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TRADE STAGE OF EASTERN EUROPEAN COLONIZATION (XVI - XIX centuries)

Abstract.

The article is devoted to the peculiarities of the formation of the colonial system in different regions at the trade stage. The emergence of Europeans greatly influenced the East. Although it did not appear immediately on the internal structure of society and did not affect all regions, it brought the constant presence of a new force and changed the foreign policy situation. Initially, Europeans were perceived in the East as another force, not always equally powerful, but always incomprehensible (in terms of its values and aspirations) and alienated from local society. But despite the fact that the vast majority of eastern states continued to live in their traditional world, European colonization inevitably drew them into the world market system.

Keywords: colonialism, East, Europeans, trade, conquest.

The beginning of the European invasion of the East coincides with the era of the Great Geographical Discoveries - a period of expanding world ties, especially trade. For two centuries, European navigators, first Portuguese and Spanish, then Dutch, English and French, paved the way to the East - to Africa, India, Southeast Asia and the West - to South and North America, the Antilles, discovered Australia. Russian explorers went deep into Siberia and reached the shores of the Pacific Ocean.

The aim of the article is to find out the peculiarities of the formation of the colonial system in different regions at the first, trade stage of colonialism, to determine the reasons for the transition of European countries from trade with Eastern countries to their conquest.

Various aspects of the problem of colonialism were studied by Vasiliev L.S. [1]. The study of colonial rivalry between European countries were: Khazanov A.M. [2,3], Novopashina L.Yu. [4], Zagorodnikova T.N [5], Subbotin V.A. [6]. The missionary movement was studied by: Ognietov I.A. [7], Nikitin M.D. [8], Tsendina A.V. [9], Balezin A.S. [10].

The great geographical discoveries, and with them the colonial expansion, were initiated by Portugal and Spain, countries that were not the most economically and politically developed. This raises the question of why the Crusaders' movement to the East, which continued in Europe throughout the Middle Ages, or the naval expansion of the Arabs into China did not cause such rapid changes in world development as the Spanish-Portuguese expansion. The answer to this question

lies in the peculiarities of the development of the Western European world before the beginning of the era of the Great Geographical Discoveries.

Long before the beginning of colonial expansion, there were, albeit limited, contacts between West and East. Travelers and merchants were the first to pave the way to the East. In 1271, the Venetian merchants Niccolò and Maffeo Polo, together with their son Niccolò Marco, set out from the East Coast of the Mediterranean to travel through Iran to Hormuz in the Persian Gulf. From there they went northeast to Kashagar, and there - the old Silk Road to Beijing. After a long journey to China and South Asia, Polo set course for Europe and reached 1295. Venice. Forty years later, Ibn Battuta, a court scholar from Morocco, went on a pilgrimage to Mecca, and from there continued his journey to Iran, Anatolia and the Crimea to Constantinople [11, p.142].

From there he traveled to India and Central Asia, where he held government positions for several years in Delhi and the Maldives. After visiting southern China and Sumatra, he returned to Morocco in 1349. Three years later, he accompanied Moroccan traders in the Sahara desert to the kingdom of Mali in western Sudan and finally returned to Fez. Between 1405 and 1433, Chinese Admiral Cheng-ho sailed seven times to South Asia, reaching the Red Sea and the East African coast. In 1492, a sea captain from Genoa, who was in the service of the Queen of Aragon, first entered the New World, where he saw the Bahamas and thought he was in Japan [11, p.56].

These sea voyages were not some accidental adventures, but a manifestation of the force that drew the continents into ever closer relations and was soon to turn the world into a single arena of human activity. One of the great advantages of the Western European world was its proximity to waterways along the entire perimeter from the Gulf of Finland and the Baltic Sea to the Eastern Mediterranean. From the extreme northeastern point of this maritime network, people could transport their goods to the Caspian Sea [1, p.23].

This path was cut by nomads until the middle of the 16th century. From the ports of the Eastern Mediterranean, the Silk Road led to Kashagar, and there to China itself. The second route from the Mediterranean ran from Aleppo to the Persian Gulf, and from there by ship to India and Southeast Asia. The third route was used for transportation across the Suez Isthmus and sea transportation through the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden to East Africa and beyond India [12, p.6].

