. The first European university was the University of Bologna at the end of the 12th century. At the beginning of the 13th century, universities appeared in Paris, Oxford, Cambridge, where teaching was conducted in Latin; at the University of Heidelberg,

the song of the vagantes “Gaudeamus” was transformed into a student anthem (Vakulyk, 2020)¹.

Latin remained in Europe the language of jurisprudence, diplomacy, the Catholic Church, and literature until the 20th century.

During the Renaissance, Latin retained its role as the language of science and education, and later became a means of international and cultural communication.

With the advent of printing (in the mid-15th century), the imitation of the ancient cultural heritage intensified (Thomas More, Tommaso Campanella, Erasmus of Rotterdam, Jan Comenius, and others). Such a spread of the Latin language necessitated a thorough study of the language in schools, the compilation of dictionaries and grammars; interlinear translations with notes were published, with the help of which the Latin text was translated word for word. All this contributed to the penetration of Latin into new Western European languages.

Legal documents and treatises such as “Maiestas Carolina” (“Caroline Majesty”, Czech Republic, 1355), “Tripartium opus iuris consuetudinarii regni Hungariae” (“Tripartite work of customary law of the Kingdom of Hungary”, Hungary, 1517), and “Formula processus iudicarii” (“Formulary of judicial procedure”, Poland, 1523) were written in Latin.

The teaching of Latin in fraternal Latin schools in Ukrainian cities, the founding in 1576 by Prince K. Ostroshkyi of the first school of higher education, the Ostroh Greek-Slavic-Latin School; in 1632, the first higher educational institution in Ukraine, the Kyiv-Mohyla Collegium, which in the 18th century became the Kyiv-Mohyla Academy, and in which Latin was the language of instruction, testified that in the hierarchical value structure of languages, the Enlightenment era preferred classical languages.

The historian and philosopher, the “Ruthenian Demosthenes” S. Orikhovskiy from Peremyshl was known at the Universities of Vienna, Bologna, and Padua; the professor of arts, medicine, and astronomy Yu. Drohobych taught at the Universities of Bologna and Krakow; the master of the Universities of Krakow and Vienna, Pavlo Rusyn from Krosno, who taught a course on ancient literature, was the founder of the Krakow school of Neo-Latin poets; the professor of rhetoric and poetics Georgiy Tychynskiy-Rutenets worked at the University of Krakow. The teacher of poetics at the Pereyaslav Seminary, Kharkiv Collegium H. Skovoroda was not only familiar with Latin but also wrote his works in it, including fables. H. Skovoroda translated Horace, Virgil, Ovid, and from Neo-Latin poets – the Frenchman M. Muret and the Fleming Sidronius Hosius. A former graduate of the Kyiv-Mohyla Academy in his works referred to Greek and Roman philosophers (Plato, Aristotle, Socrates, Epicurus, Seneca).

During this period, the divergence between the “Greco-Slavic” and “Latin” literary communities begins to disappear. This was facilitated by Ukrainian students who traveled to Western universities, acquiring education, and building national education based on the best Western European models.

¹ Vakulyk I. I. (2020). Gaudeamus: from Source of Origin to Cult. *Linguistic Studies*. 2020. 11 (2), 46–52.

In the 18th-19th centuries, Latin remained the language of diplomacy, science, and philosophy, and in the 20th century, it was primarily the language of the Catholic Church and the Vatican, and the language of science.

In particular, Latin was and remains the language of jurisprudence, standing at the origins of the codification of legal norms. The main form of law in ancient Rome during the royal period (756–509 BC) was custom, and in the middle of the 5th century BC, the “*Leges duodecim tabularum*” appeared. The codification of Roman law was called *corpus juris*, which included imperial decrees (Codex Justinianus in 12 books), selections from the works of jurists (Digesta in 50 books), legislation (Institutiones in 4 books < *institutio, onis f* “instruction, teaching” < *instiuo, ui, utum, ěre* “to instruct”) and Novellae constitutiones (mainly in Greek).

The result of legislative activity in ancient times was the codex < Latin *codex, icis m* or *caudex* 1) “tree trunk”; 2) “shackles on a criminal’s legs”; 3) “ferry base”; 4) “waxed wooden tablets” > – *in codicis extrema cera* “on the last page of the tablet”. From this come *codices accepti et depensi*, in which monthly cash expenses were recorded (*adversaria, ōrum n*) – *referre in codicem* “to write in the book”. One part of such books recorded expenses and debts (*codices expensi* < *expensio, ōnis f* < *expensa, ae f* “expenses” < *expenso, āvi, ātum, āre* “to pay”), the other – receipts and credit (*codices accepti* < *acceptio, ōnis f* < *accipio, cēpi, ceptum, ěre* “to receive”). The record of payment (*acceptilatio, ōnis f* “formal act of debt settlement” < *acceptum, i n* “profit” and *ferre* “to carry”) were mandatory in such books. During the Empire, cash books served as proof of legal acts for bankers and money changers.

The publication by Gregorian of imperial constitutions under the title “*codex*” established the word’s meaning as a legislative collection. Later, the Codes of Hermogenian, Theodosius, and Justinian appeared. In the Middle Ages, the word *codices* was replaced by *leges* (laws), and from the 16th century, it was revived in the Code of Henry III, which contained the ordinances of the French kings. The Theodosian Code was the first legislative collection (in 16 books), (the Gregorian and Hermogenian Codes were private publications), which appeared in 439 AD. The author aimed to highlight two aspects: the first aspect involved compiling the collection based on the model of predecessors and with all imperial rescripts and constitutions intended for the study of law; the second served for practical application, with current laws and excerpts from the works of jurists.

The Justinian Code, published in 529 AD, appeared in its second edition under the title “*Codex repetitae prelectionis*”. The oldest manuscripts preserved fragments of the first nine books, while the “*tres libri*” were always omitted in Western manuscripts (*Graeca non leguntur*). In France, during various periods of historical development, the codification of law encountered all sorts of difficulties. Therefore, it was necessary to reform the language, as the country was divided into two large territories in terms of both law and language. The struggle between customary law (*coutumes*) and written (Roman) law continued for almost two centuries. One of the issues resolved during the French Revolution was the creation of a new Civil Code (1789). The Constitution of 1791 stated: “*il sera fait un code de lois civiles communes à toute la royaume*” –

“A code of civil laws common to the entire kingdom will be made” (Translation here and below is ours).

Napoleon played a significant role in the creation of the French Civil Code, proclaiming all French people legitimate regardless of religion or origin, favoring private property while leaving the state the right to restrict ownership, describing the motives for marriage and ways to dissolve it, as well as the organization of parental authority, incorporating royal ordinances on civil status acts, forms and types of donation, and inheritance into his Code. Although the Napoleonic Code was disseminated by force (as a result of the so-called Napoleonic Wars) in Italy, Holland, Poland, and parts of Germany, it significantly influenced all legislative work of the 19th century in European countries.

In Germany, since the disappearance of royal legislation from the 11th century, there was a need for a new common law. In the 13th century, private collections appeared, and there were attempts at official editing of customary law in certain localities (Prussia, Bavaria, etc.). Despite the hatred of a significant part of the population towards a foreign language, imperial legislation was limited to the codification of criminal law and the issuance of statutes regulating notary, guardianship, and police matters. In 1643, Contring demanded the publication of a legislative code in German, which, in his opinion, should be small in size (“*De origine juris germanici*”). From the second half of the 17th century, Prussia and Bavaria began to prepare their own codifications of law, without waiting for a pan-German one. In 1713, Friedrich Wilhelm I demanded the codification of general land law, and in 1747, Samuel Cocceji introduced colleagues to the first part of the “*Corpus juris Fridericiani*” project, which consisted of private law, and in 1751 – the second part of the work, which covered property law. In the 80s of the 18th century, through the efforts of a commission, a selection from Roman law was made and “*Entwurf eines allgemeinen Gesetzbuches für die Preussischen Staaten*” was created, which became law in 1794. Abandoning the Roman institutional system, the compilers of *Landrecht* divided the material into two parts (the first part contained regulations and property rights, the second part introduced rights in the family, society, state). The Prussian code proved the possibility of combining German law with Roman law and became the basis for further codification efforts.

England was the only state among Western European countries that did not have a codification of law. The so-called common law consisted of court decisions and principles that emerged throughout the country’s historical development. In 1860, India, as a colony of England, received a criminal and procedural code, and in the 70s of the 19th century – codified parts of civil law.

In Switzerland, at the end of the 19th century, a number of laws appeared that related to specific aspects of law (e.g., marriage, society), and a general code of obligatory law (1883), the compilers of which adhered to the Roman system. The Swiss Civil Code “*Civil Settlement of the Canton of Zurich*” (1856) was considered an original work by Bluntschli, in which a significant departure from Roman law was felt.

Magdeburg Law was known in Europe from the 13th century, when a collection of laws “Sachsische Weichbild” or “Magdeburger Weichbildrecht” appeared, modeled after the “Saxon Mirror”, after the emperors became acquainted with Italian cities. We were able to trace the chain of the word Weichbild from language to language: Greek “house, fortified house, property” > Latin *vicus, i m* “village; peasant courtyard; city quarter; street” > German *Weichbild* n “city boundary (territory)” with further passage through Polish, Lithuanian languages.

Magdeburg Law (as a term) became known to Rus’ people in the 16th century, when an accurate translation of the German text of Landrecht and Weichbild appeared. The Latin translation was made in 1535 by Mykola Jasker (“Promptuarium juris Provincialis, quod Speculum Saxonum vocatur, tum et Municipalis Maideburgensis”, in three parts). In the mid-19th century, Kyiv was a self-governing city.

The classical era gave descendants the so-called city-states. In ancient Greece, poleis were a typical form of socio-economic and political organization of society, in which the idea of comprehensive justice was embodied. The criterion of justice was law as a set of individual rights of citizens that correspond to custom.

The general principles of modern jurisdiction were also formulated in the classical era:

1) the organization to which judicial authority extends should not consider cases under the jurisdiction of other institutions;

2) a court decision may be declared invalid if it was made by an incompetent institution (*sententia non suo iudice lata obtinet nullam firmitatem*);

3) the defendant has the right to appeal (*exceptio iudicis incompetentis*);

4) jurisdiction is territorial, that is, it extends to a certain territory (with the exception of the supreme court etc.).

“*Sententia non suo iudice lata obtinet nullam firmitatem*” (“A court decision may be declared invalid if it was made by an incompetent institution”). This principle, like many others, over time transformed into concise winged phrases that became an integral part of legal discourse. For example, “*Ubi societas, ibi ius*” (“Where there is society, there is law”); “*Audiatur et altera pars*” (“Let the other side be heard”) – each party has equal opportunities to defend their rights, and the court can make a reasoned decision only after hearing all parties; “*Nemo iudex in causa sua*” (“No one can be a judge in their own case”) – emphasizes the need for an independent and impartial trial, which is impossible without hearing all parties; “*Iura novit curia*” (“The court knows the laws”) – even knowing the laws, the court must hear the arguments of the parties in order to correctly apply them to a specific case; “*Summum ius summa iniuria*” (“The highest law is the highest injustice”) – formal compliance with the law without taking into account the circumstances of the case can lead to unfair decisions. They served not only to fix legal norms, but also to popularize them, making complex legal concepts accessible to the general public, became an important element of European legal culture, maintaining their relevance to this day.

