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MILITARY-POLITICAL POTENTIAL FOR MAINTAINING PEACE AND STABILITY BY GLOBAL GOVERNANCE STRUCTURES (FOR EXAMPLE, THE UN)

POTENCJAŁ WOJSKOWO-POLITYCZNY W ZAKRESIE UTRZYMANIA POKOJU I STABILNOŚCI PRZEZ GLOBALNE STRUKTURY ZARZĄDZANIA (NA PRZYKŁADZIE ONZ)

Abstract: The article focuses on the effectiveness of global governance structures in the field of security against the background of increasing confrontation between powerful geopolitical players, tensions between rich and poor countries and the struggle for resources and markets. The aim of the article is to define the role and outline the prospects of global security governance, in particular based on the example of relevant UN instruments. The UN Security Council is seen as a peacekeeping instrument. Its status and powers are outlined. UN peacekeeping operations are argued for as a systemic phenomenon. Problems that negatively affect the efficiency, effectiveness and success of its peacekeeping operations and trends in the further development of UN peacekeeping activities have been identified. The latter are called upon to be ready to promptly address the task of neutralizing threats and avoiding military conflicts. It is argued that the security system needs to be reorganized and improved through the expansion of the UN peacekeeping force and the creation of new joint military formations on a permanent basis.

Zarys treści: Artykuł koncentruje się na efektywności globalnych struktur zarządzania w obszarze bezpieczeństwa na tle narastającej konfrontacji między potężnymi graczami geopolitycznymi, napięć między krajami bogatymi i biednymi oraz walki o zasoby i rynki. Celem

artykułu jest określenie roli i zarysowanie perspektyw globalnego zarządzania bezpieczeń-stwem, w szczególności na przykładzie odpowiednich instrumentów ONZ. Rada Bezpie-czeństwa ONZ jest postrzegana jako instrument utrzymywania pokoju. Nakreślono jej status i uprawnienia. Operacje pokojowe ONZ są uważane za zjawisko systemowe. Zidentyfikowano problemy, które negatywnie wpływają na skuteczność i powodzenie operacji pokojowych oraz tendencje w dalszym rozwoju działań pokojowych sił ONZ. Te ostatnie powinny być gotowe do szybkiego podjęcia zadania neutralizacji zagrożeń i unikania konfliktów zbrojnych. Twier-dzi się, że system bezpieczeństwa wymaga reorganizacji i usprawnienia poprzez rozbudowę sił pokojowych ONZ oraz tworzenie nowych wspólnych formacji wojskowych na stałe.

Key words: national security, military security, global governance, collective security, peaceke-eping activities, UN peacekeeping operations, public administration in the sphere of military security
Słowa kluczowe: bezpieczeństwo narodowe, bezpieczeństwo wojskowe, globalny ład, bez-pieczeństwo zbiorowe, działania pokojowe, operacje pokojowe ONZ, administracja publiczna w sferze bezpieczeństwa wojskowego

Introduction

The settlement of military conflicts, which in modern conditions have become multifaceted and complex, is determined not only by considerations of humanity. Emergencies pose a particular threat to peace and have a destabilizing effect on the socio-economic and political situation of neighbouring countries and entire regions. Modern military conflicts are characterized by dynamism, which is accompanied by mass deaths and suffering of civilians. The rapid escalation of humanitarian problems requires the mobilization of substantial financial resources to address them, which significantly affects the potential for socio-economic development. Peacekeeping operations that have been so actively performed recently are a hot topic for political and scientific debate.

The degree of scientific development of peacekeeping activity issues is determined by the publications of international centres for international relations and peace issues studies, such as the International Peace Academy (IPA), the UN Institute for Disarma-ment Research and International Relations (UNIDIR), etc. The list of Ukrainians who have significantly contributed to the study of various peacekeeping issues includes such scientists as A.V. Wojciechowski, O. Gogosha, V. Klyuyev, O. Kovtun, A. Lega and V. Lysak. Among foreign authors should be mentioned Nsia-Pepra K., Hudson J., Hultman L., Kathman J., Hegre H., Hultman L., Beardsley K. and Bah S. etc.

At the same time, given the dynamic changes in international relations, many aspects of this discourse remain unattended, which motivates the chosen topic.

Under the UN Charter, the primary responsibility for maintaining international peace and security rests with the UN Security Council, which decides on the deploy-ment of groups and missions to areas of armed conflict or on the conduct of peaceke-eping operations by military contingents of UN member states under the auspices of the United Nations. The Security Council has the right to use the armed forces

for implementation of its decisions to eliminate the threat to or any breach of peace (i.e. military coercion). This can be expressed by participation in battles and in the forceful division of warring parties, etc. The relevant provisions of the UN Charter play an important preventive role. There are no military units within the UN. In certain cases this compels it to turn to some countries or international organizations (such as NATO) that are able to implement Security Council decisions. States may also use their armed forces to ensure individual or collective self-defence (Article 5 of the UN Charter).[1]

The United Nations Armed Forces are the combined forces of the United Nations member states. The UN Armed Forces are called upon to provide military measures in the framework of coercive actions of its members in accordance with Chapter 7 of the UN Charter established and implemented by the UN Security Council (UNSC) in cases where it recognizes any threat to peace, any breach of peace aggression and in this regard takes the appropriate decision in order to maintain or restore peace and security (Article 39).[2] The aim of the current article is to define the role and outline the prospects of global security governance, in particular based on the example of relevant UN instruments.

UN Security Council as a tool for peacekeeping: status and powers

The UN Armed Forces are applied in exceptional cases when other measures may prove or have proved ineffective. According to Article 43 of the UN Charter, all UN member states are obliged to make available to the Security Council, at its request and in accordance with special agreements, the national military contingents, assistance and means of service necessary for maintaining international peace and security, including the right to pass through a certain territory. Such agreements determine the number and type of troops, the degree of readiness and their location as well as the nature of means of service and assistance provided by them. Article 42 of the UN Charter authorizes the Security Council to use military action by air, land forces and naval forces. Such actions may include demonstrations, blockades and other operations. Assistance to the UN Security Council in all matters relating to the military needs of peacekeeping forces, the use of troops transferred to its command, and their command, is provided by the Military Staff Committee. This consists of the Chiefs of Staff of the permanent members of the UN Security Council or their representatives. In addition, any UN member can be invited to cooperate with the Committee.[3]

The confrontation between the United States and the Soviet Union did not allow the use of the mechanism of creation and functioning of the UN Armed Forces as part of the global system of collective security. Under the principle of unanimity of the permanent members of the UN Security Council, the adoption of such decisions

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[1]   United Nations Charter, http://zakon3.rada.gov.ua/laws/show/995_010 [access: 02.03.2022].
[2]   *Ibidem*.
[3]   UN Security Council Resolutions(1992 p.),.http:// www.un.org/ru/sc/documents/resolutions/ [access: 02.03.2022].

depended entirely on the coincidence of their interests in situations related to the need to maintain or restore peace. Therefore, during the period of confrontation between the two systems, the UN Security Council did not endorse any decision on the establishment of the UN Armed Forces, which made it impossible for the Military Staff Committee to function in its role of a global strategic planning body. Numerous armed conflicts that arose during this period in various parts of the world, contrary to the UN Charter prohibiting states' use of force in resolving disputes, called on the UN to take measures to end conflicts that threatened peace and security of nations.

Therefore, the international community has chosen the way of establishing and operating within and under the UN command of peacekeeping forces, recognized as military contingents of UN member states, designated by the UN Charter to prevent or eliminate threats to peace and security through joint coercive action (military demonstration, blockade etc.), if measures of economic and political nature prove or have proved insufficient. They acted in areas of armed conflicts on the basis of various functional mandates issued by the UN Security Council in order to separate the military contingents of the warring parties and create favourable conditions for diplomatic measures aimed at ending those conflicts. The above UN practice, based on the decisions of the UN Security Council, is an important international experience in resolving modern armed conflicts of diverse nature. It gave a new meaning to the competence of the Security Council and the Secretary General, based on the powers of the United Nations. Since then, the activities of the Security Council and the UN Secretary General in this area have been called UN peacekeeping operations.

The dynamics of the international situation in the postwar world required the implementation of various peacekeeping tasks. For this purpose the following were created: the UN Emergency Force in Egypt (1965–1967), the UN Armed Forces in Congo (1960–1964) and Cyprus (since 1964), the UN Emergency Force in the Middle East (1973–1979), the UN Disengagement Observer Force (UNDOF) (Israel and Syria, since 1974), the United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon (since 1978), etc.

Since the 1990s UN peacekeeping operations have acquired new features. Thus, during the protracted armed conflict in the former Yugoslavia (1991), the Security Council significantly expanded the mandate of UN peacekeeping forces and gave them the right to use force on a large scale if necessary. Apart from this, it was the first time when, under the UN flag, military contingents of NATO member states composed into a special Task Force comprising air force units have been deployed to resolve a regional conflict.[4] After the end of the Cold War, more than 20 new operations were conducted, which led to an increase in the number of peacekeepers from 11,000 to 75,000. In particular, 'Blue helmets' were engaged in countries such as Angola, Cambodia, El Salvador, Mozambique and Namibia.

Significant innovations were also inherent in the decision of the UN Security Council. For example, in the situation concerning the 1990 Gulf crisis caused by Iraq's

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[4]   A. Kalyayev, L. Novak-Kalyayeva, T. Stukalin, V. Motornyy, L. Rudenko, *Imperatives of global governance in the field of military security: the European context and Ukraine* /Proceedings of the 38th International Business Information Management Association Conference (IBIMA) 23–24 November 2021, Sevilla, Spain, p. 1560–1569, ISSN: 2767-9640.

aggression against Kuwait, the UN Security Council described it as an act of aggression and ordered Iraq to end the occupation of Kuwait's territory immediately. Iraq's failure to comply with a legitimate demand from the international community led to the imposition by the UN Security Council of comprehensive economic sanctions against Iraq and gave NATO troops a mandate to conduct military operations in the region. The military contingents were given the authority to use all necessary means to restore peace and security in the Persian Gulf region that culminated in the liberation of Kuwait and the restoration of its sovereignty. The UN Security Council ordered Iraq, under UN supervision, to eliminate chemical and bacteriological weapons, missiles with a range of more than 150 km and equipment for their production.

The conflict in the former Yugoslavia led to NATO's unilateral action through peacekeeping operations, which were only ex post facto approved by the UN Security Council. After working together with the United Nations to achieve peace in Bosnia, NATO created its own Peace Implementation Force in 1995 and the Stabilization Force in 1996 in order to ensure peace and pave the way for reconstruction of Bosnia and stabilization in the Serbian province of Kosovo. The results of the Gulf War and the crises in Bosnia and Kosovo show that the system of collective global security has not yet received the necessary level of support among UN member states. The Security Council has failed to effectively apply the provisions of Chapter 7 of the UN Charter, especially those concerning its full responsibility for the creation and use of the UN Armed Forces to maintain or restore international peace (Encyclopaedia of Modern Ukraine). Peacekeepers failed in the former Yugoslavia, Rwanda and Somalia, where they did not manage to establish peace. The number of civilian casualties continued to rise and hostilities continued, damaging the UN's reputation for peacekeeping.

UN peacekeeping operations as a systemic phenomenon

At the beginning of the 21st century there was an increasing involvement of regional organizations in UN peacekeeping operations. According to the Research Center for International Cooperation (University of New York), 'blue helmets' are the basis of all peacekeeping operations in the world and constitute 48% of all peacekeeping forces whilst NATO, by this indicator, holds second place with 38%. S. Bah and B. Jones, the authors of the study 'Peace Partnerships. Lessons and tasks of coordination in hybrid activities.'[5] suggested the following classification of peacekeeping operations involving the UN and regional organizations:
- ▪ 'replacement operations' – peacekeepers of one organization replace peacekeepers of another. In East Timor, for example, at the beginning an international force with an Australian core was deployed which later was substituted by a UN force. In Liberia, the peacekeeping function was initially performed by

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[5]   A. Sarjoh Bah and Bruce D. Jones, *Peace Operations Partnerships: Lessons and Issues from Coordination to Hybrid Arrangements*, A. Sarjoh Bah and Bruce D. Jones; Center on international cooperation. http://www.cic.nyu.edu/internationalse-urity/docs/peace_hybrid.pdf, [access: 02.03.2022].

ECOWAS vanguard force representatives, and later the UN took over the ope-
ration. In the same way, NATO, UN and EU contingents gradually replaced
each other in the Balkans;

▪ 'parallel operations' – different structures operate simultaneously in the same
territory and their actions are not coordinated, for example, in Côte d'Ivoire
(UN and France), Congo (EU and UN), Kosovo (UN and NATO) and Afgha-
nistan (NATO, UN and US);

▪ 'integrated operations' – different peacekeepers have joint command, this is
one form that is rarely used.[6]

1. Studies of the effectiveness of security (peacekeeping) missions suggest that
not all of them are equally effective. Currently, such missions are classified
according to the type of mandate:

2. Monitoring missions – with a mandate to monitor the ceasefire, withdrawal
of troops, demilitarization and the situation on the demarcation line. They are
always deployed with the consent of the parties to the conflict.

3. Traditional missions – are also deployed by agreement of the parties, but with
an extended mandate, namely: police powers in the buffer zone and assistance
in negotiating a peace agreement.

4. Multidimensional missions, or so-called 'second generation operations',
– their mandates are determined by agreement of the parties and relate to the
roots of the conflict: economic reconstruction and institutional transformations
(reforms of the police, army, judiciary, elections).

5. Coercive missions, "third generation operations," – do not require the consent
of the parties to the conflict and are based on Articles 25, 42 and 43 of the
UN Charter on the Use of Force to Ensure Implementation of the Operation
Purpose.[7]

It should be noted that unarmed or lightly armed missions with limited mandates
have little effect on maintaining peace. In contrast, multidimensional missions or co-
ercive missions are significantly more effective for the process of peacekeeping. This
is particularly true of missions which operate while the conflict is still ongoing. The
limited mandate of unarmed or lightly armed missions not only does not contribute to
the peace process, but may even increase levels of aggression, for example, against
civilian populations.

Up to now, many operations have completed their mandates, including the UN
missions in the Central African Republic and Chad, in Congo, Burundi, Sierra Leone,
Ethiopia and Eritrea, Sudan and Côte d'Ivoire. Today, the United Nations is conducting

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6   O. Kovtun, *UN peacekeeping activities in the XXI century*. Current issues of international rela-
tions 2011, Vip. 96 (1), pp. 118–122, http://nbuv.gov.ua/UJRN/apmv_2011_96%281%29__20,
[access: 02.03.2022].
7   D. Gaidai, K. Zarembo, L. Litra, O. Lymar, J. Litvinenko, I. Medinsky, *Peacekeeping mission
in Donbass: what the world experience tells Ukraine. European truth*, March 18, 2016, https://
www.eurointegration.com.ua/articles/2016/03/18/7046393/, [access: 22.03.2022].

14 peacekeeping operations in Congo, the Central African Republic, Western Sahara, Syria, Cyprus, Lebanon, Kosovo, India and Pakistan, as well as in the Middle East. Modern multidimensional UN peacekeeping operations are expected to promote political processes, protect civilians, assist in disarmament, demobilization and reintegration of ex-combatants, assist in elections, protect human rights and restore the rule of law.

Recently, peacekeeping contingents have been reducing their numbers due to partial underfunding of missions. For example, in 2019 only 129 out of 193 countries met their financial obligations, and the United States is the largest debtor. The budget for UN peacekeeping missions is formed separately and in 2019 it amounted to 6.7 billion dollars, while in 2020 it was 6.5 billion dollars.

As of September 2019, the total number of personnel involved in contemporaneous UN operations was 84,382. There were 84392 military and police personnel, including servicemen (71,830), police (9,261), military observers (1,204) and staff officers (2,087). It should be noted that the civilian staff was 12,893, of which 4,500 were international staff and 8,393 local staff. So far, 122 countries have provided military and police personnel. 1,542 people have died in the ongoing peacekeeping missions. In total, since the beginning of the peacekeeping missions in 1948, the United Nations has conducted 71 peacekeeping operations.[8]

The UN peacekeeping forces tend to play an important role in resolving local conflicts on religious and ethnic grounds that threaten peace and integrity of states. The importance of the UN role in the settlement of non-international conflicts is growing, which represents a new direction in its activities. The UN peacemaking and peacekeeping mechanisms are now gaining in importance and obtaining new applications. However, many foreign experts are inclined to believe that international peacekeeping operations, despite changing some approaches, do not change their nature.[9] They remain an effective political tool for resolving military-political conflicts, which ensures solving a set of tasks that no single state can solve separately.

At the present stage, UN peacekeeping operations can be divided into two types: peacekeeping operations and peace enforcement operations.

The UN Armed Forces must be impartial while conducting peacekeeping operations that help to reduce conflicts and resolve and eliminate their consequences.

The objectives of peace support operations are: observation of the compliance with the terms of the armistice, ceasefire or hostilities; ensuring separation between the armed forces in conflict; assisting the legitimate government in preventing armed interference from outside or eliminating the consequences of such interference; prevention of further internationalization of the conflict; human rights monitoring; creation or restoration of infrastructure and assistance in providing humanitarian aid. About 40 peace support operations have been conducted during the UN's existence. These have required about 1 million military, police and civilian personnel from 68 countries.

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[8]   S. Bah, *Peace Operations Partnerships: Lessons and Issues from Coordination to Hybrid Arrangements*, A. Sarjoh Bah and Bruce D. Jones; Center on international cooperation, http://www.cic.nyu.edu/internationalse-urity/docs/peace_hybrid.pdf, [access: 02.03.2022].
[9]   O. Gogosha, *Evolution of UN peacekeeping activities at the turn of the XX-XXI centuries*, http://www.pdaa.com.ua/np/pdf5/1.pdf, [access: 02.03.2022].

The next type of UN peacekeeping operations, peace enforcement operations, are combat operations by UN forces made up of contingents provided by member states. Coercion is permissible both to counteract armed aggression and to enforce implementation of Security Council decisions in critical cases, which is by no means equivalent to resolving conflicts and assisting in reaching agreements between the parties in conflict. Coercive peace operations, which are military in nature, are a 'last resort'. The basis for the use of force is the escalation of civil and interstate conflicts, ethnic and religious violence which affects countries from within. The main task of such operations is to stop the bloodshed in the event of aggression, to create conditions for peace talks or to end the genocide of civilians. In modern scientific literature on peacekeeping issues such operations are called 'humanitarian intervention'.[10]

Challenges that negatively affect the effectiveness, efficiency and success of peacekeeping operations

Over the past two decades the UN peacekeeping forces have worked effectively to establish peace and resolve conflicts in many parts of the world. Thanks to their operations, the UN was able to transform 4–5 major conflicts into minor ones. The UN operations have helped thousands of refugees (Hegre et al., 2018), they also prevented outbreaks or recurrence of conflicts.[11] Over and above, they help to end fighting or reduce the intensity of violence in conflicts.[12] They have been effective in ceasing combat between hostile parties, decreasing violence through geographical deterrence, reducing the duration of conflict at the local level and also successful in combating violence against civilians. Peacekeeping operations have also helped limit the spatial and temporal threat of conflict and effectively reduced the probability of conflict in neighbouring areas. Hegre also accentuates that although UN peacekeeping policy was effective, the UN could have performed much better if it had been willing to spend more on peacekeeping by expanding mandates of peacekeeping missions.[13]

At the same time, the UN faces challenges that negatively affect the effectiveness, efficiency and success of its peacekeeping operations. Thus, the shortcomings and problems of the political, military and humanitarian aspects of the operations have negatively affected peacekeeping operations in order to successfully achieve their goals. Political instability of the post-conflict situation, the political will of the host country

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[10]   Ya.M. Lysak, *International legal bases of application of units of the Armed Forces of Ukraine abroad and problems of their implementation on the example of peacekeeping operations in Yugoslavia and Iraq*. Legal Bulletin 2014, № 2 (31), pp. 46–50.

[11]   H. Hegre, L. Hultman & H.M. Nygard, *Evaluating the conflict-reducing effect of UN peacekeeping operations*, 2018, https://www.pcr.uu.se/digitalAssets/653/c_653796-l_1-k_pko_prediction_preprint_main.pdf, [access: 02.03.2022].

[12]   K. Beardsley & K.S. Gleditsch, *Peacekeeping as conflict containment*, "International Studies Review" 2015, №17(1), p. 67–89.

[13]   H. Hegre, L. Hultman & H.M. Nygard, *Evaluating the conflict-reducing effect of UN peacekeeping operations*, 2018, https://www.pcr.uu.se/digitalAssets/653/c_653796-l_1-k_pko_prediction_preprint_main.pdf, [access: 02.03.2022].

and the significant financial and logistical support of the UN agencies are among the important factors undermining the smooth functioning of peacekeeping. Political and financial support of the superpowers and members of the UN Council is another issue that truly challenges peacekeeping. Without the political support of the five permanent members of the Security Council and, in particular, the logistical, financial and political support of the United States, no operation has been successfully completed. At the same time, the political commitment of the host country is also very much needed in a peacekeeping operation. Military issues also complicate UN peacekeeping operations. Military personnel and their behaviour in peacekeeping operations affect the outcome of operations.

The inadequate size of peacekeeping forces is a major military issue of UN peacekeeping operations. In addition, peacekeepers simply monitor the implementation of the ceasefire and ceasefire agreements and do not have the authority to open fire. They cannot stop genocide or human rights violations.

The internal coordination of multinational force operations leads to many communication and logistics problems. Lack of cultural understanding of local conditions, combined with an ineffective mission, undermines efforts of local police and other services to restore the rule of law. Low police standards of the international contingent can have a devastating effect on peace operations. According to J. Hansen, 'perhaps the most serious consequence is the loss of faith, respect and trust among indigenous police and population.'[14] Illegal actions, human rights violation and abuses of force are also issues that challenge UN peacekeeping operations. Some peacekeeping contingents were guilty of gross misconduct, such as abuse of locals, drug use and arms and human trafficking, etc. Inefficiency and corruption also affect the credibility of UN peacekeeping operations.

The UN's structural weakness is another important issue in maintaining peace. The UN weakness in integrated planning mechanisms, outdated procurement procedures, funding crises, and shortages of personnel, specialized units and technologies as well as shortcomings in logistics and transport have all contributed to the development of critical situations in UN peacekeeping operations, especially in operations involving disarmament and demobilization of local troops. The distribution of aid is also complicated due to the lack of assistance and problem coordination of UN peacekeeping forces.[15] In a protracted civil war, it is very difficult for peacekeepers to carry out humanitarian tasks. The seizure of humanitarian and medical supplies, kidnapping, hostage-taking and killing of workers are among the major challenges peacekeepers face.

Maintaining peace is a risky endeavour. Thus, between 1948 and 2017 more than 3,500 employees of peacekeeping contingents lost their lives in UN peacekeeping operations. Fatalities are high because the UN and its Member States cannot adopt and take the necessary measures that would allow for safe work in hazardous

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[14]   J. Hunsen, *The Future of Reserve Currencies*, University of Bath 2017, https://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/fandd/2009/09/pdf/cohen.pdf, [access: 02.03.2022].

[15]   A. Morrison, S. Cumner, H. Park & K.A. Zoe, *Peacekeeping*. [In:] *Encyclopedia of violence, peace, and conflict*, L. Kurtz (ed.). London: Academic Press 1999. pp. 735–753, [access: 02.03.2022].

environments. As S. Cruz noted, if the UN and the troops or police of the country where the conflict takes place do not take responsibility for the deaths of peacekeeping personnel, this trend will constantly compromise the mandate of the UN peacekeeping operation.[16]

Tendencies in further development of UN peacekeeping activities

Tendencies in the development of UN peacekeeping activities are quite controversial. On the one hand, the new environment provides more opportunities to stop and resolve conflicts at all stages of their development, and the range of tools for this is significantly expanded. However, some points are alarming:
- lack of a detailed international legal framework;
- inability to find consensus on the basic principles of peacekeeping;
- regulatory gaps in the relationship between the UN and regional organizations. Further development of the institutional system for the implementation of planned peacekeeping initiatives is still one of the urgent issues of reforming UN peacekeeping activities,. In particular, at the beginning of the century new institutions began their work, namely: the Department of Peace Support Operations, the Department of Field Support (the decision to establish a field support department was made in 2007), the Peacebuilding Commission (established in 2006) – an intergovernmental advisory body (coordinates actions, including those of relevant parties, donors, international financial institutions, national governments and troop-contributing states; mobilizes resources; proposes comprehensive post--conflict peacebuilding and reconstruction strategies), the Peacebuilding Fund, and the Office for Peacebuilding Support (should coordinate the UN agencies' efforts), headed by the UN Secretary-General for Peacebuilding Assistant.[17]

In the 21st century the following documents have been adopted: Resolution of the Security Council on Acts of Sexual Violence against Civilians in Armed Conflicts (2008), "General Doctrine" of the PSO ('United Nations Peacekeeping Operations: Principles and Guidelines' or Capstone Doctrine, 2008) – an attempt to codify the existing experience of PSO, developed by the Department of Peacekeeping Operations in close cooperation with the Department of Field Support, Member States and UN agencies, in connection with the need to articulate the doctrinal principles of the PSO given the changes in the current system of international relations, although it is an internal UN publication; UN Security Council Resolution 1674 on the Protection

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[16] V.G. Zgurovets, L.V. Safoshkina, V.V. Kalachova, *Prospects of peacekeeping activity of Ukraine and ways to improve the mechanism of legal regulation of participation of the Armed Forces of Ukraine in peacekeeping operations*, "Honor and law" 2020, № 1 (72) / 2020, pp. 40–44, http://chiz.nangu.edu.ua/issue/view/12267/6329, [access: 02.03.2022].

[17] V. Filipchuk, *Preventive diplomacy, peacekeeping, peace support and peacebuilding in the settlement of the Ukrainian conflict*, Kyiv 2016, 44 p., http://www.icps.com.ua//eu/.pdf, [access: 02.03.2022].

of Civilians in armed conflict (2006); UN Security Council Resolution 1612 on Children and armed conflict (2005); adopted due to the fact that in the 1990s up to 2 million children died and 6 million were injured in armed conflicts; UN Security Council Resolution 1325 'Women, Peace and Security' (2000), as well as the UN Security Council's mandates for the PSO's conduct, which expand and clarify the tasks and functions of peacekeeping contingents and personnel in the event of a case-by-case settlement. It is the bedrock for the development, in particular, of the Directives on the Use of Force for the Police Component and the Rules of Engagement for the Military Component.[18]

Thus, the existing peacekeeping experience objectively determines the need to reform the organization in the field, which is a priority in accordance with the principles and objectives defined in the UN Charter. The implementation of this reform should occur in several dimensions: institutional, conceptual and operational. Standardization and automation of existing operational procedures and the development and regulation of work on new peacekeeping mechanisms will increase the effectiveness of peacekeeping efforts of the organization.[19]

Conclusions

One of the main problems in UN peacekeeping operations is the non-existence of a permanent UN peacekeeping force. In our opinion, in view of the escalation of conflicts and their changing nature, a special UN peacekeeping force should be formed on a permanent basis, with a suitably trained contingent of troops, civilian personnel and other resources.

The conceptual restructuring of UN peacekeeping activities should also focus on the above in advance. The mandate of peacekeeping missions or operations must also have a clear and achievable mission, which must include strategies for achieving sustainable peace. It is also necessary to find an integrated and complex approach which emphasizes the importance of partnership and political cooperation with regional and subregional organizations to support UN peacekeeping operations. This approach will strengthen the coherence between political, military and humanitarian activities related to UN peacekeeping activities in the future.

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[18] UN Security Council Resolutions (1992 p.), http:// www.un.org/ru/sc/documents/resolutions/.
[19] O. Kovtun, *UN peacekeeping activities in the XXI century*, "Current issues of international relations" 2011, Vip. 96 (1), pp. 118–122, http://nbuv.gov.ua/UJRN/apmv_2011_96%281%29__20, [access: 02.03.2022].

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Summary

UN peacekeeping is considered a priority given the principles and objectives set out in its Charter. UN peacekeeping operations, which are generally intended to ensure the maintenance and enforcement of peace, have become an integral part of the military-political capacity to maintain peace and stability in global governance structures. Despite negative assessments of some peacekeeping practices in the second half of the 20th century, no other way to improve the latter has yet been found. Changes in the nature of armed conflict at the beginning of the 21st century affect the activities of peacekeeping contingents, in terms of strengthening requirements and expanding their tasks. The generalization of peacekeeping experience objectively confirms the need for its reform in institutional, conceptual and operational dimensions. Standardization and technology of existing procedures, development and regulation of innovative legal mechanisms of UN peacekeeping activities will contribute to increasing effectiveness in the implementation of modern strategies for achieving lasting peace.

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COMPONENTS OF MILITARY ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE INFLUENCING INDIVIDUAL PERFORMANCE IN THE TRAINING PROCESS

KOMPONENTY WOJSKOWEJ KULTURY ORGANIZACYJNEJ WPŁYWAJĄCE NA WYNIKI INDYWIDUALNE W PROCESIE SZKOLENIA

Abstract: The article presents the impact of military organizational culture on the individual performance of learners. Its aim is to identify some components of military organizational culture that influence individual performance in the training process, which is especially related to motivation for training and military activity. Specific subjects of empirical research are trainees in the Military Science professional field, specialising in Organisation and Management of Military Units at a Tactical Level at the National Military University in Bulgaria.

Zarys treści: W artykule przedstawiono wpływ wojskowej kultury organizacyjnej na indywidualne wyniki uczniów. Przedmiotem artykułu jest identyfikacja niektórych elementów wojskowej kultury organizacyjnej, które wpływają na indywidualne wyniki w procesie szkolenia, co jest szczególnie związane z motywacją do szkolenia i działalności wojskowej. Szczególnym przedmiotem badań empirycznych są stażyści w dziedzinie nauk wojskowych, specjalizujący się w organizacji i zarządzaniu jednostkami wojskowymi na poziomie taktycznym w Narodowym Uniwersytecie Wojskowym w Bułgarii.