The existence of such paths suggests that long-distance exchanges have deep roots. While transport capacity was limited and cargo was transported by land by humans or animals, and at sea by light vessels, luxury items, that is, goods sold at a high profit, were given priority in transportation. One of the main economic causes of colonial expansion, most researchers consider the crisis of the feudal system and the emergence of capitalist relations [12, p.6].

Medieval Europe developed rapidly, which led to the formation of surplus production, as well as the class of feudal lords who appropriated these surpluses. Surplus production increased significantly after 1000 due

to the intensification and expansion of agriculture. However, around 1300 the pace of European development experienced a new decline [1, p.49].

The way out of this crisis was to establish new borders. Economically, this was necessary to obtain additional surpluses. In practice, this meant expanding into new areas to grow more food there, as well as inventing new food stocks. This strategy made it possible to purchase luxury items at lower prices or to obtain more gold and silver to pay for them. This created an opportunity to solve the problem of the outflow of gold bars to the East. Resolving this crisis required expanding the scale and intensity of wars, increasing the production of weapons and ships, training soldiers and sailors and financing military operations and the construction of sentries [11, p.89].

The crisis of feudalism was solved economically by locating, capturing and allocating resources beyond European borders. The movement to the New World, the establishment of forts and the establishment of trading posts along the coast of Africa, the spread of the fur trade outside the Arctic forests of America and Asia - all these have become a way out of the crisis. New goods entered the cycle: tobacco, cocoa, potatoes.

However, the increase in stocks and forms of wealth in circulation in Europe was insufficient. Due to the development of market relations, which required increasingly significant means of exchange, the need for gold grew. One of the key processes in the development of capitalism was the primary accumulation of capital - the separation of the direct producer from the means of production, which required not only the receipt of resources, but also their concentration, organization and distribution. Such actions were beyond the competence of any individual trading company or guild. They could be carried out by states with a high degree of concentration of power in the hands of an individual ruler and his entourage, as in Portugal and Spain, or a group of ruling oligarchy, as in the United Provinces of the Netherlands [12, p.6].

In essence, such states were a political coalition between the centralized executive and the merchant class. The state bought weapons and ships. Goods obtained with the help of weapons, paid for the services of mercenaries, the manufacture of rifles and cannons, the development of the fleet. The merchants needed a state that would protect them from competitors and provide a bureaucracy to maintain and unite the occupied territories.

The key countries that expanded abroad were Portugal, Spain, the United Provinces of the Netherlands, France and England. At the same time, although Portugal and Spain paved the way for European expansion, the result was used by their rivals - England and Holland, to which in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. took a leading role in European colonial expansion. With their entry into the arena of colonial politics begins the actual capitalist history of colonialism [12, c.5].

The Iberian countries became the pioneers of European colonialism. Due to their geographical location in the far west of Europe, these countries were directly interested in finding new routes across the Atlantic,

which neither the Italian cities, which reached an agreement with the Ottoman Empire, which controlled the Mediterranean, nor the Hansa, which monopolized trade in the North, sought. Western Europe. The overseas campaigns were of interest to the royal authorities of Spain and Portugal, who fought for the elimination of the remnants of feudal fragmentation and needed funds. In addition, the small and medium nobility, which remained inactive after the end of the Reconquista, needed new sources of enrichment [11, p.45].

The powerful Catholic Church hoped to gain new parishioners and new profits. The conquistadors found support in the cities of the Spanish Netherlands, especially in Antwerp, interested in obtaining spices without the mediation of Venetian merchants [9 c.40].

Colonialism in the broadest sense of the word is an important phenomenon of world historical significance. This is the economic development of vacant or sparsely populated lands, settling in overseas territories of migrants, who brought with them the usual organization of society, work and life and entered into relations with the local population. Vasiliev LS identifies common patterns of the process of colonialism on the basis of which reduces it to several options [1, p.48].

The first of them is the gradual assimilation of remote lands of other countries, which are uninhabited or sparsely populated, by settlers - colonists, who make up the majority of the population in the territory inhabited by them. The local population is usually pushed to the worst lands, where it gradually dies out or is destroyed in clashes with the colonists. So were settled North America, Australia, New Zealand. In part, this option can be attributed to the South African Boer republics [1, p.49].

The second option is the migration of new settlers to areas with a large local population, which had its own strong traditions of statehood. In Central and South America, this tradition was weak and locally limited, which explains the ease with which it was destroyed by the colonizers [1, p.49].