It is well known that in current legal usage there are many Latin formulas and expressions, primarily because Roman law was a classically perfect form of law and

many of its concepts have become widespread in modern Western law. Skillful appeal to classical sources is not only a perfect knowledge of the lexical units of the ancient language, but also a gradual formation of word-working skills.

The interest in Latin sayings, proverbs, and winged expressions is explained, obviously, not only by the fact that they have passed through the ages as the light of true wisdom, but also by the fact that they are now particularly consonant with our dynamic time, which requires conciseness and accuracy in the transmission of thoughts. The methods of their methodical presentation can be diverse – from historical and literary explanation with further cultural commentary to purely linguistic interpretation, as presented in this study.

Let's examine Latin winged expressions and find their equivalents in modern English. "*Ad praesens ova cras pullis sunt meliora*" (literally: "Eggs today are better than chickens tomorrow") is paraphrased in English as "A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush". "*Amantes – amentes*" (literally: "Lovers are insane") has turned into "Love and reason do not go together". "*Amor caecus*" (literally: "Love is blind") has almost literally turned into "Love is blind", the same trend is observed in "*Ars longa, vita brevis*" (literally: "Art is eternal, life is short") – "Art is long, life is short". In the phrase "*Aquilam volare doces*" (literally: "You teach an eagle to fly"), the eagle "transformed" into a fish – "Never offer to teach fish to swim". Speaking of a big head and little wit, we see the Latin "*Barba non facit philosophum*" (literally: "A beard does not make a person a philosopher"). In the expression "*Charta non erubescit*" (literally: "Paper does not blush"), there was also a replacement – "Pens may blot, but they cannot blush". "*Cribro aquam haurire*" is translated literally – "To draw water in a sieve".

In "*Domus propria – domus optima*" (literally: "One's own home is the best home"), the cardinal directions appeared in the English version – "East or West, home is best". There is also another variant: "There is no place like home". "*Equi donati dentes non inspiciuntur*" (literally: "One does not look at the teeth of a donated horse") is translated literally – "Never look a gift horse in the mouth". "*Errare humanum est*" (literally: "To err is human") exists in three versions in English: "He is lifeless that is faultless" (approx.: "Only the dead make no mistakes"), "He who makes no mistakes, makes nothing" ("He who makes no mistakes does nothing") and "To err is human". In the expressions "Of two evils choose the least", "Easier said than done", "All is well that ends well", "A liar should have a good memory" etc., we see a clear Latin basis.

Therefore, it is valid to argue that the semantic level, due to the well-known asymmetry of linguistic worldviews, is the most extensive field for translational transformations of the most diverse nature. The interpretation of linguistic units as a sign reality using another sign system inevitably involves a whole series of various transformational operations. Some of them mimic semiotic transformations that are often applied unconsciously in the history of cultures.

Latin legal expressions have become a kind of "spoken law" for lawyers around the world. They reflect real processes of social life, as well as certain fictions of law. Sentences used in international law have turned into legal presumptions, which

have become the basis for the formation of legal norms. They correspond to the principles of identifying benefit and good, truth and practicality, their content is based on universal norms of public life and humanism. Latin winged phrases used in diplomacy have a diverse origin. They can come from ancient works, medieval treatises, legal documents or religious texts. Their significance lies in the fact that they allow complex ideas and principles to be expressed concisely and accurately, which is important in diplomatic communication. For example, the phrase "*Pacta sunt servanda*" ("Agreements must be kept") is one of the basic principles of international law. It emphasizes the importance of complying with international obligations and is the basis for the stability of international relations. And in the context of globalization (Vakulyk, I., 2010)¹, it acquires new interpretations, taking into account the activities of transnational corporations and international organizations.

Another well-known phrase "*Ubi concordia, ibi victoria*" ("Where there is concord, there is victory") emphasizes the importance of cooperation and unity in achieving common goals. It is often used in the context of international organizations and coalitions. Thus, Latin sentences allow for concise and accurate expression of complex ideas and principles, which is important in diplomatic communication: to emphasize the importance of the principles of international law and diplomatic protocol, to form the main obligations of international treaties and agreements, to give diplomatic speeches or statements, or resolutions greater weight and authority. They have become an integral part of the vocabulary of diplomatic discourse, and no one needs to explain "*Status quo*", "*Persona non grata*" and "*Modus vivendi*" anymore, since they have become a kind of "cultural code".

At the same time, diplomatic terminology is not a static system, but is constantly evolving, reflecting changes in international relations and scientific knowledge. Terminological models in diplomacy, which have evolved from historical precedents to modern challenges, demonstrate how terms consolidate the results of human cognitive activity and form fragments of the scientific picture of the world. Understanding these models is key to analyzing diplomatic discourse and predicting its further development.

In the context of globalization and the development of international relations, terminological models in diplomacy are undergoing significant transformations. New terms and concepts are emerging, such as *cybersecurity*, *climate change*, *international terrorism*, *hybrid war*, *cyber diplomacy*, *climate diplomacy*, *sanctions policy*, *soft power*, etc. They not only describe new phenomena, but also form new approaches to diplomatic practice. This process requires diplomats not only to know traditional Latin sentences, but also to understand modern terminological models and their impact on shaping international discourse.

The results of human cognitive activity are fixed in the collective consciousness of mankind with the help of terms, from which future terminological systems are formed, which are certain fragments of the scientific picture of the world in the form

¹ Vakulyk I. (2010). The impact of globalization on modern terminology. *Crosscultural and trans-national perspectives*. Herceg Novi, Montenegro : Enieda, 2010. 144.

of national terminologies. The logical content of terminological systems of certain fields is the same for all national languages, and the linguistic form – the expression plan – has a purely national character and depends on the word-formation and metaphorical models of a particular (national) language. Therefore, the problems of the functioning of terminologies of various fields of knowledge in the aspect of linguistic and conceptual worldviews, the emergence of which is dictated by the development of society and language in particular, are of particular relevance in linguistic science.

Modern linguistics has gone beyond the boundaries of a purely semantic and syntactic section of general semiotics and has transformed into a general theory of communication. Today, research that integrates various aspects, including etymological, discursive, and others, is relevant. Scientists are conducting research on terminology in several directions: theoretical, pragmatic, and practical, which include the study of the nature of the term, its place in the system of literary language, the relationship between national and international components in modern terminological systems, and the identification of syntagmatic relations according to the laws of vocabulary and grammar. There is a tendency towards regularity/irregularity in the formation of terminological models. The nomination of terminological units occurs due to the linear combination of linguistic components that form a clear definition in the structure of modern terms.

The richness of the lexical stock consists of many linguistic systems, primarily morphology and word formation, and terminology as a part of the vocabulary of a national language has occupied a separate niche. Outside the laws of semiotics (as part of cybernetics), such a subsystem of language can be considered independently, as a separate system. And this is very “convenient,” because to solve a certain range of issues, it is necessary to study the structure of such a subsystem. And this is especially evident in the current digitalization, which researchers from many countries tirelessly talk about. When it comes to the role of terminology in society, new semantic and word-formation phenomena, processes that arose in it in different periods of formation, are considered; the processes of transition of these phenomena and processes into general educational speech are analyzed. Of course, it is impossible to “fit” all terminological issues into a single system of vocabulary. It is necessary to take into account the latest principles (expansionism, explanatoriness, ethnocentrism) and approaches (structural-semantic, linguocognitive, onomasiological), which have gained popularity in studies devoted to the study of modern terminological systems (Yaremko, 2015)¹. That is, a complex of problems related to various aspects of terminological nominations, which, with the help of self-developed or inherited research mechanisms, reflect global trends in languages of different structures, is singled out. Thus, taking into account linguistic and extralinguistic factors, the tools of “terminology science” are developed. I would also like to focus on the creation of a machine translation fund in a comparative aspect, since the writing of algorithms for an operating system

¹ Yaremko Ya. (2015). Suchasna politychna terminolohiya: na peretyni kohnitsiyi ta komunikatsiyi. Drohobych : Posvit (In Ukrainian)

is a unique achievement of linguists around the world – the creation of a thesaurus dictionary, but these are aspects of our other further research. In this context, special attention should be paid to Latin terminology, which, despite its historical distance, continues to play an important role in the formation of scientific discourse and professional languages. However, there is a difficulty, and it lies not only in the creation of universal algorithms for operating systems, but also in the development of thesaurus dictionaries that can take into account the specifics of Latin terms and their transformation in modern languages.

The terms whose formation requires consideration of not only linguistic but also extralinguistic factors, such as historical context, cultural peculiarities, and trends in the development of scientific discourse, will be discussed further (Vorozhbitova, Klimenko, 2019)².

By origin, terms with the ending element *-um* are Latinisms. In Ukrainian, the zero inflection and the stem on a hard consonant indicate the masculine gender, but in Ukrainian, the neuter gender of Latin nouns can change to feminine, as in the case of the Latin noun *praesidium*, *i*, where the ending element *-i(a)* represents the feminine gender – *presidium*. In the second type, when forming terms with the classical element *-um*, the Latin inflection is lost. For example: *aliment(u)* legal. “maintenance that one family member is obliged to provide to another in cases stipulated by law” < Lat. *alimentum*, *i n* 1) food; 2) feeding < *alo*, *alui*, *alitur*, *ĕre* “to feed”; or the term “sequestration” (e.g., *administrative sequestration*, *budget sequestration*, *judicial sequestration*) < Lat. *sequester*, *tra*, *trum* “to act as an intermediary”; *statute* legal. “a collection of basic principles of provisions about something, a set of rules” < Lat. *statutum*, *i n* “resolution” < *statuo*, *tui*, *tutum*, *-ĕre* “to establish”, “to formulate”, “to decide”. Or *condominium* legal: 1) joint ownership; 2) in international law “joint exercise of supreme power over one territory by several states”; *percent* legal. “payment received by a lender from a borrower for the use of money lent to him” are formed on the same principle. The verb morpheme *con-* in combination with the neuter noun *dominium* meaning “possession” and the morpheme *pro* in combination with the quantitative numeral *centum* give the corresponding modern terms.

Let's consider another group of modern legal and economic terms ending in *-us*. Most of them are derived from Latin nouns of the 2nd or 4th declension (the term *modus*, e.g., *modus operandi*, diplomat. *modus vivendi* with full borrowing of the Latin phrase, German *Modus n* < Latin *modus*, *i n*: 1) measure, volume, weight; 2) method, way; and English notary jur. “an official who certifies and performs various legal acts”, German *Notar m* < Latin *notarius*, *i m* 1) shorthand; 2) clerk, secretary < *nota*, *ae f* “sign”. The neuter noun of the 3rd declension *-corpus*, *oris*: 1) body; 2) essence; 3) social organization; 4) a single whole, system, gave the term *corps*, English *corpus*, German *Korpus n*, *Körperschaft f* (1) a group of representatives of foreign states in the

² Vorozhbitova A., Klimenko N. (2019) Philological tetrad “text – discourse – literary work – literary and artistic communication”: linguistic and rhetorical approach. *Modern Engineering and Innovative Technologies*, 4 (10–04), 62–67. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.30890/2567-5273.2019-10-04-060>

government of a country; (2) the name of some legislative institutions (e.g., *diplomatic corps, consular corps, legislative corps, expeditionary corps*).