Key words: military organizational culture, individual performance, cadets
Słowa kluczowe: wojskowa kultura organizacyjna, wyniki indywidualne, kadeci, studenci cywilni

Introduction

The article constitutes a small part of a larger study, carried out by the author in the period 2012–2019, relating to motivational salience and satisfaction with training in the field of security and defence, following the example of higher education

institutions in Europe. The study was supported by 19 educational institutions in the field of security and defence in Europe. The larger study in its entirety has not been the subject of publication so far, as only individual elements have been presented. Therefore, we hope that interest will be aroused in scientific audiences. The office of the rector of the Vasil Levski National Military University has received letters of recommendation, highly appreciating the scientific achievements, teaching practice, academicism, publishing activity and work presented by Associate Professor Elitsa Petrova on motivational expression and satisfaction in education, following the example of higher education institutions in Europe in the field of security and defence, on the behalf of:

1. Brigadier General Tsvetan Harizanov, Bulgaria.
2. Major General Vasile Roman, Romania.
3. Coordinator of the Distance Learning NATO portal – Prof. Piotr Gawlicek, PhD.
4. Director of the Centre for Security and Military Strategic Studies, University of Defence, Czech Republic, Brno – Associate Professor Josef Prohazka, PhD.
5. University of Manchester, United Kingdom – Professor Leonidas Koutsoregas.
6. Military Technical University, Warsaw, Poland – from the whole academic community, signed by Colonel Marius Gontarchik, PhD.
7. Military Technical University, Warsaw, Poland – Associate Professor Dr. Bogdan Cwik, Head of the Department of Economic and Social Sciences.
8. Military Technical University, Warsaw, Poland – Katarzyna Swierszcs, PhD from the Institute of Security and Defence, Faculty of Logistics.
9. Academy of Public Security, Lithuania – Vice Dean for Academic and Scientific Affairs – Associate Professor Aurelia Puraite, PhD.
10. University of Chechanow, Poland – Head of the Department of Internal Security – Associate Professor Rafal Panfil, PhD.
11. Spiru Haret University, Bucharest, Romania – Professor Roxana Stefanescu, PhD.
12. Colonel, Professor Dumitru Iancu, PhD – Vice dean for Scientific Research, Faculty of Military Management, "Nicolae Balcescu" Land Forces Academy.
13. University of Defence, Czech Republic, Brno – Colonel David Ullrich, PhD.
14. Associate Professor Lubomir Belan, PhD – Chief of the Department of Logistics, Armed Forces Academy in L. Mikuláš, Slovakia.
15. Associate Professor Nikorowicz-Zatorska, PhD – Polish Air Defence Academy, Poland, Faculty of National Security and Logistics.

The formation of organizational culture is a consequence of the creation of a common human, national and individual culture. Hofstede defined several dimensions of culture that characterize the impact of national cultures. The dimensions are: ranging distance – the extent to which society expects and accepts differences in levels of power, avoiding uncertainty – this dimension reflects the extent to which society accepts or does not accept uncertainty and risk, individualism vs. collectivism, masculinity

vs. femininity as traditionally men consider competitiveness, self-confidence, autonomy, dominance, ambition, accumulation of wealth and material benefits as priorities in their work and personal life, and women's priorities are security, the creation of sustainable relationships, communication, family and love.[1]

Johnson's cultural web is probably the most well-known and used concept of organizational culture. It defines the elements that include organizational culture. These are: norms; rituals and practices; symbols; stories, myths, and legends; power structures; organizational structures and control systems.[2] Norms are the required way in which members of the organization relate to one another. Rituals are all those activities that indicate the organizational values and point out acceptable behaviour as kinds of celebrations, training programmes, rituals for transfer of workers from one job to another, rituals of employee achievements recognition, rituals of social structures improvement, conflict resolution and dispute resolution rituals, rituals for integration between members of the organization, etc. The logo of the organization, signs with the names of people and departments, parking spaces, etc. are one of the many symbols that organizations have. The stories that members of the organization tell each other are important sources of information about what is valued, how to succeed and how to punish mistakes. Often, legends about successful people and the path of their professional growth give additional motivation to the staff. Structures of authority, organizational structures and control systems are also included as elements of the cultural web. The combination of all these elements forms the paradigm of the organization, which can be defined as its character or its way of behaving, its perceptions of the surrounding world and its perceptions of itself.

Various components of military organizational culture are subject to scientific research. Atanasova-Krasteva and Ştefănescu look at change-oriented leadership,[3] the importance of power and the key presence in leadership,[4] as well as building leadership[5] and establishing leadership.[6] Doncheva writes on a new way of thinking about training and educating trainees[7] while Stoyanova focuses on managing groups[8] and working with specific groups, including those at risk.[9] Sotirov and Stoyanov

[1]   G. Hofstede, *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work Related Values*, Beverly Hills, CA, Sage Publications 1980.
[2]   G. Johnson, *Rethinking Incrementalism*, "Strategic Management Journal" 1988, Vol. 9, p. 75–91.
[3]   R. Ştefănescu, *Change oriented leadership*, "Revew of General Management" 2008, issue no. 1, edited by Spiru Haret University, Faculty of Management, Brasov, Romania, ISSN 1841-818X.
[4]   R. Ştefănescu, *Power and its key role in leadership*, "Metalurgia International Review" 2010, special issue no 4, Scientifing Editing house F.M.R., Bucharest, Romania, ISSN 1582-2214.
[5]   N. Atanasova-Krasteva, *Some Theories and Views on Leadership*, "Annual University Conference National Military University" 2011, Publishing complex of Vasil Levski National Military University, Veliko Tarnovo.
[6]   N. Atanasova-Krasteva, *Leadership Establishment of Cadets*, "Publishing complex of Vasil Levski National Military University", Veliko Tarnovo 2012.
[7]   J. Doncheva, *Principles of training in line with the new thinking and action*, SEA – Conf., 3 International Conference, Naval Academy, Constanta 2017, No 3, pp. 74, ISSN 2457-144X.
[8]   S. Stoyanova, *Group Management*, University Publishing House St. Cyril and Methodius, VT, 2013.
[9]   S. Stoyanova, *Groups – Dynamics and Risks*, Publisher: A & B, VT, 2013.

examine the National Military University's methodology for the quality of education in different specialities,[10] which is directly related to the impact of military organizational culture on learners. Świerszcz[11] and Ćwik examine national security in modern times in terms of subjective-axiological challenges and build the concept of the model of security threats in logistics systems.[12] Stoykov and Marinov's approach to training and education in the sphere of security and defence[13] as well as a number of Stoykov's important developments in the field of security and defence[14] are also of major scientific interest. Manolov works on the issues of training and education in a military environment, and discusses the topics of pedagogical practices, combined with the topics of curricula and possibilities of the situational approach in training in security Logistics.[15] At the same time, we cannot ignore the adequacy of the statistical processing of information, which is extremely important for the conduct of each experiment and the specific processing of the data to obtain accurate results. For this purpose, we have studied and used the Lectures on Statistical Methods in Psychology[16] and Statistical Methods in Psychology[17] by Tsvetkov, which we recommend in the processing of data from social, economic, and psychological research.

Military organizational culture and its influence on individual performances of trainees at the Vasil Levski National Military University

The paper examines the impact of military organizational culture on the individual performance of learners as a very important part of the above mentioned research work. The aim of the paper is to identify some components of military organizational culture that influence individual performance in the training process, which is

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[10] D. Sotirov, Y. Stoyanov, *A Methodology for Evaluation of the Quality of Education in the Specialities at the Vasil Levski National Military University*, Scientific Papers from the Scientific Conference at the Vasil Levski National Military University – The Bulgarian Way to NATO – Perspectives and Challenges 2003, vol. II, p.156–165, Publishing complex of Vasil Levski National Military University, VT, ISSN 0861-0312.

[11] K. Świerszcz, *Bezpieczeństwo państwa w czasach współczesnych w ujęciu podmiotowo-aksjologicznych wyzwań*, "Przegląd Nauk o Obronności" 2016, WAT, nr 1–2, s. 65–82.

[12] B. Ćwik, *The Concept of Threat Model in the Aspect of Safety in Logistic Systems*, "Systemy Logistyczne Wojsk" 2017, nr 47, Wydawnictwo WAT, p. 44–58.

[13] S. Stoykov, R. Marinov, *A comprehensive approach to education and management in the system of security*, International conference Knowledge-based organization-Land Forces Academy, 'Nicolae Balcescu', Volume 24: Issue 1, pp. 329–334, Sibiu-Romania 2018, ISSN 1843-682X.

[14] S. Stoykov, *Scientific knowledge – source of a competitive advantage in security*, International conference on High Technology for Sustainable Development HiTECH 2018, ISBN: 978-1-5386-7039-2.

[15] D. Manolov, *Possibilities of the situational approach in the training in security logistics*, Conference proceedings of the Annual University Scientific Conference of the Vasil Levski National Military University, Veliko Tarnovo 2016.

[16] D. Tsvetkov, *Lectures on Statistical Methods in Psychology*, IVIS 2015, Veliko Tarnovo, ISBN 978-619-205-003-0.

[17] D. Tsvetkov, *Statistical Methods in Psychology*, "Collection of Reports – May Readings", Publisher: Union of Bulgarian Scientists, Veliko Tarnovo 2008.

especially related to the motivation for training and military activity. Specific subjects of empirical research are trainees in the Military Science professional field, specialising in Organisation and Management of Military Units at a Tactical Level at the National Military University in Bulgaria. On the basis of permission from the rector of the Vasil Levski National Military University, Bulgaria, in 2012 a study on the motivational expression in the training process and its relation with the satisfaction of the subjects from the National Military University was carried out. Students and cadets in their first year of training are included as control groups for comparison. The study goes through several phases – diagnostic, basic and final. This paper presents some parts of the research conducted in the basic stage.

During the basic stage of the study the following were examined:

– Basic groups – cadets who graduated in the academic years 2013/2014, 2014/2015, 2015/2016, and 2016/2017 – a total 155 respondents. In the academic year 2013/2014 the general population consisted of 60 people, of whom 53 people took part in the study. In the academic year 2014/2015, the general population was 39 people, of whom 33 were surveyed. In the 2015/2016 academic year, the general population was 46 people, of whom 38 were surveyed. In the academic year 2016/2017, the general population was 35 people, of whom 31 were involved in the study.

– Control group for comparison included first-year cadets who started their training in 2013/2014 – 77 respondents.

– Control group for comparison included first-year civilian students who started their training in 2013/2014 – 88 respondents.

Fig. 1. How does the military organizational culture, including values, norms, symbols, rules, and traditions affect your individual performance? Alumni 2013/2014 academic year
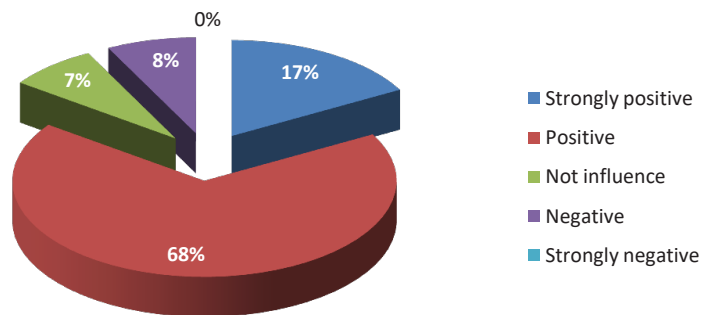
Source: own study.

Fig. 2. How does the military organizational culture, including values, norms, symbols, rules and traditions affect your individual performance? Alumni 2014/2015 academic year
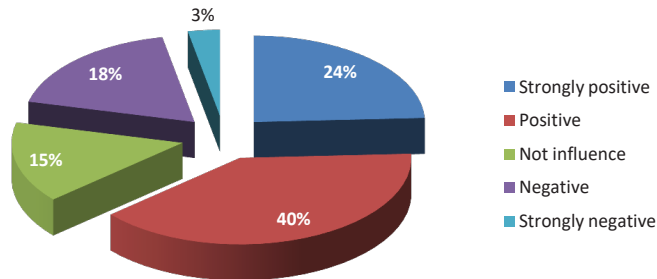
Source: own study.

The distribution from 2013/2014 academic year shows that a significant number of the trainees consider that the military organizational culture has a positive impact on their individual performance in the process of training at the university as 17% of respondents believe that military organizational culture has a strong positive impact on individual performance and 68% of respondents reported that the military organizational culture has a positive influence (Fig. 1).

The distribution from 2014/2015 academic year shows that a significant number of the trainees consider that the military organizational culture has a positive impact on their individual performance in the process of training at the university as 24% of respondents believe that military organizational culture has a strong positive impact on individual performance and 40% of respondents reported that the military organizational culture has a positive influence (Fig. 2).

The distribution from 2015/2016 academic year shows that a significant number of the trainees consider that the military organizational culture has a positive impact on their individual performance in the process of training at the university as 3% of respondents consider that the military organizational culture has a strong positive impact on individual performance, and 74% reported that the military organizational culture has a positive influence (Fig. 3).

The distribution from 2016/2017 academic year shows some differences as 16% of respondents believe that military organizational culture has a strong positive impact on individual performance and 29% of learners reported that the military organizational culture has a positive effect. (Fig. 4) Most 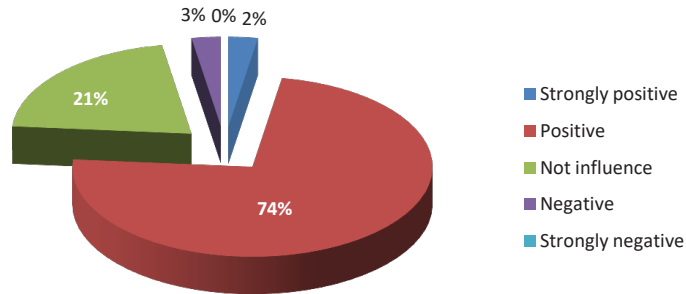of the results categorically indicate that military organizational culture has a positive impact on the individual performance of learners in the learning process.

Fig. 3. How does the military organizational culture, including values, norms, symbols, rules and traditions affect your individual performance? Alumni 2015/2016 academic year

Source: own study.

Fig. 4. How does the military organizational culture, including values, norms, symbols, rules and traditions affect your individual performance? Alumni 2016/2017 academic year
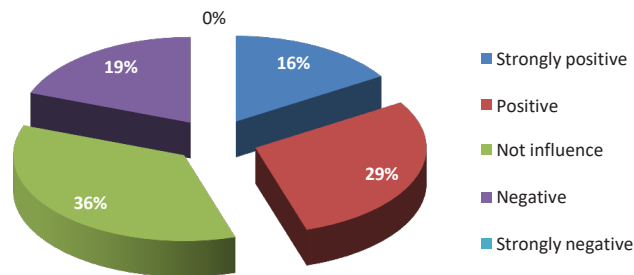
Source: own study.

Conclusions

The mission of the Vasil Levski National Military University, Bulgaria is to build its students morally, mentally and physically, to inculcate the ideals of patriotism, duty and honour, to form them as individual military and civilian leaders capable of developing and applying scientific knowledge, to prepare them to manage public and special structures in peacetime and crises, to participate in national and multinational projects, to maintain security and peacekeeping and community development. The core values and virtues, adopted by the Vasil Levski National Military University, which are the basis of its organizational culture, and which are respected by all the trainee students and the whole academic, command and administrative staff are: duty towards the fatherland, national feeling and national pride, courage, patience, self--control, initiative, honour, dignity, fellowship, love and devotion to the state and nation, respect to laws, faith, leadership, transparency in work, criticism and self--criticism, labour and continuous improvement in performance.

In pursuance of its mission, the university has built up a highly positive military organizational culture that is considered to have a positive impact on the individual performance of learners in the learning process and which is considered positive by the trainees, both students and cadets. We believe that in this way the university is an example of good practice in the field of military training and education, as evidenced by the conducted research. However, there are always problems that we will seek to solve, and we should pay attention to new achievements and new methods in improving our performance.

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Summary

The article describes the influence of military organizational culture on individual student performance. The subject of the article is the identification of some elements of military organizational culture that affect individual performance in the training process, which is particularly related to the motivation for training and military activities. A special subject of empirical research are trainees in the field of military science, specializing in the organization and management of military units at the tactical level at the National Military University of Bulgaria.

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GIS INFORMATION IN THE STAGES OF A CRISIS EVENT IN THE COASTAL AREAS OF ROWY, USTKA AND DARŁOWO

INFORMACJA GIS W ETAPACH ZDARZENIA KRYZYSOWEGO W STREFIE PRZYBRZEŻNEJ MIEJSCOWOŚCI ROWY, USTKA I DARŁOWO

Abstract: The article is a presentation of adverse events that may occur during storms as they relate to noticeable climate change. In recent years there has been a constant increase in sea water levels and therefore forecasts and analyses for the coastal area should be made. The focus is on presenting methods for forecasting and mitigating impacts. The possibility of using a geographic information system is described, with particular emphasis on the situation of extreme weather phenomena – storms, in the coastal areas of Rowy, Ustka and Darłowo.

Zarys treści: Artykuł stanowi prezentację niekorzystnych zjawisk, jakie mogą wystąpić podczas burzy w związku z zauważalnymi zmianami klimatu. W ostatnich latach obserwuje się stały wzrost poziomu wód morskich, dlatego należy sporządzać prognozy i analizy dla obszaru przybrzeżnego. Nacisk położono na przedstawienie metod prognozowania i łagodzenia skutków. Opisano możliwość korzystania z systemu informacji geograficznej, ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem sytuacji ekstremalnych zjawisk pogodowych – sztormów – na obszarach przybrzeżnych Rowów, Ustki i Darłowa.

Keywords: GIS information, crisis event, security
Słowa kluczowe: informacja GIS, zdarzenie kryzysowe, bezpieczeństwo

Use of GIS and information contained in the phases of crisis management

The 21st century has been characterized by great technological development and the introduction of many improvements and solutions affecting the lives of everybody. The process of technological dissemination is related to the growing demand for

current and up-to-date information because today information has become a strategic resource.

New technological solutions have improved many decision-making activities and processes, both for individuals and for services and government. It has improved the work of dozens of areas of the state economy, making decision cycles in many sectors dependent on the use of information processing systems.

With the help of software and computer hardware, it has become possible to store, process and analyze the acquired data, both spatial (relating to location) and descriptive (representing exact characteristics).

The effectiveness of state crisis management depends mainly on the correct circulation of information both within and outside the country. This suggests that crisis management systems must be based on recognised international standards. In Poland, so far, the circulation of security-relevant information takes place through web applications or websites developed independently by various commercial companies, organizations and institutions. Due to the use of specific technologies, it is difficult to create a single information infrastructure from these solutions. As a result, solutions from different suppliers cannot, in most cases, cooperate or exchange information with each other.

The methods and forms of obtaining information affect the quality of currently stored files and data necessary for analysis based on GIS applications. Many methods of data acquisition are known, but the safe collection of information is possible only through databases and local servers which are made available to the public and which are protected by security systems.

Several forms of information acquisition have been identified, but the most common one has been digitization, which consists of scanning space and terrain and presenting data on a computer screen. Another method is photogrammetry, which allows instant collection of information.

One of the main systems responsible for data storage and analysis is the Geographical Information System (GIS).[1] This system, through an interactive presentation of data in the form of a digital map, allows tracking of evolving events and processes occurring in the environment and at the same time influences the key decision making at the time of the threat. Hence, it has become crucial to provide information about space and ways to use resources for administrative purposes and there has been a great increase in interest in GIS systems in the areas of public security and crisis management.

The key element in building GIS systems are people who, having analytical skills, use the capabilities of systems to carry out data analysis based on which they provide the information needed to make the right decisions, which improves the operation of emergency services at the scene. Thanks to the very wide range of analytical and visualisation capabilities, GIS systems have found wide application in crisis management systems, which has an impact on improving the security and efficiency of the system in crisis situations. This is because spatial information technology enables constant and rapid access to information and contributes to tasks such as:

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[1]   https://www.esri.pl/co-to-jest-gis/ [access: 04.12.2020].

- deployment of a network of preventive and patrol units;
- the location of individual facilities and resources held by the security services;
- creating maps with accurate data on crisis events;
- reducing time and improving activities by organizing smooth transit of preventive services to the scene of the event;
- analysis of the likelihood of a hazard occurring;
- statistical interpretation of existing dependencies, through the use of digital maps with access to multiple thematic layers;
- investigating the causes and correlations of dangerous events and alerting the population to such events;
- creating schemes and their constant analysis in terms of the behaviour of specific security actors;
- planning of rescue operations and verification of the decisions taken;
- work on information and the ability to encrypt sensitive data;
- monitoring the risks that may occur, but also identifying vulnerabilities and future hazards;
- the creation of geoportals that have an impact on security building;
- design and work with layered configurations.

Spatial analyses are procedures and operations performed on data sets such as satellite and aerial imagery, point clouds from laser scanning, or data obtained from field measurements. They are at the heart of spatial information systems because they allow data to be converted into useful information that allows patterns, trends or anomalies to be found.

As a result of spatial analysis, the obtained spatial information may take various forms, such as: raster maps, vector datasets or tabular statements. This information is often used in crisis management as a tool to support decision-making. Depending on the crisis management phase and the available spatial data, appropriate spatial analyses are performed to provide the spatial information sought.

The following is an example of an analysis carried out for the purposes of crisis management depending on the type of the crisis event, in this case a storm and its effects in the form of flooding occurring as a result of the so-called retreat at the mouth of rivers.

During the response phase,[2] at the time of the arrival of submersible waves, up-to-date images are compiled with archival images to determine the actual extent of the floods. This information, combined with a terrain sculpture model, enables determination of how deep the water is in different parts of an area. With continuously supplied satellite (optical and radar) data, aerial imagery or drone data, the up to date situation in flooded areas can be monitored. Radar images, which accurately depict the surface of the earth regardless of the time of day, weather and height above sea level, are extremely useful for detecting flooding.

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[2]   W. Molek, K. Stec, R. Marciniak, *Zarządzanie kryzysowe w systemie kierowania bezpieczeństwem narodowym*, "Pozamilitarne Aspekty Bezpieczeństwa" 2011, t. IV, Wrocław, s. 45.

During the reconstruction phase,[3] spatial analyses are carried out which provide information on the areas affected by the floods and the extent of losses. Thanks to satellite (or aerospace) data and a hydrological model, spatial analyses are performed indicating drain-free spaces and the optimal location of high-efficiency pumps for water pumping after flooding.

Use of Geographic Information Systems in selected crisis events

Based on information from NASA scientists, global warming is accelerating and will continue to accelerate if greenhouse gas emissions into the atmosphere are not reduced. The consequence of this is already seen in sea level rise, which will be catastrophic if the ice sheets of Greenland and Antarctica melt. Higher sea levels have already caused increased coastal erosion and frequent flooding of coastal towns during periods of increased storms (Poland – spring and autumn-winter period).

Fig. 1. Sea level change in years
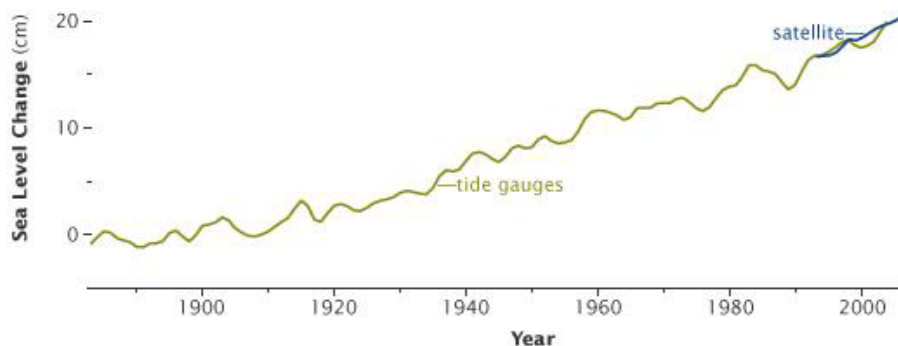
Source: https://earthobservatory.nasa.gov/features/GlobalWarming/page6.php, [access date: 04.12.2020].

The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC)[4] estimates that sea levels will rise by 0.18 to 0.59 m by 2099. Referring to this data and adopting the highest sea level rise value, i.e. approximately 0.6 m, it is possible to estimate areas exposed to irreversible flooding on the basis of GIS systems, which are systems supporting decision-making in crisis management. One such system is the Operational Graphics Package (PGO) on which this analysis was conducted.

However, the conditions determining the flood plains involve a certain measurement error, due to the level of accuracy of the vertical altitude measurements adopted

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[3]   K. Włodarczyk, *Oprogramowanie wspomagające zarządzanie kryzysowe na szczeblu lokalnym*, Zeszyty Naukowe Politechniki Śląskiej, Gliwice 2011, s. 5.

[4]   *Special Report Climate Change and Land*, An IPCC Special Report on climate change, desertification, land degradation, sustainable land management, food security, and greenhouse gas fluxes in terrestrial ecosystems, IPCC 2020, p. 58–68.

in the above-named program, of 1 m. In spite of this, the program allows an approximate illustration of the effects of crisis events, which will be irreversible flooding in the coastal zones in the selected areas in the future, in this case Rowy, Ustka and Darłowo.

The results are presented in Fig. 2.

Fig. 2. Flooding in Ustka, Darlowo and Rowy in the event of a sea level rise of 1 m (simulation based on PGO 2014 program)
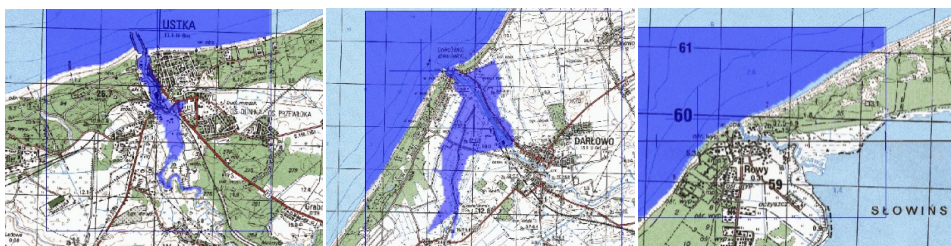
Source: self-analysis based on Operational Graphics Package 2014.

Using the data received, i.e. floodplains, further analyses can be made related to the development of a population evacuation plan or facilities to ensure the functioning of local communities based on another GIS system supporting crisis management, which can be the Arc GIS application.

An example of analysis, based on the use of Arc GIS, of the occurrence of flooding in Darłowo-Darłówko is shown in Fig. 3.

Fig. 3. Isolated flood zone with a sea level rise of 1 m
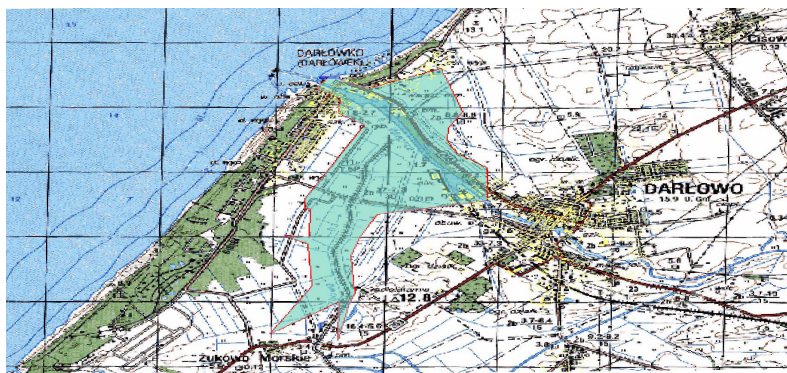
Source: own study based on Arc GIS.

Analysis of flood zones in PGO 2014 made it possible to use the data, from which the layer was created, to perform an analysis isolating objects completely inside the source layer, i.e. the flood zone. As a result, 223 objects located within the border of

the towns of Darłowo and Darłówko were identified which, in the future, will be exposed to flooding, Fig. 3.

Fig. 4. Darłowo. Extracted objects in the flood zone
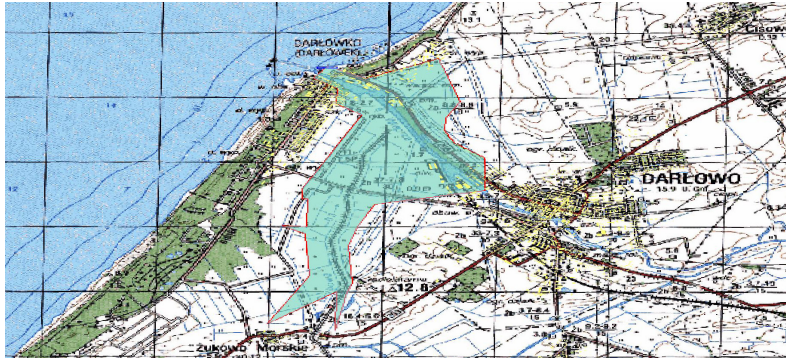
Source: own study based on Arc GIS.

Based on this data analysis and using the information contained in the object attribute tables, it is possible to plan well in advance projects related to the evacuation of people, animals and property from areas at risk of flooding, as well as the relocation of facilities belonging to critical infrastructure ensuring the functioning of local communities. This is the future.

Today coastal areas are struggling with storms of great force which destroy not only coastal cliffs but also flood urban areas and destroy beaches and coastal defences.

Fig. 5. Destroyed bike path in Kołobrzeg after a storm

Source: https://tvn24.pl/tvnmeteo/informacje-pogoda/polska,28/sztorm-rozprul-morski--brzeg,18372,1,1.html?p=meteo, [access: 04.12.2020].

Strong winds occurring in the Baltic Sea, especially in the spring and autumn - winter periods, cause higher water levels at the mouths of rivers, an effect called

"backwater," i.e. the north wind pushes the water from the sea into the land, which threatens to flood urban (or rural) infrastructure.

With the many possibilities of obtaining "historical" GIS data on areas at risk of flooding, especially in coastal areas with stormy periods, it is possible to develop maps of floodplains depending on the scale of the storm, based on GIS applications that enable the analysis of threats to objects located in floodplains. This information thus gives decision-makers and emergency management services time to make decisions and take actions to prevent the possible evacuation of populations, animals and property from flood-prone areas.

An information-rich internet portal for GIS data on floodplains – is Hydroportal--ISOK (https://wody.isok.gov.pl/imap_kzgw/?gpmap=gpPDF).

Fig. 6. Ustka. Sea flood risk map, including internal sea water, 1% probability of flooding – once every 100 years
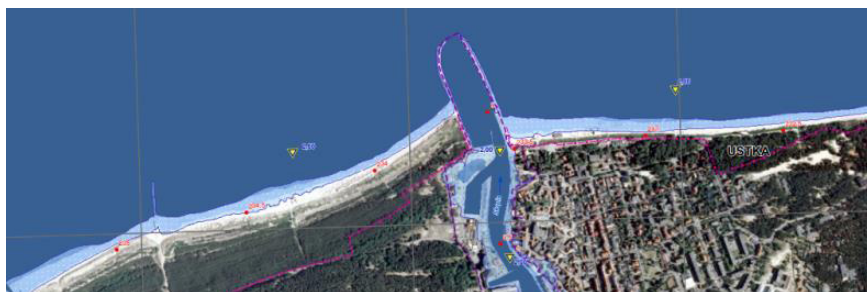
Source: https://wody.isok.gov.pl/imap_kzgw/?gpmap=gpPDF, [access: 04.12.2020].