The third option is the colonization of areas with unfavorable conditions for Europeans. In this case, the local population was predominant. Weakness, or almost complete absence of political administration and statehood, allowed the colonizers to easily establish themselves in these lands in the form of a system of outposts, ports, trade colonies. This option took place in Africa, Indonesia, Oceania [1, p.50].

It is traditionally believed that the colonial system began to take shape in the sixteenth century and this process lasted until the end of the nineteenth century. There are other opinions. In particular, the Russian historian GK Shirokov believes that this process was not one-time, because in the process of forming the colonial system at the same time there was a process of falling away from it a number of territories [12, p.6].

For example, as a result of the War of Independence in North America (1775-1783) formed a new state of the United States. The Great French Revolution of the late eighteenth century, the Napoleonic Wars, the revolutions in Europe in the first third of the nineteenth influenced the national liberation movement of Central

and South America and as a result, more than 20 independent states were formed on the site of the Spanish and Portuguese colonies. Along with the conquest of US independence, it was a powerful blow to the colonial system [6, p.22].

In the late eighteenth and early twentieth centuries there was a redistribution of colonies. England seized a number of French possessions, thus it became the largest colonial power in the world, which in the middle of the nineteenth century began to account for almost $\frac{3}{4}$ all the colonies of the world [11, p.213].

In the late 70's of the XIX century, the unevenness of world development is growing. On the one hand, in the last third of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, all migrant colonies (Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa) received the status of dominions and as a result the area of colonial possessions decreased by $\frac{1}{4}$. On the other hand, in 1880-1900 there was a new round of colonial expansion, which covered Africa and, to a lesser extent, Asia. Participants in this expansion were not only the old colonial powers, but also Belgium, Germany, Italy, the United States and Japan. Bearing in mind these new colonial conquests and their consequences, Lenin believed that the world was already divided between the great powers, in this case, the question arises as to whether the concept of "division of the world" is confirmed by facts. On the eve of the First World War, countries that were in varying degrees of informal dependence on the great powers accounted for the globe. It was this group that became the object of new colonial conquests, which cannot be called a redistribution of territories formally declared colonies. and the struggle for colonies was an integral part of imperialism [11, p.6].

Shirokov G.K. claims that since the beginning of the movement of Europeans to the East, there have been 3 waves of colonization and decolonization. During the sixteenth and eighteenth centuries there was a steady expansion of the colonial system, which covered all new territories and peoples, but in the late eighteenth - early nineteenth centuries there was a liberation from colonialism of most of North, Central and South America: gained independence about $\frac{1}{5}$ the surface of the globe [12, p.6].

Although during the nineteenth century there was a new expansion of the colonial system, but in the late nineteenth - early twentieth century, gained independence colonies, which accounted for more than $\frac{1}{7}$ of the entire earth's surface. That is, during the XIX century, countries gained independence, the area of which was 1.5 times larger than the area of territories that retained colonial dependence [6, p.22].

These waves had two features. First, during the first two waves of decolonization, either territories with a predominantly migrant population were liberated, or the ruling elite of these territories was represented by Europeans. It was the formation of such an elite, its desire to redistribute public wealth in its favor, was the basis of the struggle for independence. At the same time, the peoples who later formed the "third world" found themselves in the colonial system. Until the final collapse of the colonial system in the colonies lived in the vast majority of peoples of non-European origin.

Secondly, the cyclical nature of the evolution of the colonial system shows the conditionality and relativity of the concept of "distribution of the world", as constant changes in metropolises and colonies caused the instability of the existing system of relations [1 p. 231].

The era of colonialism is divided into two periods. The first period - trade, it lasts from the fifteenth to the eighteenth century. This period is characterized by the fact that territorial conquests were carried out not for the direct exploitation of the local population, but to ensure a monopoly position of trade factors and oust competitors.

The second period, which covers the nineteenth century, called industrial. It is characterized by the dominance of capital, the transformation of the colonies into markets and raw materials for metropolitan countries [12, p.6].

The initial stage of colonial expansion in the East was primarily with the Portuguese, as Spain concentrated its main efforts on America and established itself in Asia only in the Philippines, abandoning the struggle for the Moluccas in favor of Portugal.

The history of Portuguese overseas expansion begins in 1415, when the Crusaders captured the Moroccan port of Ceuta. In the first stage, the Portuguese first "slowly" and then rapidly "mastered" the west coast of Africa, gradually moving south. The movement to the south received a powerful stimulus in the 1840s, when Portuguese sailors reached Guinea and gold, ivory, and slaves began to arrive in Portugal.