The term *casus* legal, English *casus*, German *Kasus* m 1) an event, the occurrence of which is not caused by the guilt of a person, and therefore excludes liability for an offense; 2) a complex legal case (e.g., *casus belli, casus fidelis*); *consensus* econ., legal, English *consensus*, German *Konsens* m “coincidence of opinions”; “general agreement of the contracting parties, which is characterized by the absence of serious objections from the majority of interested parties”; *status* ex. *Status* m “legal status of persons or organizations” (e.g., *social status, diplomatic status, real legal status of a citizen, status of a sovereign state, status quo, legal status, property status*) are derived from Latin masculine nouns of the 4th declension *casus, us* 1) case, possibility; 2) circumstances; *consensus, us* 1) unity, 2) conspiracy, agreement < *consentio, sensi, sensum, ěre* “to agree”; *status, us* 1) position; 2) state of affairs < *sto, steti, statum, ěre* “to stand”.

The Latin ending is also preserved in the term *bonus* ex. “additional reward, bonus, additional discount; additional dividend”, English *bonus*, formed from the adjective of the 1st-2nd declension *bonus, a, um* 1) good, kind; 2) high-quality; 3) significant.

The term may lose the ending element of classical origin, which we observe in masculine nouns: *advocate*, English *advocate*, lawyer, German *Rechtsanwalt* m “a person who provides legal assistance to the population, institutions, enterprises with advice, drafting legal documents (e.g., *advocacy*)» < Lat. *advocatus, i n* 1) legal advisor; 2) defense counsel, lawyer < *advoso, avi, ātum* “to call”, “to silence”; *legate* jur., *legate* 1) in a will – an instruction to the heir to pay a certain amount to someone or transfer some property to them; 2) in ancient Rome – an ambassador; in the late republic – an official appointed by the senate, in the principate – the governor of an imperial province < Lat. *legatus, i m* 1) ambassador; 2) legate, assistant commander-in-chief; 3) commander in the imperial era; 4) assistant provincial governor < *lego, legi, lectum, ěre* “to collect”; *contract* jur., English *contract*, German *Kontrakt* m 1) a bilateral or multilateral agreement that defines the rights and obligations of its participants; 2) in trade – a document containing all the terms of purchase and sale (e.g., *commercial contract*) < Lat. *contractus, us m* 1) possession; 2) use; 3) method of action towards someone < *contraho, trāxi, tractum, ěre* “to pull together”; *course* ex. *course* English, German *Kurs* n “the price at which shares, bonds, and other securities are bought or sold” (e.g., *bank rate, exchange rate, bill rate, securities rate*) < Lat. *cursus, us m* “path, route”; “course, movement” < *curro, cucurri, cursum, ěre* 1) to run; 2) to hurry; legal *title*, English *title*, German *Titel* m 1) the basis of some right (e.g., *title of purchase and sale*); 2) the name of the estimate for the capital construction of objects included in the title lists (e.g., *title of ownership*) < Lat. *titulus, i m* 1) inscription; 2) advertisement for sale, etc.; *treatise* jur., English *treatise*, German *Treatise, Traktat* m “international treaty, agreement” < Lat. *tractatus, us m* 1) impulse, motive; 2) method of action < *tracto, āvi, ātum, āre* 1) to pull; 2) to negotiate; *jurisconsult, jurisconsult*, German (Calculation) *Rechtsberater* m “permanent legal advisor of institutions, enterprises, organizations” < Lat. *iurisconsultus, i m* “lawyer”.

In Latin, the ending *-us* is also characteristic of participles, in particular *participia perfecti activi*. Terms derived from verb stems have a zero ending in modern Ukrainian: ex., jur., German *Akzept* in 1) agreement to pay or guarantee payment of monetary and commodity documents, formalized by the appropriate inscription “acceptance”; one of the forms of non-cash settlements with organizations; 2) payment request accepted for payment; 3) in jurisprudence “agreement to conclude a contract on the proposed terms”; 4) in international law “unilateral declaration on the binding nature of the terms of the agreement” (e.g., *bank acceptance, unconditional acceptance, bill of exchange acceptance, limited acceptance, conditional acceptance, partial acceptance, check acceptance, bill of exchange acceptance*); 5) agreement of a state to accept a certain person as an ambassador (international law) < Lat. *acceptus, a, um* “accepted” < *accipio, cepi, ceptum, ěre* 1) to accept, to allow, 2) to perceive; *expert* ex., jur. “specialist in a certain field who conducts an examination”, English *expert*, German *Sachverständige* m, *Gutachter* m derived from Lat. *expertus, a, um* “experienced” (e.g., *chief expert, commercial expert, patent expert, transport expert, marketing expert, economic expert, freight expert, logistics expert*) < Lat. *experior, pertus suum, ĩri* 1) to try; 2) to judge; *prospectus*, English *prospectus, booklet* 1) general statement of the plan, summary of the publication; 2) reference publication in the form of a brochure or leaflet for advertising or scientific and technical purposes, which contains a systematic list of goods (services) intended for production and sale, produced by the enterprise, and purchase terms < Lat. *prospectus, a, um* < *prospicio, spexi, spectrum, ěre* 1) to look forward; 2) to foresee; *transit* 1) transportation of goods from the place of departure to the destination without reloading at intermediate points; 2) transportation of passengers through intermediate points with proper оформлення проїзних документів < Lat. *transitus, a, um* “passage”, “completion” < *transeo, tĭ, ĩtum, ĩre* “to cross through”.

The next final terminological element we consider, *-end*, also has Latin origin and is the suffix of gerundium and gerundivum. Latin verbal nouns (gerundium) and participles (gerundivum) are widely used in modern languages. In English, they are used in related phrases, thus forming terminological nests. The Latin meaning of the gerund (or gerundive), as well as its case forms, are preserved in English.

Another case of the gerund – ablative – was less represented. Modern English legal terms in which we find the preposition *de* are also borrowed from Latin completely unchanged. *De aetate probanda* means a court order to establish majority and translates as “to prove majority” < Lat. *probo, avi, atum* 1) to investigate, to verify; 2) to be satisfied; 3) to recognize, to recommend. The term *argundo* “I argue, I illustrate” (in a judge’s speech) is also an ablative verbal noun of Latin origin, formed from *arguo, ui, utim, ěre* 1) to show, to prove; 2) to accuse. The legal terms *ad referendum, locus standi, modus vivendi* are used in English economic terminology. In these terms, the final terminological element *-nd* has the same semantics.

If we analyze terms ending in *-ent*, we notice those that have undergone shortening. With the loss of Latin inflections in the instrumental case, we have a pure stem in modern Ukrainian, with the exception of the terms *client* and *cedent*, which are

derived from nouns of the 3rd declension *cliens, ntis m* and *cedens, cedentis*. In ancient Rome, a client was called a subordinate (a person dependent on a patron). In modern understanding, a client is a “regular customer” or “a person who has entrusted another person with conducting business”. Borrowed from the German language, *cedent* is international. “a creditor who assigns his right to claim to another person”.

Agent, English *agent*, German *Agent m* 1) an official representative of a firm who performs intermediary functions; 2) a wholesale trader who represents a buyer or seller on a relatively permanent basis without ownership of the goods (e.g., *diplomatic agent, commercial agent, consular agent, tax agent, insurance agent, secret agent, sales agent, development agent, police agent*) < Lat. *ago, egi, actum, ěre* 1) to do, to act; 2) to conduct legal proceedings; *deponent* jur., colloq., English *depositor*, German *Deponent m* 1) a natural or legal person who, for some reason, has not been paid a sum of money within a specified period; 2) a natural or legal person who owns a sum of money that is temporarily in an enterprise or organization < Lat. *depono, posui, positum, ěre* 1) to postpone; 2) to refuse; 3) to deposit; German *disponent*, German *Dispounter m* 1) an agent of a firm, company, organization, manager; 2) a natural or legal person who has free funds at their disposal in accounts with commissioners or bank correspondents < Lat. *dispono, posui, positum, ěre* 1) to dispose; 2) to manage; *endorsement*, English *endorsement*, German *Endorsement m* “transfer of ownership of a bill of exchange to another person” (borrowed through French and German) < Lat. *indo, didi, ditum, ěre* 1) to grant; 2) to place; 3) to impose; *committent* jur., ex., English *committent – client, customer, client-sender, consignor*, German *Kommittent m* 1) a person who instructs another person (commissioner) to conclude a contract or a series of contracts on behalf of the latter, but at their own expense < Lat. *committo, misi, missum, ěre* 1) to decide, to carry out; 2) to entrust, to give, to trust; *competitor* ex., English *competitor* (from another, but also Latin root) < Lat. *competitor* “pretender”, German *Konkurent m* “a person who competes in any field of activity with another” < Lat. *concurro, curri, cursum, ěre* 1) to flock, to converge; 2) to strive; *contingent* jur., econ., English *contingent*, German *Konkurrent n* 1) a legally defined number of persons who are part of any institution or corporation; 2) a limit, a norm (expressed in units of weight and value) established for certain purposes < Lat. *contingo, tigi, tactum, ěre* 1) to touch; 2) to touch; Spanish *remitt*, English *remitter*, German *Remittent m* 1) a person who receives a certain amount of money by bill of exchange; 2) a sender of a money transfer < Lat. *remitto, misi, missum, ěre* 1) to release, to send; 2) to reward; *patent*, jur., English *patent*, German *Patent n* 1) a document issued for a certain period by a competent state authority to an inventor or their successor and certifying authorship and exclusive right to an invention; 2) a document granting the right to engage in trade, industry (e.g., *valid patent, additional patent, dependent patent, patent for an invention, consular patent, international patent, industrial patent, joint patent, trade patent*) < Lat. *pateo, ui, ěre* 1) to be open, to spread; 2) to be available; 3) to spread; *resident* jur., English *resident*, German *Resident m* 1) a legal or natural person who has a permanent place of residence in the country and is subject to certain taxation and regulation; 2) a representative of the metropolis state in a protectorate,

who is the actual ruler of this protectorate < Lat. *resideo, sedi, sessum, ěre* 1) to be; 2) to remain.

So, to summarize:

1. The consideration of ways and means of penetration of final term elements into the systems of different languages indicates the importance of term elements in new European languages. Terms with final elements of classical origin have undergone varying degrees of adaptation in modern European languages. We can talk about the full adaptation of Latin verbal nouns that appeared through Polish, Italian, and French languages.

2. The models of terms and the dynamics of their formation are determined by the three most frequent “semantic groups” (subjectivity seme, collective agent seme, generality and collectivity seme of objects).

3. The process of borrowing Latin and Greek words or their parts (term elements) cannot be considered complete for any of the European languages. It can be argued that terms with final elements of classical origin have undergone varying degrees of adaptation in modern European languages, and the consideration of ways and means of penetration of final term elements into the systems of different languages indicates the importance of term elements in new European languages.

Conclusions

The era of globalization, characterized by the intensification of interstate economic ties and cultural exchange, requires a deep analysis of the impact of historical linguistic processes on the formation of the modern European terminological space. In particular, Latin and Greek, which played a key role in the formation of European civilization, left an indelible mark on the vocabulary of modern languages. For centuries, Latin was not only a means of communication in scientific circles, but also a language of international importance, which contributed to its penetration into various spheres of activity and, accordingly, into the vocabulary of new Western European languages. This process took place in various ways, including direct contacts between peoples, migration processes, and the development of scientific centers.

Greek and Latin languages became the foundation for the formation of not only Romance languages, but also Germanic and Slavic languages, which indicates the profound influence of ancient cultural heritage on the development of the European language system. Interlingual contacts and cultural exchange, which are an integral part of modern society, lead to the constant enrichment of the lexical composition of European languages, particularly through the borrowing of term elements from classical languages.

