

KHARKIV NATIONAL MEDICAL UNIVERSITY

PHILOSOPHY DEPARTMENT

**PHILOSOPHY:
GLOSSARY
AND TRAINING TASKS**

for the first-year foreign students with English-language training

Student _____
Group _____

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THEME 1. WORLDVIEW AND PHILOSOPHY

I. GLOSSARY

Worldview is a system of human views and principles, understanding of the surrounding world and a person's place in it. The worldview states a person's life position, behavior and actions. It is directly related to a human activity. Without it, the activity would not be purposeful and meaningful.

Mythological worldview is a method of understanding of the world, which is typical for the early stages of social development. Mythology comes from Greek *mifos* meaning "tradition", "legend" and *logos* which denotes a "word", "concept", "doctrine". Mythology is a system of legends, tales, myths which, with the help of imagination, explain the origin and development of natural and social processes.

Religious worldview is a type of worldview that considers the problem "a man and the world" through belief in the supernatural, it is a form of the worldview in which the world is explored by being separated into an "earthly" natural world, which is perceived through the senses, and "divine".

The subject of philosophy is the natural and social world and a man in their complex relationships. Philosophy gives a system of knowledge about the world as a whole. Philosophy is the theoretical basis of the worldview.

Materialism is a philosophical doctrine that recognizes the material principle, nature to be primary. Therefore, matter exists in reality; matter exists independently of our consciousness; matter exists and develops according to its internal laws.

Idealism is a philosophical doctrine that recognizes the spiritual, ideal beginning, consciousness to be primary. In this respect, the role of material is secondary. It becomes dependent on the ideal.

Objective idealism recognizes the absolute idea or the superworld spirit to be primary. Objective idealism asserts that the world "creates" some kind of objective consciousness, a kind of "world spirit", some "absolute idea".

Subjective idealism recognizes an individual consciousness to be primary. The objects of the world around us do not exist independently of our mind. The representatives of subjective idealism (G. Berkeley, D. Hume, I. Kant, and others) believe that the objects we can see, touch and smell, are some combination of our sensations.

Agnosticism is a philosophical doctrine of the fundamental unknowability of the objective world, its essences and laws, of the unknowability of truth itself. The agnostics have always asserted that knowledge as the reflection of the objective reality in a person's consciousness with the subsequent comprehension can be only distorted, symbolic, far from the truth.

Dialectics is a concept that claims that the world is in constant change, movement and development. It is a philosophical doctrine of the universal laws of the motion and development of nature, human society and thinking.

Metaphysics is a concept that negates development and movement in general, or recognizes them within certain limits – as a reduction or increase, as some repetition. The main features of the metaphysical method of thinking are as follows: the negation of the role of internal contradictions, the separation of qualitative changes from quantitative, the absolutization of any side of an object.

II. QUESTIONS FOR CONTROL AND SELF-CONTROL

1. What is a worldview and what structure does it have?
2. How does a profession influence a worldview development?
3. What factors influence the development of a person's worldview?
4. What are the historical types of a worldview? What are their characteristics?
5. What is the mythological worldview and what are its functions?
6. Why does belief play the major role in the religious worldview?

THEME 2. PHILOSOPHY OF ANCIENT WORLD, MIDDLE AGES AND RENAISSANCE

I. GLOSSARY

Arche (Greek: ἀρχή – primordial, fundamental principle) is the primary state of all things, the primary element from which any other forms of matter are formed. The transformation of arche into other forms of being occurs according to the laws determined by the nature of arche itself.

Apeiron (Greek: ἄπειρον is unlimited, without boundaries) is a philosophical term, introduced by the ancient Greek philosopher Anaximander, to indicate the specific state of the first substance, the only quality of which is the complete absence of any qualities.

Substance (Greek: Οὐσία, πῶς τῶς – essence; lat. Substantia – essence) – primary substrate, the basis of all things, the first substance.

Cosmos (Greek: κόσμος – order, decoration) – the concept of ancient Greek philosophy and culture, the idea of the natural world as an ordered harmonic whole. The whole arises from parts due to order (law). Cosmos is opposed to chaos.

Chaos (Greek: χάος – infinite space from χαίνω – I open up) is the primary state of the Universe, a formless aggregate of matter. Chaos is distinguished from cosmos by the absence of order (law) and form.

Atomos (Greek: ἄτομος – uncut) is a particle of a substance that cannot be divided. The basic concept of the materialist theory of Democritus. The forms of atoms determine the basic properties of a substance.

Monism (Greek: monos – one, only) – ontological concept, according to which all the phenomena of the world have one common beginning, a single substance – the basis of all that exists.

Dualism (Latin: dualis – dual) – philosophical theory, which allows for the existence of two independent and irreducible to each other substance, the fundamental principles of the world.

Pluralism (Latin: pluralis – plural) is a philosophical concept, according to which the fundamental principle of the world is not homogeneous, but contains some basic diversity of independent and irreducible to each other substances.

Humanism (Latin: humanitas – “humanity”, humanus – “humane”, homo – “man”) philosophical direction, studying the internal and external bases of the laws and principles of human behavior. Humanism is focused on asserting the value of a person’s life and free will.

II. QUESTIONS FOR CONTROL AND SELF-CONTROL

1. Which philosopher claimed that arche is water?
2. Which philosopher claimed that arche is air?
3. Which philosopher argued that arche is a number?
4. What is matter?
5. What are the ideas of things in Plato?
6. From what century does medieval philosophy begin?
7. What are the main features of medieval philosophy?
8. In which century and where does the Renaissance begin?
9. What are the main features of the philosophy of the Renaissance?
10. What are the main ideas of humanism?

Socrates: And of the objects which are being carried in like manner they would only see the shadows?

Glaucon: Yes.