The second stage, which covers the actual time of the formation of the Portuguese colonial empire, opens with the voyage of Vasco da Gama, who paved the sea route to India. While sailing along the coast of India, the Portuguese exchanged gold and ivory in African tribes for fabrics, wine, necklaces. However, when the Portuguese tried to establish trade with the local population, they were surprised to see that crudely produced (in the Indian view) European goods have no value for the rich Indian nobility. It turned out that the Portuguese had nothing to trade [9, p.40].

On the other hand, in military equipment, the Portuguese significantly outnumbered the Indians, especially the small and constantly at war with the principalities of Malabar. The Portuguese ships that circumnavigated Africa, in size and speed did not compare in any way with the small Indian ships designed for cabotage. Thus, although the Portuguese had nothing to trade, they were able to obtain Indian goods by force.

Initially, the Portuguese tried to fight their competitors, mainly Arabs, in the Indian Ocean, sending annual expeditions from the metropolis. But very quickly the most far-sighted of the pioneers of expansion realized that to conquer the state at sea requires not only a strong fleet, but also bases along the entire sea route from Lisbon and Oporto to India and Southeast Asia [3, p.59].

At the beginning of the sixteenth century, the Portuguese captured the island of Socotra at the entrance to the Gulf of Aden. Under the leadership of the Governor of India Afonso de Albuquerque in 1509-1515, a network of Portuguese bases was established from the East Coast of Africa to the Malacca Coast. Socotra was

joined by Hormuz in the Persian Gulf, Goa, Daman, Diu, Bombay on the west coast of India and Malacca, which was captured by Albuquerque in 1511. It became the main Portuguese point in Southeast Asia. During the sixteenth century. Portuguese fortresses and factories were created in the Malay Archipelago in Siam, China, Japan, Burma [2, p.78].

From the end of the 16th century, the third stage of Portuguese colonial expansion began. In 1580-1640, Portugal, which became part of the Spanish Empire, weakened by the constant struggle with the local population of the East, could not withstand the pressure of the new colonial powers - the Netherlands and England. By the middle of the seventeenth century, it lost almost all its possessions in Asia, retaining East Timor in Nusantara, Goa and Daman in India, and Macau in China. At this stage, Portugal only defended itself, not making serious attempts to expand its Asian possessions, focusing on the development of Brazil and the preservation of colonies along the African coast.

One of the most interesting pages of Portuguese colonialism is the activities of Governor Afonso de Albuquerque in India. He proposed the concept of Portuguese policy in the East. Albuquerque's strategic plan called for the creation of a large Portuguese colonial empire by conquering many East African and Asian states. It was to include the east coast of Africa, the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf, the Hindustan Peninsula, the Moluccas and China [2, p.78].

When Albuquerque became viceroy, the Portuguese owned only seven fortresses in the Indian Ocean: Sofala, Mozambique, Kilwa on the African coast, a fortress on the island of Socotra, and Cochin and Cananor on the Malabar coast, and finally a small fort. Andjediv near Goa. By the end of Albuquerque's reign he was able to implement almost completely the part of his program that concerned the Indian Ocean [2, p.79].

After the capture of Malacca, Albuquerque did not make new conquests in the East. But he prepared further Portuguese expansion to the east, sending an expedition to the Moluccas and China and established relations with the rulers of Bengal, Peru (Burma), Siam, Sumatra [3, p.60].

At the same time, Albuquerque failed in its attempts to destroy Muslim states in the Red Sea. Aden, who was the key to this sea, repulsed his attack, and this failure prevented Albuquerque from carrying out King Manuel's order to destroy Mecca and Suez and subdue Berber or Zeila in Somalia. The reason for the failure of the Portuguese conquest was primarily that Albuquerque did not have enough strength to storm such a strong fortress as Aden. His desire to attack Aden is explained by the demands of King Manuel, as well as the importance he attached to the capture of this fortress. The lack of forces was primarily the result of the excessive scale of expansion carried out by the Portuguese.

This has led to a scattering of Portugal's limited military resources over a large area. The conquests had only just begun, and the conquerors had already shown signs of fatigue. Albuquerque constantly demanded the arrival of new people and materials. But the king re-

sponded only with complaints, at the considerable expense he incurred through India. He encouraged Albuquerque in his colonial activity, but considered the cost of it too high and sought to reduce them, but in such a way that it did not harm the case as a whole [2, p.79].