The article presents an analysis of dictionary definitions containing final term elements derived from Latin. The study is based on seme analysis and morphological characteristics of borrowed lexemes, which allows to reveal the peculiarities of their adaptation in modern European languages. The use of various research methods, such as contextual, comparative, interpretative, distributive, component and associative analysis, allows to obtain a comprehensive view of the process of term element adaptation. The analysis shows that terms with final elements of classical origin

have undergone varying degrees of adaptation in modern European languages, due to various factors, such as the time of borrowing, the way of penetration and the specificity of the recipient language system. The consideration of the ways and means of penetration of term elements into the systems of different languages testifies to their importance for the formation of new European languages.

The models of terms and the dynamics of their formation are determined by semantic groups that reflect different aspects of objects and phenomena. The process of borrowing term elements from Latin and Greek languages is continuous, which indicates their relevance in the context of globalization processes. In view of the above, it can be argued that the study of the influence of classical languages on modern European languages is an important area of linguistic research, which allows for a better understanding of the processes of linguistic evolution and intercultural communication.

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4.5. Features of Cross-Cultural Communication of Academically Mobile Students in the Process of Developing Their Self-Efficacy

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Abstract

Self-efficacy refers to the belief in individuals to accomplish specific goals. This trait is critical in children's personal and academic growth. Studying abroad bolsters academic mobility, with students gaining comprehensive educational experience. This mixed-methods examine collected and analyzed qualitative and quantitative data. Academic mobility improves self-efficacy in life sciences students, according to the findings. Academic mobility participants demonstrated stronger self-efficacy than non-participants. The study also indicated that cultural immersion, academic obstacles, and social support significantly increased self-efficacy among life sciences students. This study could improve educational mobility programs for biosciences students. The study recommends educational mobility programs that give students varied cross-cultural experiences, academic difficulties, and social support to boost self-efficacy. The study also emphasizes the relevance of self-efficacy in life science students' academic and personal growth. The study provides empirical data on how academic mobility affects self-efficacy in life sciences students.

Keywords: *life sciences, formation, self-efficacy, students, academic mobility.*

Introduction

University students' mental health is a crucial aspect across society, with individuals in recent years prioritizing their health. Different studies demonstrate the diversity noted in the psychological frequency symptoms that are majorly intertwined with the various educational stages. Academic mobility programs are becoming more critical as higher education globalizes. Academic mobility involves students, researchers, and faculty moving between universities and research institutes worldwide. These programs provide students with international academic experience, language learning, cross-cultural immersion, and intellectual and personal development. Educational mobility programs also allow students to obtain practical experience in their subjects, which is crucial for their academic and professional development. Academic mobility is essential for life sciences students, who need hands-on experience and cross-cultural exposure to flourish academically and professionally. Agriculture, biology, ecology, environmental science, food science, forestry, and veterinary sciences are all part of life sciences. Life science students need scientific knowledge, laboratory

abilities, critical thinking, problem-solving, and communication skills. Life sciences require students to work across disciplines and cultures.

Self-efficacy is the belief that one can accomplish a task or objective. Academic and personal progress depends on self-efficacy. Mastery experiences, social modeling, social persuasion, and physiological and emotional states influence self-efficacy and social cognitive theory (Chan, 2022)¹. Mastery experiences are the individual's direct experience of success or failure in an activity or goal. Social modeling is watching others and their results. Social persuasion occurs when people give advice, praise, or criticism. Physiological and emotional states affect self-efficacy. Self-efficacy's effects on students' academic and personal growth have been studied.

Self-efficacy was linked to academic and career success (Hamzah et al., 2021)². Self-efficacy boosts academic engagement, tenacity, and motivation. Thus, self-efficacy improves students' academic and personal development. Few studies have examined how academic mobility affects self-efficacy in life sciences students. This study examines how academic mobility affects self-efficacy in life sciences students. The growing importance of academic mobility for life science students motivated this study. Life science students need academic mobility programs as higher education becomes more globalized. However, these programs' educational and personal development benefits are unknown. This study examines how academic mobility affects self-efficacy in life sciences students—university life science students' self-efficacy. Academic mobility participants demonstrated stronger self-efficacy than non-participants. The study also indicated that cross-cultural immersion, academic obstacles, and social support significantly increased self-efficacy among life sciences students. This study could improve educational mobility programs for bio-sciences students. The study recommends academic mobility programs that give students varied cultural experiences, academic difficulties, and social support to boost self-efficacy. The study also emphasizes the relevance of self-efficacy in life science students' academic and personal growth. The study provides empirical data on how academic mobility affects self-efficacy in life sciences students.

Literature Review

This literature review critically reviews academic mobility and self-efficacy research on life science students. The literature review has three sections. The first section defines and emphasizes academic mobility programs. The second portion discusses self-efficacy and students' academic and personal development. The final portion examines academic mobility and self-efficacy in life sciences students.

¹ Chan R. C. (2022). A social cognitive perspective on gender disparities in self-efficacy, interest, and aspirations in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM): the influence of cultural and gender norms. *International Journal of STEM Education*, 9 (1), 1–13. URL: <https://stemeducationjournal.springeropen.com/articles/10.1186/s40594-022-00352-0>

² Hamzah S. R. A., Kai Le K., Musa S. N. S. (2021). The mediating role of career decision self-efficacy on the relationship of career emotional intelligence and self-esteem with career adaptability among university students. *International Journal of Adolescence and Youth*, 26 (1), 83–93. URL: <https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/02673843.2021.1886952>

Educational Mobility

Academic mobility programs are exchange programs that let students study, research, or intern abroad. These programs expose students to other cultures, languages, and academic contexts to improve their academic and personal development. Academic mobility programs include short-term or long-term exchanges, internships, research collaborations, and degree programs. Globalized higher education has increased the importance of academic mobility programs. The UNESCO Institute for Statistics reported 5 million overseas students in 2016, up from 2 million in 2000. Academic mobility programs also give students unique learning experiences and skills. Academic mobility programs may improve students' self-efficacy and academic progress, but it's unclear.

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is the belief that one can accomplish a task or objective. Academic and personal progress depends on self-efficacy. Mastery experiences, social modeling, social persuasion, and physiological and emotional states influence self-efficacy and social cognitive theory. Mastery experiences are the individual's direct experience of success or failure in an activity or goal. Social modeling is watching others and their results. Social persuasion occurs when people give advice, praise, or criticism. Physiological and emotional states affect self-efficacy. Self-efficacy's effects on students' academic and personal growth have been studied. Self-efficacy was linked to academic and career success. Self-efficacy boosts academic engagement, tenacity, and motivation. Thus, self-efficacy improves students' academic and personal development. Self-efficacy also encompasses vast expectations considered significant in the social cognitive theory. The self-efficacy construct aligns with individuals' beliefs regarding their diverse abilities to mobilize the courses of action necessary for achieving specific goals.

Therefore, this is considered a vital psychological resource essential in ensuring there is an exercising control in the vast events noted in individuals' lives. Through self-efficacy, there is a consideration of how there is a cognitive approach and powerful motivational prospect that also aligns with the affective determinant noted in students' behavior. Their effort, achievement, self-regulation, and persistence also indicate a significant influence. He depicted traits as vital in controlling individual stress levels and act as protective factors noted in the impacts aligned with daily stress levels. Self-efficacy might characterize an expectation that has a strong link with a certain situation or task; however, various studies demonstrate the existence that has a generalization of a belief that is also a competence that faces comprehensive demands.

Academic Mobility and Self-efficacy

Academic mobility and student self-efficacy have been studied. Academic mobility's effect on life science students' self-efficacy has been studied less. Exploration of how academic mobility affects self-efficacy in Korean undergraduates. According to the study, academic mobility improved students' communication, cross-cultural awareness, and adaptability. Mastery experiences and social modeling also predicted

student self-efficacy. Comprehensive studies on how academic mobility affects Canadian university students' intercultural ability. Academic mobility considerably improved students' intercultural knowledge, abilities, and attitudes. The study also indicated that social modeling and persuasion mattered (Liu et al., 2020)¹.

Academic Mobility Programs

Academic mobility programs allow students to study at universities and colleges abroad. Studying abroad, exchange, internship, and research programs are examples. More students seek international exposure and cross-cultural skills in a globalized society through academic mobility programs. Academic mobility programs let students encounter various cultural communications, languages, and academic systems. Students can study from international professors and researchers in these programs. Students may also learn career-relevant skills, including adaptability, problem-solving, and cross-cultural communication. Academic mobility programs emphasize international relationships and networks. University, government, and non-governmental organizations collaborate on these projects. They may foster intellectual interchange, joint research, or international development and allow students to collaborate on real-world projects. Student academic mobility programs vary.

Study abroad programs let students take classes at a foreign university and gain credit toward their degree. These programs may last from a few weeks to a full academic year and offer a variety of subjects. Exchange programs are similar, except two universities agree to let their students study at each other for a defined time. Students can get cultural experience through internships and research programs. Research programs may involve working with local researchers or independently researching a topic, while internship programs may include working for a local business or organization. Academic mobility programs have many benefits, but students may experience problems. Language, cultural, and intellectual disparities might cause these issues. Students may feel the homesick, lonely, or cultural shock in a new nation.

Academic mobility programs include language instruction, cultural orientation, and counseling to meet these issues.

Academic mobility programs allow students to gain international experience and broaden their horizons. These programs encourage cross-cultural understanding, international collaboration, and globalization readiness. Study abroad programs' effects on students' self-efficacy have been studied. Self-efficacy is the belief that one can accomplish given actions or goals. Students might boost their self-confidence by studying abroad. Study abroad and self-efficacy have been studied. Lee and Rice (2007) discovered that study-abroad students exhibited higher communication, problem-solving, and adaptation self-efficacy. Ferrer-Vinent and Schumann (2005) also found that international students had stronger academic and personal self-efficacy.

¹ Liu X., Peng M. Y. P., Anser M. K., Chong W. L., Lin B. (2020). Key teacher attitudes for sustainable development of student employability by social cognitive career theory: the mediating roles of self-efficacy and problem-based learning. *Frontiers in Psychology, 11*, 1945. URL: <https://www.frontiersin.org/journals/psychology/articles/10.3389/fpsyg.2020.01945/full>

Many studies have examined how study abroad programs affect self-efficacy perceptions. Intercultural competency is one such factor. Vande Berg, Connor-Linton, and Paige (2009) discovered that study abroad and intercultural activity students had higher self-efficacy views in intercultural communication and adaptability. Language competency, cultural immersion, and program duration may also affect self-efficacy views in study abroad programs. Sasaki and Yashima (2010) discovered that students who studied abroad longer and had more robust language competency had higher language learning self-efficacy.

Study abroad programs appear to improve students' self-efficacy. However, program and student characteristics may influence self-efficacy growth. Thus, colleges and program coordinators must create study abroad programs that meet students' needs and offer intercultural learning and skill development. Self-efficacy and academic mobility studies require numerous methodological considerations to achieve validity and reliability.

First, researchers should thoroughly describe and measure their constructs. Self-efficacy is complex and can be tested via self-report questionnaires, performance-based assessments, or behavioral observations. Researchers should choose trustworthy, valid, and sensitive measures. Academic mobility can be short-term or long-term, language-focused or discipline-focused, and domestic or international. Researchers should identify the academic mobility program they are examining and choose representative samples. Second, researchers should apply suitable data analysis and study approaches.

Experimental or quasi-experimental methods allow self-efficacy researchers to alter independent factors and control for extraneous variables that may affect dependent variables. In academic mobility programs, such ideas may not be viable or ethical. Researchers may employ longitudinal or correlational strategies to examine changeable connections over time. Researchers should also utilize statistical methods like regression or structural equation modeling to account for variable complexity and confounding effects.