Fig. 7. Darłówko-Darłowo. Sea flood risk map, including internal sea water, 1% probability of flooding – once every 100 years
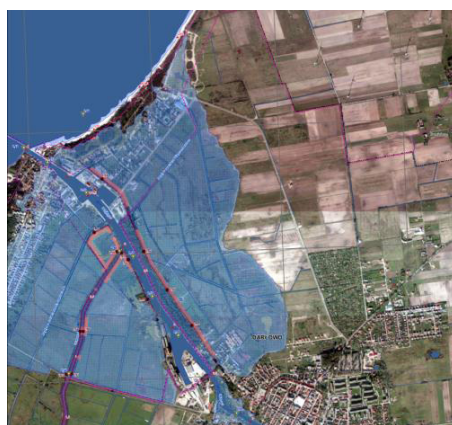
Source: https://wody.isok.gov.pl/imap_kzgw/?gpmap=gpPDF, [access: 04.12.2020].

Fig. 8. Rowy. Sea flood risk map, including internal sea water, 1% probability of flooding – once every 100 years

Source: https://wody.isok.gov.pl/imap_kzgw/?gpmap=gpPDF, [access: 04.12.2020].

By treating the data obtained from the geoportal adequately, as in the case of data obtained from PGO 2014, an analysis is developed as a result of which we obtain information on the threats to objects located in the flood zone. The analysis identified 726 objects exposed to flooding, Fig. 9.

Fig. 9. Darłowo. Isolated objects in the flood zone resulting from the so-called storm retreat

Source: own study based on Arc GIS.

In the considerations made so far, it can be noted that the services involved in the crisis management system suffer from an information deficit. Each crisis is character-ized by certain parameters, including a shortage of time and information. Not having

complete and up-to-date data, or lacking data on the size of an event, can be a factor in the success or failure of decision-makers and services.

Conclusions

The presented issues were focused on meeting the needs in the field of knowledge:
- what factors influence the use of GIS applications in the area of crisis management and
- understanding and using the acquired knowledge to improve the functionality of the Geographical Information System, understood as a multi-component tool (methods, technical means, hardware, software, database, procedures and people interested in its functioning) for obtaining, publishing, processing and analysing spatial information.

In order for GIS to function effectively, it is necessary to have a harmonious and proportionate balance of the above-mentioned components, as each of them plays an important role in the construction of a reliable information flow system.

Through extensive analytical and program capabilities, GIS contributes to the improvement of decision-making and faster access to information, which makes this system an indispensable tool in the work of emergency services and emergency decision-making bodies in crisis events.

The geospatial tool has many advantages and development perspectives. In addition to improving the safety assurance process, it enables: precise orientation in the field, quick access to up-to-date data and maps in digital form, and analysis of multiple situations simultaneously. However, attention should be paid to the dangers that may be encountered in using said system.

One of the threats to the functioning of the system is access to out-of-date data, which usually escalates anxiety. Other risks relate to hacking groups and terrorist groups stealing data and using it for illegal purposes.

It should also be noted that the use of digital maps may affect the ability to use maps in analogue (paper) form.

The users of GIS applications face big challenges in improving their functions and accuracy of data presentation. This requires increasing system self-sufficiency and forgetting the fact that GIS systems are an auxiliary tool rather than a decision-making tool. The system cannot be held responsible for decisions that save lives or property.

Users of the map tool should be aware of its objective, the purposes of environmental threat analysis, as well as the fact that the system is designed to assist with decision-making, not to take over the role of decision maker.

However, it should be remembered that in order to be able to consistently and safely use the Geographic Information System, a number of actions are needed to improve the efficiency of the system, which include:

- the creation of extensive databases that will be kept up-to-date;
- analysing the quality of information obtained by officials;
- building data security systems and creating bodies that ensure access to secure information;
- facilitating access to published data and computer maps;
- the establishment of legal standards related to access to spatial information;
- making the public aware of the high impact of GIS systems on the development of all sectors of the state economy;
- conducting training for users to use devices equipped with spatial technology.

GIS technology enriches our lives and improves security and supports the functioning of many systems: preventive, crisis management, security, health and military services. The Geographical Information System is constantly being improved and its development capabilities are unlimited, therefore activities related to ensuring security depend on its conscious use.

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https://wody.isok.gov.pl/imap_kzgw/?gpmap=gpPDF [access: 04.12.2020].
https://tvn24.pl/tvnmeteo/informacje-pogoda/polska,28/sztorm-rozprul-morski-brzeg,18372,1,1.html?p=meteo, [access: 04.12.2020].
https://earthobservatory.nasa.gov/features/GlobalWarming/page6.php, [access: 04.12.2020].

Summary

As a result of climate change, ocean levels are rising at an alarming rate. Unfortunately, this will continue to worsen and, if not addressed on a global scale, could result in the migration of people from coastal areas that may soon be flooded. One of the main systems used for data storage and analysis has become Geographic Information System (GIS). This system allows the tracking of unfolding events and processes in the environment and at the same time influences key decision making when a threat occurs.

STUDIA NAD BEZPIECZEŃSTWEM

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USE OF THE ACTIVATING TECHNIQUE – MIND MAPPING – IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE SUBJECT: ECONOMIC SECURITY

WYKORZYSTANIE TECHNIKI AKTYWIZUJĄCEJ – MIND MAPPING – W REALIZACJI PRZEDMIOTU: BEZPIECZEŃSTWO EKONOMICZNE

“*The soul never thinks without a mental image.*”

Aristotle

Abstract: The aim of this paper is to present and encourage the use of activation methods in conducting classes with students. The article describes one activation technique – Mind Mapping. The author also describes the course of summary classes in the subject of 'Economic Security', during which this technique was used. The main objectives of conducting the above mentioned classes using Mind mapping were: 1. To include all students from a given group in the process of summarizing the knowledge of a given subject; 2. To motivate students to independently systematize the content learned during the classes. The author also asked herself the questions: 1. Is it worth combining the so-called traditional forms of teaching with activating methods? Do students like classes with the use of active methods? On the basis of literature review and students' answers to a survey conducted at the end of classes, it can be definitely confirmed that it is worthwhile incorporating activation methods during classes as they actively engage students in the learning process. The use of activation methods leads to a significant increase in efficiency and improvement of the entire didactic process.

The following research methods are used in this paper: a literature review on the presented topic and a survey questionnaire. The purpose of the literature review is to introduce the reader to the activation methods, their division and the individual steps of creating mind mapping. The purpose of the questionnaire survey among students was to obtain feedback on how to conduct classes with the use of the mind mapping activation method. The article presents a map made by students of the National Security major, as part of the final classes of the course 'Economic Security' implemented in the academic year 2018/2019, who prepared a summary of the acquired knowledge using the discussed activation technique.

Zarys treści: Celem artykułu jest przedstawienie i zachęcenie do stosowania metod aktywizacyjnych w prowadzeniu zajęć ze studentami. Artykuł opisuje jedną technikę aktywacji – Mind Mapping. Autorka pisze również o przebiegu zajęć podsumowujących z przedmiotu „Bezpieczeństwo ekonomiczne", podczas których zastosowano tę technikę. Głównymi celami prowadzenia w/w zajęć z wykorzystaniem Mind Mapping były: 1. Włączenie wszystkich studentów z danej grupy w proces podsumowania wiedzy z danego przedmiotu; 2. Zmotywowanie studentów do samodzielnego usystematyzowania treści poznanych na zajęciach. Autorka zadała sobie również pytania. 1. Czy warto łączyć tzw. tradycyjne formy nauczania z metodami aktywizującymi? Czy uczniowie lubią zajęcia z wykorzystaniem metod aktywnych? Na podstawie przeglądu literatury oraz odpowiedzi studentów na ankietę przeprowadzoną na zakończenie zajęć można z całą pewnością stwierdzić, że warto na zajęciach stosować metody aktywizujące, które aktywnie angażują studentów w proces uczenia się. Stosowanie metod aktywizacyjnych prowadzi do znacznego wzrostu efektywności i usprawnienia całego procesu dydaktycznego.

W pracy wykorzystano następujące metody badawcze: przegląd literatury przedmiotu oraz kwestionariusz ankiety. Celem przeglądu literatury jest zapoznanie czytelnika z metodami aktywizacji, ich podziałem oraz poszczególnymi etapami tworzenia map myśli. Celem badania ankietowego wśród uczniów było uzyskanie informacji zwrotnej na temat prowadzenia zajęć z wykorzystaniem aktywizacyjnej metody mapowania umysłu. W artykule przedstawiono mapę wykonaną przez studentów kierunku Bezpieczeństwo Narodowe w ramach zajęć końcowych realizowanych w roku akademickim 2018/2019 kursu „Bezpieczeństwo ekonomiczne", którzy przygotowali podsumowanie zdobytej wiedzy z wykorzystaniem omawianej techniki aktywizacyjnej.

Key words: activating methods, activating techniques, Mind maps, didactic process
Słowa kluczowe: metody aktywizujące, techniki aktywizujące, mapy umysłu, proces dydaktyczny

Introduction

Globalization, dynamic technological progress, almost unlimited access to information, and at the same time social isolation of the younger generation, due to the current pandemic, pose new challenges to civilization, especially to teaching staff at all levels of education.[1]

The development of civilization and the resulting economic, social and cultural changes are the causes of changes in people, their needs and abilities. These changes are the result of people striving to adapt to the new situation by acquiring knowledge, experience and competences helpful in finding themselves in the surrounding reality. The need to acquire knowledge and the ability to use it in life is one of the elementary human needs described by psychologists, as well as the purpose of the educational process, which accompanies a person for most of their life.[2]

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[1] M. Szewczuk-Stępień, M. Adamska, *Efektywność procesu dydaktycznego wykorzystującego metody aktywizujące. Współczesne zarządzanie. Koncepcje i wyzwania*, A. Sopińska, A. Modliński (red.), SGH, Warszawa 2020, s. 359–376.

[2] S. Rapacka-Wojtala, *Metody aktywizujące w nauczaniu dorosłych, czyli jak sprawić, aby studentom chciało się chcieć*, 187_208_Rapacka-Wojtala.pdf (lodz.pl), [access: 04.12.2021].

When it comes to higher education teaching, it is worth noting that it is now significantly different from the patterns of learning that operated back in the 20th century. Universities now operate in a single market, giving members of their community almost unlimited opportunities to study in another country or at another university. Thanks to this approach, students are becoming citizens of the world, aware of the opportunities created by the global market. Of course, their awareness of their value also increases, i.e. they know exactly what they expect. Globalization thus poses a number of challenges to the development of the teaching, learning and creativity process, among which are the following:[3]

- the university is no longer just a place of transmitting and acquiring knowledge, it is a space where personalities permanently meet and forms of communication evolve (e.g. Internet knowledge portals are created and used);
- students constitute a social group, which efficiently uses modern information technologies (e.g. creating network communities, using pedagogical platforms, including simulation games);
- an academic teacher must create a climate for greater involvement of learners in the learning process, thereby giving them responsibility for the outcome of their education;
- society is brought up in the constant presence of television and the Internet, and as we know, modern media provide strong visual and auditory impressions, which in turn stimulates greater creativity;
- the student is more and more often also an employee who has to face the necessity of solving real problems on a daily basis, therefore the tasks set before them must be ambitious.

Currently, universities are places where students develop their own talents and bring out their creative potential. All this should take place in the spirit of subjectivity, personalism and individualism.[4]

One of the ways to improve the quality of the educational process is to use activating methods in didactic work. It is these methods that are an integral part of problem-based learning, they fit into the models of inquiry teaching and cooperative learning.[5]

[3]   M. Szewczuk-Stępień, M. Adamska, *Efektywność procesu dydaktycznego wykorzystującego metody aktywizujące, Współczesne zarządzanie. Koncepcje i wyzwania*, A. Sopińska, A. Modliński (red.), SGH, Warszawa 2020, s. 359–376.

[4]   J. Wnęk-Gozdek, *Formy i metody aktywizowania studentów, Formy i metody aktywizowania studentów*, [w:] *Współczesne wyzwania dydaktyki szkoły wyższej* (up.krakow.pl), [access: 04.12.2021].

[5]   J. Wnęk-Gozdek, *Formy i metody aktywizowania studentów...*, *op. cit.*

Learning pyramid

Looking at the process of knowledge transfer, it is worth noting the so-called learning pyramid (Figure 1), showing the average percentage value of content assimilated by the student and transferred by different teaching methods. It shows that from a lecture delivered by a traditional method, only 5% of the material is remembered. Multimedia presentation shows about a 20% recall, while the most ambitious classes so far, with the use of IT equipment, results in only 30% of the material being memorized. Much better results, as much as 50% of the assimilation of content, can be obtained during the seminar form of classes, in which students are inspired to exchange views during discussions. As much as 75% of the material will be learned through practical activities such as well-planned projects, preferably team projects. However, the most beneficial effects are achieved when students use the acquired knowledge on an ongoing basis and pass it on independently to other students in an understandable form.[6]

Fig. 1. Learning pyramid
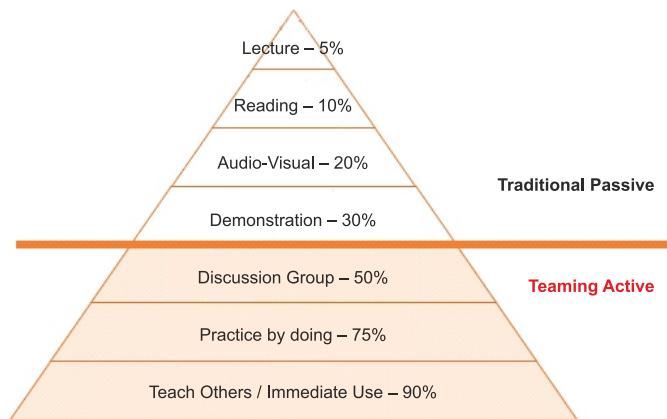
Source: Pawełczyk M., *Nowoczesne metody nauczania w technicznej uczelni wyższej*, URL: https://www-arch.polsl.pl/Jednostki/RJO3-KS/Documents/MPawelczyk.pdf [access: 04.12.2021].

It is precisely the greatest percentage of assimilation, understanding and also recall of information that is associated with teaching another person. It is about the student transferring the knowledge to another student in such a way that it is understandable and that this person is able to apply it in practice.[7]

6   M. Pawełczyk, *Nowoczesne metody nauczania w technicznej uczelni wyższej*, https://www-arch.
     polsl.pl/Jednostki/RJO3-KS/Documents/MPawelczyk.pdf, [access: 04.12.2021].
7   *Ibidem*.

Activating methods

> *"That old idea that you can turn up to the lecture to sit passively
> and get filled up with knowledge, just does not stand the test:
> You have to work actively in order to learn anything..."*[8]

A teacher stands in the front of the classroom and talks. Students listen and maybe take notes. After the lecture, students write in their notebooks and complete exercises. Sound familiar?

This model of teaching, where a teacher provides information and pupils' role is just to sit still and listen, is an old school method. Sometimes there is a place for this model as well, but if it is the only teaching method in the class, all skills (in learning, socializing, collaborating) will become narrow. Traditional teaching is only one part, although it still has an important role in creating peace and safety in the classroom. Students of different ages need different methods.[9] That old idea that you can turn up to the lecture to sit passively and get filled up with knowledge just does not stand the test: you have to work actively in order to learn anything – both pedagogic and neurobiological research show this. In order to understand and remember what is being said in a lecture it is crucial that the students are made to use that new knowledge during the lecture. Students should constantly be made to reflect and relate to questions – they should constantly have the feeling of being "on." This principle counts for all kinds of teaching.[10]

Active learning is an approach to instruction that involves actively engaging students with the course material through discussions, problem solving, case studies, role plays and other methods. Active learning approaches place a greater degree of responsibility on the learner than passive approaches such as lectures, but instructor guidance is still crucial in the active learning classroom. Active learning activities may range in length from a couple of minutes to whole class sessions or may take place over multiple class sessions.[11]

Activating methods are a category of methods characterized by the fact that in the teaching process the students' activity should exceed the activity of the lecturer. These methods, by definition, stimulate greater involvement, are more attractive and characterized by higher efficiency. The main advantage of this approach is the possibility of improving skills that are useful not only during the classes, but also in everyday life, including professional life, e.g. the ability to think analytically, to look critically, to combine facts and events, and above all to make inferences. Activation teaching methods emphasize that their foundation is to 'activate' students by teaching them

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[8]   https://medium.com/cultivate-grow-your-teaching/tips-for-student-activating-teaching-fe72a-e0c8de9, [access: 04.12.2021].

[9]   https://learningscoop.fi/activating-methods-in-classroom/, [access: 04.12.2021].

[10]   https://medium.com/cultivate-grow-your-teaching/tips-for-student-activating..., *op. cit.*

[11]   https://www.queensu.ca/teachingandlearning/modules/active/04_what_is_active_learning.html, [access: 04.12.2021].

how to ‚discover' on their own using real examples and with the mentoring support of the teacher[12].

The use of a variety of activity-based methods in working with students is important because information from the human external environment is received through all the senses in a polysensory manner. Full use of the brain's potential results from the participation of all the senses in the process of getting to know the world and learning.[13] As a result of these changes, the teacher ceases to be a specialist in their field and becomes a facilitator of the learning process. They take on the role of a reflective researcher and creator of the learning process.[14] When using activating methods, imagination, experiencing, using emotional strategies play an important role, which is based on research on the brain, because it is known that information with an emotional tone is easier to remember than neutral information.[15] How to define an activating method? One definition explains that the activation methods are, a group of teaching methods characterized by the fact that in the learning process the activity of the learner exceeds the activity of the teaching subject. In order to better understand the above definition, it is worth analysing it carefully:[16]

- the focus is shifted from the educational programme to the learner, developing their competencies,
- the learner is the active subject; they acquire knowledge through their own experience and exploration,
- the task of the teacher is to create a reality that is conducive to acquisition, emotional involvement, solving difficult situations,
- teaching takes into account all the processes of group dynamics.

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[12] M. Szewczuk-Stępień, M. Adamska, *Efektywność procesu dydaktycznego wykorzystującego metody aktywizujące. Współczesne zarządzanie. Koncepcje i wyzwania*, A. Sopińska, A. Modliński (red.), SGH, Warszawa 2020, s. 359–376.

[13] B. Gola, D. Pauluk, *Stosowanie metod aktywizujących przejawem profesjonalizmu nauczyciela akademickiego*, https://edukacjaustawicznadoroslych.itee.radom.pl/images/2015/2/03_2_2015.pdf, [access: 04.12.2021].

[14] J. Wnęk-Gozdek, *Formy i metody aktywizowania studentów...*, op. cit.

[15] B. Gola, D. Pauluk, *Stosowanie metod aktywizujących przejawem profesjonalizmu...*, op.cit.

[16] J. Wnęk-Gozdek, *Formy i metody aktywizowania studentów...*, op. cit.

Activating methods and techniques

Give me a fish and I will have something to eat all day long.
Teach me to fish and I will have something to eat all my life.

J. Krzyżewska

In the literature you can find the terms: methods and techniques of activation. What is the difference between methods and techniques and is there any systemization of them?

Activation methods and techniques have been classified in a number of ways. One of the many possible attempts to organize the methods and techniques of activation is a distinction presented by A. Klimowicz, who indicates the division of methods and assigns each of them specific techniques A. Klimowicz distinguishes:[17]

– discussion (with the associated techniques: panel debate, pros and cons, meta-plan, six hats according to de Bono);
– role-playing (techniques: simulations, didactic games and plays, drama, role--plays);
– analysing and solving problems (techniques: brainstorming, decision tree, 'U' procedure, pyramid of priorities, diamond ranking, case study);
– learning in small teams (corresponding techniques: puzzle, snowball, relay);
– visualization (techniques: mind map, map of associations, creating posters, comics, rebus, interactive exhibition);
– project;
– portfolio;
– task stations.

The origins of Mind Maps

Mind maps emerged in the 1970s. Their creator is considered to be the English psychologist Tony Buzan, who died in 2019, who, together with his brother (Barry Buzan) developed their theoretical basis and then practical applications in various fields – from education to business.[18]

One classic definition is that: 'Mind maps are a system for storing, organizing, and prioritizing data using words and pictures, each of which will stimulate specific memory resources and stimulate new thoughts and insights'. According to another definition: 'Mind maps are a method of creating notes in graphical form. They make it easier to organize and structure information – making it easier to remember and understand'. To draw up a mind map you not only need to

[17] B. Gola, D. Pauluk, *Stosowanie metod aktywizujących przejawem profesjonalizmu..., op.cit.*
[18] A. Radomski, *O zastosowaniu map myśli w nauce i edukacji*, „Kultura i Historia" nr 36/2019 (2).

understand the content, but also know how to organise the information to a high enough degree.[19]

The genesis of Mind maps was the idea that we could take notes in a different way and then remember the data they contain better when we use different note-taking methods. The previous method, which is still dominant, consists in writing certain information in a linear order, i.e. from left to right and from top to bottom. Most of the time, such notes have the form of sentences, the same letter size, colour and some phrases may be bulleted at most. This system of note taking, as T. Buzan points, out has many disadvantages. The most important ones include:[20]

– length of notes;
– difficulty in memorizing;
– time-consuming execution;
– lack of stimulation of the brain for further creative and imaginative work.

In addition, these types of notes are difficult to add to and expand upon. As Tony Buzan wrote, 'This system uses only left-brain memory mechanisms in which words, tables, logic, order, sequence, and numbers play a major role. Imagination, association, exaggeration, humour and absurdity, colour, rhythm and sensory impressions are completely ignored'. Mind maps are more effective because, according to Tony Buzan, they better reflect how the brain works. The human brain does not think linearly but in different directions at the same time – starting from single, central starting points, in the form of images or keywords (Figure 2) – this is called radial thinking. Thus, the concept of Mind maps is designed to function like the brain, i.e. to reflect the radial thinking mentioned above.[21]

The first Mind maps appeared over 40 years ago. They were drawn up by hand on sheets of paper. The technological revolution and the advent of the digital age have 'revitalised' the classic Mind map. Tools for creating digital Mind maps have been developed and their appearance has significantly broadened their functions and possibilities. Currently, Mind maps are mainly created on computers and various types of mobile devices (tablets, smartphones, etc.).[22]
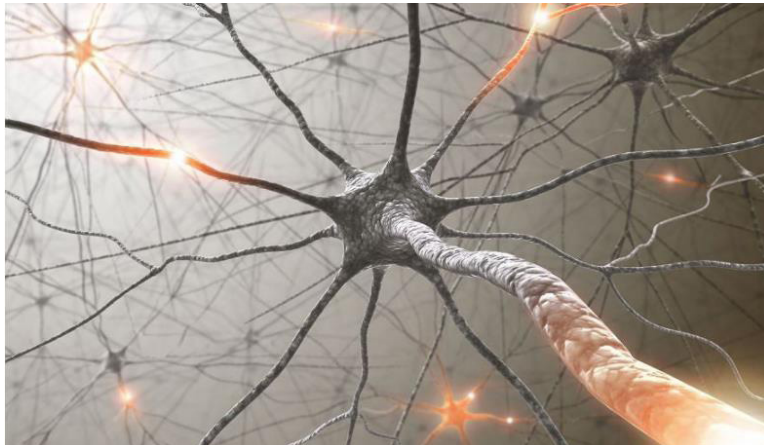
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[19] *Ibidem.*
[20] *Ibidem.*
[21] *Ibidem.*
[22] *Ibidem.*

Fig. 2. Neurons in the brain – radial thinking

Source: https://wyborcza.pl/napamiec/7,139301,16645287,ile-mamy-neuronow-w-mozgu.html?disableRedirects=true, [access: 04.12.2021].

What is Mind Mapping?

Mind maps were defined by Buzan as — an expression of Radiant Thinking and is therefore a function of the human mind and — a powerful graphic technique which provides a universal key to unlocking the potential of the brain. Mind mapping has four essential characteristics:

1. the subject attention is crystallized in a central image;
2. the main themes of the subject radiate from the central image as branches;
3. branches comprise a key image or key word printed on an associated line, and
4. the branches form a connected nodal structure.

Similar to a concept map, a Mind map is also a kind of graphic organizer, which is described as two-dimensional visual knowledge representations, including flowcharts, timelines and tables. They show relationships among concepts or processes by means of spatial position, connecting lines and intersecting figures.[23]

Mind maps are graphical representations of information. In contrast to the traditional, linear notes you might make in a text document or even on paper, Mind maps let you capture thoughts, ideas and keywords on a blank canvas. These ideas are organized in a two-dimensional structure, with the title/main idea always located in the centre of the map for visibility. Related ideas branch off from the centre in all directions, creating a radiant structure.[24]

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[23] Ying Liu, Guoqing Zhao, Guozhen Ma and Yuwei Bo, *The Effect of Mind Mapping on Teaching and Learning Meta-Analysis*, https://www.researchgate.net/publication/297833919_The_Effect_of_Mind_Mapping_on_Teaching_and_Learning_A_Meta-Analysis, [access: 04.12.2021].

[24] https://www.mindmeister.com/blog/why-mind-mapping/, [access: 04.12.2021].

Mind mapping is a powerful technique to help you visually develop and organize ideas and information. Mind maps provide a structured way to capture and organize ideas and information. They help users to understand concepts by breaking them down into their component parts. The technique is used to develop new ideas, or to break down and better understand existing information. Whether developing new ideas or organizing existing information, Mind maps help you see how information fits together. Mind maps provide an expansive and flexible structure to support one's thinking.[25]

Unlike other visual diagrams, a Mind map is built around a single central topic (Figure 3). All the information on the map is "anchored" to the same start point. By placing the main idea at the centre, it is easier to understand the core focus of the Mind map (Figure 4).[26]

Fig. 3. Principles for creating a Mind Map
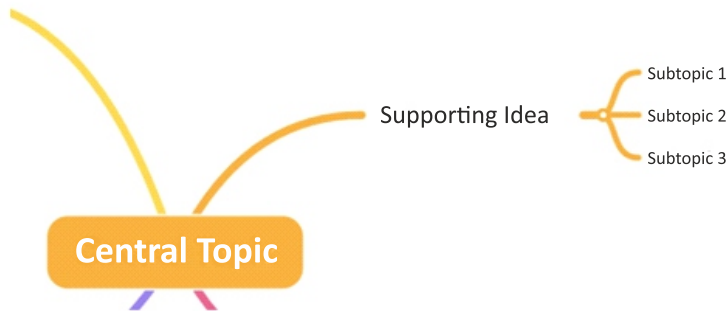
Source: https://www.mindmaps.com/what-is-mind-mapping, [access: 04.12.2021].

Tree-like branches make up a Mind map. They can expand and grow as you develop your ideas. Each branch shows information organized as topics and subtopics, based on categorizations and connections identified by the map creator. The result is a structured hierarchy of information at all levels of the Mind map.[27]

Reasons to use Mind mapping[28]

The list of benefits of Mind maps is very long. First of all, Mind maps can help you:
  – Improve your memory with visual cues, words and images.
  – Identify relationships between different topics.
  – Develop your subject understanding.

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[25] https://www.mindmaps.com/what-is-mind-mapping, [access: 04.12.2021].
[26] *Ibidem.*
[27] *Ibidem.*
[28] https://www.port.ac.uk/student-life/help-and-advice/study-skills/mind-mapping, [access: 04.12.2021].

– Connect your ideas and experiences to the literature you study.
– Explore subjects broadly and in depth.
– Organise your thoughts to plan and structure assignments.
– Decide what to include or exclude in projects, including contextual information.
– Introduce new ideas and resources to a topic as you learn more about it.

Building a Mind map[29]

1. Write your map subject in the middle of the page. Your content will link to this subject and spread out from the main heading. Your subject could be a topic or idea, or information from a text.
2. Add key ideas to your map by writing their headings on the page and drawing a connecting line between them and your main heading. Continue breaking each section down and adding links between subjects to create smaller, specific Mind maps on the page. This is a great chance to explore specific topics more deeply.
3. Use key words or images to represent each piece of information.
4. Link new content to your current map – ideas should always be connected to something else in the Mind map. Adding new information to your current map layout encourages you to engage with the content so you can decide if it needs to be included and where it fits in your structure.
5. Change the style, size or colour of items to represent important content.
6. Use colours to identify themes and relationships. Some information in your map may fit more than one map 'branch.' Colour-coding and extra connecting lines will help you keep track of this.

Who uses Mind mapping?[30]

Mind mapping is used by people in business, education, government, the charity sector and at home.

In **business**, Mind mapping is used for project planning, strategic thinking and managing meetings. Mind mapping software helps teams to **develop their ideas more collaboratively**. Online mapping allows people to build off of each other's ideas and develop a shared understanding of a situation. It can also break down complex projects into more manageable parts.

In **education**, students of all ages use Mind maps for note taking, summarizing subject information and planning written assignments. Educators are use Mind maps for lesson planning, innovative homework assignments and group exercises

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[29] *Ibidem*.
[30] https://wwwmindmaps.com/what-is-mind-mapping, [access: 04.12.2021].

in the classroom. Outside of these fields, many individuals use Mind maps to help with their organization and future planning. People often use Mind maps to plan their weeks, their goals and their careers.

Fig. 4. Basic information about the Mind Map
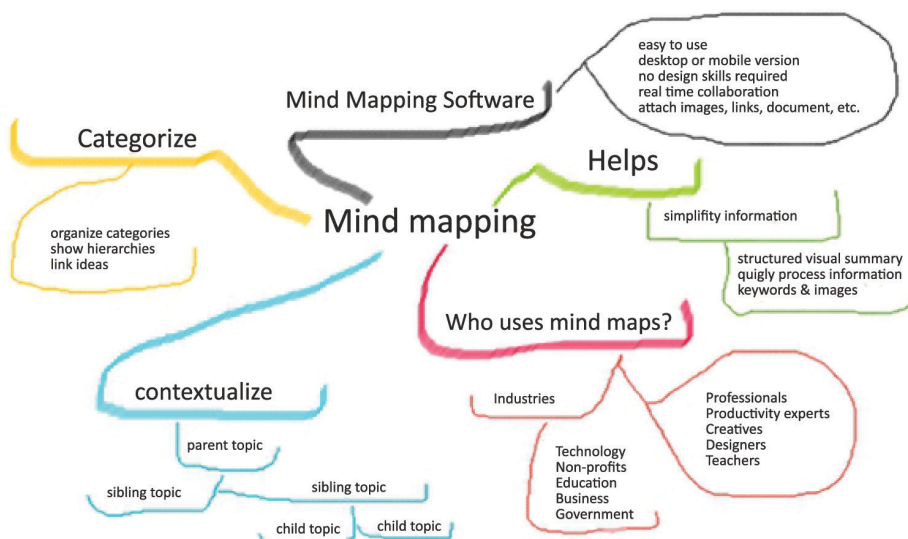
Source: based on https://www.mindmaps.com/what-is-mind-mapping, [access: 04.12.2021].