The discrepancy between Albuquerque's projects and the means available to Portugal to implement them did not concern either Manuel or his successor, Juan III. None of them sought to reduce the program of conquests, the main outlines of which were outlined by Albuquerque, or to allocate more funds for its implementation.

By the middle of the sixteenth century, the Portuguese created a large colonial empire, which was a system of naval bases that were located around the Indian Ocean. At the end of the sixteenth century, Portugal withdrew from Albuquerque's policy. An example of a change in Portuguese policy is their activities in Ceylon. In 1580, the King of Portugal accepted a gift from Drachma Pala, who gave Ceylon to the Portuguese crown [2, p.90].

The location of the island between the two poles of Portuguese interests in the East (Socotra and Hormuz, on the one hand, and Malacca, on the other) made it strategically important because it had several ports. Ships bound for Malacca, the Spice Islands, and the Far East needed to stop on the island, a factor that made it vital after the arrival of the Dutch. Ceylon was equidistant from Nagapatam and Goa and from Diu and Bengal.

These reasons influenced the change in Portuguese policy in Ceylon. The events in India necessitated the conquest of Ceylon. The expansion of the Mughal emperor intensified. Emperor Akbar annexed three new provinces to the Mongol Empire - Berar, Handesh and Ahmandagar. These events complicated the situation of the Portuguese [6, p.24].

Although Akbar flirted with the Jesuits and was surrounded by Portuguese priests, his hostility to the Portuguese was widely known. In 1575 he ordered the Mughal governor in Gujarat to attack the Portuguese in Daman, and a few years later Daman was besieged. There is information that the Mughals were interested in Ceylon. Therefore, the Portuguese had every reason to want to annex Ceylon to their possessions.

Prior to Portuguese control of Ceylon's trade, its ports were open to Indian Ocean merchants. Ceylon cinnamon, brought by Arab traders, was well known in Asian markets. Elephants were sold in the markets in the main ports of Ceylon, which were bought on behalf of Indian rulers. Coconut fiber was exported in large quantities to India. Another important export item was pearls caught off the west and central coasts [1, p.233].

With the arrival of the Portuguese, Ceylon's role in international trade changed dramatically. Now cinnamon has become the main export commodity. In 1614, the Portuguese declared cinnamon a royal monopoly, but allowed its free export to licensed Portuguese officials and settlers. About half of the cinnamon from Ceylon was exported to Europe, and the other half was sold in the Asian ports that belonged to Portugal - Goa, Cochin and Hormuz. The cinnamon trade was profitable for the Portuguese [1, p.234].

Until 1625, when the Portuguese-Dutch wars, which began in 1638, captured the Ceylon fortress of Colombo, Ceylon was in fact a colony of Portugal. Along with Goa and Malacca, Colombo in Ceylon has long been one of the key points of the Portuguese colonial empire.

Since the way to the East around Africa was captured from the fifteenth century. Portuguese, ships of Spain, whose colonial expansion began later - from the end of the fifteenth century., sailed west across the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. After Magellan's voyage, the line of demarcation between Spanish and Portuguese possessions in the Pacific Ocean passed to the east of the Moluccas. The only Spanish possession in Asia was the Philippines. Back in the 60-70's of the sixteenth century, it captured the islands of Luzon, Palawan, Mindoro, the northern part of the island of Mindanao and the Visayas.

From the point of view of the Portuguese-Spanish influence on the countries of the East, it can be divided into three zones. The first includes the territories in which the colonial administration was established. Such areas were Goa in India, Macau in China, Malacca and East Timor in Nusantara and the Spanish Philippines. European enclaves did not bring significant changes at first, except for the formation of a specific population of these enclaves. The exception was the Philippines, where by the middle of the seventeenth century. The main form of relations was the endomender system, introduced in 1570. From the middle of the seventeenth century, it gave way to the secondary system, where the main category of landowners were monasteries. These socio-economic processes in combination with almost complete Christianization have created specific conditions for the development of the Philippines in comparison with other countries in the East [12, p.8].

The Portuguese were also engaged in missionary work, mainly in Goa and Malacca. The main result of the Portuguese stay in Nusantara was the Christianization of the population of Southern Ambon. In addition to Ambon, Portuguese missions were active in the Lesser Sunda Islands, especially in Flores and Timor [9, p.40].