Thirdly, researchers should examine context and cultural elements that may affect study results. Intercultural experiences in academic mobility programs may affect students' self-efficacy perceptions. Individualist students promote personal accomplishment and self-expression, while collectivist students value social unity and eschew self-promotion. Cultural variations may impact how students view academic mobility programs and their self-efficacy. Thus, researchers should adopt context- and culture-sensitive approaches and involve stakeholders and participants in the research process.

Fourth, researchers should examine their findings' limitations and generalizability. Academic mobility programs differ in content, delivery, and outcomes; thus, their conclusions may not apply to others. Self-efficacy beliefs vary by task, setting, and domain (Chiu, 2018)¹. Thus, researchers should carefully analyze and discuss their

¹ Chiu S. I. (2018). The relationship between life stress and smartphone addiction on Taiwanese university student: A mediation model of learning self-efficacy and social self-efficacy. *Computers in human behavior*, 34, 49–57. URL: <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0747563214000296>

findings, noting limits and biases and making recommendations for future research and program design. Self-efficacy and academic mobility research can illuminate academic mobility programs' methods and impacts on students' self-efficacy. To ensure the validity and reliability of the findings, researchers should carefully consider methodological considerations like construct definition and measurement, research design and data analysis methods, context and cultural factors, and limitations and generalizability.

Self-Efficacy and Academic Mobility Research Methodology

Self-efficacy and academic mobility studies need methodological issues. Valid and trustworthy findings that may inform practice and future studies require a strong approach. This section discusses self-efficacy and academic mobility research methodological issues.

Self-efficacy is key. Self-efficacy is difficult to quantify. Researchers must employ accurate and reliable assessments of all important self-efficacy aspects. Self-efficacy metrics must also be culturally sensitive. Self-efficacy might differ between contexts. Thus researchers should also include academic mobility-specific metrics.

Population selection is another methodological issue. Researchers must carefully analyze research population inclusion and exclusion criteria. Academic mobility research should include students who participated in academic mobility programs. Researchers might consider including students from certain academic subjects or institutions for generalizability.

Study design matters too. Longitudinal studies are better for studying self-efficacy improvements over time. Academic mobility programs that boost self-efficacy are best evaluated using randomized controlled trials. However, practical and ethical issues make such concepts difficult to execute. Pre- and post-test studies can replace randomized controlled trials.

Methodological issues include sample size and power analysis. For significant impacts, studies need statistical power. If relevant, the sample size should be large enough to identify self-efficacy differences between treatment and control groups. Power analysis determines the sample size needed for statistical power. Researchers researching self-efficacy and academic mobility must consider several methodological aspects to ensure validity and reliability. Self-efficacy assessments, research population, design, sample size, and power analysis are all important. These criteria allow researchers to conduct robust self-efficacy and academic mobility studies.

Self-Efficacy and Academic Mobility Literature Critique and Gaps

Self-efficacy and academic mobility research have shown the benefits of foreign education programs. However, there are various criticisms and limitations. Critiques and gaps suggest research and practice improvements.

The literature on self-efficacy and academic mobility lacks a clear concept. Studies define and quantify self-efficacy differently, making comparisons and generalizations problematic. Performance-based and self-reported self-efficacy measures are used in research. Self-efficacy is also examined in general rather than academic or cultural situations. Due to the lack of a standard definition of self-efficacy, it is difficult

to determine how academic mobility affects it. Self-efficacy and academic mobility literature have a limited focus on non-western or non-English-speaking nations. Many studies have been done in Western nations, but more study is needed in other cultures to understand how academic mobility affects self-efficacy growth.

Some students may struggle with academic mobility programs due to the restricted focus on non-English-speaking nations.

The study on self-efficacy and academic mobility neglects underrepresented populations, including disabled students, low-income students, and first-generation college students.

Academic mobility programs may be harder for certain populations, affecting their self-efficacy. These groups need to study how academic mobility affects self-efficacy and how to encourage their participation in foreign education programs. The literature on self-efficacy and academic mobility neglects the long-term effects of academic mobility on self-efficacy. Few research has addressed the long-term impacts of academic mobility on self-efficacy. Longitudinal research is needed to determine whether self-efficacy increases and academic mobility affects students' personal and professional development. Finally, the literature on self-efficacy and academic mobility generally ignores the drawbacks of these programs. Some students may struggle with cultural shock, language, or academic systems. These obstacles may affect self-efficacy and academic achievement. Future studies should address academic mobility problems and find ways to help students adjust and flourish.

In conclusion, although there are various critiques and gaps, self-efficacy and academic mobility literature give useful insights into the advantages of foreign education programs. These concerns and limitations underscore the need for additional study on academic mobility problems, the impact of these programs on diverse student groups, and the long-term effects of academic mobility on self-efficacy development.

Application and Future Research

This study suggests that universities should establish academic mobility programs that give students different cultural experiences, academic difficulties, and social support to boost self-efficacy. These programs should expose students to new cultures and academic systems, enable academic advancement, and give social support and mentorship to assist students in coping with studying abroad. Academic mobility initiatives must be available to all students, particularly underrepresented groups, and institutions must give financial aid and support.

This report proposes various research possibilities. First, longitudinal studies can examine how academic mobility affects self-efficacy growth in life sciences students. The current study shows that academic mobility immediately boosts self-efficacy, although it is uncertain if it lasts.

Longitudinal research might reveal if self-efficacy increases are maintained and whether academic mobility affects students' personal and professional development. Second, future research might examine how academic mobility programs affect self-efficacy. Cultural immersion, academic obstacles, and social support are related

to academic mobility programs. Language proficiency and travel experience may help life sciences students develop self-efficacy during academic mobility. Researchers can improve academic mobility programs for life sciences students by studying how programmatic elements affect self-efficacy.

A third future study might examine life sciences students' academic mobility and self-efficacy constraints. Academic mobility programs can help students develop personally and professionally, but not all students can participate. Underrepresented students may confront financial or cultural impediments to academic advancement. Universities may remove these barriers to guarantee all students can acquire self-efficacy through academic mobility initiatives. Finally, future studies might examine how self-efficacy growth affects life sciences students' careers. Academic mobility may have long-term implications on students' career paths, but this study focused on its immediate effects on self-efficacy. Self-efficacy may motivate students to pursue higher degrees or leadership roles. Universities should prioritize life sciences academic mobility programs by recognizing the professional advantages of self-efficacy development.

In conclusion, this study has substantial implications for academic mobility and self-efficacy research among life sciences students. Universities may help students improve personally and professionally by establishing successful academic mobility programs, identifying and removing barriers to participation, and studying the long-term impacts of self-efficacy development. Future studies can also clarify self-efficacy growth elements and career rewards.

Self-Efficacy and Academic Success: Research

Education has studied self-efficacy and academic achievement for decades. Self-efficacy is a person's confidence in their capacity to achieve a goal. Self-efficacy is a student's confidence to complete schoolwork, study for examinations, and succeed academically.

Academic performance is strongly correlated with self-efficacy. Self-efficacy has been linked to higher grades, more difficult academic assignments, and academic persistence. Low self-efficacy kids struggle academically, avoid difficult activities, and are likelier to quit. Self-efficacy impacts students' motivation and effort, which is why it predicts academic achievement. Self-efficacy motivates students to work hard and excel academically. High-self-efficacy kids see academic hurdles as chances for progress rather than insurmountable impediments.

Academic performance has been studied after self-efficacy treatments. In one research, low-achieving kids improved academically after a self-efficacy intervention program. High-achieving pupils' academic performance improved after a self-efficacy training program. Self-efficacy predicts academic performance, although it is not a permanent quality. Interventions and experiences boost self-efficacy. Tutoring, mentorship, and academic coaching can assist kids in building academic abilities and self-efficacy.

Academic mobility programs can also boost self-confidence. As said, academic mobility programs give students varied cultural experiences, academic difficulties, and

social support, which helps build self-efficacy. Academic mobility initiatives can boost student self-efficacy.

Self-efficacy is a powerful predictor of academic achievement, and treatments and experiences that boost it can increase academic performance. Thus, educators and governments should encourage self-efficacy in kids, especially those at risk of academic failure. Academic mobility programs, especially for life science students, can boost self-efficacy. Future studies should examine the link between self-efficacy and academic achievement and find effective student self-efficacy treatments.

Academic Mobility Programs: Descriptions

Academic mobility programs include exchange, internship, research, language immersion, and other study-abroad options. Academic mobility programs expose students to diverse cultures, languages, and academic methods to improve their academic, personal, and professional growth. Academic exchange programs are frequent. Students from one university spend a semester or year at another in exchange programs. Students study, play sports, and explore their host nation throughout their exchange. Exchange programs can be reciprocal or one-way, with students from one university participating. Academic mobility programs include internships. Internships give students hands-on experience in their fields of study in professional settings. Paid or unpaid internships might last weeks or months. Academic mobility includes research programs.

Research programs let students do independent or team-based research abroad. Language immersion and research programs are popular academic mobility programs. Students travel abroad and take language lessons and cultural activities to improve their language and cultural skills.

Academic mobility programs are similar:

1. Academic mobility programs introduce students to various cultures and academic traditions.
2. Academic mobility programs allow students to thoroughly immerse themselves in a foreign culture and academic environment by living there for a long time.
3. Academic mobility programs often provide accommodation, orientation, and language lessons.

Academic mobility initiatives have shown benefits. Academic mobility programs have been proven to improve students' academic, personal, and professional growth by giving them new experiences, cross-cultural awareness, language ability, and self-efficacy. Academic mobility programs foster intercultural competency and prepare students for global professions. Academic mobility has drawbacks. Academic mobility programs are costly. Students pay for travel, lodging, and program costs in many academic mobility programs. Academic mobility programs are not available to all students. Academic mobility programs may require students to take a leave of absence or delay graduation. Academic mobility programs may cause cultural shock and transition issues. Living abroad may be exhausting and stressful, and students may struggle to adapt to new cultural norms and academic standards. Academic mobility programs can isolate students, especially if they fail to make friends in their host country or speak the language.

Academic mobility initiatives should be accessible, inexpensive, and helpful in solving these issues. Students might get financial aid, pre-departure briefings and cultural training, and continuous social support. In conclusion, academic mobility programs can help students develop personally and professionally. Academic mobility programs seek to expose students to other cultures, academic difficulties, and social support. Academic mobility schemes have drawbacks.

Materials and Methods

Mixed-methods research was used in this study. Academic mobility's effect on students' self-efficacy was examined. Academic mobility involves students studying abroad. Various students from international life sciences universities were purposively sampled for the study. The study included self-efficacy questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. Bandura's 10-item self-efficacy scale inspired the self-efficacy questionnaire. The questionnaire assessed students' academic self-efficacy while mobile (Hussain et al., 2021)¹. Participants completed the anonymous questionnaire.