The use of a Mind map during classes with students

Students majoring in National Security as part of the final classes of the course 'Economic Security' conducted in the academic year 2018/2019 prepared a summary of the acquired knowledge, using the Mind Mapping technique. The main objectives of conducting the activity using Mind mapping were:
1. to involve all the students in the group in the process of summarizing the knowledge of the subject;
2. motivating students to independently systematize the content learned during the classes.

The summary session began with a presentation of information about the Mind Mapping technique, its origins, benefits of its use and rules of creation. Then students were divided into groups of 4–5. Each group was given large sheets of paper and different coloured marker pens. Students were given the following instructions:[31]

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[31] The Effects of Mind Mapping Activities on Students' Motivation, https://digitalcommons.georgiasouthern.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1314&context=ij-sotl, [access: 04.12.2021].

Step one: Brainstorm:
1. Write the topic in the centre of a blank page. Topic: State economic security.
2. Use colours, pictures, words, and symbols to record any ideas, topics, research or theories that are associated with the topic. You can place these anywhere on the page. Associate freely and do not filter out ideas at this point; anything and everything is okay.

Step 2: Organization:
1. Map the relationships between the ideas or key points using lines, arrows, colours and words to link them.
2. Identify the type of relationship between ideas or points, such as: contrasts, similarities, cause and effect. Write these relationships along the linking lines.

Step 3: Mind Map:
1. Once you are comfortable with the associations and organization in your brainstorm, then use the ideas that you have developed to draw out your final Mind map.

After completing the task, each group discussed their Mind map.

A selected Mind map, representing the learned issues related to National Economic Security, that was made by students is shown in Figure 5.

Fig. 5. Mind Map –State economic security
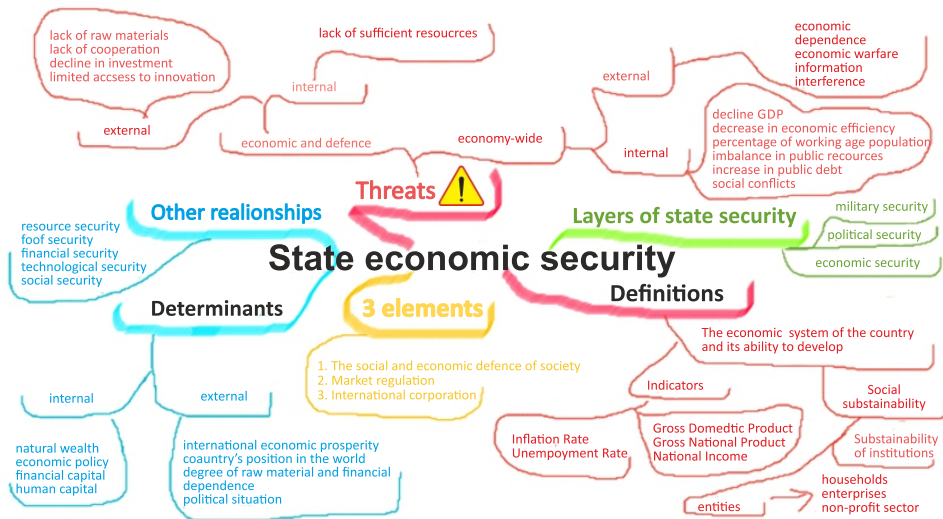
Source: Prepared on the basis of a Mind map made by students of National Security.

After discussing the Mind maps, students were asked to complete a short survey (4 questions and an opportunity to freely write comments) regarding their evaluation of how the activities were conducted. The survey included the following questions:

1. Did you like the way the class was conducted using the Mind mapping technique?

☐ definitely yes

☐ rather yes

☐ difficult to say

☐ rather no

☐ definitely no

2. Did the tutor explain the principles of Mind mapping in an understandable way?

☐ definitely yes

☐ rather yes

☐ difficult to say

☐ rather no

☐ definitely no

3. During the classes in which teams worked using the Mind mapping technique, was the atmosphere conducive to communication and cooperation?

☐ definitely yes

☐ rather yes

☐ difficult to say

☐ rather no

☐ definitely no

4. How would you assess the way the classes were conducted using the Mind mapping technique?

☐ definitely high, I was able to recall and systematize a lot of information

☐ rather highly

☐ difficult to say

☐ I prefer lectures where the teacher presents the content

☐ I did not like the way the classes were conducted

Twenty-seven students responded to the survey presented above. Twenty-three students answered that they definitely liked the way the Mind mapping activities were conducted (three students answered rather yes, and one student answered difficult to say). Twenty students strongly agreed that the teacher explained the principles of Mind mapping in an understandable way (five students answered – rather yes; two students – difficult to say). Twenty-one students indicated working in an atmosphere conducive to communication and cooperation (five students answered – rather yes; one student – difficult to say). Nineteen students assessed the way the classes were conducted using Mind mapping techniques as very high; five students – rather high; two – difficult to say; one student chose the answer: I prefer lectures where the teacher presents the content. Interestingly, there were sixteen freely given comments in the questionnaires which presented their own opinions about the conducted classes. Some of the opinions were:

1. the time passed exceptionally quickly for me during this class;
2. it's been a long time since I had so much fun during the classes, is it possible to conduct such classes more often?
3. I like this way of repeating knowledge. I will use Mind mapping when preparing for other subjects.
4. I like working in a team.
5. it's amazing how on one page quite a lot of knowledge can be presented.

On the basis of the students' answers in the survey conducted at the end of the classes, it can be definitely confirmed that it is worthwhile incorporating activation methods during the classes, as they introduce the culture of teamwork as well as engage the students actively in the learning process. This leads to a significant increase in efficiency and improvement of the entire didactic process in a given subject.

Conclusions

The traditional view of the student as someone whose task is to absorb the information provided by the teacher must, to an even greater extent, give way to an approach in which the teacher acts as a guide. A special place in teaching should be given to the teacher-student relationship and solutions that allow it to evolve into a master-student relationship. The lecturer should become an inspiration to gain knowledge and should try to prepare the student to seek and deepen it independently.[32]

It is commonly said that university graduates enter the job market with extensive knowledge, but very often without the ability to use it in practice in an organization. Therefore, an important element of the applied methodology should be a skilful

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[32] M. Szewczuk-Stępień, M. Adamska, *Efektywność procesu dydaktycznego wykorzystującego metody aktywizujące*, *Współczesne zarządzanie. Koncepcje i wyzwania*, A. Sopińska, A. Modliński (red.), SGH, Warszawa 2020, s. 359–376.

combination of forms and techniques of classes, or finding the so-called golden mean in the use of administering methods (e.g. lecture, talk) and activating methods (e.g. discussion, simulations, training games, case studies, brainstorming, solving practical tasks).[33]

Obviously, in order to increase the effectiveness of the teaching process, the staff must have appropriate qualifications and didactic and scientific competences and regularly improve and update them. Lecturers should be increasingly obliged to use diversified didactic methods involving students in the learning process and to use innovative educational methods.[34]

It is also crucial to convey knowledge to students in a communicative way, to teach them to associate facts, to show connections with subjects composing a coherent study programme, to instil the ability to work effectively in a team, while retaining courage and sound argumentation in presenting their ideas.[35]

For this to be possible, it is necessary to take into account the individual predispositions of the student, the conditions in which the learning process takes place and the existing atmosphere in the group. Also important are the personal predispositions of the lecturers themselves, their preferences regarding the subject they teach and their teaching experience. Being a good facilitator and guide is a great art. M. Taraszkiewicz points out another very important issue that must be taken into account when using these methods: 'each activation method has its own specificity, involves a different type of experience and brings – in effect – (different) educational results'. Therefore, the use of activating methods in the process of education should always be preceded by thorough preparation and planning of individual steps.[36]

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[33] M. Szewczuk-Stępień, M. Adamska, *Efektywność procesu dydaktycznego wykorzystującego metody aktywizujące. Współczesne zarządzanie. Koncepcje i wyzwania*, A. Sopińska, A. Modliński (red.), SGH, Warszawa 2020, s. 359–376.

[34] *Ibidem*.

[35] M. Pawełczyk, *Nowoczesne metody nauczania w technicznej uczelni wyższej*, https://www-arch.polsl.pl/Jednostki/RJO3-KS/Documents/MPawelczyk.pdf, [access: 04.12.2021].

[36] J. Wnęk-Gozdek, *Formy i metody aktywizowania studentów..., op.cit.*

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Summary

The global changes we are witnessing force changes in the approach to education. Only individualized and creative approaches will allow the effective facing of new tasks in the future. It is important to skilfully combine various forms and methods of conveying knowledge and skills. It is about combining elements characteristic of traditional didactics, e.g. lectures, exercises, seminars or laboratories, with elements using technological solutions, such as e-learning or interactive simulation tools, as well as practical input resulting from including entities from the university environment in the teaching process, e.g. study visits in institutions, meetings with business.[37]

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[37] M. Szewczuk-Stępień, M. Adamska, *Efektywność procesu dydaktycznego..., op. cit.*

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SYSTEM OF COUNTERACTING POTENTIAL THREATS TO UKRAINE'S MILITARY SECURITY AGAINST THE BACKGROUND OF CHANGES IN GEOPOLITICAL POSITIONS AND GEOSTRATEGIC TASKS

SYSTEM PRZECIWDZIAŁANIA POTENCJALNYM ZAGROŻENIOM BEZPIECZEŃSTWA MILITARNEGO UKRAINY NA TLE ZMIAN POZYCJI GEOPOLITYCZNYCH I ZADAŃ GEOSTRATEGICZNYCH

Abstract: The problems of interaction between the main components of the Security and Defence Sector of Ukraine are considered: security and defence forces, both in peacetime and in wartime. The normative-legal documents defining the tasks and purpose of the Armed Forces are analysed, and their functions are outlined, which are reflected in the new strategic documents. It is shown that the aggravation of the socio-political situation in Ukraine, the intensification of anti-state and separatist movements in the occupied and adjacent territories were the result of information pressure as a special operation and direct Russian intervention in socio-political processes in our country, confrontation with which requires the accumulation of efforts of all components in the Security and Defence Sector. In this context, the threats to Ukraine are seen as hybrid, comprehensive, all-encompassing and such that their scale extends not only to Ukraine but also to the European community as a whole. The tasks of the state military policy on the implementation of the provisions of the new National Security Strategy of Ukraine have been determined.

Zarys treści: Rozpatrywane są problemy interakcji pomiędzy głównymi komponentami Sektora Bezpieczeństwa i Obrony Ukrainy: siłami bezpieczeństwa i obrony, zarówno w czasie pokoju, jak i wojny. Analizowane są dokumenty normatywno-prawne określające zadania i cel Sił Zbrojnych oraz nakreślone są ich funkcje, które znajdują odzwierciedlenie w nowych dokumentach strategicznych. Wykazano, że pogorszenie sytuacji społeczno-politycznej na Ukrainie, nasilenie ruchów antypaństwowych i separatystycznych na terytoriach okupowanych i przyległych było wynikiem nacisku informacyjnego jako operacji specjalnej i bezpośredniej rosyjskiej interwencji w procesy społeczno-polityczne w naszego kraju, z którym konfrontacja

wymaga kumulacji wysiłków wszystkich komponentów w Sektorze Bezpieczeństwa i Obrony. W tym kontekście zagrożenia dla Ukrainy postrzegane są jako hybrydowe, kompleksowe, wszechogarniające i takie, że ich skala rozciąga się nie tylko na Ukrainę, ale także na całą wspólnotę europejską. Określono zadania polityki wojskowej państwa w zakresie realizacji postanowień nowej Strategii Bezpieczeństwa Narodowego Ukrainy.

Key words: military security, national security, national security strategy, military power, security and defence sector
Słowa kluczowe: bezpieczeństwo militarne, bezpieczeństwo narodowe, narodowa strategia bezpieczeństwa, siły militarne, sektor bezpieczeństwa i obrony

Introduction

The Russian Federation's interference in Ukraine's internal affairs, intensification of its intelligence activities, increasing informational and psychological pressure to destabilize the socio-political situation and direct military aggression have led to a breach of Ukraine's military security. Preparation to counter threats of a hybrid-military nature requires a more thorough and comprehensive approach in comparison with the time of contractual peace, keeping a flexible balance and coordination between civilian and military resources of the country, depending on the nature of the threat. Military security is characterized by a state's ability to protect its sovereignty, territorial integrity and inviolability from incursion (invasion) by military force. At the same time, this system should rely on its own forces. Russia's aggression against Ukraine requires a change in the approach to ensuring Ukraine's military security as part of national security.

Ukraine's military security is based on the National Security Strategy, the new version of which was adopted in September 2020 (hereinafter – Strategy). The new Strategy replaced the 2015 document, which was adopted under the conditions of a sharp change in the political and military situation caused by Russian aggression. The new Strategy identified the most important national security issues in terms of managing the security and defence area. It became the basis for developing strategic plans and programmes in this sector.

The core ideology of the National Security Strategy is to move away from the notion of an abstract 'security state' toward creating a triumvirate of 'containment, resilience, interaction'. This approach opens up more opportunities to modernize the security sector and respond more flexibly to new threats and challenges. The strategy provides for the development of 15 strategic documents, among which the Military Security Strategy of Ukraine occupies an important place. These documents should provide a substantive complement that outlines effective ways to combat hostile activities. The implementation of their content will determine the extent to which the newly adopted strategic document will become an effective planning tool rather than a formal bureaucratic response.

Among the functions of state policy, military policy ensures the sustainability of progressive socio-economic development by protecting Ukraine from the use

of military force. There are many definitions of military policy that reflect its different aspects: purpose, place in public policy, components, topics of formation and implementation, etc. For example, Western scientific thought uses the term 'defence policy' instead of the term 'military policy'.[1]

In this context an interesting position is presented by Bocharnikova and Sveshnikova. According to them, there are three approaches to military policy. The first is based on the understanding of military policy as an activity aimed at ensuring military security. The second is based on the understanding of military policy as an activity aimed at ensuring defence capabilities. The third is based on the understanding of military policy as an activity aimed at resolving armed conflict.[2]

The position that recognizes that military activity is aimed at the resolution of armed conflict seems the most appropriate. This is supported by the fact that the category of armed conflict is primary in comparison with the categories of military security or defence capabilities. According to the Military Doctrine of Ukraine, this policy, as an integral part of the state security policy, is directly related to the prevention of armed conflicts, preparation of the state for participation in them, as well as the use of military force to achieve its own political goals and ensure national interests[3]. These elements are also called areas of military policy and are centred around the category of armed conflict. Thus, the object of military policy is armed conflict, and its object is threefold: prevention of armed conflict, preparation for participation in armed conflict and actual participation in it.[4] In this perspective, it is possible to agree with the authors' position, at the same time it is expedient to follow the definitions of normative-legal documents that define the official position of the state.

The military policy of Ukraine defines the activities of national security entities related to the prevention of armed conflict, the organization and implementation of military construction and training of the Armed Forces of Ukraine, the State Service of Special Communications and Information Protection of Ukraine, the State Service of Special Transport and others under the law of Ukraine on military formations, law enforcement agencies of special purpose for the armed protection of national interests. This is the definition given by the current military doctrine of Ukraine of 2015[5]. Compared with the previous doctrines of 2004 and 2012, there were no changes in the definition of military policy.[6]

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[1] S.V. Svyeshnikov, V.P. Bocharnikov, *Voyenna polityka: sutnist' i problemy formuvannya y realizatsiyi*, "Nauka i oborona" 2018, № 1, s. 23–28.

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[5] *Voy*enna doktryna Ukrayiny: Ukaz Prezydenta Ukrayiny vid 24 veresnya 2015 r. № 555/2015, http://www.president.gov.ua/documents/5552015-19443, [access: 04.12.2021].

[6] *Voyenna doktryna Ukrayiny: Ukaz Prezydenta Ukrayiny vid 15 chervnya 2004 r.* № 648, Ofitsiynyy visnyk Ukrayiny 2004, № 30, St. 2005.

Military policy ensures the realization of the fundamental interests of the nation and determines, first, that without their realization other interests of the state cannot be realized, and second, that in peacetime military policy must constantly monitor the state of the vast majority of spheres of life. On the other hand, and in time of warc almost all public policy should be focused on the implementation of war policy.[7]

Military policy is focused on the military doctrine adopted in the state for a specific period of time and defines the system of official views and regulations adopted in the state that determine the main directions of military construction, the conditions of preparation of the state and armed forces for war, the means and forms of warfare.[8]

The main provisions of military doctrine are shaped and changed according to the politics and social order, the level of development of the productive forces, new scientific achievements and the nature of the expected war. In fact, military doctrine is the ideological core of all military and political activities of the state, political parties, public organizations and institutions. It concerns the interests of the public and all government agencies. In general, doctrinal issues are reflected in various legal acts and combat and military documents.

Realizacja postanowień Strategii Bezpieczeństwa Narodowego Ukrainy

Russia's aggression caused Ukraine to revise its approach to ensuring the defence and territorial integrity of the country and forced the adoption of a new military doctrine that abolished Ukraine's non-aligned status. The military doctrine adopted in 2015 defined the main directions of the state's military policy under conditions of Russian aggression. In 2015, the National Security Strategy[9], the Concept of Development of the Security and Defence Sector of Ukraine[10] and the Strategic Defence Bulletin of Ukraine,[11] the Concept of Development of the Armed Forces of Ukraine until 2020 and the Comprehensive (State) Programme of Development of the Armed Forces of Ukraine until 2020 were adopted.[12]

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[7] S.V. Svyeshnikov, V.P. Bocharnikov, *Voyenna polityka: sutnist' i problemy formuvannya y realizatsiyi*, "Nauka i oborona" 2018, № 1, s. 23.

[8] *Vplyv hlobal'nykh politychnykh, enerhoresursnykh ta ekolohichnykh zmin na voyennu bezpeku derzhavy: monohrafiya* / V.V. Zubaryev, O.P. Kutovyy, O.O. Sverhunov, S.M. Khymchenko, Kyyiv: Intertekhnolohiya, 2009, s. 256.

[9] *Voyenna doktryna Ukrayiny: Ukaz Prezydenta Ukrayiny vid 24 veresnya 2015 r.* № 555/2015, http://www.president.gov.ua/documents/5552015-19443, [access: 04.12.2021].

[10] A. Kalyayev, L. Novak-Kalyayeva, T. Stukalin, V. Motornyy, L. Rudenko, *Imperatives of global governance in the field of military security: the European context and Ukraine*, Khalid S. Soliman (ed.) / *Innovation Management and Sustainable Economic Development in the Era of Global Pandemic*, Proceedings of the 38th International Business Information Management Association Conference (IBIMA) 23–24 November 2021, Sevilla, Spain, p. 1560– 1569, ISSN: 2767-9640, [access: 04.12.2021].

[11] *Interpretatsiyi rosiys'ko-ukrayins'koho konfliktu v zakhidnykh naukovykh i ekspertno-analitychnykh pratsyakh* / V. Kulyka (red.), Kyyiv: IPiEND im. I.F. Kurasa NAN Ukrayiny, 2020, 328, s. 7, ISBN 978-966-02-9220-8.

[12] *Derzhavna prohrama rozvytku Zbroynykh Syl Ukrayiny na period do 2020 r.*, https://www.mil.gov.ua/content/oboron_plans/National-program-2020_uk.pdf, [access: 04.12.2021].

The novelty of the Military Doctrine was a move away from a policy of non-alignment and a resumption of the strategic course of Euro-Atlantic integration, shifting the emphasis in the conduct of armed conflict to the integrated use of military and non-military instruments. Ukraine's military doctrine separately provides for readiness to counter new methods of conducting armed conflict. It includes not only the unconventional (hybrid) war that Russia is waging in Donbass, but also countering information and disinformation campaigns, economic warfare, psychological campaigns, etc. In today's globalized world, these issues may be even more important than direct military intervention. The doctrine set itself the task of relocating military units and formations and creating an adequate military infrastructure in the eastern and southern regions of the country.[13]

The 2015 Military Doctrine became the basis for future changes in the field of military security. On its basis, programme documents were developed, first of all, the programme for the development of the Armed Forces and the programme for the development of weapons and military equipment. Such programmes were developed until 2020. According to the Ministry of Defence, for various reasons, these programmes are only 70–75 percent implemented.[14]

Changes in the military-political situation both around Ukraine and in the world led to the adoption of a new version of the national security strategy in 2020 and, based on it, other strategic documents based on European and Euro-Atlantic integration.

In official statements, Western political leaders agree that Russia's actions pose a threat to regional and even global security. However, there is obvious uncertainty about the assessment of Moscow's strategic goals by Western political elites evaluating the Russian threat.[15] There is a tendency in publications by Western analysts to avoid critical analysis of the consequences of the conflict in Ukraine for European security. Even leading liberal scholars only urge the West to respond to the challenge of Putinism, but do not offer any concrete ideas.[16] Moreover, the Russian propaganda

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[13] L. Novak-Kalyayeva, *National unity and territorial identity in Ukraine: problems of acceptance* // Processes of Integration and Disintegration in the European and Eurasian Space: The Geographical Context / edited by Cezary Mądry – Poznań: Bogucki Wydawnictwo Naukowe 2017, 230, p. 125–139, (1 др.арк.) ISBN 978-83-7986-146-0; L. Novak-Kalyayeva, Hybrydowe wojna/pokój na Wschodzie Ukrainy jako czynniki bezpieczeństwa Europejskiego // *Bezpieczeństwo państw Europy Środkowowschodniej w kontekście konfliktu na Ukrainie,* T. Pączek (red.), Slupsk: Wydawnictwo Społeczno-Prawne 2016, 502, s. 41–61 (1 др.арк.), ISBN 978-83-943337-9-9.

[14] YU. Servetnyk, *Syly spetsial'nykh operatsiy – yikh rol' ta mistse v modeli suchasnykh zbroynykh syl*, http://www.r-studies.org/cms/index.php?action=news/view_details&news_id=8280&lang=ukr, [access: 04.12.2021]; *Shchodo kontseptsiyi zabezpechennya natsional'noyi stiykosti v Ukrayini. Analitychna zapyska, NISD*, Seriya "Natsional'na bezpeka" 2020, № 8, s. 11–18.

[15] K. Smahliy, *Hibrydna analityka: Prokremlivs'ka propahanda ekspertiv u Moskvi, Yevropi ta SSHA: Tematychne doslidzhennya analitychnykh tsentriv ta universytetiv*, Instytut suchasnoyi Rosiyi 2018, https://static1.squarespace.com/static/59f8f41ef14aa13b95239af0/t/5c6d8b38b208fc7087fd2b2a/1550682943143/Smagliy_Hybrid-Analytica_10-2018_upd.pdf, [access: 04.12.2021].

[16] A. Baratta, *Putting an accent on the future: Global Strategic Trends: The Future Starts Today*, Development Concepts and Doctrine Centre 2017, https://www.research.manchester.ac.uk/portal/

machine is more effective than the Ukrainian media, for both objective and subjective reasons. Leading analysts of Western countries are much more likely to rely on Russian sources than Ukrainian ones, since the former are much more often translated into Western languages and Russian is much more frequently used by Western analysts and readers than Ukrainian. Moreover, analysts rely on scholarly works by authoritative Western experts who are much more marked by Russian than Ukrainian influences and not only because of their different linguistic skills, but also because of their well-established views on the history and politics of Eastern Europe, where Russia has a prominent place. This is why one can so often find dubious, untrue and openly provocative allegations in Western academic and expert-analytic publications about the division of Ukraine into a Ukrainian-speaking West and a Russian-speaking East, the insurmountable closeness of eastern Ukraine to Russia and the dominance of radical nationalists and fascists in western Ukraine.[17]

The transformation of Ukraine from an object to a subject of international politics

The analysis of Western scientific and analytical publications on the current Russian-Ukrainian conflict is constantly in the spotlight. In particular, it is worth mentioning the article by Yu Matsievsky, who interprets the factors of the conflict in the Donbass on the basis of the work of Ukrainian, Russian and Western scientists, and provides the assessment of Ukrainian experts on the importance of these factors.[18] A large-scale study was conducted by a group of Ukrainian researchers led by M. Karmazina.[19] This group reviewed scientific, expert-analytical and media publications from various Western and post-Soviet countries on the situation and prospects of Ukraine in the context of the war in Donbass. K. Smagliya's in-depth analysis focuses on the activities of think tanks in Russia and the West, created or maintained by the Russian authorities to promote their views and justify their actions. The author tries to cover all areas of pro-Kremlin 'hybrid analytics'.[20]

en/publications/putting-an-accent-on-the-future(c943a52a-c8e1-473f-bf16-56afa6ed6c63).html, [access: 02.03.2022].

[17] *Interpretatsiyi rosiys'ko-ukrayins'koho konfliktu v zakhidnykh naukovykh i ekspertno-analitychnykh pratsyakh* / V. Kulyka (red.), Kyyiv: IPiEND im. I.F. Kurasa NAN Ukrayiny 2020, 328, s. 7, ISBN 978-966-02-9220-8.

[18] YU. Matsiyevsʹkyy, *Vnutrishniy konflikt chy prykhovana ahresiya: akademichna dyskusiya i ekspertni otsinky viyny na Donbasi*, Politychne zhyttya 2019, № 2, s. 55–68, DOI 10.31558/2519-2949.2019.2.9, https://eprints.oa.edu.ua/7875/1/9.10.2019_Internal%20conflict%20or%20hidden%20agression_%20Matsiyevsky.pdf. 199.

[19] M. Karmazina, T. Bevz, N. Rotar, V. Napadysta, *Vyklyky y intehratsiyni perspektyvy Ukrayiny v konteksti rosiys'koyi ahresiyi v Krymu ta Donbasi: analiz otsinok zarubizhnykh analitykiv i ekspertiv*, Kyyiv: IPiEND im. I.F. Kurasa NAN Ukrayiny 2017, s. 184.

[20] K. Smahliy, *Hibrydna analityka: Prokremlivs'ka propahanda ekspertiv u Moskvi, Yevropi ta SSHA: Tematychne doslidzhennya analitychnykh tsentriv ta universytetiv*, Instytut suchasnoyi Rosiyi 2018, https://static1.squarespace.com/static/59f8f41ef14aa13b95239af0/t/5c6d8b38b208fc7087fd2b2a/1550682943143/Smagliy_Hybrid-Analytica_10-2018_upd.pdf, [access: 04.12.2021].

On the other hand, the collections edited by A. Hertel present the views on the 'Ukrainian crisis' of Western scholars and in particular of the 'Visegrad Four'. However, for policy analysis the works of scientists and experts of think tanks are more relevant.[21] The work of scientists from the Institute of Political and Ethno-National Studies of the National Academy of Sciences of Ukraine[22] significantly broadens the analytical horizon. This is because it covers seven different Western countries and systematically analyses them using common methods to compare results and identify the cause of differences.

Europeans' attitudes towards Ukraine are shaped by the materials of their national think tanks and mass media. Thus, the ambiguity of the results is confirmed by data from an opinion poll conducted by the New Europe Center in several major European countries. The general aim of the survey was to find out public opinion on Ukraine, as well as to identify the most frequent associations with the Ukrainian state. According to the results of the survey, the positions on Ukraine are worth noting, for example, that Ukraine is mainly associated with war. At the same time, in 2020 Ukraine is less associated with war and conflict. In 2015, 49% of respondents associated Ukraine with war, while in 2020 the number of such respondents decreased to 12%.[23] Ukraine is increasingly associated with immigrants. In 2015, the number of such statements was small. In 2020, this is the third most popular association with Ukraine (mentioned by 10.3% of respondents). This indicates a growing trend of migration from Ukraine in search of better jobs in the EU. The majority of respondents have negative associations with the Ukrainian state and this trend can be observed in all countries surveyed. The exception is Italy, which has more positive and neutral associations with Ukraine than any other country. An interesting observation is that 23.6% of respondents have no associations with Ukraine. This is also positive news because these respondents can be informed about Ukraine and promote positive associations.

There was no consensus among respondents on how to help Ukraine during the pandemic. Overall, about half of respondents believe that countries should maintain or intensify cooperation at current levels, while the other half believe that cooperation should be limited or focused on their own countries' problems. However, Russian narratives about Ukraine in the surveyed countries have proven ineffective. Only 0.8% of

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[21]   A. Härtel (ed.), *EU member states national perspectives on the "Ukraine crisis"*, Ideology and Politics 2017, 1(7), https://ideopol.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/10/1.0.ENG_IPJ% 201(7)%20 2017Final.pdf, [access: 04.12.2021].

[22]   *Interpretatsiyi rosiys'ko-ukrayins'koho konfliktu v zakhidnykh naukovykh i ekspertno-analitych-nykh* pratsyakh / za V. Kulyka (red.), Kyyiv: IPiEND im. I.F. Kurasa NAN Ukrayiny, 2020, 328, s. 7, ISBN 978-966-02-9220-8.

[23]   L. Litra, *Tak – perspektyvi chlenstva, ni – dopomozi zbroyeyu: yakymy u YES bachat' vidnosyny z Ukrayinoyu*, Yevropeys′ka pravda, 18 Lystopada 2020, Tsentr "Nova Yevropa", https://www. eurointegration.com.ua/articles/2020/11/18/7116664/, [access: 04.12.2021]; A. Kalyayev, L. Novak-Kalyayeva, T. Stukalin, V. Motornyy, L. Rudenko, *Imperatives of global governance in the field of military security: the European context and Ukraine*, S. Soliman Khalid (ed.), *Innovation Management and Sustainable Economic Development in the Era of Global Pandemic*, Proceedings of the 38th International Business Information Management Association Conference (IBIMA) 23–24 November 2021, Sevilla, Spain, p. 1560–1569, ISSN: 2767-9640.

respondents believe that Ukrainians are waging a civil war, and less than 0.2% among those who consider Ukraine an extremist or fascist country.[24]

As in 2015, the survey found that the biggest obstacle to Ukraine's EU membership is corruption, the fight against which is a priority for 43.1% of respondents in 2020 (37.5% – in 2015). The majority of respondents (55%) support Ukraine's EU membership. Support for Ukraine's membership in NATO is also important (38%), but this answer did not receive majority support. In 2020, the number of respondents associating Ukraine with Russia is 9.1%, while just five years ago this category was twice as large (18%).[25] This indicates an awareness of Ukraine's clear separation from Russia – an acceptance of a Ukrainian state independent of Russia.