The second zone consisted of territories that were on the sea routes that the colonizers went to the East. It included the Malabar Coast of India, Jaffna County in Ceylon, the Arakan Coast in Burma, some areas of West Malaya, West and North Sumatra, West and North Java, and East Nusantara. On the one hand, in some areas in connection with the movement of trade routes is marked by the development of commodity-money relations and crafts, and on the other their economy was undermined by the predatory policy of the colonizers [9, p.40].

The third zone - the territory of the great powers of the East felt only the indirect influence of the original European colonialism. Portugal and Spain could not fight Iran, China and Japan. The Spanish-Portuguese aggression against Siam in 1638-1636 ended in defeat [9, p.41].

From the end of the 16th to the beginning of the 17th century, the leading role in European colonial expansion passed to England and Holland. The colonial system, which replaced the feudal Portuguese-Spanish, was an early capitalist system of commercial colonialism. It was trade capital that played a leading role in the colonial expansion of the Netherlands and England in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. He identified its methods and forms. The main goal was to monopolize trade, to obtain the largest profits from trade operations. Territorial conquests were initially carried out not for the direct exploitation of the local population, but to ensure a monopoly position of trade factors and oust competitors [4, p.46].

Dutch and English penetration took place in three stages: a merchant ship - a kind of traveling market; *factoria* - extraterritorial area on the coast; occupied territory. It is significant that the main leader of colonial policy in this period were monopoly trading companies. If in the Spanish-Portuguese expansion the main role was played by the state feudal-bureaucratic machine, now the initiative belonged to the merchants, and the state only supported the unification of monopolists [1, p.302].

Such an association was the Dutch East India Company (DEIC). In 1602, the chambers of commerce of 6 cities - Amsterdam, Middleburg, Delft, Rotterdam, Hoorn and Enkhusen, provided capital for DEIC. Each chamber acted autonomously. The Chambers appointed 17 directors who were accountable to the Parliament of the Republic of the Netherlands and to the contributors.

In 1596 the 1st Dutch expedition of Cornelius de Houtman arrived in Java, in 1599 the Dutch reached Moluccas, and in 1600 Admiral Stefan van Hagen signed a treaty with the Ambon to build a fleet and monopoly the purchase of spices in exchange for protection from the Portuguese. By 1609, Dutch merchants had finally driven the Portuguese and Spaniards out of the Moluccas. In the same year, the NOIC board of directors appointed the first governor-general of its possessions and factories in the East, and in 1619 the founder of the Dutch colonial empire, Jan Peterson Koon, built the fortress of Batavia on the site of the captured Javanese principality, which became the center of Dutch possessions. In 1641 the Dutch captured Malacca. In the same year, Portugal, which had just seceded from Spain, concluded an agreement with the Netherlands, recognizing all their conquests [4, p.46].

In the second half of the seventeenth century the DEIC consolidated its power in the Malay Archipelago, destroying local centers in the Moluccas, Sulawesi and West Java. It is moving towards territorial expansion. During the second half of the seventeenth - 1 half of the eighteenth century, it conquered the states of Java and Madura. In India, the DEIC has established itself on the Malabar coast and strengthened its position in Koroshandel and Bengal, as well as in Ceylon.

These persecutions intensified after the Simabar Uprising (1637-1638), in which Christians sided with the shogun's opponents. In 1639 all foreigners were expelled from the country. Only Chinese and Dutch merchants who helped the shogun's troops fight the rebels were allowed to maintain trade ties with Japan. But the

freedom of action of the Dutch in Japan was quite limited.

From 1641, the Dutch factory was located on the small island of Desima in Nagasaki Bay. According to the German physician E. Kempfer, who worked in the factory in 1691-1692, the island of Desima was 236 steps in length and 82 in width. It was connected to the shore by a bridge at the end of which there was always a Japanese guard, who watched every step of the Dutch. They were only allowed to walk on 2 narrow streets, and a special permit was required to enter the city. The island was surrounded by a wall so that Nagasaki residents could not see foreigners. At the entrance to the island was an inscription: "Only for prostitutes, for other women, entry is prohibited." The only Japanese who were allowed to communicate with the Dutch were translators [12, p.8].