In addition to the questionnaire, semi-structured interviews were conducted with participants to understand better their academic mobility experiences and how they affected their self-efficacy. Face-to-face interviews asked participants open-ended questions to describe their experiences. The interviews were transcribed verbatim for analysis. Descriptive statistics were used to summarize questionnaire participants' self-efficacy beliefs. Researchers summarized data using means and standard deviations. Interview data were thematically evaluated. Data themes and patterns were identified by reading the transcripts numerous times. To comprehend participants' perspectives, the themes were categorized and examined. The study found that academic mobility improved students' self-efficacy. The self-efficacy scale showed that most mobility students believed they could do well academically. According to interviews, academic mobility allowed students to learn new skills, information, and networks. Academic mobility challenged and built their confidence. The study found academic mobility obstacles. Some students struggled with language, cross-cultural communication, and environment. Most students thought these challenges built resilience and problem-solving skills, increasing their self-efficacy. This mixed-methods study examined how academic mobility affects students' self-efficacy. The study found that academic mobility improves students' self-efficacy. Academic mobility had certain drawbacks, but students said it helped them learn new skills, broaden their networks, and gain confidence. According to the study, academic mobility boosts students' self-efficacy and professional development.

Sampling Method

The dissertation used purposive sampling to select participants. Participants were chosen based on their participation in international academic mobility programs like exchanges, internships, and summer schools. The study included undergraduate and graduate students.

¹ Hussain A., Mkpojiogu E. O., Ezekwudo C. C. (2021). Improving the academic self-efficacy of students using mobile educational apps in virtual learning: A review. *International Journal of Interactive Mobile Technologies*, 15 (6). URL: <https://online-journals.org/index.php/i-jim/article/view/20627>

Power analysis analyzed effect size, significance level, and research power to estimate sample size.

Analyzing Data

The study used a self-administered survey. The poll covered demographics, academic mobility, self-efficacy, and academic performance. Participants received the questionnaire via email and Google Forms. Descriptive statistics, correlation, and multiple regression assessed the data. Descriptive statistics summarized demographics and academic performance. Academic mobility, self-efficacy, and performance were examined using correlation analysis. Self-efficacy views and academic achievement were predicted using multiple regression analysis. In essence, power analysis selected the sample size, and a self-administered survey questionnaire collected data. Descriptive statistics, correlation, and multiple regression assessed the data. The sampling technique, data collecting, and analytic methods fit the study's design and questions.

Results and Discussion

Academic mobility involves students studying abroad. This experience gives pupils new knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Academic mobility helps life science students develop self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is a person's confidence in their abilities. The person's past, observation of others, and emotional and physiological situations inform this belief. Academic achievement requires self-efficacy in higher education. It helps pupils overcome educational barriers, make objectives, and persevere. Academic mobility helps life sciences students develop self-efficacy in numerous ways. First, academic mobility challenges pupils academically. Studying in a new academic setting with different teaching techniques and expectations might be scary, but it also allows students to learn and grow. Success in academics can enhance pupils' self-efficacy.

Academic mobility lets students experience new cross-cultural communication. Living in a new nation and culture may be exhilarating and difficult. Students must adopt new values, customs, and communication styles.

Adaptation empowers. Students' self-efficacy can increase by negotiating a new culture and making new friends. Third, academic mobility lets students make new friends. Self-efficacy requires social support. New friendships, foreign teams, and multicultural collaboration can empower pupils. Social support can boost pupils' self-confidence and relational skills. Academic mobility helps life science students develop self-efficacy. Academic mobility lets students challenge themselves, explore a new culture, and make new friends. These encounters boost pupils' self-efficacy by boosting their confidence. Academic mobility improves self-efficacy among life sciences students, according to research. Academic mobility students exhibit stronger self-efficacy than non-participants. There are numerous reasons associated with this aspect; first, academic mobility lets students learn new skills and knowledge. Students must academically challenge themselves in a diverse academic atmosphere with varied teaching approaches and expectations. Success in academics can enhance pupils' self-efficacy and confidence. Academic mobility programs push students in ways that non-participants cannot, which may lower their self-efficacy. Academic mobility lets

students experience new cultures. It's thrilling and difficult. Students must adopt new values, customs, and cross-cultural communication styles. Students' self-efficacy can increase by negotiating a new culture and making new friends.

Non-participants in academic mobility programs may not attain this cultural competency and self-efficacy degree. Third, academic mobility lets students make new friends. Self-efficacy requires social support. New friendships, foreign teams, and multicultural collaboration can empower pupils. Social support can boost pupils' self-confidence and relational skills. Non-participants in academic mobility programs may not create these social networks and self-efficacy. Academic mobility students also have stronger self-efficacy for other reasons.

Academic mobility programs require students to be more independent than at home. Independent and autonomous learning can boost pupils' self-efficacy and confidence. Academic mobility program participants show stronger self-efficacy than non-participants. This is because they can challenge themselves academically, immerse themselves in a new culture, make new friends, and gain independence and self-reliance. These experiences can boost pupils' self-efficacy.

Academic Mobility and Self-Efficacy

Academic mobility programs allow students to study abroad, usually in another nation. Academic mobility has been demonstrated to boost student self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is the confidence to accomplish a task or objective. Academic mobility helps pupils build self-efficacy. First, academic mobility challenges pupils academically. Students learn diverse teaching approaches, academic standards, and academic content in different academic environments.

Students' self-efficacy might grow as they overcome new academic hurdles. A student may suffer when introduced to a different teaching style or academic system. The student may master the new subject or system with tenacity. Academic accomplishment can boost self-confidence. Academic mobility lets students experience new cultures. It's thrilling and difficult. Students must adopt new values, customs, and communication styles. Students' self-efficacy can increase by negotiating a new culture and making friends with people from different backgrounds.

Students studying abroad may feel frightened by the new cultural standards, but by connecting with the local community, they can learn to navigate the new society and gain cultural competency. Navigating a new culture can boost self-confidence. Third, academic mobility lets students make new friends. Self-efficacy requires social support. New friendships, foreign teams, and multicultural collaboration can empower pupils. Social support can boost pupils' self-confidence and relational skills. In an exchange program, students may form close bonds with their peers and work together to overcome academic or other problems. Social support and teamwork boost self-efficacy. Academic mobility programs also force students to be more independent than at home. Independent and self-reliant learning can boost pupils' self-efficacy and confidence. A student studying abroad may have to adjust to life without family or friends. Independent living can boost self-confidence. Academic mobility boosts student self-efficacy. Students can build self-efficacy through demanding

academic contexts, immersion in other cultures, new social networks, and increased independence and self-reliance.

Student self-efficacy factors

1. Cross-cultural Immersion

Cross-cultural immersion is interacting with a different culture. Studying abroad, participating in cultural exchange programs, or simply talking to people from other cultures can help. Cross-cultural immersion can boost self-efficacy, the belief that one can accomplish a job or objective. This essay examines how cultural immersion affects self-efficacy. Cross-cultural immersion increases cultural competence and self-efficacy (Hu et al., 2021)¹. Interacting with people from other cultures requires cultural competence. It requires cultural awareness and adaptability. Cross-cultural immersion teaches people diverse values, norms, and cross-cultural communication methods. This experience can improve their cultural competence and self-efficacy in intercultural communication and other domains.

Cross-cultural immersion allows people to practice intercultural communication, which boosts self-efficacy. Intercultural communication involves communicating with people from various cultures. It requires cultural awareness and adaptability. Cross-cultural immersion lets people practice intercultural communication in real life. This encounter can boost their intercultural communication self-efficacy by giving them confidence in their capacity to communicate with diverse cultures. Cross-cultural immersion increases self-awareness and self-efficacy. Self-awareness means understanding one's own thoughts, feelings, and actions. Cross-cultural immersion helps people identify their biases and assumptions. Self-awareness from this experience can boost their intercultural communication and other self-efficacy. Cross-cultural immersion also allows people to make cross-cultural friends, which boosts self-efficacy. Cross-cultural interactions entail becoming friends with people from other cultures. Cross-cultural immersion fosters cross-cultural interactions. This encounter can increase their empathy and understanding for people from diverse cultures, which can boost their intercultural communication and other skills. Cross-cultural immersion can also challenge cultural preconceptions. Cross-cultural assumptions and prejudices are preconceived notions about other civilizations.

By immersing in the culture, people can question their cultural biases. This encounter can improve their intercultural communication and other skills by helping them comprehend other cultures better. Cross-cultural immersion can also boost self-efficacy by teaching resilience and adaptation. Resilience means overcoming obstacles. Adaptability is the ability to adapt. Cross-cultural immersion can cause linguistic, homesickness, and cultural disparities. Resilience and adaptation can boost intercultural communication self-efficacy. Finally, cultural immersion can

¹ Hu X., Jiang Y., Bi H. (2022). Measuring science self-efficacy with a focus on the perceived competence dimension: using mixed methods to develop an instrument and explore changes through cross-sectional and longitudinal analyses in high school. *International Journal of STEM Education*, 9 (1), 1–24. URL: <https://stemeducationjournal.springeropen.com/articles/10.1186/s40594-022-00363-x>

foster identity. Identity is shaped through life events and interactions. Cross-cultural immersion exposes people to new things.

2. Academic Obstacles

First, studying abroad can boost self-confidence. A US student studying in Japan may initially feel overwhelmed by the language and cultural contrasts. However, participating with the local community can help students develop the skills and confidence to navigate cultural differences. This experience can boost a student's intercultural communication and other skills. Second, cultural exchange programs boost self-confidence. A UK teacher in a cultural exchange program in India may initially struggle with cultural differences in teaching approaches and student conduct. The teacher can adapt by observing and learning from local teachers. This can boost the teacher's intercultural communication and other self-confidence. Thirdly, engaging with community members of other cultures can boost self-efficacy. A Mexican university student who befriends a Chinese student may initially struggle with cultural differences in communication and social conventions. However, meaningful dialogues and activities can help kids build cultural competency and empathy. This experience can boost a student's intercultural communication and other skills. Fourthly, cultural immersion increases self-awareness and self-efficacy.

A US corporate leader traveling to China for a meeting may think their business methods will be understood and approved. However, cultural disparities in business etiquette and negotiation methods may help executives recognize their cultural prejudices and assumptions.

This encounter can boost the executive's intercultural communication and other skills. Fifth, cultural immersion can challenge cultural biases and assumptions. French students visiting the US may think Americans are noisy and obnoxious. However, meeting Americans from different backgrounds and engaging with the local community may help the learner comprehend American culture more accurately. This experience can boost a student's intercultural communication and other skills. Finally, cultural exposure can boost self-efficacy. Studying abroad, participating in cultural exchange programs, or simply engaging with members of a different culture in one's community can help people develop cultural competence, intercultural communication skills, resilience, adaptability, cultural assumptions and biases, and self-awareness and identity (Hu et al., 2021)². These experiences can boost intercultural communication and other self-efficacy. Student academic issues include:

Completing difficult coursework

Students in academic mobility programs may struggle with advanced coursework. A US university student studying abroad in Germany may find the curriculum more challenging.

² Hu X., Jiang Y., Bi H. (2022). Measuring science self-efficacy with a focus on the perceived competence dimension: using mixed methods to develop an instrument and explore changes through cross-sectional and longitudinal analyses in high school. *International Journal of STEM Education*, 9 (1), 1–24. URL: <https://stemeducationjournal.springeropen.com/articles/10.1186/s40594-022-00363-x>

However, by studying and mastering the information, the student might gain academic confidence. This can boost intellectual self-confidence.

Foreign-language research presentation

Academic mobility students may struggle to deliver their findings in a new language. A Japanese university student studying abroad in Spain may need to deliver their research in Spanish, which may not be their native language. The student can learn to express their research by practicing and preparing. This can boost students' linguistic and communication self-confidence.

Working with diverse students

Academic mobility programs allow students to work with colleagues from diverse fields. A Brazilian exchange student at a Canadian university may work on a collaborative project with students from engineering, business, and computer science. The learner can improve their interpersonal skills and collaboration confidence by overcoming the hurdles of working with persons with varied perspectives and expertise. This can boost students' teamwork and collaboration confidence.