The most popular answer to support Ukraine against Russian aggression (21.5%) is the continuation of EU sanctions against Russia. Of course, respondents' answers were based on the national characteristics of their countries, which influenced the ranking of priorities. Thus, Poland associates Ukraine primarily with immigrants (25.8%) and poverty (25%), and only then with war. At the same time, in Germany and France the most popular associations are with Russia and war. Most French respondents (15.5%) associate Ukraine with Russia, war and conflict (13.1%) and Eastern Europe (10.6%). The three most common associations in Germany are associated with Russia (war, invasion of Crimea, and Russia), which accounts for almost half of the respondents (47.5%).[26]

In the case of Germany and France, the popularity of associations with war can be explained by the fact that due to the role of Berlin and Paris in the Normandy format, the topic of Ukraine's war with Russia resonates more often in these countries than in others. In general, in France, Germany and Poland most of the top ten associations are negative. The situation is different in Italy, where the topic of the Russian-Ukrainian war is almost absent from public opinion – only 0.6% of respondents mention it. Italians are among those who have the most positive attitude towards Ukraine.[27]

Among the ten most popular associations there is only one negative one ('immigrants/unemployment'), while the others are either neutral, like 'gas/energy', 'politics' or positive, like 'culture/history' or 'Ukrainian friends'. In European public opinion, eliminating corruption as the number one priority is an obstacle to Ukraine's EU membership. This answer is given in all countries surveyed, but the level of support

[24] L. Litra, *Tak – perspektyvi chlenstva, ni – dopomozi zbroyeyu: yakymy u YES bachat' vidnosyny z Ukrayinoyu*, Yevropeys′ka pravda, 18 Lystopada 2020, Tsentr "Nova Yevropa", https://www.eurointegration.com.ua/articles/2020/11/18/7116664/, [access: 04.12.2021].

[25] K. Smahliy, *Hibrydna analityka: Prokremlivs′ka propahanda ekspertiv u Moskvi, Yevropi ta SSHA*: Tematychne doslidzhennya analitychnykh tsentriv ta universytetiv, Instytut suchasnoyi Rosiyi 2018, https://static1.squarespace.com/static/59f8f41ef14aa13b95239af0/t/5c6d8b38b208fc7087fd2b2a/1550682943143/Smagliy_Hybrid-Analytica_10-2018_upd.pdf, [access: 04.12.2021].

[26] L. Litra, *Tak – perspektyvi chlenstva, ni – dopomozi zbroyeyu: yakymy u YES bachat' vidnosyny z Ukrayinoyu*, Yevropeys′ka pravda, 18 Lystopada 2020, Tsentr "Nova Yevropa", https://www.eurointegration.com.ua/articles/2020/11/18/7116664/, [access: 04.12.2021].

[27] *Ibidem*.

for it is different: the highest (over 58%) is in Germany, the lowest (although one of the priorities) is in Italy (29.1%). The second most important priority is to significantly improve the economy. All countries note strengthening the economy as a second priority, except for France, where restoring territorial integrity is considered more important. Overall, the public perception is that territorial integrity does not appear to be an obstacle to Ukraine's EU integration or is the least problematic in the ranking of the three options presented in the survey.

Support for Ukraine's membership in the EU and NATO is not linear in the surveyed countries, the majority of respondents (55%) support Ukraine's membership in the European Union. At the same time, support for NATO reaches 38%, which means that this idea is not popular enough. On the other hand, the number of those who believe that Ukraine should not join the EU and NATO is at 28.5%.[28] Among the surveyed countries, Poland (69.5%) and Italy (61.6%) have significant support for Ukraine's EU membership. At the same time, in Germany (47%) and France (42.6%), the idea of Ukraine's EU membership did not receive majority support.[29]

The idea of Ukraine's membership in NATO does not yet have majority support in all researched countries. France is the most open to Ukraine's NATO membership (39.9%), followed by Poland (33.3%) and Germany and Italy, which have the same support rates for this answer (31.3%). As for supporting Ukraine against Russian aggression, most respondents prefer to continue sanctions against Russia (21.5% indicated this answer as a priority).

At the same time, a similar number of respondents choose 'offering Ukraine EU membership' as the top priority. Three countries believe that expanding sanctions against Russia should be a priority: Poland (23.3%), France (23.4%) and Germany (23.4%), showing almost absolute unity on this issue. The only country where the approach is different is Italy, which chose Ukraine's membership in the EU as a priority (24.1%), and only then set the extension of sanctions.[30]

Quite often the option of providing financial support to Ukraine does not have significant support as a first priority, but many listed this option as a second and third priority. On the other hand, the least popular option among the highest priorities was the answer 'provide Ukraine with weapons' (only 2%). Analysing individual countries, we see that Poland has the highest number of supporters of arming Ukraine (5.1%), followed by France (2.9%), Germany (1.4%) and Italy (0.9%).[31]

The case of Germany is rather ambiguous: here the option 'not to support Ukraine at all' as the highest priority met with the sympathy of 13.1% of respondents, which is more than total support for the options 'to support financially' and 'to provide Ukraine

[28] *Ibidem*.
[29] *Ibidem*.
[30] *Ibidem*.
[31] *Ibidem*; A. Kalyayev, L. Novak-Kalyayeva, T. Stukalin, V. Motornyy, L. Rudenko, *Imperatives of global governance in the field of military security: the European context and Ukraine*, Soliman Khalid S (ed.) / *Innovation Management and Sustainable Economic Development in the Era of Global Pandemic*, Proceedings of the 38th International Business Information Management Association Conference (IBIMA) 23–24 November 2021, Sevilla, Spain, p. 1560–1569, ISSN: 2767-9640.

with weapons'. A similar situation is observed in France. This tendency does not occur in Italy and Poland[32].

Thus, in the context of Ukraine's military security, this study shows that the priority in solving security issues should be determined by our country and that one can hope for more political, moral and psychological support from Europe and the United States.

If Ukraine can still hope for EU membership in the near future, the system of national security and defence, protection of sovereignty, territorial integrity and border inviolability must be based on its own strength. At the same time, cooperation with the EU on the Common Security and Defence Policy is an important systemic element of Ukraine's European integration course. This should be the priority of military policy.

Military doctrine must formulate the state's response to military-political aggression, taking into account only its own resources and capabilities. We believe that the doctrine's emphasis on external support is inappropriate, especially after the guarantor countries violated the Budapest Memorandum. In contemporary conditions, there may also be factors that change the policies of the lead states.

An important element of this system is the security and defence sector of Ukraine, which functionally combines military formations, law enforcement and intelligence agencies, and special services, their forces, means, and basic resources. Taking into account the current tendencies of complex manifestation of various types of fighting in modern conflicts and with limited state resources, the creation of a strong security and defence sector should become one of the priorities of Ukraine's security policy.[33]

The adoption of the new National Security Strategy of Ukraine marked the beginning of a new stage in the development of security theory, due to the evolution of the concepts of security and defence of European states against the background of Russia's aggression against Ukraine. The Strategy for the first time proclaimed the creation of a comprehensive defence system, requiring the involvement of all spheres of Ukrainian society in resolving military security issues. The new version of the National Security Strategy defines the priorities of national interests and national security of Ukraine, goals and main directions of state policy in the sphere of national security.

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[32] L. Litra, *Tak – perspektyvi chlenstva, ni – dopomozi zbroyeyu: yakymy u YES bachat' vidnosyny z Ukrayinoyu*. Yevropeys′ka pravda, 18 Lystopada 2020, Tsentr "Nova Yevropa", https://www.eurointegration.com.ua/articles/2020/11/18/7116664/, [access: 04.12.2021]; A. Kalyayev, L. Novak-Kalyayeva, T. Stukalin, V. Motornyy, L. Rudenko, *Imperatives of global governance in the field of military security: the European context and Ukraine*, S. Soliman Khalid (ed.) / *Innovation Management and Sustainable Economic Development in the Era of Global Pandemic*, Proceedings of the 38th International Business Information Management Association Conference (IBIMA) 23–24 November 2021, Sevilla, Spain, p. 1560–1569, ISSN: 2767-9640.

[33] O.I. Poshedin, *Voyenna bezpeka Ukrayiny v konteksti spivrobitnytstva z Yevropeys′kym Soyuzom*, Visnyk Natsional′noyi akademiyi derzhavnoho upravlinnya pry Prezydentovi Ukrayiny 2014, № 3, s. 57.

It is based on the following basic principles:
- deterrence – development of defence and security capabilities to prevent armed aggression against Ukraine;
- resilience – the ability of society and the state to adapt quickly to changes in the security environment and maintain sustainable functioning, in particular by minimizing external and internal vulnerabilities;
- interoperability – development of strategic relations with key foreign partners, primarily the European Union and NATO and their member states, the United States of America, pragmatic cooperation with other states and international organizations based on Ukraine's national interests.

The priorities of Ukraine's national interests and national security are: maintenance of state independence and sovereignty; restoration of territorial integrity within the internationally recognized state border of Ukraine; social development, especially human capital development, protection of rights, freedoms and legitimate interests of Ukrainian citizens; European and Euro-Atlantic integration.[34]

Implementation of these priorities will be ensured, among others, in areas related to the military policy of the state and its military security. This is primarily the strengthening of the capabilities of the Armed Forces of Ukraine and other bodies of the security and defence sector.

On the list of threats is that, despite the continuation of Russian aggression and occupation of Ukraine, the current rate of rearmament of the Armed Forces of Ukraine and other components of the Armed Forces are not among the latest (modernized) models and will not meet the main needs for weapons and military equipment, which will be exhausted in the near future.

The growing shortage of financial resources complicates the allocation of resources to ensure the production and purchase of the necessary modern weapons and military equipment, which, combined with the imbalance of military capabilities of Ukraine and Russia, forces the development of a new strategy for military security and the nature of modern armed conflicts, the principles and ways to prevent their occurrence, to prepare the state for a possible armed conflict, as well as the use of military force to protect state sovereignty, territorial integrity and other vital national interests.

The Draft Military Security Strategy defines the objectives, priorities and ways of implementing the state policy in the sphere of state security and defence in the part related to ensuring military security. The document is also the basis for the development of the Strategic Defence Bulletin of Ukraine, programme documents on defence and development of defence forces, development of military weapons and equipment, as well the Defence Plan of Ukraine and plans for the use of defence forces.

The military security strategy is intended to replace the military doctrine of Ukraine and is being developed for the first time. It proposes consolidating the concept

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[34] Pro rishennya Rady natsional′noyi bezpeky i oborony Ukrayiny vid 06 travnya 2015 r. "Pro Stratehiyu natsional′noyi bezpeky Ukrayiny": Ukaz Prezydenta Ukrayiny vid 26 travnya 2015 r., № 287/2015, https://zakon.rada.gov.ua/laws/show/287/2015, Article 4, [access: 04.12.2021].

of comprehensive defence and to involve not only the Armed Forces of Ukraine, but also all elements of the security and defence sector and civil society. The peculiarity of this strategy is that it applies the principle of comprehensive or total defence. This means that not only the defence forces will be involved in the defence of the country, but the entire Ukrainian society and all public authorities, which must oppose the enemy throughout Ukraine, using all forms and methods of struggle with respect to the principles and norms of international law. In other words, at a certain stage of the conflict only the Armed Forces of Ukraine will be used. If the potential of the Armed Forces is not enough to neutralize this threat, all defence forces (all security forces) will be engaged. If these resources are not enough, the defensive forces of the state will be involved in defence and a resistance movement will be launched, directing all financial and material resources to neutralize the threat. An important role in the draft of the new Military Security Strategy is played by the international component – political and material support of foreign partners in the fight against the aggressor. This document will define five strategic objectives to achieve further development of the Armed Forces and other components of the Armed Forces.[35]

The first goal is effective defence management. This means that the Ministry of Defence must create a regulatory framework, set clear priorities and effectively allocate available resources for the successful development of the Armed Forces. To accomplish these tasks, it is necessary to create an optimal number and function of the Ministry of Defence that does not duplicate the tasks of the General Staff and other structures. The second objective is human resources. In the Armed Forces should serve highly professional personnel with appropriate moral qualities, a new philosophy and an active social position. The third objective is the modernization and improvement of weapons and military equipment. I will point out that this is probably the most critical problem that requires large investments. The fourth goal is to create a military infrastructure. Unfortunately, this issue had not been given due attention before. In recent years there have been significant changes in the security environment, and all major threats do not emanate from the West (as in Soviet times), but from the East. Therefore, it is necessary to completely reconfigure the military infrastructure. A separate issue – the creation of normal living and service conditions for our soldiers – this is an urgent task. And the fifth goal, for the achievement of which all the previous goals must be achieved, is to increase the ability of the armed forces to protect the sovereignty, territorial integrity and independence of Ukraine.

In our opinion, this is the most rational in the context of the existing military threat to national security, given the imbalance of military potentials of Ukraine and the Russian Federation.

According to the authors of the draft new military security strategy, the nature of the direct military threats to Ukraine are:
– armed aggression and violation of the territorial integrity of Ukraine (temporary Russian occupation of the Autonomous Republic of Crimea, Sevastopol

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[35] *Stratehiya voyennoyi bezpeky. Proyekt*, https://www.mil.gov.ua/content/public_discussion/proj_vdu.pdf, [access: 04.12.2021].

and parts of the Donetsk and Luhansk regions), increasing the military power of the Russian Federation in these territories and in the immediate vicinity of the borders of Ukraine, including the potential deployment of tactical nuclear weapons in Crimea;

– militarization of the Russian Federation in the occupied territories through the creation of new military formations and units, as well as the supply of fighters, military equipment and logistics;

– the presence of a Russian military contingent in the Transnistrian region of the Republic of Moldova, which can be used to destabilize the southern regions of Ukraine;

– construction of the Russian Federation near the state border of Ukraine, a group of troops with powerful offensive and offensive potential, the creation of new, expansion and modernization of existing bases, military infrastructure;

– intensification of special services of the Russian Federation intelligence and diversionary activities in Ukraine in order to destabilize the internal socio-political situation in Ukraine, as well as to support illegal activities in the east of Ukraine and create conditions for the escalation of armed aggression;

– activities of illegal armed groups on the territory of Ukraine aimed at destabilizing the internal socio-political situation in Ukraine, intimidation of the population, deprivation of freedom to resist, disruption of the functioning of public authorities, local governments, important industrial facilities and infrastructure;

– territorial claims of the Russian Federation against Ukraine and violation of Ukraine's sovereignty in some of its districts;

– use of the territory and airspace (maritime) of Ukraine for combat operations in the event of an armed conflict between NATO and Russia[36].

Taking into account the development trends and the nature of the military-political situation in the medium term, the most likely armed conflicts are conflicts over the use of the opponent's own armed forces and illegal armed groups, terrorist groups, mercenaries as a tool to achieve their own goals and interests. The probability of escalation of such conflicts into war will increase significantly. The above challenges and threats to Ukraine's military security can manifest in the following scenarios:

– full-scale armed aggression of the Russian Federation against Ukraine with the conduct of land, air and naval operations with decisive military and political objectives;

– separate special operation of the Russian Federation against Ukraine with the use of separate military units and/or units, arson attacks, information, information and psychological operations (activities) in conjunction with the use of non-military means, including under the pretext of allegedly bringing in peacekeepers and their delimitation in the absence of a corresponding decision of the United Nations Security Council (UNSC);

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[36] *Ibidem.*

– blockade with the use of armed force of the seaports, coastline or airspace of Ukraine, violation of its communications by the Russian Federation;
– armed conflict in the state, inspired by Russia's attempt to separate from Ukraine administrative-territorial units in the east, south-east and south of the state with the participation of illegal armed groups, terrorist groups in cooperation with political, non-governmental, ethnic, religious or other organizations;
– armed conflict on the state border of Ukraine, in particular border armed incidents (provocations, clashes) with regular or irregular forces of the Russian Federation, illegal armed groups, etc.;
– terrorist acts on the territory of Ukraine or against citizens of Ukraine, attempts on the lives of statesmen or public figures, representatives of foreign states (aimed at causing war or international complications), sabotage (including of critical infrastructure) and explosions, arson to the premises of public authorities and their seizure, kidnapping or hostage taking.

Threats to Ukraine's military security, if realized, could lead to a change in the constitutional order of Ukraine, further occupation of Ukraine or its separate territories, weakening of the central government, change in the administrative-territorial structure, direct or indirect control over Ukraine and loss of state sovereignty and territorial integrity.

The main tasks in the field of military security of Ukraine

The main task in the field of military security is to develop deterrence capabilities. The unconditional priority is the Armed Forces of Ukraine in combat readiness, a prepared and motivated military reserve and effective territorial defence, which in combination with the capabilities of other bodies of the security and defence sector can inflict such unacceptable losses on the ground, in the air, at sea and in cyberspace in the event of aggressive intentions. The state must take into account the lessons of hybrid aggression against Ukraine and warfare in the Middle East in new doctrinal approaches to military security.

The main goal of Ukraine's military policy is to create conditions for the restoration of the territorial integrity of the state, its sovereignty and inviolability within the internationally recognized state border. Ukraine considers as the main objectives in the field of military policy:
– to repel the armed aggression of the Russian Federation against Ukraine;
– to ensure the defence capabilities of Ukraine are at a level sufficient to prevent the emergence of an armed conflict, and in the event of an armed conflict to localize and neutralize it;
– to create a system for maintaining the military security of the state that would ensure that Ukraine is perceived at the international level as an equal actor in international relations and meets the criteria for Ukraine's membership in the EU and NATO;

— reducing corruption in the system of state policy on state military security, which threatens Ukraine's ability to maintain defence capabilities.

Based on the principles of domestic and foreign policy, as well as on the nature of existing and potential national security threats, the main objectives of Ukraine's military policy in the near and medium term are:
- localizing and neutralizing in the shortest possible time the military-political crisis in eastern Ukraine, preventing its escalation into large-scale armed aggression;
- eliminating illegal armed groups and restoring full control of Ukraine's state border;
- reforming Ukraine's defence forces to achieve operational and technical compatibility with the armed forces of NATO countries, including through the implementation of NATO standards;
- creation of an integrated state security and defence sector as the main component of the military security system, integration of the capabilities of its components for timely and effective response to existing and potential threats;
- ensuring the capabilities of the defence forces needed to achieve military policy objectives.

In our opinion, the objectives of the task of the military strategy and military policy set out in the Draft correspond to the current state and medium-term forecast of the military-political situation and can be clarified on the basis of a gradual approach to changes in the security environment of the conditions of socio-economic development of Ukraine and the capabilities of the defence forces. Having created the conditions for the restoration of Ukraine's territorial integrity, the main objective of military policy will be to prevent new armed conflicts, systematically strengthen the defence capabilities of the state and increase its role and authority in the international arena. In the framework of the implementation of this Strategy, the state's military policy should ensure the rapid development of the Security and Defence Sector through innovative approaches that provide sufficient state defence capabilities to repel armed aggression and comprehensive reform of the national security system to a level acceptable for EU and NATO membership.

The complex realities of a globalized world have placed on the agenda the need to identify effective means and possible ways to enhance international and national security in the military sphere. The leadership of global governance structures and leading countries of the world offer various political, military, economic and other measures, the implementation of which would prevent the emergence of new wars and armed conflicts or their cessation with the least possible loss of human and material resources. Each country chooses its own path to deal with this complex problem.

Ukraine, under current conditions, is one of the leading players in the political arena of Europe and in the context of Russia's armed aggression against Ukraine has chosen the path of European integration and membership in

collective security systems. The current Military Doctrine of Ukraine (2015) re-
cognizes as significant military threats: Russia's armed aggression, including the
temporary occupation of Crimea and aggression in some regions of the Donetsk
and Luhansk regions; the increase of the military power of the Russian Federa-
tion in the immediate vicinity of the state border, including the possibility of de-
ploying tactical nuclear weapons in Crimea; the militarization of the temporari-
ly occupied territory, the presence of the Russian military contingent in the
Transnistrian region of Moldova, the intensification of intelligence activities of
the Russian special services and diversionary activities in Ukraine to destabilize
the internal situation[37]. The military doctrine assumes that the key tasks of creating
conditions for the restoration of state sovereignty and territorial integrity of Ukraine
are comprehensive reforms of the national security system to a level acceptable for
EU and NATO membership; the creation of an effective security and defence sector
that will provide sufficient national defence capabilities to repel armed aggression, as
well as the development of the Armed Forces of Ukraine according to Western stan-
dards and achieving compatibility with the armed forces of NATO member states.[38]

   Although this doctrine was the first document defining the priorities of Ukraine's
military security, the development of the military-political situation in the world has
brought new threats to Ukraine's national interests, and therefore requires updating.
The analytical report of the Foreign Intelligence Service of Ukraine[39] states that the
current global crisis caused by the coronavirus pandemic and the destructive policies
of the Russian and U.S. administrations have exacerbated the deep contradictions and
moved the existing global threats to a higher level. The main components of the 'new
reality' are: the limited effectiveness of collective security systems against the back-
ground of the spread of the use of force in international relations and disregard for
international law; attempts to revise the principles of free trade; competition against
traditional financial systems by blockchain technologies, as well as the willingness
of regional players, including Russia, to 'play on the contradictions' of the world's
leading players without giving up the use of unprocessed natural resources as a tool of
geopolitics. Some global and regional players are trying to use this to more aggressi-
vely advance their interests in areas of their strategic priority. In such actions, they
do not neglect the possibility of artificially exacerbating crises in certain countries in
order to further draw them into the orbit of their own influence and create conditions
for provoking new local or regional crises (conflicts) in the future.

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[37] *Voyenna doktryna Ukrayiny: Ukaz Prezydenta Ukrayiny vid 24 veresnya 2015 r.*, № 555/2015,
      http://www.president.gov.ua/documents/5552015-19443, [access: 04.12.2021].
[38] A. Kalyayev, I. Surina, L. Rudenko, *Institutionalizing Global Governance in the Sphere of Secu-
      rity and Defense: The European Context* / Proceedings of the 36th IBIMA International Confer-
      ence, 15–16 November 2020. Granada, p. 4564–4574, ISSN: 2767-9640; A. Kalyayev, *European
      realities of collective defense: NATO and the EU relations issues*, "Studia nad Bezpieczeństwem"
      2020, № 5, s. 17–30, ISSN: 2543-7321.
[39] H.M. Yavors′ka, B.O. Parakhons′kyy, *Zovnishnya polityka Ukrayiny v umovakh kryzy mizhnarod-
      noho bezpekovoho seredovyshcha: analit. dopovid*, Kyyiv: NISD 2015, 100 (Ser. "Natsional′na
      (Ser. "Natsional′na bezpeka", vyp. 10), ISBN 978-966-554-250-6.s.

The main factors affecting the situation in the regional security sphere in the context of Ukrainian interests is the confirmed ineffectiveness of the main security institutions (UN, OSCE) in resolving regional conflicts. At the same time, there was a tendency to militarize the territories and waters bordering the borders of Ukraine while destroying the current system of international treaties on non-proliferation of weapons of mass destruction, that is, greater influence on the regional security environment of Ukraine by the Russian Federation and other states seeking to achieve their ambitions, including the use of Ukrainian resources.

The response to new challenges and threats to the countries of the world should be the strengthening of its own security sector, membership in the collective security system and close international cooperation. At the same time, Ukraine must take into account a number of contradictory factors when determining its military policy and deciding on membership in the collective security system. On the one hand, preparing for armed conflicts on its own is economically burdensome, and participation in one bloc or another offers a chance to increase its own security and reduce the burden on the military component of its budget. On the other hand, participation in a military alliance increases the likelihood of a country's involvement in an inter-civilizational conflict and requires readiness to participate in the wars that the chosen bloc will fight. The requirements for adequate war preparedness of individual states will be determined by the leadership of the chosen collective security system, with less regard for their economic capabilities. In addition, independence in defence matters is lost to some extent. The level of each state's relationship with the collective security system is a key issue in forming the basis of its defence policy, and the strategic documents that define it must be democratically based on the political consensus of not only the major political parties but also civil society.

Ukraine has taken a major step toward deepening practical cooperation with NATO. The North Atlantic Council has granted it the status of an enhanced partner. Only five countries have such status, including Georgia, as well as EU member states Sweden and Finland. This status is a recognition of Ukraine's contribution to collective security on the continent and in the world.

In fact, the Eastern Partnership is one of the two main dimensions of Ukraine's Euro-Atlantic integration. The Eastern Partnership platform includes many sustainable areas of strengthening cooperation in the context of promoting new goals and areas of security cooperation for Ukraine. These include cyber security, reintegration policy and countering contemporary hybrid and terrorist threats. Given the multifaceted nature and trivial number of EU security institutions, the cross-border nature of terrorist threats, and the common potential of challenges in this area, the Eastern Partnership is the best option for ongoing cooperation.

Meanwhile, Russia seeks to block such cooperation, both by provoking a split in Ukrainian society over NATO membership and by undermining Alliance unity.

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Summary

The technology of implementation of doctrines, strategies, concepts and programmes of state policy in the field of military security objectively integrates all elements of state political activity. They are based on sound theoretical principles and historical experience. The goals and tasks of Ukraine's military policy correspond to both the current state and the medium-term forecast of the military-political situation and are determined by changes in security, the conditions of socio-economic development and the capabilities of the defence forces.

The priority task is to create an effective system of state military security. Such a system in Ukraine is in the process of creation. The use of the latest information and communication technologies for continuous monitoring and analysis of military threats allows for rapid strategic decision-making.

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TRANSITION FROM INTERNAL COMBUSTION ENGINES TO ELECTRIC MOTORS – LEGAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL DIMENSIONS

PRZEJŚCIE Z SILNIKÓW SPALINOWYCH NA SILNIKI ELEKTRYCZNE – WYMIAR PRAWNY I ORGANIZACYJNY

Abstract: The authors of the paper have studied the current tendencies in motor transport, threats to the ecological safety of people from the introduction of new technologies in this area and the main legal mechanisms to reduce the negative impacts on humans caused by vehicles. The main environmental problems in this area are: accumulation of used batteries from battery-powered vehicles as hazardous waste and the problem of their unified disposal; redistribution of emissions from transport operations, but not their reduction; focusing on only one technology – battery-powered electric vehicles; energy costs of transport and sources of their coverage. The authors offer the basis of legal mechanisms for overcoming the studied problems both in Ukraine and in the countries of the world.

Zarys treści: Autorzy artykułu zbadali aktualne tendencje w transporcie samochodowym, zagrożenia dla bezpieczeństwa ekologicznego ludzi wynikające z wprowadzania nowych technologii w tym zakresie oraz główne mechanizmy prawne ograniczania negatywnych oddziaływań pojazdów na ludzi. Główne problemy środowiskowe w tym obszarze to: gromadzenie

zużytych akumulatorów z pojazdów zasilanych bateryjnie jako odpady niebezpieczne oraz problem ich jednolitej utylizacji; redystrybucja emisji z operacji transportowych, ale nie ich redukcja; skupienie się tylko na jednej technologii – pojazdach elektrycznych zasilanych bateriami; koszty energii transportu i źródła ich pokrycia. Autorzy przedstawiają podstawy prawne mechanizmów przezwyciężania badanych problemów zarówno na Ukrainie, jak i w krajach świata.

Key words: battery vehicles, motor transport, ecological safety, environmental protection, ecological legislation
Słowa kluczowe: pojazdy akumulatorowe, transport samochodowy, bezpieczeństwo ekologiczne, ochrona środowiska, przepisy ekologiczne

Society and countries began to pay more attention to sustainable development in the second half of the 20th century – a concept based on the principles of preserving the environment by the current generation in a state that makes it possible for future generations to use natural resources of no less quality. To realize this, various programme and legal documents were adopted at the international level, in each area or sphere of public life – socio-demographic, industrial, environmental, etc.

Each country can develop its own programme and legal documents and is free to use or not to use international recommendations while developing them, if such a country has not previously undertaken the relevant international legal obligations in a particular area.

The developed countries of the world are making more and more efforts for the ecologization of material production, energy and transport. This is most noticeable in the field of motor transport because the vast majority of the population of these countries own vehicles. Due to the high concentration of populations in cities and the daily use of automotive transport, the air quality decreases and harmful acoustic loads increase, etc. The unproductive loss of time increases due to traffic jams, which also affects fatigue levels and final productivity, as well as forcing people to work in hazardous conditions. Thus, according to road traffic monitoring services, on average the time spent in traffic jams in Kyiv is 46%.[1] This indicator ranges from 82% up to 103% during the rush hours, when the largest movement of commuters occurs, and can reach 130%.[2] Most importantly, a significant part of the working population spends a certain amount of time in areas with the highest concentration of pollutants – on highways. If a total of 40 minutes per working day, including scheduled stops, over a total of 220 working days per year is spent commuting, a person is exposed to these harmful conditions for 146 hours per year, which is the equivalent of 18 working shifts. This is prompting governments to impose increasingly strict requirements for vehicles.

Increasingly stringent conditions for the production and operation of vehicles are pushing carmakers to make significant investments in the development of more

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[1]   *Skolko vremeni kievlyane tratyat iż za probok*, https://nashkiev.ua/novosti/skolko-vremeni-kievlyane-tratyat-iz-za-probok.html?in_parent=novosti, [access: 08.12.2020] [in Russian].
[2]   *Kyiv traffic*, https://www.tomtom.com/en_gb/traffic-index/kiev-traffic, [access: 08.12.2020, 2020].

advanced engines and equipment and, sometimes, outright fraud. This is confirmed by the recent 'Dieselgate' scandal, with the installation of vehicle software which detected whether or not a vehicle was being tested and, if so, underestimated the vehicle's emissions. 'Dieselgate' has become a catalyst for a series of bans on diesel vehicles in a number of European cities. However, the situation did not stop at the ban on diesel vehicles in some cities. A number of countries have announced the complete transition of vehicles to electric power plants and the abandonment of internal combustion engines. Thus, Norway plans to introduce a ban on internal combustion engines from 2025, Germany from 2030 and France from 2040.