There were the most incredible rumors about the Dutch among the Japanese population. They were called *comos* (redheads), which was associated with notions of demonic beings in the Buddhist pantheon. The Japanese were frightened that the Dutch were usually tall and seemed giants. A closer acquaintance with the Dutch took place during the visits of the head of the factory to Edo, when they had to take off their clothes, walk, dance and sing after the official bows - all for the entertainment of the courtiers. For a long time they remained the only foreigners with whom the Japanese were in contact [1, p.456].

England began its overseas expeditions at the same time as the Netherlands. The success of the British in the East in the seventeenth century, were much smaller. The English East India Company (EEIC) was much weaker than the Dutch. The first trips were financed by subscription: there was no permanent capital. In 1609, James I presented the company with a new charter, which declared the term of the company's monopoly trade unlimited. After ousting the Portuguese from India, the British gradually expanded trade in Asia. The company bought Malay peppers and Indian cotton fabrics for silver and sold them in Europe (primarily continental), receiving for them a large amount of silver, which came to Europe from Spanish Mexico [11, p.245].

In 1657, Cromwell granted EEIC a charter that transformed it into a permanent capital organization. The change of government in England did not worsen the company's situation. On the contrary, after restoration she received from the crown the island of St. Helen and Bombay. In 1683, the state granted the company the right of admiralty jurisdiction, and three years later allowed the minting of coins in India. The success of the company provoked opposition from its rivals in England - merchants who exported English textiles. In 1698, they formed an alternative East India Company. However, due to the weakness of the new company and the French threat in the East in 1702-1708, both companies merged [11, p.246].

The first period of the company's activity from 1601 to 1613 was characterized by the fact that the British tried to establish themselves in the area of the Malay Archipelago of Spice Islands. Net income during the first half of the seventeenth century was more than

100%. The British managed to get such significant profits from the first steps of penetration into India due to the fact that their activities bordered on piracy [11, p. 249].

By January 1616, there were five English factories in India in Agra, Ahmedabad, Burhanpur, Brochi, and Surat. The most important of the English settlements was Surat. It was headed by T. Rustel and J. Jetty. But the factories obeyed Thomas Ro, the royal envoy who was authorized by the company's directors to deal with commercial matters. The embassy of Thomas Roe was considered a milestone in the history of relations between England and India, although the results of his mission were quite modest. Ro's attempts to establish direct diplomatic contact between the Mughal and Jacob I proved futile. Ro tried to obtain a concession for trade in Bengal, but in response he was asked to use military force to oust the Portuguese and establish strict control over shipping in the area. However, in those days it meant a direct conflict with the Portuguese, which the British sought to avoid [11, p.250].

The growth of trade and economic influence of the British in India was accompanied by the exploitation of the population of this country. English merchants established control over the Indians using enmity between tribes, religious differences between Hindus and Muslims, caste rivalry. They stopped all attempts to consolidate the Mughal empire, the centralization of Indian feudal principalities. England was interested only in their economic unity, intending only to trade [11, p.251].

Agents of companies acted as a kind of "spies". In the field of their activities were such problems as prices in the Indian market, general prospects for British trade, political, informational analysis of intra-Indian socio-economic and political development. Already in the first years of their penetration into India, the British did not limit themselves to gaining trade privileges, but sought to act in the interests of their political interests. This sharply complicated Anglo-Spanish and Anglo-Dutch relations and led to open clashes.

The victory of the British in the fight against the Spaniards strengthened their position in India, which complemented the treaty signed on October 21, 1612 between the authorities of Gujarat and Surat and the British East India Company. Under this agreement, the company was allowed to trade and have factories in the Mughal Empire. This agreement was to be confirmed by the Shah's firm, which was committed by the Indian side. The Mughal authorities guaranteed the security of the British and their trade in the empire (reimbursed losses even in the event of Portuguese occupation); a duty of 3.5% of the value of the goods was imposed.

The property of English merchants, in case of their death in India was returned to the company. The treaty also stipulated that the ambassador of the English king would be sent to the capital of the Mongolian state to resolve all important issues that could violate the agreement reached. After the signing of this agreement began an even more active penetration of the British East India Company in India [6, p.25].

From the second half of the seventeenth century, trade wars began, which filled the history of colonialism until the end of the eighteenth century. trade wars began, which filled the entire history of colonialism until the end of the eighteenth century. and much of the nineteenth century. During this period, the struggle unfolds between England and France [1, p.359].