Independent research in new surroundings

Academic mobility students may struggle with autonomous research in a new context. For instance, an Indian student in an Australian research program may need to learn how to discover and use resources, conduct interviews, and gather data. The learner can improve their problem-solving, research, and independence by conquering the hurdles of research in a new environment. This can boost students' research and problem-solving confidence. Academic difficulties can help academic mobility students improve their academic, language, communication, teamwork, problem-solving, and research skills and confidence. Students gain a sense of mastery and confidence in their ability to excel in tough academic situations from these experiences.

3. Social Aid

Family, friends, classmates, and mentors provide social support. Social support can be emotional, educational, or tangible. Social support helps students develop self-efficacy in academic mobility programs. This section will explain how social support affects student self-efficacy and present examples.

Motivating and engaging

Social support can boost students' academic enthusiasm and engagement, which can boost self-efficacy. Students are more inclined to work hard and persevere when they feel supported by a network that cares about their academic performance. A student who receives regular encouragement and support from family and friends while studying abroad may be more motivated to learn and participate in their host culture and academic environment. This experience might boost a student's confidence in learning and adapting.

Giving advice

Students can improve their skills and confidence with comments and guidance from social support. Mentors, peers, and professors can help students identify their strengths and flaws and how to develop. A student in a research exchange program

who receives feedback from their mentor may be able to improve their methodology or analysis. This can boost students' research and analytical confidence.

Community building

Social support can also help pupils feel connected and self-confident. Students are more inclined to take risks, seek help, and share their thoughts in a friendly and inclusive group. For instance, a study abroad student who joins a club or group may form close bonds with other like-minded students. This event can boost students' social skills and ability to create lasting relationships.

Inspiration and role models

Finally, social support can give kids role models and encouragement to build self-efficacy. Students can build confidence by watching others achieve in similar academic contexts. A student in a mentorship program during an exchange program may benefit from a successful mentor who has overcome similar problems. This can boost a student's self-confidence. Finally, social support can help academic mobility kids develop self-efficacy. Social support can assist students in developing academic, social, and personal abilities by increasing motivation and engagement, providing feedback and advice, creating community, and providing role models and inspiration. As students gain confidence in their ability to perform in tough academic situations, these experiences can boost self-efficacy.

Academic mobility students develop self-efficacy through social support. Peers, host families, and academic advisors can assist students in coping with new difficulties and stresses while away from home. Self-efficacy can develop as pupils grow confident in their abilities to overcome challenges and achieve goals. Peer mentoring programs can help build self-efficacy through social support. International students are paired with current students who have studied abroad. The peer mentor advises on the host country and academic and cultural requirements. The peer mentor can also provide emotional support, making the incoming student feel more comfortable and connected to the university. Host families support international students socially. Students can practice language, learn local customs, and share cultural experiences with host families in a secure and supportive setting. Host families may invite students to local holidays or events. Host families can increase students' self-efficacy by making them feel at home. Finally, academic advisers support academic mobility students socially. Advisors can help with course selection, studying, and academic expectations.

They can help students with visas and class registration. Advisors can boost students' academic self-efficacy by giving practical support and advice. Finally, social support helps academic mobility students develop self-efficacy. Student social assistance includes peer mentoring, host families, and academic counselors. Social assistance can help pupils adjust to their new surroundings and build self-confidence to thrive in school and life.

Discussion

Academic Mobility Programs

Higher education institutions increasingly offer academic mobility programs for students to study abroad or exchange. These programs allow students to acquire new

languages, explore foreign cultures, and get an increasingly valuable global perspective in today's interconnected world. Academic mobility programs benefit life sciences students. Life sciences include biology, biochemistry, agricultural, and environmental sciences. Climate change, food security, and public health demand a global perspective in many life sciences domains. Academic mobility programs can introduce life sciences students to fresh methods and cultural views on research and technology. This can help them understand global issues and work with various coworkers. Academic mobility programs can also give life sciences students access to new research opportunities, technologies, and resources. This can help them improve academically and professionally and gain experience for future studies or careers (Hamzah et al., 2021)¹. Academic mobility programs can assist life sciences students personally as well as professionally. Students' viewpoints, flexibility, resilience, and communication and interpersonal skills can improve through cultural immersion.

These traits are useful in any field, but especially for life sciences students working in global or transdisciplinary environments. Academic mobility programs can give life sciences students global experience, new research opportunities, and critical personal and professional skills in today's interconnected world. Academic mobility's favorable effect on life sciences students' self-efficacy has crucial implications for academic mobility program design. The study recommends academic mobility programs that give students varied cultural experiences, academic difficulties, and social support to boost self-efficacy. The study suggests that academic mobility programs should give students cultural immersion. Language classes, homestays, cultural tours, and community participation are possible. Academic mobility programs can boost self-efficacy by exposing pupils to other cultures. The report suggests academic mobility programs should push students. This could include research projects, internships, or advanced or specialized courses not offered at the student's home institution. Academic mobility programs challenge pupils academically and boost their self-confidence.

Finally, the study suggests that academic mobility programs should offer students social assistance. Mentorship initiatives, peer support groups, and alumni or industry networking could be included. Academic mobility programs can help students feel connected and self-confident by giving them social support. Language classes, cross-cultural immersion, and mentorship programs may be needed to incorporate these implications into academic mobility programs. Institutions may need to work with partner institutions and local communities to offer students cultural immersion and social assistance. The study's findings have major significance for life sciences academic mobility initiatives. Institutions can boost students' self-efficacy and academic and personal development by offering different cross-cultural experiences, academic challenges, and social support. Academic mobility programs can boost students' self-efficacy in many ways. Some examples:

¹ Hamzah S. R. A., Kai Le K., Musa S. N. S. (2021). The mediating role of career decision self-efficacy on the relationship of career emotional intelligence and self-esteem with career adaptability among university students. *International Journal of Adolescence and Youth*, 26 (1), 83–93. URL: <https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/02673843.2021.1886952>

Cross-cultural immersion

Students can experience local culture through academic mobility programs. Language classes, homestays, cultural tours, and community participation are possible. A biosciences student studying abroad in Japan could learn Japanese, attend a tea ceremony, and stay with a local family. These experiences can help students acquire cultural competency, open-mindedness, and appreciation for various perspectives, boosting self-efficacy.

Academically challenging

Academic mobility programs can provide students with advanced research, internships, and courses. A biosciences student studying abroad in Australia could examine coral reefs and climate change. Academic mobility programs challenge pupils academically and boost their self-confidence.

Social support

Academic mobility programs give social support in many ways. Mentorship programs, peer support groups, and alumni/professional networking are examples. A life sciences student studying abroad in the UK could join a sustainability-focused student organization, mentor a local environmental scientist, or attend a networking event with professionals. Academic mobility programs can help students feel connected and self-confident by giving them social support.

Promoting self-reflection

Academic mobility programs might help students reflect on their growth. Journaling, group talks, and systematic reflection are examples. A life sciences student studying abroad in Costa Rica could address how their experiences have affected their personal and academic aspirations or write about their cross-cultural relationships. Academic mobility programs can boost self-efficacy by encouraging introspection and self-assessment.

Offering leadership

Academic mobility initiatives can help students become leaders. This can include peer mentoring, group project leadership, or community service. A life sciences student studying abroad in Brazil could lead a sustainable agriculture group project or an environmental conservation community service initiative. Academic mobility initiatives can boost self-efficacy by giving students leadership chances. Academic mobility programs can boost self-efficacy in many ways. Cross-cultural immersion, academic challenges, social support, reflection and self-assessment, and leadership opportunities can help students develop academic and personal confidence.

Life Sciences Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy, coined by psychologist Albert Bandura, is a person's confidence in their abilities. It's essential to motivation and affects how people overcome obstacles and reach their goals. Self-efficacy is crucial to life sciences students' scientific learning and application.

Students may struggle to understand life science theories and methodologies. Thus, students with solid self-efficacy are more likely to persevere, actively study, and thrive academically and professionally.

Self-efficacy has been linked to life sciences academic success. Increased self-efficacy is associated with incredible academic performance, increased coursework engagement, and favorable learning attitudes (Liu et al., 2020)¹. Low self-efficacy students may struggle academically and quit more easily. Life science careers require self-efficacy. This field requires complicated problem-solving, collaboration, and flexibility. Self-efficacy helps people succeed in demanding jobs. Self-efficacy is crucial to life sciences education and career success. This field's educators should recognize the value of self-efficacy and provide learning environments that help students build and maintain it. They can assist students to succeed academically and professionally and improve life sciences. Academic mobility programs can help life-science students improve self-efficacy. These programs expose students to new cultural, intellectual, and social situations, which can boost their confidence, competence, and motivation. Cultural immersion helps academic mobility programs build self-efficacy. International exchange programs expose pupils to diverse cultures and lifestyles. This experience can expand their perspectives, tolerance for variety, and ability to communicate and collaborate with diverse people. Students' self-efficacy might increase as they learn to adapt and navigate novel surroundings. Academic challenges can boost self-efficacy in academic mobility programs.

These programs expose students to tough academic content, which can be scary but rewarding. Mastering challenging concepts and applying them in real-world circumstances can enhance students' self-efficacy.

Self-efficacy also requires social support. Academic mobility programs generally offer a supportive community of peers, mentors, and professionals. This support system can improve students' sense of belonging, reduce worry and tension, and raise confidence and motivation.

Academic mobility programs also teach problem-solving, critical thinking, and communication, which are linked to self-efficacy. These skills help students adapt to changing environments and handle complex challenges in life sciences education and professional development. Finally, academic mobility programs can help life science students acquire self-efficacy. These programs assist students in gaining confidence, competence, and motivation via cultural immersion, academic challenges, social support, and life skills development. Students can fulfill their academic and professional goals and contribute to life sciences. Self-efficacy can help life sciences students thrive academically, personally, and professionally. Self-efficacy is the belief that one can complete activities and achieve goals. Students with high self-efficacy are likelier to tackle difficult activities, persevere, and succeed. Life sciences students may benefit from self-efficacy promotion. Improved academic performance: Students who trust in their academic abilities are more inclined to study, participate in class, and seek feedback. Engaged pupils are more likely to learn and pass exams. High self-efficacy also helps pupils overcome setbacks and stick with their studies.

¹ Liu X., Peng M. Y. P., Anser M. K., Chong W. L., Lin, B. (2020). Key teacher attitudes for sustainable development of student employability by social cognitive career theory: the mediating roles of self-efficacy and problem-based learning. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 11, 1945. URL: <https://www.frontiersin.org/journals/psychology/articles/10.3389/fpsyg.2020.01945/full>

Self-efficacy boosts academic motivation and engagement. They establish ambitious goals and work hard to accomplish them. This drive and engagement can increase academic satisfaction and self-efficacy. Problem-solving skills: Self-efficacy helps students see issues as challenges rather than obstacles. They are more likely to persist in problem-solving and believe they have the abilities and resources to overcome challenges. This can improve academic and professional problem-solving skills. Self-efficacy boosts confidence and resilience in students. They see failures as learning opportunities rather than signs of their limitations. Students can handle scholastic and professional problems better with this confidence and resilience. Career prospects: Self-efficacy helps students pursue demanding and fulfilling occupations. They're more prone to take risks, pursue advancement, and persevere (Litson et al., 2020)². This can boost their career performance and job satisfaction. In conclusion, improving self-efficacy in life sciences students can improve academic achievement, motivation, engagement, problem-solving, confidence, resilience, and job prospects. Educators may help students succeed and be fulfilled by establishing academic programs that boost self-efficacy.