The situation in Ukraine in this direction is mostly unchanged and diametrically opposite to that in Europe. Thus, Ukraine has adopted programmes of gradual introduction of environmental requirements for vehicles, which are known as 'Euro-4', 'Euro-5' and 'Euro-6'. Currently there is a requirement for the commissioning of vehicles that meet the requirements of the 'Euro-5' programme; the plan was to introduce the 'Euro-6' programme from January 1, 2020, but the introduction of these standards has been postponed to 2025. Moreover, as a result of a series of protests and the corresponding liberalization of customs legislation, it is possible to import and register in Ukraine used cars that do not meet the requirements of the 'Euro-5' programme as an exceptional, temporary measure. To stimulate the development of electric vehicles markets Ukraine has introduced customs clearance benefits, as well as initiating an independent series of state license plates with green inscriptions. Ukraine has not adopted the relevant standards with regard to the banning of internal combustion engines.

It should be noted that Ukraine, as well as the rest of the world, in order to reduce carbon dioxide emissions from vehicles, once stimulated and developed technologies for the use of mixtures including raw materials derived from renewable products (of animal or vegetable origin) as motor fuel, in particular bio-ethanol and biodiesel. There were attempts to mandate the addition of a certain proportion of ethanol to petrol, but that tendency has not been developed due to the small number of vehicles that have been adapted to run on such fuels.

Therefore, we can currently state that the use of internal combustion engines for individual transport is being gradually curtailed. Using motor fuel from renewable sources solves only one problem – reducing greenhouse gas emissions. Other problems remain unresolved. In the process of fuel combustion under ideal conditions, water and carbon dioxide should be formed, but in practice it is different. First of all, the fuel always contains impurities which do not only form water and carbon dioxide while being burned. All protein structures of living organisms contain sulphur and nitrogen, which inevitably get into the fuel, although in small quantities. The combustion of such impurities produces oxides of sulphur and nitrogen, which are part of exhaust fumes and cause acid rain. Secondly, atmospheric nitrogen is oxidized at high combustion temperatures in the engine and forms nitric oxide of different valences. Most of these compounds are neutralized in vehicle systems, in particular in catalytic converters. However, some of these compounds still enter the atmosphere.

Considering the significant concentration of vehicles in cities, even insignificant emissions are multiplied by the large number of vehicles, which leads to a high concentration of hazardous substances in small areas. Some cities, during windless weather, are covered with clouds of smog which are dangerous for all city residents, not only those who use transport.

In addition, the use of fuel containing products of animal or vegetable origin has faced certain ethical problems. Land is used for growing crops suitable for the production of bio-ethanol and biodiesel, i.e. part of the land is used for fuel production and not for producing food. Certain crops, in particular maize, can be used both as a food crop and as an energy crop for bio-ethanol production and this is happening while the world has not overcome the problem of hunger in many countries. Hunger is pushing people to migrate, which is further degrading the population in certain places and creating new environmental and social problems, including in developed countries. This ethical problem does not only affect the future of motor fuel made from renewable sources.

It is necessary to start the gradual transition from internal combustion engines to electric motors in the development of motor transport. In general, in supporting such a transition, it is necessary to pay attention to certain problems that every country will inevitably face on the path to electrification of motor transport.

The first problem is the energy of transport. Electric vehicles consume energy for movement and operation of onboard systems. The required amount of energy is taken from the battery, which must be charged from the existing power supply system. Without going into all the technical aspects of this issue, it should be noted that the use of batteries as a source of energy in vehicles incurs the following types of energy loss on:

- Conversion of alternating current to direct current, the losses are not significant here – 2-5%, associated with the operation of transformers and electronics.
- Conversion of direct current and energy of chemical bonds. This process is accompanied by a significant release of heat and accounts for much of the energy consumed from the network. The amount of losses depends on the model and technology of the manufacturer. Experience in the use of electric vehicles indicates that the difference between the metered electricity consumed from the grid and that stored in the battery of the electric vehicle can be 15–30% depending on climatic conditions and the degree of battery charge.
- Losses from the reverse conversion of the energy of chemical bonds into electricity are difficult to track, but purely technically they exist and can not be denied due to the very characteristics of the processes occurring in the battery.

These losses may increase over time due to battery degradation. In addition, such losses must be taken into account within technical and economic grounding of the introduction of electric vehicles in certain industries (emergency vehicles, public transport, etc.).

The ability of the existing power supply network to accept loads from chargers must be taken into account. It should be noted that there are certain advantages for

energy networks when citizens use them to charge electric vehicles. Charging usually occurs at night when the load on the network is minimal and the amount of unproductive losses of the grid from downtime is increased. Electric vehicles can minimize such fluctuations, but this is true only for a nationwide power generation system. However, private housing power supply systems, especially in Ukraine, were not designed to charge electric vehicles. Therefore, the mass transition to electric vehicles should be accompanied by the modernization of the energy network.

In addition to this there is the purely environmental problem of electricity generation. Most electricity in Ukraine is generated from fossil fuels or nuclear energy. Therefore, to consider electric vehicles as vehicles with zero emissions (zero vehicles) is quite presumptuous. Electric vehicles in Ukraine, as in most countries of the world, redistribute the place of emissions and their type, partially reducing them. From the point of view of protecting the health of the population and ensuring environmental protection, individual electric transport is really a compromise between the need for comfortable transport and emissions that affect humans. In terms of the overall emissions balance of a country, or the world as a whole, electric vehicles do not significantly reduce them. However, this is not so much a problem of electrified transport but rather the global energy sector as a whole. Indeed, the zero emissions from electric vehicles can be discussed in the event of achieving a complete replacement of nuclear energy or energy from fossil fuels by energy from renewable sources. There is progress in this direction and the level of emissions associated with the operation of electric vehicles is gradually decreasing.[3]

Legislatively, this problem is solved by introducing increasingly stringent energy regulations in terms of environmental pollution and stimulating the development of alternative energy sources. In this regard, a number of regulations and policy documents have been adopted and therefore it is impractical to pay detailed attention to them in this study.

The next problem that arises in the introduction of electric vehicles is called the emission balance during their manufacture. A study was conducted in Germany comparing the manufacturing greenhouse gas emissions of a Mercedes C220d and a Tesla Model 3. According to the results of the study, the extraction and processing of lithium, cobalt and manganese required for the manufacture of batteries are very energy-intensive. The production of one battery with a service life of 10 years leads to the emission of 11–15 tons of CO_2.[4] This problem is related to the industry and the ecologization of material production. The main legal mechanisms for influencing the solution to this problem lie in the area of environmental requirements for industrial facilities. The production of electric vehicles or batteries for them is not currently undertaken in Ukraine, but if this were to change, such facilities will be subject to the general requirements for industrial facilities set out in environmental legislation.

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3   *Wie umweltfreundlich sind Elektroautos?*, https://www.bmu.de/fileadmin/Daten_BMU/Pools/ Broschueren/elektroautos_bf.pdf, [access: 08.12.2020].
4   Ch. Buchal, H.-D. Karl, H.-W. Sinn, *Kohlemotoren, Windmotoren und Dieselmotoren: Was zeigt die CO$_2$-Bilanz?*, https://www.ifo.de/DocDL/sd-2019-08-sinn-karl-buchal-motoren-2019-04-25. pdf, [access: 08.12.2020].

We also did not find any specific legal requirements for EU countries for the electric vehicle manufacturing industry.

In our opinion the biggest existing problem of electric vehicles, which has not yet become critical, is the batteries of vehicles. A number of environmentally harmful chemical elements that require specific disposal are used in the production of batteries. Informational material on the responsible disposal of used batteries from household appliances indicate that one 'penlight battery' of AAA type, weighing 45 gr. pollutes 20 sq.m. of soil. If we mathematically scale up such a battery to that of an electric vehicle battery weighing 240–300 kg, we get an area of pollution of more than 10 hectares.

At the end of 2019 there was a collective article published in the journal Nature on 'Recycling lithium-ion batteries from electric vehicles'.[5] The authors of the article quite thoroughly raised the technological and environmental problems associated with the future fate of used batteries. Without going into a detailed analysis of their work, we would like to underline the main problems that were identified by the authors. Market analysis and tendencies of the introduction of electric vehicles indicate the unpreparedness for the environmental problem of the accumulation of used batteries. One million electric vehicles generate 250,000 tons of hazardous waste in the form of used batteries. The main problem for the disposal of such batteries is the different approaches of the production technology and industrial design of the batteries themselves. The authors point to the variety of both the forms of batteries and the methods of their production, which makes it difficult to automate the process of disassembly of the battery for separate disposal of substances contained therein. This will require workers to be involved in the disposal process and be exposed to the attendant hazardous conditions.

The authors also draw attention to the impossibility of the burial of such waste. The reason for this is the extremely high fire hazard of such waste, including due to the effect of 'thermal acceleration'. The danger for Ukraine is even greater due to the lack of a system for segregation of household waste. If such a battery is buried together with household waste and subsequently spontaneously combusts, a single landfill will burn from one battery. The tragedy of the fire in the Hrybovytska landfill near Lviv, which took the lives of several people and caused a problem for waste disposal in the whole region, showed how dangerous fires could be at such facilities. Nobody has calculated the overall environmental consequences.

Disposal of such batteries in the long run is not advisable at all due to the exhaustion of chemical elements and the complexity and energy consumption of their extraction. This is why systems should be developed to remove useful elements from used batteries and reuse such resources.

As one of the options for a partial solution to the problem of used batteries, manufacturers offer to include them into existing energy storage systems from alternative energy sources. Despite the expediency of such a step, it should be noted that this

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[5]   G. Harper, R. Sommerville, E. Kendrick and others, *Recycling lithium-ion batteries from electric vehicles*, https://www.nature.com/articles/s41586-019-1682-5 [access: 08.12.2020].

only delays the problem and will eventually exacerbate it. Therefore, it is necessary to agree with the need to develop a single industrial design of batteries. Restricting and forcing manufacturers to use only one technology will undoubtedly lead to patent complications and complicate (limit) the development of technologies. An example of such an association of manufacturers around a single product design is the use of a single standard for chargers for portable equipment. Everything is a bit more complicated with electric vehicle batteries. Every manufacturer has their own device architecture and structure and their own patents for the technology. All this complicates the introduction of uniform standards for the manufacture and disposal of electric vehicle batteries. The role of legislative acts of a programme nature in this context, which set certain requirements for the future, is growing. Examples of such directives are the establishment of the requirements for vehicles known as 'Euro-2,-3,-4,-5,-6' such as Regulation (EC) No. 715/2007, which established requirements for car emissions at the level of 'Euro-5'.

Currently, there are no legal requirements in any country in the world to bring the design of batteries to a state and architecture suitable for automated and complete disposal after the end of service life. All legal requirements for batteries of electric vehicles both in Ukraine and in most countries of the world are based on their nature of chemical power sources. In our country, it is the Law of Ukraine 'On Chemical Power Sources', which does not establish differences or special conditions for the disposal of electric vehicle batteries compared to other chemical power sources.

In this regard, it is necessary to develop and set a date for the introduction of a mandatory legal requirement to make the architecture of batteries suitable for automated and complete disposal, with a mandatory deadline for their introduction sufficient to adapt the production. This must be done by the governments of the countries where production of electric vehicles takes place or major car manufacturers are registered. Other countries should implement similar requirements in their legislation to establish generally accepted rules for the operation of electric vehicles. This step will provide additional incentives for technological development and competition since, if there is a single platform and requirements for such batteries, the market for electric vehicles will be available not only directly to car manufacturers but also to other companies with their own products. Additionally, single battery architecture will allow exchange of batteries at charging stations.

A number of regulatory requirements for the recycling of electric vehicle batteries should be additionally developed in Ukraine. There is simply no industry for recycling electric vehicle batteries at the moment. Practically all electric vehicles operated in Ukraine are not imported by car manufacturers, but by the citizens who bought them. Some car manufacturers only began official sales of electric vehicles in in Ukraine in 2020. This has led to car makers and dealers not addressing the need for disposal of used batteries. In the current realities of Ukraine and the rather low environmental consciousness of citizens, the creation of infrastructure for recycling electric vehicle batteries seems a remote prospect.

It is necessary to introduce legal mechanisms that would require the creation of structures and mechanisms for centralized collection and subsequent disposal of used batteries. This will require the introduction of mechanisms for the registration of the supply of batteries for electric vehicles. If an electric vehicle is imported, its owner must be held responsible for the proper disposal of the battery. If it is necessary to replace the battery or any of its components, suppliers must accept used batteries for disposal or notify the environmental control authorities that there is no exchange of battery taking place, which in turn should be a signal to check what happens to the battery in the future. The absence of a spent battery in the possession of the owner should be considered as environmental pollution and considered as improper disposal. There should be an additional financial instrument to encourage proper disposal – a disposal fee – an amount of money that corresponds to the cost of the battery, which is refunded to the owner when the battery is transferred to an appropriate operator.

Another problem that has to be addressed is the limited perception of the electrification process and the phasing out of internal combustion engines, which lies in the false perception of electric vehicles exclusively as battery-powered vehicles. This encourages the development of legal requirements based on this false perception and does not stimulate the development of alternatives such as fuel cells, which consume hydrogen to produce energy. There is no combustion process in fuel cells as the oxidation of hydrogen occurs as a result of another process, which produces current without electromagnetic generation and with water and heat as by-products. The efficiency of this process is up to 60%.

Hydrogen in fuel cells is an environmentally clean fuel due to the lack of combustion, which means there is no oxidation of atmospheric nitrogen. An obstacle to the widespread introduction of this technology is the lack of a developed system of hydrogen production and sale. However, the same problem occurred with chargers for electric cars a few years ago. Indeed, hydrogen production is a very energy-intensive process. However, production facilities can be built where there is access to significant amounts of renewable energy – solar energy in the deserts of Africa, Asia and Australia, geothermal sources, wind power on coasts, etc. Transporting such large amounts of electricity through conventional networks is a rather complex engineering task and it may be better to use energy at the site of its generation to produce hydrogen and then transport the hydrogen. Moreover, the existing gas pipeline network can be used for this purpose after the end of the hydrocarbon era, providing technical specifications can be met.

The advantage of introducing fuel cells in vehicles is that the generation of energy take place in the vehicle itself with the possibility of fast refuelling, just like cars with internal combustion engines. Moreover, such vehicles have a virtually unlimited drive range, which battery electric cars will never have without replacing the batteries on the drive. An additional advantage of vehicles with fuel cells is the possibility of their use as a mobile source of electricity generation, which can be useful for emergency services, and significantly expands the potential use of such vehicles.

Analysis of the legislation of Ukraine does not demonstrate support for developing vehicles which use fuel cells. All existing tax incentives are for 'vehicles equipped exclusively with electric engines'. Vehicles which use fuel cells are not on the classification list of goods for foreign economic activity.

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Summary

The requirements of environmental legislation from the 1960–1970s is one of the main factors in the technological development of material production. The introduction of increasingly stringent requirements for vehicles during the last 30 years has stimulated the development of vehicle transport technologies and has led to a total change in the type of power plants for cars. Currently it is insufficient to introduce prohibitive requirements alone. We need a strategic environmental assessment of the impact of technology and its integration into transport policy. Legislation should become the main programme factor in the development of vehicle transport technologies, but at the same time everything necessary should be done to avoid the transformation of one environmental problem into another, no less threatening one. Ukraine can be neither a pioneer nor an outsider in this area. We need to get involved in the European law-making processes and should implement the requirements adopted in the EU into our law.

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FACTORS INFLUENCING CROSS-BORDER SECURITY

CZYNNIKI WPŁYWAJĄCE NA BEZPIECZEŃSTWO TRANSGRANICZNE

Abstract: In the article the author analyses the issues of security in general, public security and security of society and other types of security. Aspects of understanding the idea of ensuring security both within the state and around it, along with the establishment of cross-border security are introduced. Attention has been paid to the challenges of modern times, taking into account historical experience. The author has analysed the presence of a large number of factors affecting the development of the state, its internal structure, the development of society, the economy, crime levels, which significantly affect cross-border security and, accordingly, the living standards of various groups and individuals.

Zarys treści: W artykule autor analizuje problematykę bezpieczeństwa w ogóle, bezpieczeństwa publicznego i bezpieczeństwa społeczeństwa oraz innych rodzajów bezpieczeństwa. Wprowadzane są aspekty rozumienia idei zapewnienia bezpieczeństwa zarówno wewnątrz państwa, jak i wokół niego wraz z tworzeniem bezpieczeństwa transgranicznego. Zwrócono uwagę na wyzwania współczesności, biorąc pod uwagę doświadczenia historyczne. Autor przeanalizował obecność dużej liczby czynników wpływających na rozwój państwa, jego wewnętrzną strukturę, rozwój społeczeństwa, gospodarkę, poziom przestępczości, które w istotny sposób wpływają na bezpieczeństwo transgraniczne, a tym samym na poziom życia różnych osób – grupy i jednostki.

Key words: public safety, security of society, provision of security, cross-border security, crime, civilization, globalism

Słowa kluczowe: bezpieczeństwo publiczne, bezpieczeństwo społeczeństwa, zapewnienie bezpieczeństwa, bezpieczeństwo transgraniczne, przestępczość, cywilizacja, globalizm

The Basic Law of Ukraine establishes that the constitutional system of Ukraine is based on the principle of priority of human and civil rights and freedoms, and the state, in turn, is responsible to human beings and society for its activities.[1] At the same time, it should be borne in mind that civil rights and freedoms in Ukraine are

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[1] *Konstytutsiya Ukrayiny* // Vidomosti Verkhovnoyi Rady Ukrayiny 1996, №30, s. 141.

inseparable from their implied public duties. Arbitrariness and irresponsibility are incompatible with true democracy.

The National Police of Ukraine, according to the Law of Ukraine 'On the National Police', is the central executive agency that serves society by ensuring the protection of human rights and freedoms, combating crime, ensuring public safety and keeping order. One of the main functions of the police is protecting and ensuring public safety.[2]

Public order and safety are an integral part of a democratic state, which requires great efforts from the state and society and a systematic approach. It is important to realize that the security of society as a whole consists of the security of individuals, but individuals are constantly under pressure from adverse circumstances and dangers that threaten their well-being, social status and even lives.[3]

It should be noted that strong public safety is a necessary component of a civilized way of life, the normal functioning of society and state institutions. Public safety includes relationships that prevent or eliminate harmful effects that can be caused by human actions or an artificial or natural source of increased danger.

In our opinion, ensuring individual public safety, personal security and other factors that affect public order and public safety always have a psychological component. These issues are important and relevant in the activities of the state to prevent offences and ensure the security of ordinary citizens.

Consider the very concept of 'security'. This category has been studied for decades by many scholars but, demonstratively, there is no generally accepted scientific definition of security, despite its everyday application. For example, I.I. Prykhodko notes that this provision is due to the special complexity and internal contradictions of the fundamental concept of 'security', the meaning of which has been formed for a long historical period. Besides, he continues: 'Terminological analysis of this concept has demonstrated that mainly similar ideas about security in different subcultures of the world have been formed, the leading components of which are: security of the individual; no threats to humans; the condition of a person being out of danger. The special attention of numerous modern definitions has been paid to the mental state of a man, associated mainly with a calm, secure stay in the present, not excluding the possibility of transformation in the future.'[4]

The problem of security has existed throughout the existence of society itself. Mankind has reflected this issue in religious, legal and political views and ideas. The basic elements of security were the fundamentals in the works of thinkers of Ancient Greece and Rome. According to the 'contract theory', one of the reasons for the emergence of the state is the conclusion of an agreement ('social contract') by members of

2   *Pro Natsional'nu politsiyu: zakon Ukrayiny vid 02.07.2015 № 580-VIII* // Baza danykh «Zakonodavstvo Ukrayiny» / Verkhovna Rada Ukrayiny, http://zakon.rada.gov.ua/laws/show/580-19, [data zvernennya: 20.02.2018].

3   V. Mel′nyk, *Bezpeka osoby v systemi zahal'noyi bezpeky*, Naukovyy visnyk Uzhhorods′koho universytetu. Seriya: Politolohiya, Sotsiolohiya, Filosofiya, Vypusk 11, 2009, s. 45–49.

4   I.I. Prykhod′ko, *Psykholohichna bezpeka personalu ekstremal'nykh vydiv diyal'nosti: kontseptsiya, transformatsiyna model',metodolohiya doslidzhennya*, Aktual′ni problemy sotsiolohiyi, psykholohiyi, pedahohiky 2015, №4 (29), s. 118.

ancient societies to overcome the chaos and enmity of the 'natural status'. That is, the purpose was both to ensure the security of society itself and each individual. Subsequently, this concept under monarchies passed to ensure the security of the monarch, the ruling classes and the very institution of the monarchy. However, at the beginning of the Renaissance, the subjects of security became man, society and state.[5]

Speaking about national security, which necessarily is affected international security, it should be noted that the world faced a global, unprecedented violation of the human right to security during the two world wars of the 20th century. According to Winston Churchill, all ties that bound people together disappeared in World War II. The Germans, under Hitler's rule, committed such crimes that allowed for them to be condemned for crimes which had no equal in scale and malice in the entire history of mankind. But, after all we have experienced and achieved, we still face problems and dangers no less, but incomparably more formidable than those, which we have so difficulty coped with. He continues: 'As one of those who lived and acted in those days, I set myself the goal of showing, first of all, how easy it would be to prevent the tragedy of a world war; how the malice of the wicked was reinforced by the weakness of the virtuous; how there are no elements of stability and conviction in the structure and customs of democratic states, unless they merge into larger organisms, that can only ensure the security of ordinary people ...'[6].

The concept of 'security' can both characterize the status of security of the most common things, and relate to the characteristics of specific situations related to an individual and society[7]. In a general sense, 'security' (from the Latin word 'securitas') means freedom from fear and from hostile outside influence.

Most scholars in modern scientific research, analysing the concept of 'security', emphasize that it is the state of positive functioning and development of social, economic, technical, environmental and biological systems, which eliminates threats to sustainable development of society, state, economy and individuals, as well as their dependence on other states or individual human groups. In general, the concept of 'security' was usually considered as 'absence of danger, safety, reliability', that is, the meaning of the word can be interpreted in actions – to ensure the absence of danger, to preserve this state and to reliably protect and defend it.

National security is achieved by having an effective mechanism for managing and coordinating the activities of all executive agencies, political forces and social groups, as well as effective institutions for its protection. There are three levels of security in the system of modern scientific views: security of society, security of a person and

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[5] H.V. Dzhahupov, *Pytannya bezpeky osobystosti pry zabezpechenni hromads'koyi bezpeky*, H.V. Dzhahupov //Naukovyy visnyk Uzhhorods'koho natsional'noho universytetu, Seriya «Pravo» 2015, № 35-2, T .2, s. 71–75.

[6] U. Cherchill', *Vtoraya mirovaya voyna* (V 3-kh knigakh), Kn. 1, T. I–II, Sokr. Per. s angl. M.: Voyenizdat 1991, s. 27–28.

[7] V.V. Tretyak, *Ekonomichnabezpeka: sutnist' ta umovyformuvannya* / V.V. Tretyak // Ekonomika i derzhava 2010, № 1, s. 6.

national security[8]. D.O. Bezzubov adds another level – 'public safety'.[9] Security of society, according to Ya. A. Zhalilo, provides the existence of social institutions, norms and developed forms of social consciousness that allows realizing the rights and freedoms of all groups of the population and counteracting the division of society.[10]

'Social security' (societal security – 'social', 'public' and 'sociological') – is a general term for defining efforts to overcome modern threats to public security. The concept of 'social security' was formed as a result of awareness of the phenomena of identity and cohesion of society as sources of instability. Public security is a new dimension that is now being created. It must fill the gap between national security and human security.[11]

National security is a multifaceted concept that covers defence, environmental, energy, food and other security. However, it is impossible to achieve any level of military security or social harmony without a powerful and efficient economy.[12] V.A. Lipkan says that national security as the system of fundamental, typical properties of any country embodies all spheres and areas of life and development of man, society, state and nature. In terms of content, its components are information, intellectual, political, military, economic, state, environmental and other elements of national security.[13]

As well as the security of an individual, which consists in the formation of a set of legal and moral norms, social institutions and organizations are allowed develop and realize their own social abilities and needs, without being opposed by the state and society.[14]

In turn, the security of every individual is a component of the security of society as a whole. The dynamic transformations of the world system, states and societies, crises and instability, which are their consequences, cause various threats – global problems, uneven economic development, terrorism and other forms of risk that deprives individuals of confidence in the future. Accordingly, individuals try to restore this confidence, and therefore independently, or in cooperation with others, build such a security system that would guarantee it and society the highest possible level. The security of the individual, which is a response to such human needs, covers more and more areas of human life, and therefore is embedded in a security system that includes

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[8] YA. Zhalilo, *Stratehiya zabezpechennya ekonomichnoyi bezpeky Ukrayiny. Prioritety ta problemy implementatsiyi* / Zhalilo YA, Stratehiya natsionalʹnoyi bezpeky Ukrvyiny v konteksti dosvidu svitovoyi spilʹnoty, K.: Sat·sanha 2001, s. 78.

[9] D.O. Bezzubov, *Suspilʹna bezpeka (orhanizatsiyno-pravovi zasady zabezpechennya)* : monohrafiya, K. : «MP Lesya», 2013. s. 50.

[10] YA. Zhalilo, *Stratehiya zabezpechennya ekonomichnoyi bezpeky Ukrayiny. Prioritety ta problemy implementatsiyi,* Zhalilo YA, Stratehiya natsionalʹnoyi bezpeky Ukrvyiny v konteksti dosvidu svitovoyi spilʹnoty, K.: Sat·sanha 2001, s. 23.

[11] *Bezpeka suspil'stva u rehioni Rumuniya–Ukrayina–Respublika Moldova: trystoronniy pidkhid* / Prohrama Skhid-Skhid: «Partnerstvo bez kordoniv». Bukharest– Kyshyneu–Kyyiv: B.v., 2008, s. 4–8.

[12] *Profesiynyy ryzk v diyal'nosti pratsivnykiv podatkovoyi militsiyi: navch. posib*, [O.A. Dolhyy, M.T. Zadoyanyy, V.P. Kroshko ta in.]; pid red. O.O. Spyrydonova, K.: Atika-N 2002, c. 141.

[13] V.A. Lipkan, *Natsional'na bezpeka i natsional'ni interesy Ukrvyiny*, Lipkan V.A. K.: KNT 2006, s. 68, (Seriya «Natsionalʹna i mizhnarodna bezpeka»).

[14] D.O. Bezzubov, *Suspil'na bezpeka (orhanizatsiyno-pravovi zasady zabezpechennya)*: monohrafiya, K.: «MP Lesya», 2013, s. 452.

a significant number of levels and types, i.e. in the general security system.[15] At the end of the 20th century the world faced global transformations. After the collapse of the Soviet Union and the end of the Cold War, humanity entered a new era of existence. Most predictions of future processes were reduced to the inevitable flourishing of Western civilization. However, the events of the early 21st century have shown the opposite – the growth of the anti-globalization movement, the rise of nationalism, the spread of Islamic fundamentalism and terrorism.

In 1996, the work of one of the world's leading political scholars, an American scientist and director of the Institute for Strategic Studies named after J. Olin at Harvard University, Samuel Huntington's 'Clash of Civilizations' was published. 'Global politics is the politics of civilizations', says the American scholar.

A. Halchynskyi, analysing the work of S. Huntington, notes that the defining argument is the position on the socio-humanistic orientation of the civilization process – each individual civilization (whether Chinese, Islamic, Western or Orthodox) is a manifestation of the highest cultural and religious community of people, their system identity, those realities that directly form the social environment where human life takes place.[16] Cultural landmarks that have been formed over many centuries of the development of the civilization identity of certain peoples will prevail over political ideas. Economic growth and development of societies in various remote regions will lead to increased disintegration. According to S. Huntington, the ideological basis of the split will be religious differences, which, in contrast to economic and political conflicts of interest, are less susceptible to adjustment and settlement. It is the cultural and religious community that will determine the political and economic factors of integration and disintegration between civilizations. The political scientist predicts the possibility of a conflict between Western and Islamic and Chinese civilizations along the lines of boundaries between them, which could lead to global war.

As for the Europe, the relevant line here, according to S. Huntington, runs 'along the current borders between Russia and Finland, between the Baltic states and Russia, cuts Belarus and Ukraine, turns West, separating Transylvania from the rest of Romania, and then passes through Yugoslavia, almost exactly coinciding with the line separating Croatia and Slovenia from the rest of Yugoslavia.'[17]

It should be noted that speaking of cross-border security, it should be noted that the disintegration tendencies in the world are intensifying nowadays. Military actions between nations is gaining momentum, they often have features of religious, racial and cultural conflict. These problems are covered in the theoretical justifications of many modern ideological concepts. They focus more and more attention on the factor of civilization, and the theory of S. Huntington is very relevant in this case.

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[15] V. Melʹnyk, *Bezpeka osoby v systemi zahalʹnoyi bezpeky*, Naukovyy visnyk Uzhhorodsʹkoho universytetu, Seriya: Politolohiya, Sotsiolohiya, Filosofiya, Vypusk 11, 2009, p. 45–49.

[16] *Halʹchynsʹkyy Anatoliy Hlobalʹni transformatsiyi: kontseptualʹni alʹternatyvy*, Metodolohichni aspekty: Nauk. vyd. K.: Lybidʹ, 2006, s. 98.

[17] *Ibidem*, c. 105.

It is also necessary to mention another factor that affects cross-border security. The current world civilization is rapidly entering the era of the Fourth Industrial Revolution – the era of radical, large-scale changes, which have not been seen in the history of mankind.[18] According to the authors of 'Information Technology in Law Enforcement Activity', the most fundamental and reasonable interpretation of the concept and content of the Fourth Industrial Revolution is provided in the works of the founder and executive director of the World Economic Forum in Davos, Klaus Schwab, 'The Fourth Industrial Revolution'[19] and 'Technologies of the Fourth Industrial Revolution'.[20] Thus, in his opinion, '… We are at the origins of a revolution that will fundamentally change our lives, our work and our communication. In scale, scope and complexity, this phenomenon, which I consider the fourth industrial revolution, has no analogues in all previous human experience. We should only realize the fullness of the pace of the development and scope of the new revolution.'[21]

Essentially, the technological advances of the fourth industrial revolution are widely used and will be used even more in the criminal world. Areas of criminal activity may include the use of artificial intelligence, the use of robots and drones, criminal 3D printing, technological drug trafficking, the technology of street and non-organized crime, the use of biotechnology and large-scale terrorist acts.