French colonial expansion began after the end of the Civil War and the formation of an absolute monarchy. Under Louis XIV, the French East India Company (FEIC) was founded, and French outposts appeared in India (Chandagar, Pondicherry). In this struggle, England was not only able to maintain its position in the colonies, but significantly strengthened them.

Beginning with the era of the Great Geographical Discoveries and the time of the creation of the colonial system, the history of mankind began to acquire a global character. The colonial system, connecting the world at the same time, divided it into two groups of countries: metropolises and colonies [1, p.360].

XVI-XVIII centuries created the basis for the further rapid development of colonialism as a system in the nineteenth century. European factors, forts, enclaves, combined with the unconditional naval and military superiority of Europeans, which finally manifested itself in the eighteenth century. . Already in this period began the conquest of large areas in India, especially in Bengal. It was accompanied by the partial destruction of local production, the outflow abroad of profits from taxes, duties, redemptions, monopolies [12, p.7].

Thus, the emergence of Europeans greatly influenced the East. Although it did not appear immediately on the internal structure of society and did not affect all regions, it brought the constant presence of a new force and changed the foreign policy situation. Initially, Europeans were perceived in the East as another force, not always equally powerful, but always incomprehensible (in terms of its values and aspirations) and alienated from local society. But despite the fact that the vast majority of eastern states continued to live in their traditional world, European colonization inevitably drew them into the world market system.

Once established, the colonizers, driven by the spirit of capitalist entrepreneurship, inevitably consolidated their power, interfered in the affairs of local states, suppressed local trade, and went into direct exploitation of the population.

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ЕСТЕТИЧНІ ЦІННОСТІ СВИТОГЛЯДУ УКРАЇНЦІВ ЯК ЧИННИК ГАРМОНІЗАЦІЇ ЕТНОКУЛЬТУРНОГО БУТТЯ

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NATURAL VALUES SVITOGLYADU UKRAЇNЦІV YAK CHINNİK HARMONIZATION ETHNOCULTURAL BUTTY

Анотація.

Проаналізовано естетичні цінності, характерні для української традиційної культури, з'ясовано їх роль та місце у гармонізації стосунків в етнокультурному бутті українців. Висвітлено естетичні категорії в розумінні естетичної картини світу українського етносу.

Abstract.

The aesthetic values characteristic of the Ukrainian traditional culture are analyzed, their role and place in the harmonization of relations in the ethnocultural life of Ukrainians are clarified. Aesthetic categories in the understanding of the aesthetic picture of the world of the Ukrainian ethnos are highlighted.

Ключові слова: *естетичні цінності, духовна культура, світогляд, орнамент, посуд, одяг, християнство.*

Keywords: *aesthetic values, spiritual culture, worldview, ornament, utensils, clothing, christianity.*

Всебічне оздоровлення і модернізація української нації потребує звернення до джерел традиційної культури, яка живить ментальний простір нації, дає відчуття цілісності, безперервності, гармонії етнокультурного, національного буття. Відродження духовної культури українців, його традицій, естетичних цінностей і ідеалів є важливою умовою вирішення широкого спектру економічних, соціальних, політичних, екологічних викликів, що ставить перед Україною сучасний глобалізований світ.

В етнокультурному бутті українців особливе місце належить саме естетичним цінностям традиційної культури. Будучи специфічним способом і результатом перетворення суспільства і людини, естетичні цінності входять до структури загальної культури, являючись одночасно, атрибутом кожної з її складових. Феномен естетичного, при всій складності його змісту і різноманітності можливих дефіні-

цій, виступає носієм специфічно людського відношення безмежно різноманітного, такого, що вміщує в себе всю гаму існуючих відносин у світі.

Особливостям естетичних цінностей світогляду українців у своїх працях приділяли увагу О. Кульчицький, Є. Юнацький, Д. Донцов, В. Липинський, А. Шептицький, Й. Сліпий, І. Огієнко, Д. Чижевський, І. Мірчук, М. Шлемкевич, М. Костомаров, С. Кримський, О. Дарморіз, В. Сніжко, Г. Лозко та інші дослідники.

Метою данної статті є аналіз естетичних цінностей, характерних для української традиційної культури, виявлення їх ролі та місця у гармонізації стосунків в етнокультурному бутті українців.

Теоретичним виявом естетичного освоєння світу людиною є основні естетичні категорії. Їх можна вважати духовною моделлю естетичної діяльності у всіх сферах людського життя – виробничій,