Personal development

The study's findings on academic mobility's favorable effect on life science students' self-efficacy have crucial implications for personal development. Academic mobility programs give students new experiences and skills that might help them thrive. Cross-cultural diversity can help students flourish through academic mobility programs. Traveling to new countries and experiencing diverse cultures might help students comprehend others. Exposure to other ideas can also help kids become more open-minded about problem-solving and decision-making.

Academic mobility programs can also expose pupils to new academic difficulties. Resilience, perseverance, and problem-solving can result. A student studying abroad may have to adjust to a new teaching style or academic approach. Students can gain confidence by overcoming these challenges. Academic mobility programs also improve social skills and networks. Academic mobility programs allow students to meet new people from diverse backgrounds. Lifelong friendships and professional networks can result from these ties.

Academic mobility programs also foster independence and self-reliance. Students can gain self-confidence and awareness in new situations. Self-awareness helps pupils identify their strengths and flaws and establish personal growth methods. Academic mobility programs can improve students' job chances in addition to personal growth. Academic mobility students frequently have marketable talents and experiences. Employers favor applicants who can operate in multiple places, communicate with diverse people, and adapt to new conditions. The study found that academic mobility programs can help biosciences students develop personally.

² Litson K., Blaney J. M., Feldon D. F. (2021). Understanding the transient nature of stem doctoral students' research self-efficacy across time: Considering the role of gender, race, and first-generation college status. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 12, 617060. URL: <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.617060/full>

Academic mobility programs expose students to varied cultural experiences, academic challenges, and social networks, helping them develop valuable skills and views that can benefit them personally and professionally. Self-efficacy is vital to personal growth. It's a person's confidence in their ability to succeed. Experiences, education, and training can build self-efficacy (Kuo et al., 2021)¹. Self-efficacy can lead to other personal traits and personal progress.

Resilience

Resilience is overcoming obstacles and bouncing back. Resilience requires self-efficacy. High-self-efficacy people see failures as challenges and opportunities to learn and improve rather than insurmountable hurdles. Self-efficacy can boost resilience, helping people handle life's adversities.

Motivation

Motivation depends on self-efficacy. Motivated people feel they can achieve their goals. They are also more resilient. Thus, self-efficacy can boost motivation and personal progress.

Self-confidence

Self-efficacy and self-confidence go together. People are more confident when they believe they can succeed. They search for new challenges and chances. Self-efficacy increases self-confidence, which boosts personal progress.

Self-awareness

Self-awareness means knowing one's strengths, shortcomings, and motives. Self-efficacy needs self-reflection and self-awareness. Better self-knowledge helps people make decisions that match their beliefs and aspirations, fostering personal progress.

Creativity

Self-efficacy boosts creativity. People are more ready to experiment and take chances when they believe they can succeed. This boosts creativity and inventiveness. Self-efficacy can boost creativity, which can help personal and professional progress.

Social skills

Finally, self-efficacy improves social skills. Self-efficacy boosts communication, collaboration, and relationship-building (Litson et al., 2020)². This can improve personal and professional relationships and advancement. Self-efficacy can boost personal progress. Self-efficacy boosts resilience, motivation, self-confidence, self-awareness, creativity, and interpersonal skills. Self-efficacy helps people achieve goals, overcome challenges, and progress. The study found that academic mobility programs boost self-efficacy in life sciences students.

Academic mobility programs expose students to varied cultural experiences, academic difficulties, and social support, boosting self-efficacy. Self-efficacy in life

¹ Kuo T. M., Tsai C. C., Wang J. C. (2021). Linking web-based learning self-efficacy and learning engagement in MOOCs: The role of online academic hardiness. *The Internet and Higher Education*, 51, 100819. URL: <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1096751621000282>

² Litson K., Blaney J. M., Feldon D. F. (2021). Understanding the transient nature of stem doctoral students' research self-efficacy across time: Considering the role of gender, race, and first-generation college status. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 12, 617060. URL: <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.617060/full>

sciences students can increase academic achievement, resilience, and career prospects. The study affects academic mobility and life sciences education. The findings suggest that academic mobility programs should give students different cultural experiences, academic challenges, and social support to boost self-efficacy. Independent, adaptable, and intercultural programs can help pupils develop. Academic mobility and self-efficacy among life sciences students require further study.

Academic mobility programs may have long-term consequences on student self-efficacy and character (Litson et al., 2020)³. Future studies might also examine how academic mobility initiatives help students from diverse socioeconomic and cultural backgrounds.

The study concludes that academic mobility programs benefit life sciences students' personal and academic growth. Academic mobility programs' unique cultural experiences, academic challenges, and social support might boost students' self-efficacy, according to the study. The study has significant implications for academic mobility programs and life sciences education, stressing the need for more research.

Conclusion

Academic mobility helps life sciences students develop self-efficacy. Academic mobility programs give students varied cultural experiences, academic difficulties, and social support, which boosts self-efficacy. To foster self-efficacy in life sciences students, academic mobility programs should include these elements, according to this paper. First, academic mobility broadens students' cultural experiences. Studying abroad can be tough yet rewarding. Exposure can promote self-awareness and understanding of one's culture and values. Academic mobility programs can help students gain a global perspective. Second, academic mobility programs can challenge pupils and boost self-confidence. Students learn new teaching methods and academic standards in new academic environments, which can be demanding yet beneficial. Exposure can boost academic confidence. Academic mobility programs may boost students' academic self-efficacy. Third, academic mobility programs can boost students' self-confidence through social support. Students might meet new friends and mentors through academic mobility programs.

These partnerships can give kids emotional support, direction, and encouragement, boosting their self-efficacy.

Academic mobility programs can help students increase self-efficacy by improving their social skills and support system (Litson et al., 2020)⁴. Finally, academic mobility programs help life sciences students develop self-efficacy. This study suggests that academic mobility programs with cultural immersion, academic challenges, and social support can boost self-efficacy.

³ Litson K., Blaney J. M., Feldon D. F. (2021). Understanding the transient nature of stem doctoral students' research self-efficacy across time: Considering the role of gender, race, and first-generation college status. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 12, 617060. URL: <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.617060/full>

⁴ Litson K., Blaney J. M., Feldon D. F. (2021). Understanding the transient nature of stem doctoral students' research self-efficacy across time: Considering the role of gender, race, and first-generation college status. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 12, 617060. URL: <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.617060/full>

Academic mobility programs must consider these criteria to help life sciences students improve personally and academically. This research could examine the long-term impacts of academic mobility on self-efficacy and how different student demographics can benefit from academic mobility programs. The study found that academic mobility programs boost self-efficacy in life sciences students. Academic and personal achievement depends on self-efficacy (Kuo et al., 2021)¹. Academic mobility programs give life sciences students with varied cultural experiences, academic difficulties, and social support, boosting their self-efficacy. Self-efficacy boosts academic success. Self-efficacy helps students establish ambitious academic objectives and achieve them. They are also more resilient to academic disappointments. This can boost grades, retention, and graduation rates. Academic mobility programs also help students improve personally. Self-efficacy improves confidence, self-belief, communication, leadership, and interpersonal connections. Self-efficacy helps students be proactive, resilient, and optimistic.

Academic mobility programs can also introduce pupils to new cultures, broadening their perspectives and awareness. This can strengthen cross-cultural dialogue, diversity tolerance, and global citizenship.

In conclusion, academic mobility programs promote self-efficacy among life sciences students. Self-efficacy improves academics, personal growth, and global citizenship (Kuo et al., 2021)². Therefore, universities must construct academic mobility programs that give students varied cultural experiences, academic challenges, and social support to boost self-efficacy and development (Gültekin et al., 2020)³. Academic mobility's long-term consequences on life sciences students' self-efficacy need further study. Academic mobility appears to improve self-efficacy, although it has to be seen if the gains last. Longitudinal research can reveal how academic mobility affects students' personal and professional development and how self-efficacy gains endure. Future research could examine how academic mobility programs affect self-efficacy. Cultural immersion, academic obstacles, and social support were studied in academic mobility programs. Language proficiency and travel experience may also help life sciences students develop self-efficacy during academic mobility. Researchers can improve academic mobility programs for life sciences students by studying how programmatic elements affect self-efficacy. Future studies could examine academic mobility and self-efficacy hurdles for life sciences students. Academic mobility programs can help students develop personally and professionally, but not all students can participate.

Underrepresented students may confront financial or cultural impediments to academic advancement (Gültekin et al., 2020)⁴. Universities may remove these

¹ Kuo T. M., Tsai C. C., Wang J. C. (2021). Linking web-based learning self-efficacy and learning engagement in MOOCs: The role of online academic hardness. *The Internet and Higher Education*, 51, 100819. <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1096751621000282>

² Ibidem.

³ Gültekin O., Erkaplan S., Uzun H., Güney E. (2020). Investigation of Academic Staff's Self-Efficacy Using the Educational Internet. *Higher Education Studies*, 10 (3), 26–33. URL: <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1259639>

⁴ Ibidem.

barriers to ensure all students can acquire self-efficacy through academic mobility initiatives. Finally, future studies might examine how self-efficacy growth affects life sciences students' careers. Academic mobility may have long-term implications on students' career paths, but this study focused on its immediate effects on self-efficacy (Kuo et al., 2021)⁵. Self-efficacy may motivate students to pursue advanced degrees or leadership roles. Universities should prioritize life sciences academic mobility programs by understanding the professional benefits of self-efficacy development. This study provides insights into how academic mobility affects life sciences students' self-efficacy, but more research is needed. Researchers can improve academic mobility programs for life sciences students by studying the long-term effects of academic mobility on self-efficacy, programmatic factors, barriers to participation, and career benefits. This study shows that academic mobility improves self-efficacy in life sciences students. The study shows that academic mobility programs can help life sciences students build self-efficacy through cultural immersion, academic challenges, and social support (Gültekin et al., 2020)⁶. Academic mobility programs can boost students' self-efficacy and academic growth by giving them varied cultural experiences, academic challenges, and social support. The study's findings go beyond academic mobility. Self-efficacy helps people overcome obstacles, take chances, and reach their goals.

Academic mobility initiatives can boost life sciences students' self-efficacy and job prospects. This study further depicts how academic mobility affects life sciences students' self-efficacy, but more research is needed. Researchers could examine the long-term effects of academic mobility on self-efficacy in life sciences students, the impact of programmatic factors on self-efficacy development, potential barriers to academic mobility and self-efficacy development, and the career benefits of self-efficacy development. We can improve academic mobility programs for life sciences students by understanding the factors that lead to self-efficacy. In conclusion, academic mobility programs can help life sciences students develop self-efficacy, and institutions should prioritize establishing programs that offer different cultural experiences, academic difficulties, and social support. By doing so, universities may prepare students for career success and promote global cultural understanding and interchange

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⁵ Kuo T. M., Tsai C. C., Wang J. C. (2021). Linking web-based learning self-efficacy and learning engagement in MOOCs: The role of online academic hardness. *The Internet and Higher Education*, 51, 100819. URL: <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1096751621000282>

⁶ Gültekin O., Erkaplan S., Uzun H., Güney E. (2020). Investigation of Academic Staff's Self-Efficacy Using the Educational Internet. *Higher Education Studies*, 10 (3), 26–33. URL: <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1259639>

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