With regard to the latter, the authors of the above-mentioned publication note that large-scale terrorist acts for a long time required long preparation, the involvement of many participants, expenditure of significant and diverse resources and, finally, the physical presence of terrorists in the vicinity of the terrorist act. The most striking examples were the attacks on 11 September 2001, the explosions in the London Underground and at the train station in Madrid. They all had the above features. National security forces failed to prevent those acts, but the above characteristics allowed them to attack the planners and perpetrators of the barbaric acts and to punish them. The same features have allowed the national security forces of different countries to prevent several dozen large-scale terrorist acts in the last 15 years, which in their consequences could have even surpassed the events that occurred.[22]

However, the situation has recently changed dramatically, and unfavourably so. There is an active automation and robot automation of the above. Along with increasing technical reliability and cost savings, this process has extremely negative consequences. Today the lives of millions in developed countries of the world depend on networks

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[18]   *Informatsiyni tekhnolohiyi u pravookhoronniy diyal'nosti. Chastyna 1: Vysokotekhnolohichni trendy u pravookhoronniy sferi zarubizhnykh krayin : navch. posib*., MVS Ukrayiny, Kharkiv, nats. un-t vnutr. sprav; za zah. red. kand. tekhn. nauk, dots. V. M. Strukova [V. M. Strukov, D.V. Uzlov, YU.V. Hnusov ta in.], Kharkiv: KHNUVS 2020, s. 254].

[19]   K. Shvab, *Chetvertaya promyshlennaya revolyutsiya*, M.: Izdatelʹstvo «E» 2016, s. 206.

[20]   K. Shvab, *Tekhnologii chetvertoy promyshlennoy revolyutsii*: M.: Izdatelʹstvo «Eksmo» 2018, s. 333.

[21]   *Informatsiyni tekhnolohiyi u pravookhoronniy diyal'nosti. Chastyna 1: Vysokotekhnolohichni trendy u pravookhoronniy sferi zarubizhnykh krayin: navch. posib*, MVS Ukrayiny, Kharkiv, nats. un-t vnutr. sprav; za zah. red. kand. tekhn. nauk, dots. V.M. Strukova; [V.M. Strukov, D.V. Uzlov, YU.V. Hnusov ta in.], Kharkiv :KHNUVS 2020, s. 254.

[22]   *Ibidem*, p. 100.

of critical infrastructure, and this is almost all essential support systems – power, heat and water supply, communications, etc.

All these systems are controlled by automated systems connected to the Internet. Unidentified hackers have recently repeatedly attacked power supply systems, automated control systems and data storage facilities, hydraulic structures and even nuclear power plants in many countries, and especially the United States of America. As a result, unknown individuals or organizations have information about the vulnerabilities and shortcomings of the management and security systems of those facilities.

The idea of ensuring security cannot be abstract, it always depends on the development of society as a whole, from the development of various types of security and security around the state, i.e. cross-border security. It should be borne in mind that ensuring security is based on value-normative models of society. It must be admitted that there is a need to find new ways of understanding security and the realities of qualitative and quantitative changes of a global nature, based on a scientific analysis of the essence of the state. Nowadays, a huge number of factors influence cross-border security, and the development of any state, namely its internal order, development of society, economy, and crime rate will inevitably create a general regional or continental security system of different peoples.

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Summary

In the article the author analysed the issues of security in general, public security and security of society and other types of security. The main stress has been put on a value-normative model of society and its influence on security. There is a need to find new ways of understanding security and the realities of qualitative and quantitative changes of a global nature, based on a scientific analysis of the essence of the state.

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IMPLEMENTING "GOOD GOVERNANCE" PRINCIPLES IN THE PRACTICE OF PUBLIC CONTROL

WDRAŻANIE ZASAD „DOBREGO RZĄDZENIA" W PRAKTYCE KONTROLI PUBLICZNEJ

Abstract: The concept of secure functioning of public administration is defined, which is understood as the proper performance of its functions, which involves the implementation of European principles and standards of good administration. In Ukraine, which aspires to become a full member of the European Union, the implementation of these principles is one of the priority tasks, as it means the full protection of human rights and freedoms. The normative enshrinement and content of these principles are analysed, including legality, non-discrimination, absence of abuse of power, respect for privacy, respect of confidentiality, legal certainty (judicial protection of violated rights) and appeal against decisions. It is concluded that the implementation of these principles requires constant and effective control over the activities of public administration, which is entrusted to all governmental entities, as well as members of the public. The peculiarities of certain types of such control are clarified: parliamentary, presidential, internal administrative (control of executive bodies), judicial, municipal and public.

Zarys treści: Zdefiniowano pojęcie bezpiecznego funkcjonowania administracji publicznej, rozumiane jako prawidłowe wykonywanie jej funkcji, co wiąże się z wdrażaniem europejskich

zasad i standardów dobrej administracji. W Ukrainie, aspirującej do pełnego członkostwa w Unii Europejskiej realizacja, tych zasad jest jednym z zadań priorytetowych, gdyż oznacza pełną ochronę praw i wolności człowieka. Analizowane jest uregulowanie normatywne i treść tych zasad, w tym legalność, niedyskryminacja, brak nadużycia władzy, poszanowanie prywatności, poszanowanie poufności, pewność prawa (sądowa ochrona naruszonych praw) oraz odwołania od decyzji. Stwierdza się, że realizacja tych zasad wymaga stałej i skutecznej kontroli nad działalnością administracji publicznej, powierzonej wszystkim podmiotom rządowym, a także członkom społeczeństwa. Wyjaśniono specyfikę niektórych rodzajów takiej kontroli: parlamentarnej, prezydenckiej, wewnętrznej administracji (kontrola organów wykonawczych), sądowej, komunalnej i publicznej.

Key words: public administration, functioning, European principles, security, control
Słowa kluczowe: administracja publiczna, funkcjonowanie, zasady europejskie, bezpieczeństwo, kontrola

Nowadays, radical reform of practically all spheres of public administration is taking place in Ukraine. The main purpose of this reform is to ensure the functioning of a democratic state apparatus for the benefit of the people and to significantly improve their lives, which also requires improvement in the mechanism of exercising people's rights and freedoms. The principles of good administration are fundamental in its functioning as they are a guide for the practical implementation of public administration functions and are aimed at protecting the rights of individuals when dealing with them.

In Ukraine, however, there are still many issues with regard to this, one of which is to ensure its safe operation and thus provide for the creation of conditions for the free and full performance of its functions and to prevent violations of the rights, freedoms and legitimate interests of individuals, the ultimate consumers of government services. Implementation of this requires constant and effective control over the activities of public administration, the leading role in which belongs to civil society institutions.

The legal literature notes the growing popularity in Ukraine of the European concept of governance and its aspect of 'good governance', which reflects the state (qualitative and quantitative characteristics) of key public relations between public authorities and individuals, and provides a number of important indicators for a democratic society (indexes) which assess the conditional proximity of the country to the 'pure types' of principles and standards of good governance.[1]

At the same time, the focus is mainly on the general principles of governance aimed at ensuring the proper functioning of public administration, such as proper legislation, participation, transparency in decision-making, access to information, appropriate staff, proper financial and budgetary management and efficiency, etc. We want to address the principles of good administration, which determine the possibility of exercising control over the activities of governmental entities in order to ensure

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[1]   A.A. Pukhtets′ka, *Zaprovadzhennya pryntsyp i vta standartiv nalezhnoho uryaduvannya udiyal'nosti publichnoyi administratsiyi*, http://ekmair.ukma.edu.ua/bitstream/handle/12345 6789/3840/Pukhtetska_Zaprovadzhennia_pryntsypiv.pdf;jsessionid=2CB367A63F732B45EA5 4BBBFB9708EF6?sequence=1, [access: 23.02.2022].

the safety of their functioning. These include, in our opinion, the principles of good administration set out in the Council of Europe Recommendation CM/Rec (2007) 7[2] and the European Code of Good Administrative Behaviour,[3] such as legality, non--discrimination, absence of abuse of power, respect for privacy, confidentiality, legal certainty (protection of violated rights), appeals against decisions, etc. Ensuring control over the proper functioning of public administration is also included in European standards of good administration.

It is clear that the formulation of certain principles, standards and recommendations is the basis for their implementation in the relevant legislation, which should ensure their actual implementation. In particular, many of them are enshrined in the European Commission's Code of Good Administrative Behaviour for Staff of the European Commission in Their Relations with the Public,[4] which includes legality, non-discrimination, proportionality of measures pursued by the principles on which relations between the Commission and the public should be based and consistency of administrative behaviour.

It should be noted that in the national legislation of different countries, these principles are reflected differently. For example, Article 29 of the Constitution of the Republic of Lithuania[5] defines the principle of non-discrimination as follows: 'The rights of the human being may not be restricted, nor may he be granted any privileges on the ground of gender, race, nationality, language, origin, social status, belief, convictions, or views'. Article 3 of the Law of the Republic of Lithuania 'On Public Administration'[6] sufficiently defines the principle of absence of abuse of power, according to which public administration entities are prohibited from performing public administration functions without public administration powers granted in accordance with the procedure established by law or make administrative decisions aimed at achieving goals other than those provided by law or other regulations.

In the Constitution of the Republic of Poland[7] many articles are also devoted to the mentioned principles. For example, Article 7 quite succinctly and clearly enshrines the principle of legality: 'Public authorities act on the basis of and within the law'. Article 32 also summarizes the principle of non-discrimination: 'No one may be discriminated against in political, public or economic life for any reason'.

[2] *Council of Europe Recommendation CM/Rec(2007)7 of the Committee of Ministers to member states on good administration*, https://rm.coe.int/cmrec-2007-7-of-the-cm-to-ms-on-good-administration/16809f007c, [access: 23.02.2022].

[3] *The European Code of Good Administrative Behaviour*, https://www.ombudsman.europa.eu/en/publication/en/3510, [access: 23.02.2022].

[4] *Code of Good Administrative Behaviour for Staff of the European Commission in Their Relations with the Public*, https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/info/files/code-of-good-administrative-behaviour_en.pdf, [access: 23.02.2022].

[5] *Constitution of the Republic of Lithuania*, https://www.wipo.int/edocs/lexdocs/laws/en/lt/lt045en.pdf, [access: 23.02.2022]

[6] *Republic of Lithuania Law on Public Administration*, https://e-seimas.lrs.lt/portal/legalAct/lt/TAD/6996d4c0d86111e8820ea019e5d9ad04?jfwid=-fxdp6xrf#part_3e432904ef014c3dad16d29b0df755fa, [access: 23.02.2022]

[7] *Konstytucja Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej*, http://www.sejm.gov.pl/prawo/konst/polski/kon1.htm, [access: 23.02.2022].

These principles are reflected in the Constitution of Ukraine[8]. In particular, p. 2 of Art. 19 in a generalized form defines the concept of legality in the activities of public authorities: 'public authorities and local self-governments, their officials are obliged to act only on the basis, within the powers and in the manner prescribed by the Constitution and laws of Ukraine'. Other articles discuss non-discrimination, confidentiality, protection of violated rights, appeals against decisions, etc.

Thus, from the above we can conclude that in legal documents of different levels the principles of good administration, including those relating to the security of public administration, have been systematically enshrined. The task is for their full and proper implementation and effective control over this process in order to identify and eliminate possible violations. The literature emphasizes the importance of implementing these principles by states seeking to have a good and efficient administration, which should be carried out, inter alia, on the basis of their proper understanding[9].

It is necessary to elaborate in more detail on the content of these principles and the system of control over their observance. Thus, legality is the leading constitutional principle of the functioning of public administration, which includes security. The definitions of this concept in the Constitutions of Ukraine and of the Republic of Poland were discussed above. The analysis of their provisions allows us to summarize that legality in the field of public administration means: a) accurate and uniform implementation of laws by all its subjects; b) compliance of administrative actions with the state will, which is expressed in laws; c) decision-making by the specified subjects within their competence, in an established order and a certain form; d) the impossibility of changing the competence of the subject of power by said subject of power; e) effective control over observance of laws.

Article 2 of the above-mentioned Council of Europe Recommendations also defines the principle of legality in great detail. It stipulates that public authorities must act in accordance with the law; they should not take arbitrary measures, even in the exercise of discretion; they must comply with national law, international law and the general principles of law governing their organization, operation and activities; they must act in accordance with the rules governing their powers and the procedures set out in their rules of management; they exercise their powers only if the established facts and current legislation allow them to do so and only for the purpose for which they were provided[10].

The principle of non-discrimination was also mentioned above. Article 5 of the European Code of Good Administrative Behaviour deals with ensuring equality. Thus, when considering public requests and making decisions, the official ensures

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8   *Konstytutsiya Ukrayinyvid 28 chervnya 1996 r.*, https://zakon.rada.gov.ua/laws/show/254%D0%BA/96-%D0%B2%D1%80#Text, [access: 23.02.2022].

9   M. Batalli, A. Fejzullahu, *Principles of Good Administration under the European Code of Good Administrative Behaviour*. Pécs Journal of International and European Law - 2018/I, http://ceere.eu/pjiel/wp-content/uploads/2018/08/28_pjielPJIEL1801.pdf, [access: 23.02.2022].

10 *Council of Europe Recommendation CM/Rec(2007)7 of the Committee of Ministers to member states on good administration*, https://rm.coe.int/cmrec-2007-7-of-the-cm-to-ms-on-good-administration/16809f007c, [access: 23.02.2022].

compliance with the principle of equality. If there is any difference in treatment, the official must ensure that it is justified by the objectively relevant features of the particular case. In particular, the official shall avoid any unjustified discrimination between members of the public on the basis of nationality, sex, race, colour, ethnic or social origin, genetic characteristics, language, religion or belief, political or any other opinion, belonging to a national minority, property, birth, disability, age or sexual orientation.[11]

Article 7 of this Code also discloses the content of the principle of absence of abuse of power: powers are exercised exclusively for the purposes for which they were granted by the relevant provisions. In particular, an official should avoid using those powers for purposes which have no basis in law or which are not motivated by any public interest.

The principle of respect for privacy and confidentiality is disclosed in Article 9 of the Council of Europe Recommendation CM/Rec (2007) 7, according to which public authorities must respect confidentiality, especially when processing personal data. When public entities are authorized to process personal data or files, in particular by electronic means, they must take all necessary measures to ensure confidentiality. The rules concerning the protection of personal data, in particular the right to access personal data and to ensure the correction or deletion of any data that is inaccurate or should not be recorded, apply to personal data processed by public authorities.[12] Article 21 of the European Code of Good Administrative Behaviour adds that an official must avoid the processing of personal data for unlawful purposes or the transfer of such data to unauthorized persons.[13]

The protection of infringed rights and the right to appeal against decisions is enshrined in Article 22 of the Council of Europe Recommendation CM/Rec (2007) 7, which stipulates that individuals have the right to request, directly or exceptionally, a judicial review of an administrative decision directly affecting them, their rights and interests. Administrative appeals, prior to judicial review, may, in principle, be possible. In some cases, they may be required. They may concern an appeal on the merits or an appeal against the legality of an administrative decision. Individuals should not suffer from prejudices on the part of public authorities to appeal an administrative decision.[14]

It is necessary to highlight that we directly link the proper implementation of governance with ensuring the security of functioning of public administration. This conclusion can be made, in particular, from the analysis of the so-called security

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[11] *The European Code of Good Administrative Behaviour*. https://www.ombudsman.europa.eu/en/publication/en/3510, [access: 23.02.2022].

[12] *Council of Europe Recommendation CM/Rec(2007)7 of the Committee of Ministers to member states on good administration*. https://rm.coe.int/cmrec-2007-7-of-the-cm-to-ms-on-good-administration/16809f007c, [access: 23.02.2022].

[13] *The European Code of Good Administrative Behaviour*. https://www.ombudsman.europa.eu/en/publication/en/3510, [access: 23.02.2022].

[14] *Council of Europe Recommendation CM/Rec(2007)7 of the Committee of Ministers to member states on good administration*. https://rm.coe.int/cmrec-2007-7-of-the-cm-to-ms-on-good-administration/16809f007c, [access: 23.02.2022].

legislation of Ukraine, primarily the Law of Ukraine 'On National Security of Ukraine' of 21 June 2018 № 2469-VIII[15] and the National Security Strategy of Ukraine approved by the Decree of the President of Ukraine of 14 September 2020 № 392/2020.[16] For example, the mentioned Strategy recognizes, as threats to the national security and national interests of Ukraine; insufficient efficiency of state bodies, crime, inconsistency and incompleteness of reforms, corruption and insufficient protection of property rights, etc. Among the main directions of the state's internal political activity to ensure its national interests and security, the Strategy stipulates that Ukraine is determined to establish the constitutional principle of the rule of law and equality before the law. The state will, in particular, ensure transparency and accountability of state bodies, integrity of officials, effective access to justice and improve pre-trial investigation of criminal offences as well as trials of criminal proceedings and execution of sentences imposed by courts. The declaration of the principle of zero tolerance for corruption, ensuring the effective operation of bodies that prevent and combat corruption offences is also declared. Thus, the prospects are outlined quite accurately and correctly. The main thing is that they are just as clearly and consistently turned into a real practice of public administration.

Control over compliance with the principles of good administration in Ukraine is exercised by virtually all governmental entities, especially law enforcement and regulatory agencies, as well as members of the public. The mentioned Law of Ukraine 'On National Security of Ukraine' defines the principles of democratic civil control, its principles, subject and system. Hence, the system of civil control consists of control exercised by the the following; the President of Ukraine, the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine, the National Security and Defence Council of Ukraine, the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine, executive bodies and local self-government bodies, judicial control and public oversight. The allocation of control by the National Security and Defence Council of Ukraine is not entirely clear, as this Council is headed by the President of Ukraine, so in the theory of administrative law it is considered an element of presidential control.

In its essence, such a system of control reflects the structure of public authorities and local self-government, supplementing them with public actors. It should be emphasized that in Ukraine there is no specific, specialized controlling body at the highest level of state power, unlike, for example, the Republic of Poland, which in Art. 202 of the Constitution provides for the establishment of the highest body of state control – the Supreme Chamber of Control. According to Article 203 of the Constitution of the Republic of Poland, this Chamber supervises the activities of governmental bodies, the National Bank of Poland, state legal entities and other state organizational units in terms of legality, economy, expediency and good faith. On the same grounds, the Supreme Chamber of Control may control the activities of other

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[15] *Pro natsional'nubezpekuUkrayiny*, *zakon Ukrayinyvid 21 chervnya 2018 roku № 2469-VIII*, https://zakon.rada.gov.ua/laws/show/2469-19?lang=en#Text, [access: 23.02.2022].

[16] *Stratehiya natsional'noyi bezpekyUkrayiny: zatverdzhena Ukazom Prezydenta Ukrayinyvid 14 veresnya 2020 roku № 392/2020.* https://www.president.gov.ua/documents/3922020-35037, [access: 23.02.2022].

entities such as local self-governments, communal and other organizational units and entities within the limits in accordance to which they use state or municipal property and funds.[17]

Presidential control in Ukraine is divided into direct and indirect control. The first is carried out when solving personnel issues, in the rule-making sphere, etc. Indirect presidential control is exercised through auxiliary structures whose activities are aimed at verifying the implementation by public administration entities of decrees and orders of the President through the Office of the President (both in general and through specialized departments, as well as special entities, such as the President's representative in the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine).

Parliamentary control is exercised by the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine and its structural subdivisions. Specialized subjects of parliamentary control are committees of the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine, temporary special commissions and temporary investigation commissions. The Accounting Chamber of Ukraine is a permanent body that carries out activities to control the use of funds from the State Budget of Ukraine. The Commissioner for Human Rights of the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine exercises control over the observance of human and civil rights and freedoms in the activities of public administration. Finally, control is exercised in the activities of individual deputies (the right of parliamentary request, participation in verification of compliance with the law by the subjects of public administration, the requirements for a particular subject of public administration, etc.).

Internal administrative control (control by executive bodies) includes control of bodies of general competence – the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine, local state administrations; departmental control – control carried out by central executive bodies, their structural subdivisions in relation to subdivisions organizationally subordinated to them; supra-departmental control – control carried out in relation to things that are not organizationally subordinated to the subject of control (individual ministries and other central executive bodies); administrative supervision – the implementation of special state bodies (state inspections) control and supervisory functions for compliance with various bodies, enterprises, institutions and organizations and citizens, regardless of their subordination to the rules, norms and standards established in regulations in the relevant field.

Judicial control is a law-based activity of courts of all types and levels to verify the legality of acts and actions of public administration entities and their officials.

Self-governing (municipal) control is exercised in two ways: control over the activities of local self-governments themselves in the exercise of public administration activities (a kind of internal control) and control over the activities of local executive bodies (local state administrations are accountable to the relevant councils for socio-economic and cultural development programmes and budgets which are held accountable and under control in terms of the powers delegated to them by the relevant councils).

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[17]   *Konstytucja Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej*, http://www.sejm.gov.pl/prawo/konst/polski/kon1.htm, [access: 23.02.2022].

It is worth paying attention to the regulation of public control, which in the Law 'On National Security of Ukraine', given its specifics, is called supervision, because its subjects have no control (in the classical sense) powers, including the right to interfere in the operational activities of subjects public administration and the right to prosecute independently. Members of the public mostly detect violations of the law in the activities of government entities but, nevertheless, cannot undertake personal measures to address them on their own.

Hence, Article 10 of the above mentioned Law stipulates that citizens of Ukraine participate in civil control through public associations of which they are members, through deputies of local councils, personally by appealing to the Verkhovna Rada Commissioner for Human Rights or state bodies. A public association registered in the manner prescribed by law is guaranteed a number of rights to exercise public supervision. In accordance with the Constitution and laws of Ukraine, as well as statutory provisions, they may:

1. receive in the prescribed manner from state bodies information on their activities, except for information with confidential access;
2. carry out research on national security and defence, publicly present their results and create public funds, centres and teams of experts;
3. conduct a public examination of draft laws, decisions, programmes and submit their conclusions and proposals for consideration by the relevant state bodies;
4. participate in public discussions and open parliamentary hearings on the activities and development of the security and defence sector, issues of legal and social protection of military personnel and employees of intelligence and law enforcement agencies.[18]

It is clear that these rights of public associations are not limited to the security and defence sector, there are similar rights in all spheres of life of the state and society.

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[18] *Pro natsional'nubezpekuUkrayiny: zakon Ukrayinyvid 21 chervnya 2018 roku № 2469-VIII*, https://zakon.rada.gov.ua/laws/show/2469-19?lang=en#Text, [access: 23.02.2022].

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Summary

Ensuring the safe functioning of public administration involves the proper performance of its functions, which in a concentrated form is reflected in the European principles and standards of good administration. In Ukraine, which aspires to become a full member of the European Union, the implementation of these principles is one of the priority tasks, because it means the full protection of human and civil rights and freedoms. The implementation of this task requires constant and effective control over the activities of public administration, which is entrusted to all governmental entities, as well as members of the public.

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INFORMATION AND PSYCHOLOGICAL CONFRONTATION IN HYBRID WARFARE

KONFRONTACJA INFORMACYJNA I PSYCHOLOGICZNA W WOJNIE HYBRYDOWEJ

Abstract: The analysis of the development of the situation around Ukraine gives every reason to assert that today Ukraine is faced with such a form of military operations as hybrid warfare. A characteristic feature of hybrid warfare is that the information, psychological, economic and military components are the basis for its conduct. The article is devoted to a meaningful analysis of the information and psychological component of modern hybrid wars. The content of the information-psychological component is revealed through such concepts as 'information war', 'psychological war', 'information-psychological confrontation' and 'information--psychological influence'.

Zarys treści: Analiza rozwoju sytuacji wokół Ukrainy daje wszelkie powody, by twierdzić, że dziś Ukraina ma do czynienia z taką formą operacji militarnych, jak wojna hybrydowa. Cechą charakterystyczną wojny hybrydowej jest to, że podstawą jej prowadzenia są elementy informacyjne, psychologiczne, ekonomiczne i militarne. Artykuł poświęcony jest wnikliwej analizie informacyjnego i psychologicznego komponentu współczesnych wojen hybrydowych. Treść komponentu informacyjno-psychologicznego ujawnia się poprzez takie pojęcia, jak „wojna informacyjna", „wojna psychologiczna", „konfrontacja informacyjno-psychologiczna" i „wpływ informacyjno-psychologiczny".

Key words: information war, psychological war, information-psychological confrontation, information-psychological influence

Słowa kluczowe: wojna informacyjna, wojna psychologiczna, konfrontacja informacyjno-psychologiczna, oddziaływanie informacyjno-psychologiczne

Revolutionary changes in power and armed conflicts in the former USSR, the Middle East and North Africa, which have global resonance, indicate the emergence of new forms and methods used by leading states to resolve interstate differences and

achieve their foreign policy goals. Thus, 'hybrid warfare' is coming to replace the classic military aggression with armed forces.

The concept of 'hybrid warfare' first appeared in US and UK military documents. The opinions of experts on the definition of hybrid war are mixed. In general, it is interpreted as the subordination of a certain territory with the help of information-psychological and cybernetic operations combined with the actions of the armed forces, special services and intense economic pressure.

The essence of such a war is to shift the focus of efforts from solely physically destroying the enemy within the framework of a large-scale war to use so-called 'soft power' against the enemy country to cause its disintegration, change its leadership, demoralize it and draw it into a sphere of influence.

Hybrid wars have a hidden nature and certain features, namely:[1] aggression without an official declaration of war; concealment by the aggressor country of its participation in the conflict; widespread use of irregular armed formations (including under cover of civilians); the aggressor's disregard for international norms of warfare and existing agreements; mutual measures of political and economic pressure (with formal preservation of ties between the two countries); widespread propaganda and counter-propaganda using 'dirty' information and psychological technologies and confrontation in cyberspace.

Thus, the analysis of the development of the situation in Ukraine gives every reason to assert that today our state is faced with precisely this form of warfare. This is confirmed by the peculiarities of the development of the military conflict, the hallmark of which is the absence of direct military clashes between regular troops and the existence of a conspiracy of the aggressor state with non-state formations operating on the territory of Ukraine: militant detachments, 'Cossacks', local criminals and separatist groups from the local population.

A specific feature of the hybrid war launched against Ukraine is that the information and psychological component, alongside the economic and military, one has become the basis of its conduct and the main target in this war is not the enemy, but the population which is to be 'liberated'. Also, all means are used to influence the picture of events desired by the invader in the international community's perception.

The article aims to analyse in detail the content of the information and psychological component of modern hybrid warfare.

Based on the foregoing, an integral part of hybrid wars is the information-psychological component, which is described by specialists through such concepts as 'information war', 'psychological war', 'information-psychological warfare', 'information-psychological confrontation', etc. (V. Aleshenko, M. Getmanchuk, G. Kovalev, V. Krislata, E. Magda, E. Manuilov, T. Pashchenko, G. Pocheptsov, A. Prudnikova, I. Ruschenko, A. Saenko, M. Trebin, I. Feskov, F. Hoffman and others).

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[1]   G. Kovalev, *Information and psychological confrontation as a component of hybrid war. Modern war: the humanitarian aspect: materials of the scientific-practical conference of the KhNU PS im. I. Kozhedub*, May 31–June 1, 2018 Kharkiv: KhNU PS im. I. Kozhedub, 2018, s. 144–148.

According to A. Karayan, the most global and all-encompassing of the above concepts is 'information-psychological confrontation', reflecting different levels of counteraction of the conflicting parties, carried out by information and psychological means to achieve political and military goals. Such a broad interpretation of the phenomenon under consideration makes it possible to cover information and psychological actions carried out:
   – at different levels (interstate or strategic, operational and tactical);
   – both in peacetime and in wartime;
   – both in the informational and in the spiritual sphere;
   – both among military personnel and among the enemy's troops.[2]

Information-psychological confrontation as a direction of scientific research and practical activity has a long history, although, in a direct formulation, this term has entered theory and practice relatively recently.

In general, information-psychological confrontation is understood as a complex impact on the system of state and military administration, on the military-political leadership of the state, the population, the military and counteracting this influence from the opposing side.[3]

Today, depending on the scientific interest and the subject of research, regarding information and psychological confrontation in the scientific research of domestic and foreign scientists, several main directions can be distinguished:[4]

1. Formation of conceptual, theoretical and technological aspects of information and psychological confrontation (I. Zamarueva, A. Karayan, A. Lukyanets, A. Manoilo, G. Pocheptsov, S. Rastorguev, T. Ron, A. Ros, V. Tolubko, etc.).

2. Definition of theoretical and methodological problems of the essence and content of information and psychological impact and operations (V. Bogush, G. Grachev, Y. Zharkov, A. Kopan, V. Krysko, A. Litvinenko, A. Mateyuk, I. Melnik, M Onischuk, G. Pocheptsov, A. Chernyak, A. Yudin, and others).

3. Coverage of the problems of developing information and psychological confrontation in the historical aspect (V. Ostroukhov, V. Petrik, K. Popovich, G. Pocheptsov, A. Ros, I. Rusnak, V. Telelim, V. Tolubko, A. Shtokvish, and others).

4. Generalization of the theory and practice of psychological and informational operations in modern local wars and armed conflicts (M. Dzyuba, S. Kuznetsov, V. Kolesov, A. Matsagor, V. Petrik, A. Permyakov, Prisyazhnyuk, etc.).

5. Conducting scientific research on information and psychological counteraction (I. Vorobyova, M. Markova, D. Popov, P. Shevchuk, etc.).

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[2]   A.G. Karayan, *Information and psychological confrontation in modern war*, Moscow: Military University, 1997, p.246.
[3]   Ya. Zharkov, *Onischuk M. Information-psychological confrontation in the modern world: problem-historical analysis*, Bulletin of the Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv. 2007 / 16–17, s. 103.
[4]   *Information and psychological counteraction in the National Guard of Ukraine (psychological aspect)*: monograph / I.V. Vorobyova, Ya. V. Matsegora, I.I. Prikhodko et al. Kh.: Nat. acad. NG Ukraine, 2016, s. 265.

As D. Frolov and L. Vorontsova point out, the modern period of development of information-psychological confrontation is characterized by its special aggravation and reaching a qualitatively new level, which is due to the following main factors:[5]

 – informatization of the main branches of activity of most states;
 – the rapid pace of the formation of global information infrastructure and its transformation into an essential element of the life of the world community;
 – significant advances in the development of information technology impact on the consciousness, will and feelings of people;
 – active development of software and hardware for causing damage to computer and telecommunication systems;
 – insufficient level of development of means and methods of ensuring the protection of information spaces and the consciousness of the population;
 – imperfection of information policy.

In the system of information-psychological confrontation, which is carried out for military purposes, phenomena are distinguished that are qualified as 'information war' and 'psychological war'.[6]

Today, the term 'information war' (IW) is still journalistic and has not yet received public recognition in Russian and foreign scientific circles – this is evidenced by ongoing discussions about what underlies this concept, what is the essence of phenomena related to information wars, as well as disputes over the correctness of the application of this term to the sphere of social relationships, which are commonly called information-psychological confrontation or conflict of interest in the information sphere of social systems. As a result, several dozen different formulations of 'information war' are used in the scientific literature. However, altogether these definitions quite completely and unambiguously single them out from the variety of relations existing in modern social society. Those social phenomena and processes can be distinguished into a separate group with the conditional name 'information war'.[7] In general, they can be divided into three main groups.

The authors of the first group reduce the concept of IW to individual informational events and operations, informational methods and means of corporate competition or conducting interstate confrontation or armed struggle. The most famous specialist who classifies IW as information methods and means of warfare is the Ukrainian scientist G. Pocheptsov. who writes: "Information war is a communication technology for influencing the mass consciousness with short-term and long-term goals."[8] Simultaneously, G. Pocheptsov refers to communication technologies as propaganda, advertising, electoral technologies and public relations.[9]

5   A.V. Manoil, *State information policy in special conditions*: monograph, Moscow: MEPhI, 2003.388, p. 225.
6   A.G. Karayan, *Information and psychological confrontation in modern war*, Moscow: Military University, 1997, p. 246.
7   A.V. Manoilo, *State information policy in special conditions*: monograph, Moscow: MEPhI, 2003.388, p. 240–247.
8   G.G. Pocheptsov, *Information wars*, M .: Refl-book, M.: Vakler, 2000.576, p. 20.
9   G.G. Pocheptsov, *Information and psychological warfare*, Moscow: Sinteg, 2000, 180, p. 3.

The authors of the second group – mainly representatives of the military departments, both foreign and Russian (S. Grinyaeva, S. Komov, M. Rodionov) – attribute IW to the sphere of military confrontation.[10] In general, Russian military thought has many points of view on the problems of information warfare, which complicates the implementation of a general analysis of the views of Russian specialists. But the main goal of the information war is still considered the mastery of the consciousness of the population and undermining the morale and combat potential of the armed forces of the eventual adversary.[11]

The authors of the third group of definitions of IW consider it a phenomenon of the external peaceful period of interstate confrontation, allowing the solving foreign policy problems in a non-violent way in the traditional sense.[12]

By IW means and methods, Russian authors have information, informational influences, or information technologies. V. Lisichkin and L. Shelepin believe that information war is a war of 'a qualitatively new type, where information is a weapon, and the struggle is waged for a purposeful change in public consciousness.'[13]

A type of information war, waged mainly against social systems, is a psychological (information-psychological) war.

The concept of 'psychological warfare' was used for the first time by Dr. M. Campaneo in his book 'The Experience of Military Psychology', published in 1904 in Bucharest.[14]

The Americans first experienced psychological warfare in World War II. Until 1945, these actions were of an auxiliary nature, and then, during the Cold War, they acquired an independent character as a 'psychological sphere' of foreign policy. In 1948, the NSC Directive 10/2 was adopted, which obliged the CIA to conduct psychological warfare. It is still in force today. According to this directive, the main covert operations are propaganda, economic war, preventive direct actions (sabotage, assistance to underground movements and emigrant groups, etc.).

In Nazi Germany, the term 'psychological sabotage' was used, the main tasks of which were: splitting a hostile state, causing discontent among the population of a hostile state with the policy of its own government, isolating the hostile state from its allies, various obstacles in its preparation for war and creating opposition.

The characteristic features of modern psychological warfare are considered:[15]
  – globality – impact on all spheres of life of the opponent, neutral states, allies, their population and military personnel;

[10] S.N. Grinyaev, *Intellectual counteraction to information weapons*, Moscow: Sinteg, 1999, p. 232; S.A. Komov, *On the methodology for assessing the effectiveness of information warfare*. Military thought 1997, No. 5, s. 42–44; M.A. Rodionov, *On the question of the forms of the intsormation struggle*, Military thought 1998, No. 2, s. 67–70.

[11] A. Shevchenko, *Information and psychological operations: conceptual approaches of NATO and the leading countries of the world*, "Social Psychology" 2004, No. 2, s.111–121.

[12] N.I. Cherginets, *State policy in the field of information security: state and development prospects. National security: management and information technology support*, Minsk 2000, p. 9.

[13] V.A. Lisichkin, L.A. Shelepin, *The third world (information and psychological) war*, M.: Institute of Social and Political Research ASN 1999.304, p. 9.

[14] V. Yagupov, *Military psychology: textbook*, M.: Tandem 2004.656, p. 336.

[15] *Ibidem*, p. 337.

— totality – penetration into all spheres of life: into diplomacy, economics, cultu-
re, social relations, social and psychological, and the like;
— technicalization – the widespread use of the achievements of science and tech-
nology both for processing the content, methods and techniques of psychologi-
cal warfare and the forms and methods of their implementation;
— organization – the creation of various bodies of psychological warfare and pre-
cise coordination of their efforts and areas of activity (in all developed coun-
tries, they are united into a single state structure).

The goal and objectives of psychological warfare are classified and specified fol-
lowing the conditions for conducting psychological warfare (purposes and objectives
of psychological warfare in peacetime, war and post-war times, as well as during
peacekeeping operations), subjects of psychological warfare (military personnel, ci-
vilians, the higher military-political leadership of the enemy and their allies, as well
as world public opinion and allied countries) and the time frame of psychological
warfare (strategic, operational, tactical).[16]

In an everyday sense, psychological warfare is a spontaneous, unskilled use of
means of communication and mechanisms of social and psychological influence by
some people against other people to subjugate them to themselves or create favourab-
le conditions for their existence and activity.

In this form, psychological warfare exists (is applied) throughout the entire lifespan
of a person. Whereas in the past people were able to influence each other only in direct
communication, influencing their interlocutors with the help of words, intonation, ge-
stures and facial expressions, today the ways of influencing human consciousness have
become much more diverse, effective and elegant due to the accumulated experience,
as well as through the creation of special technologies for communication and people
management. In this context, the term 'psychological warfare' can be characterized by:
— the political activity of individuals, groups, parties and movements;
— electoral companies of candidates for various electable positions;
— advertising activities of commercial structures;
— the struggle of individuals (and small groups) in the rivalry for leadership in
industrial, scientific and other teams;
— political, economic or cultural confrontation of rival ethnic groups;
— negotiation processes between competing firms or organizations.

Therefore, information and psychological warfare is a combination of vario-
us forms, methods and means of influencing people to change, in a desired direc-
tion, their psychological characteristics (views, opinions, value orientations, moods,
motives, attitudes and behaviour stereotypes), as well as group norms, mass senti-
ments and public consciousness in general.[17]

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[16] A.K. Yudin, V.M. Bogush, *Information security of the state: a tutorial*, Kharkov: Consum,
2005.576, p. 116–117.
[17] A.V. Manoilo, *State information policy in special conditions*: monograph, Moscow: MEPhI,
2003.388, p. 250.

The use of information-psychological influence (IPI) in Western terminology has acquired the form of psychological operations (PsyOp). According to Western experts, psychological operations are understood to be the conduct of planned propaganda and psychological activities in peacetime and war, designed for foreign hostile, friendly or neutral audiences in order to influence them in a favourable direction to achieve political and military national goals.[18]

Depending on the purpose, nature, scale and content of the tasks to be achieved, psychological operations are subdivided according to their level into strategic, operational, and tactical, according to the time they are conducted – into those that are conducted in a peacetime (threatening) period, in wartime and during peacekeeping operations. Psychological operations are additionally divided into PsyOp for misleading the enemy, PsyOp against the civilian population of the enemy, PsyOp in support of hostilities, PsyOp to assist opposition forces and dissident movements, PsyOp for cultural expansion and sabotage, consolidating PsyOp and PSYO during peacekeeping operations.[19] Consequently, psychological operations are carried out using information and psychological influences.

The main objects of negative information and psychological influences are distinguished:[20]
– the ideological, psychological environment of society, associated with the use of information, information resources, and information infrastructure to influence the psyche and behaviour of people;
– resources that reveal spiritual, cultural, historical, national values, traditions, the property of the state and nation in various spheres of society;
– information infrastructure, that is, absolutely all intermediate links between information and a person;
– the system for the formation of public consciousness (world view, political views, generally accepted rules of behaviour, etc.);
– the system of forming public opinion;
– a system for developing and making political decisions;
– human consciousness and behaviour.

In terms of content, informational and psychological influences are targeted, systemic, time-coordinated strikes throughout the public information space – in the zone of formal and informal communication, the target of which is:
a) self-identification of a person, their social and role identification, which sets the general intentionality of an individual and society as a whole;

[18] V. Klimenko, *Moral and psychological aspects of modern information wars*, Bulletin of the Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv 2007, 14–15, p. 105.
[19] A. Shevchenko, *Information and psychological operations: conceptual approaches of NATO and the leading countries of the world*, "Social Psychology" 2004, No. 2, p. 113.
[20] N.A. Maruta, M.V. Markova, *Information-psychological warfare as a new challenge of our time: the state of the problem and the direction of its overcoming*, "Ukrainian Bulletin of Psychoneurology" 2015, Vol. 23, Issue 3 (84), p. 21–28.

b) self-awareness as an individual's understanding of their own identity, and the identity of the community in society, which are reflected in cultural traditions, beliefs and mentality indicated in the language;

c) basic human values that underlie their assessments and judgments.[21]

An important feature of IPIs for individual consciousness is that they are unnoticeable by the target person themselves. Experts argue that dangerous IPI for individual consciousness can lead to two types of interrelated changes.[22] Firstly, these are changes in the psyche and mental health of a person. Since information influences, it is difficult to talk about the boundaries of the norm and pathology. An indicator of changes can be the loss of the adequacy of the world's reflection in consciousness and one's attitude to the world. We can talk about personality degradation if the forms of reflection of reality are simplified, reactions become coarse and a transition from higher needs (in self-actualization, social recognition) to lower ones (physiological, every day) occurs. Secondly, this shifts values, attitudes, landmarks and the world view of the individual. Such changes cause instances of deviant antisocial behaviour and pose a threat to society and the state.

According to domestic experts,[23] 45% of the information disseminated in the Ukrainian information space shows signs of targeted external manipulation and is a manifestation of IPI directed against the Ukrainian state.

Negative IPI is experienced by almost the entire population of Ukraine, which can be divided into direct targeting of IPI, that IPI which results from negative experience (Donbass war veterans, veterans' family members, relatives of those killed in action, prisoners of war, hostages and their relatives, temporarily displaced persons and refugees, the population living in combat zones, medical staff assisting the wounded and volunteers) and IPI through indirect information flows.

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[21] A.M. Dubina, *Information-psychological wars and their influence on mass consciousness*, Kiev: NTUU „KPI" 2011, p. 57.

[22] V. Petrik, Y. Zharkov, M. Dziuba, *Personal dangers in the information space*, "Legal Journal" 2007, No. 2, p. 45–46.

[23] M.V. Markova, *Information and psychological war: medical and psychological consequences and strategies of counteraction*, "Problems of continuing medical education and science" 2016, No. 4, p. 6–10.

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Summary

Hybrid warfare is one of the main types of military aggression in the modern world. If this war is properly planned and conducted, the advantages of it are as follows: the aggressor country is not an aggressor of the international community; small losses of personnel (the armed forces are not widely used) and achieving the goal with low economic costs. The main component of hybrid warfare is information and psychological confrontation. It allows the achievement of the goal in full. Therefore, at present, in the advanced countries of the world, information measures and psychological counteraction is taking place on an ongoing basis and is a matter of not only military but also state significance.

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INTERNATIONAL DIMENSION OF A JUVENILE JUSTICE

MIĘDZYNARODOWY WYMIAR SPRAWIEDLIWOŚCI DLA NIELETNICH

Abstract: The article legally analyses international standards of the interrogation of juveniles who are suspected of having committed a criminal offence. The procedural order and tactical features of the interrogation of a minor, that are outlined in international law, are analysed. The author defines the criteria, specific rules of interrogation, as well as requirements for such procedural action. Further improvement of national legislation in accordance with international standards in the field of criminal procedural support of pre-trial investigation is necessary.

Zarys treści: Artykuł prawnie analizuje międzynarodowe standardy przesłuchiwania nieletnich podejrzanych o popełnienie przestępstwa. Przeanalizowano porządek proceduralny i cechy taktyczne przesłuchania nieletniego, które są określone w prawie międzynarodowym. Autorka określa kryteria, szczegółowe zasady przesłuchania, a także wymagania dotyczące takiego postępowania procesowego. Niezbędna jest dalsza poprawa ustawodawstwa krajowego zgodnie z międzynarodowymi standardami w dziedzinie postępowania karnego wspierającego postępowanie przygotowawcze.

Key words: international standards, interrogation of a juvenile, criminal offence, European Union, national legislation

Słowa kluczowe: standardy międzynarodowe, przesłuchanie młodocianego, przestępstwo karne, Unia Europejska, ustawodawstwo krajowe

Formulation of the problem

International standards of interrogation, including of juveniles who are suspected of having committed a criminal offence, should be defined as normative requirements, enshrined in the format of generally accepted principles and norms, which provide for the minimum necessary procedural rules of criminal proceedings, which become mandatory for a particular state after ratification. In fact, international standards are

aimed at providing the necessary legal status of a person. Any non-compliance with such standards should be considered a violation, have negative consequences for the perpetrators and provide a set of measures to restore violated rights and freedoms.

The study of the components of the procedure of interrogation of a minor such as age, duration of interrogation and the composition of the participants of the investigative (search) action, etc., allows us to conclude that the problems associated with the involvement of a teacher or psychologist, legal representatives or video recording of the interrogation exist not only in Ukraine.

Analysis of research and publications

The general international legal acts that establish the requirements for a pre-trial investigation include the following:

1. The Charter of the United Nations and the Charter of the International Court of Justice.[1]
2. Universal Declaration of Human Rights.[2]
3. International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights.[3]
4. International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.[4]
5. Optional Protocols to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights.[5]
6. Convention on the Rights of the Child.[6]
7. Guidelines on justice in matters related to the participation of child victims and
8. witnesses of crime.[7]

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[1] *The Charter of the United Nations and the Charter of the International Court of Justice*, Database „Legislation of Ukraine", Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine, https://zakon.rada.gov.ua/laws/show/995_010#Text, [access: 23.02.2022] (in ukrainian)

[2] *Universal Declaration of Human Rights*, Database "Legislation of Ukraine", Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine, https://zakon.rada.gov.ua/laws/show/995_015#Text, [access: 23.02.2022] (in ukrainian).

[3] *International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights*, Database „Legislation of Ukraine", Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine, https://zakon.rada.gov.ua/laws/show/995_043#Text, [access: 23.02.2022] (in ukrainian).

[4] *International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights*, Database „Legislation of Ukraine", Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine, https://zakon.rada.gov.ua/laws/show/995_042#Text, [access: 23.02.2022] (in ukrainian).

[5] *Optional Protocols to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights*, Database „Legislation of Ukraine", Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine, https://zakon.rada.gov.ua/laws/show/995_086#Text, [access: 23.02.2022] (in ukrainian).

[6] *Convention on the Rights of the Child of 20 November 1989 (as amended by UN General Assembly resolution 50/155 of 21 December 1995)*, Database "Legislation of Ukraine", Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine, https://zakon.rada.gov.ua/laws/show/995_021#Text, [access: 23.02.2022] (in ukrainian).

[7] *Guidelines on justice in matters related to the participation of child victims and witnesses of crime. International document adopted by the United Nations on July 22, 2005*, Database "Legislation of Ukraine", Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine, https://zakon.rada.gov.ua/laws/show/995_e54#Text, [access: 23.02.2022] (in ukrainian).

One of the defining documents detailing the requirements for questioning a child witness or victim of criminal abuse is the Council of Europe Convention for the Protection of Children against Sexual Exploitation and Sexual Abuse (Lanzarote Convention 2007, CETS № 201), ratified by the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine on 27 August 2012. In particular, Art. 35 of the Convention directly concerns interviews of children.

Working on the above raised topics, we considered the works of many Ukrainian and foreign researchers in this field. As a rule, scholars in the field of criminal procedural law examine the following criteria for the interrogation of a juvenile: venue, duration and frequency. At the same time, the issue of regulation of juvenile interrogation is considered by criminologists and specialists in the field of child and adolescent psychology in the context of the child's age, requirements for the subject of interrogation and prevention of re-victimization, etc.

The purpose and task of this article is a scientific and theoretical substantiation of the modern significance of international standards of interrogation of a juvenile who is suspected of having committed a criminal offence.

Analysing the legislation of different countries, including Poland, Romania, Russia and Great Britain, etc., we can identify the following components of the procedure for interrogation of a minor:

1. *The age of the minor*, as the duration of the interrogation depends on this. The Ukrainian scientist N.V. Pavliuk provides the following recommendations on the duration of the interrogation of a juvenile: 'in most cases, juveniles of the younger age group can testify productively from 15 to 20 minutes, in particular, it concerns the interrogated children 3–5 years old; 5–7-years old minors – about 20–25 minutes; 7–10-years old – from 25 to 35 minutes'. If the person conducting the interrogation does not have time to discover the issues of interest during this time, it is advisable to take a break. However, it is important to realise that after two periods of interrogation, the productivity of the intellectual activity of minors decreases.[8]

2. *Subjects of interrogation and its participants*. Article 25 of the Council of Europe Convention for the Protection of Children against Sexual Exploitation and Sexual Abuse of 25.10.2007, ratified by the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine on 20 June 2012, provides that 'interviews shall be conducted by a person specially trained for this purpose'.[9] Thus, in accordance with the provisions of Part 2 of Art. 484 of the CPC of Ukraine, the guarantee of the rights of children and minors is a special procedure for criminal proceedings in this category. Included in this are criminal proceedings instituted against several people together where at least one of whom is a minor. This is carried out by an investigator who is specially authorized by the head of the pre-trial investigation body to conduct pre-trial investigations into minors. At the same time, courts must be shown documents

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8   N.V. Pavluik, *Vikovo-psihologichni osoblivosty nepovnolitnih ta mozlivosti ih zastosuvannia pid chas dopitu*, Problemy zakonnosty, Vup.68, Kharkiv, Nationalna uridichna academia Ukraini im. Yaroslava Mudrogo 2004, p. 197 (in ukrainian).
9   *Council of Europe Convention on the Protection of Children against Sexual Exploitation and Sexual Abuse of 25 October 2007*, Database „Legislation of Ukraine", Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine, https://zakon.rada.gov.ua/laws/show/994_927#Text6-200, [access: 23.02.2022] (in ukrainian).

confirming the fact of pre-trial investigation of minors by a specially authorized investigator, as the evidence obtained as a result of pre-trial investigation of a minor by an unauthorized entity, by virtue of paragraph 2 Part 3 of Art. 87 of the CPC of Ukraine, is inadmissible. However, neither the CPC of Ukraine nor any other law clearly specifies the necessary qualifications and requirements for this category of investigators. Similar requirements are contained in the legislation of Romania, Russia, Norway and other countries.

Other participants in the interrogation include the legal representatives of the juvenile suspect or accused. According to Art. 44 of the CPC of Ukraine this may involve parents (adoptive parents) and, in their absence, guardians or trustees of the person, other close adult relatives or family members, as well as representatives of guardianship and trusteeship, institutions and organizations under whose guardianship or care a minor is placed if incapacitated or partially incapacitated.

3. *Videotaping of the interrogation*. In particular, Part 5 of Art. 244 of the CPC of Ukraine stipulates that photography, audio and / or video recording may be used during interrogation. However, Ukrainian investigators do not always use this opportunity, for various reasons: they do not have the technical capacity, specially equipped premises, time, etc., thus often subjecting juvenile victims to re-victimization.

In other countries, such as the United Kingdom, the police use special facilities to conduct investigations involving minors. Such facilities are located outside the police stations and are equipped in such a way that the child can quickly adapt to the new environment. Similar interrogation rooms for children who have been sexually abused or witnessed such crimes are used in various countries: Germany, Poland, the United States, Estonia, Bulgaria, and others. In Germany, Estonia and Poland, these rooms are painted blue, but regardless of the colour, these rooms may still be called child-friendly rooms. For example, in Tartu, Estonia, such a room was set up in 2000 on the premises of the Police Investigation Service. The room was decorated by child psychologists and an artist from the Tartu Child Support Center. There is a favourable atmosphere with equipment, upholstered furniture, toys and books for different ages, and a drawing board, etc. Present are all the things required to interview a child, in particular, anatomical dolls, drawings, tests and questionnaires. Under Estonian law, children under the age of 14 are always interviewed in the presence of assistance service staff for victims of violence or witnesses. In a number of countries, special rooms for interviewing children are operated by non-governmental organizations. For example, in Moldova, a room of the non-governmental organization La Strada--Moldova is used to interview children whilst in Poland facilities of the Nobody's Children Charitable Foundation are used, as well as those of social services and the Child Protection Center. In general, the standards of arrangement of such rooms around the world do not impose restrictions on their affiliation and location, but only recommend their arrangement to institutions that have the right and ability to administer such facilities. The main requirement for these rooms is the presence of a comfortable room that provides the child with a sense of security and confidentiality and meets the needs of children to feel physically and psychologically safe during the interview.

In particular, the key requirement of the room is to allow the child to be interviewed by only one specialist (for example a judge or investigator), while all other participants (the accused's lawyers, prosecutor, etc.) can observe the interview from other rooms and communicate with the interviewer through a remote communication system. Experts also recommend providing for the possibility for a child victim of a crime to wait for the interview in a safe and child-friendly atmosphere, separate from the accused or suspect. Such a room should have proper soundproofing, meet the needs of children of all ages, with an interior in pastel colours. Among the main requirements for the equipment of such rooms / premises are methodical materials and psychodiagnostic tools for obtaining the necessary information from the child. The 'Green Room' helps children to feel a cosy, friendly atmosphere, promotes open, trusting communication and dialogue with adults. Experience shows that children in such rooms are better at communicating.

This practice is gradually being implemented in Ukraine using the 'Green Room' method.[10] 'Green rooms' are a new phenomenon for Ukraine, the term first appearing in official documents only in 2008. In 2008 the Criminal Police Department for Children issued Guidelines for the organization and operation of the 'green room' for children in need of social and psychological protection. According to these Guidelines, preventive work with children aged 5 to 18 in the following categories should be carried out in 'green rooms': neglected and homeless; living in disadvantaged families; persistently run away from families and educational institutions; engaged in vagrancy and begging; have been victims of violence or have committed domestic violence themselves; are registered with the police; have committed administrative offences; have committed socially dangerous acts before reaching the age of criminal responsibility; have been released from punishment with the use of coercive measures of an educational nature; have committed a crime; have been released from prison; have been returned from special institutions of social rehabilitation; are prone to alcohol, drugs and psychotropic drugs. Unfortunately, this list of categories of children does not include children who are victims and witnesses of crimes, especially sexual violence and exploitation. Guidelines for the arrangement of such rooms were also far from international standards and were limited to the requirements for the colour of walls, wallpaper, floors, carpets, furniture (should be green), the appropriate temperature and fresh air, sound insulation, proper lighting, indoor flowers, toys and books, appropriate sound design and the presence of soft chairs. They also recommended the need to organize two rooms, separated by glass for visual surveillance and installation of video equipment. These methodical recommendations were not approved at the level of an order or instruction from the Ministry of Internal Affairs of Ukraine.

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[10] *Metodichni rekomendacii shodo opituvannia ditei, sho staly svidkamy ta/abo gertvamy nasilstva, a takog vchinily nasilstvo*: Metod.posib./ Avtory-uporyad.: D. Puras, O. Kalashnik, O. Kochemirovska, T. Cjuman, za zag. red. T. Cjuman, Kyiv 2015, p. 114, http://elibrary.kubg.edu.ua/id/eprint/10717/1/%D0%9F%D0%BE%D1%81%D1%96%D0%B1%D0%BD%D0%B8%D0%BA-%D0%BE%D0%BF%D0%B8%D1%82%D1%83%D0%B2%D0%B0%D0%BD%D0%BD%D1%8F-%D0%A0%D0%84.pdf, [access: 23.02.2022] (in Ukrainian).

The basic principles of juvenile criminal law in Germany are the educational idea that the main purpose of criminal law measures applicable to minors should be special individual prevention. The Juvenile Court Act (Jugendgerichtsgesetz (hereinafter – JGG)) provides that the application of juvenile criminal law must prevent, above all, new crimes against young people.[11] One of the components of German juvenile law is juvenile justice. This combines prescriptions of both substantive and procedural nature, takes into account the age characteristics of the minor and the special principles of juvenile law. The main provisions of juvenile justice are defined in the Juvenile Court Act of 1953, which, with changes and additions, are still in force today. At the same time, the JGG is not the only source of juvenile criminal proceedings. Minors are also subject to the general provisions of German law, but only those that do not contradict or are not regulated by the JGG.

Experience with the instruction on interrogation by officers in the USA shows the considerable similarity of the majority of organizational and tactical approaches to interrogation. However, there are also many techniques and approaches that differ significantly, for example, in the United States, parents are not allowed to be present during the interrogation of their minor child.[12]

Studying the experience of interrogation of juvenile participants in criminal proceedings in countries where the priority is to protect the rights and legitimate interests of juveniles, namely: Norway, Sweden and the United Kingdom, we noted a significant difference in the tactics of interrogation. While, in Ukraine, the investigator must interrogate a minor suspect in the presence of the above-mentioned persons in the same room, in Norway others are not present in the room where the child is being interviewed, they (parents, legal representatives, lawyer, etc.) observe the interview through viewing glass and do not have the opportunity to influence the testimony in any way. Usually, minors should be questioned by a person of the same sex. However, it is noted that children are more willing to communicate with women. If rapport with the juvenile cannot be established, the police officer must leave the interrogation room and allow the child to be distracted. It is important to discover whether the juvenile wishes to be questioned by another person.

Recently, Ukraine has been actively discussing the introduction of interrogation methods into the activities of pre-trial investigation bodies' procedural interviews. These techniques are actively used in the United States, Canada, Great Britain and the European Union. The SUE (Strategic Use of Evidence) or model of strategic use of evidence was developed by Swedish scientists during a research programme.

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[11] *Bundesrecht konsolidiert: Gesamte Rechtsvorschrift für Jugendgerichtsgesetz 1988*, *Fassung vom 29.11.2020*, https://www.ris.bka.gv.at/GeltendeFassung.wxe?Abfrage=Bundesnormen&Gesetzesnummer=10002825, [access: 23.02.2022] (in German).

[12] *Police Questioning of Juveniles (Minors) in California Criminal Cases*, https://www.shouselaw.com/ca/juvenile/interrogation-of-minors/, [data accessu: 23.02.2022] Nele M. Hingmann «Examining an adaptation of the Strategic Use of Evidence approach when interviewing suspects» 2019. http://essay.utwente.nl/78972/1/Hingmann_BA_BMS.pdf, [access: 23.02.2022] (in English).

The purpose of this model is to improve the investigator's ability to infer the accuracy of information by identifying signs of truth or falsity in the suspect's testimony.[13]

The model of strategic use of evidence consists of strategic and tactical levels. The strategic level is based on four basic principles that apply to each case:
- the suspect's idea of the available evidence;
- strategies to counter the suspect;
- verbal responses of the suspect;
- change of perspective (attempt by the investigator to put themselves in the situation of the suspect).

The tactical level is a set of different tactics for questioning and disclosing evidence during a procedural interview. The use of one or another tactic by investigators depends on whether the suspect is lying or telling the truth.

The effectiveness of the model of strategic use of evidence is evidenced by the results of a study, according to which a group of law enforcement officers who received special training were able to distinguish truths from lies in 85.4% of cases, while in groups of officers who did not receive appropriate training, this accuracy was only 56.1%.

Conclusions

On the basis of the conducted research certain standards of interrogation of minors are defined. The organization of work should be carried out on the basis of an individual approach to each child, taking into account their age and psychological characteristics. It is important to understand the psychological characteristics of communication with minors, depending on the situation of interaction and taking into account age. The basis of effective interaction with a child is compliance with specific rules related to the presence of:
1. a safe adult with knowledge of the psychological, physiological and age characteristics of the child's development, the peculiarities of communication with the child, taking into account age, communication skills and skills necessary for effective communication with the child;
2. a safe environment or so-called 'green room', which is an organized system of measures aimed at ensuring the legality, humanity and effectiveness of any decision regarding a child who is in conflict with the law or is in contact with the law.

To avoid traumatic situations, most countries use the practice of friendly interrogation, where only one specialist speaks to the child (a specially trained police officer

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[13] *Strategic Use of Evidence (SUE) Leading Into The CVSA Interview* . https://www.cvsa1.com/interviewing-and-interrogation/strategic-use-of-evidence-sue-leading-into-the-cvsa-interview/, [access: 23.02.2022].

/ prosecutor / psychologist / forensic examiner / judge, etc.), and other specialists are in another room watching the interrogation. They have the opportunity to pass one or two questions through special headphones to the specialist who interviews the child, as well as to discuss the necessary questions during breaks.

Thus, our analysis of international law on the standards of interrogation of a juvenile who is suspected of having committed a criminal offence, allows us to conclude that the interrogation procedures in Ukraine, as in most countries of the world, meets international standards. Unfortunately however, in Ukraine, these international standards are not fully applied, which indicates the need to improve the legal regulation of these investigations, expand the scientific, technical and tactical arsenal of the investigation and increase the professional skills of investigators and operative workers.

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Summary

It is common in Ukraine to use the term "interrogation", as this term is used in the Criminal Procedure Code of Ukraine. At the same time, in accordance with international standards, the term "interrogation" is used when meaning interrogation as a procedural action, as well as any other options for interviewing a child by authorized persons. However, in reality, it is not the term that plays a decisive role, but the approach to it. The organization of either the interrogation or the interview should take into account the age and psychological characteristics of the child of the appropriate age, and the process itself – regardless of the term used – should be child-friendly.

Contents
Spis treści