Socrates: And if they were able to converse with one another, would they not suppose that they were naming what was actually before them?

Glaucon: Very true.

Socrates: And suppose further that the prison had an echo which came from the other side, would they not be sure to fancy when one of the passers-by spoke that the voice which they heard came from the passing shadow?

Glaucon: No question.

Socrates: To them the truth would be literally nothing but the shadows of the images.

Glaucon: That is certain.

Socrates: And now look again, and see what will naturally follow if the prisoners are released and disabused of their error. At first, when any of them is liberated and compelled suddenly to stand up and turn his neck round and walk and look towards the light, he will suffer sharp pains; the glare will distress him, and he will be unable to see the realities of which in his former state he had seen the shadows; and then conceive some one saying to him, that what he saw before was an illusion, but that now, when he is approaching nearer to being and his eye is turned towards more real existence, he has a clearer vision, – what will be his reply? And you may further imagine that his instructor is pointing to the objects as they pass and requiring him to name them, – will he not be perplexed? Will he not fancy that the shadows which he formerly saw are truer than the objects which are now shown to him?

Glaucon: Far truer.” (Plato “Allegory of the Cave”).

2. Write an essay on the topic “The essence of the dispute between supporters of nominalism and realism in medieval philosophy”.

3. Read and analyze the proposed text. Explain its philosophical meaning.

“Chapter XVIII. Concerning the way in which princes should keep faith

Every one admits how praiseworthy it is in a prince to keep faith, and to live with integrity and not with craft. Nevertheless our experience has been that those princes who have done great things have held good faith of little account, and have known how to circumvent the intellect of men by craft, and in the end have overcome those who have relied on their word.

You must know there are two ways of contesting, the one by the law, the other by force; the first method is proper to men, the second to beasts; but because the first is frequently not sufficient, it is necessary to have recourse to the second.

Therefore it is necessary for a prince to understand how to avail himself of the beast and the man. This has been figuratively taught to princes by ancient writers, who describe how Achilles and many other princes of old were given to the Centaur Chiron to nurse, who brought them up in his discipline; which means solely that, as they had for a teacher one who was half beast and half man, so it is necessary for a prince to know how to make use of both natures, and that one without the other is not durable.

A prince, therefore, being compelled knowingly to adopt the beast, ought to choose the fox and the lion; because the lion cannot defend himself against snares and the fox cannot defend himself against wolves. Therefore, it is necessary to be a fox to discover the snares and a lion to terrify the wolves. Those who rely simply on the lion do not understand what they are about. Therefore a wise lord cannot, nor ought he to, keep faith when such observance may be turned against him, and when the reasons that caused him to pledge it exist no longer.

If men were entirely good this precept would not hold, but because they are bad, and will not keep faith with you, you too are not bound to observe it with them. Nor will there ever be wanting to a

THEME 3. PHILOSOPHY OF A NEW AND NEWEST TIME

I. GLOSSARY

Philosophy of a New (Modern) Time is usually identified with the 17-th and 18-th centuries. Modern philosophy is distinguished from its predecessors by its increasing independence from traditional authorities such as the Church; a new focus on the foundations of knowledge (gnoseology); and the emergence of modern physics out of natural philosophy.

Frances Bacon (1561–1626) – English philosopher, the founder of empiricism in the Modern Times, believed that philosophy had to be above all practical.

Empiricism is a philosophical theory which argues that human knowledge is derived entirely from sensory experience. It holds that the best way to gain knowledge is to see, hear, touch, or otherwise sense things directly. In stronger versions.

False idols – misconceptions, overcoming of which provides reliable knowledge. (F. Bacon). The “**idols of tribe**” are errors following from that fact that a man judges nature on the analogy with human’s life; the “**idols of the cave**” are errors of individual character depending on education, tasks and habits of individuals; the “**idols of the market-place**” are the habits of basing judgments of world on common notions and opinion uncritically absorbed; the “**idols of the theater**” are linked with blind faith in authorities. Never invoke anyone’s authority was the principle of the science of the Modern Times.

Rene Descartes (1596–1650) – the French scientist and philosopher. He placed reason first, reducing the role of experience to that of mere practical verification of the data of intellect. He worked out a universal method for all sciences on the bases of the theory of rationalism.

Rationalism holds that the best way to arrive at true knowledge is using the mind’s rational abilities, which are based on *innate ideas* (for example, idea of God, axioms) and which may be captured by the method of reason.

George Berkeley (1685–1753) – an Anglo-Irish philosopher, subjective idealist, and a sharp opponent of atheism. He claimed that we perceive not matter as such but only the individual properties of things: taste, smell, color, etc. In his opinion, the world is a complex of human sensations.

David Hume (1711–1776) – a Scottish philosopher. He believed that man could not go beyond his own sensations and understand something outside him (agnosticism).

Immanuel Kant (1724–1804) – a representative of the classical German Philosophy. His *agnosticism* consists in claiming that, only phenomena constituting the content of our experience are accessible to our knowledge. The impact of “*things-in themselves*” on our sense organs results in a chaos of sensations, which is brought to unity and order by the power of reason.

Kantian apriorism means that the subject of knowledge possesses certain forms of knowledge (time and space) that evolved before him.

Hegel (1770–1831) – a representative of the classical German Philosophy. As an objective idealist, he asserted that categories are objective forms of reality understanding which is the world reason, **absolute idea**, or the world spirit. The contradiction between Hegel’s method and system is a contradiction between *finite* objective idealist system and *infinite* dialectical method.

Ludwig Feuerbach (1804–1872) – a German Philosopher. His anthropological materialism is based on the idea that human being is the higher product of nature. It is the tendency to consider man in indivisible unity with nature. Nature is the basis of spirit. By him, the “natural” side of a human being was exaggerated, and the social one was underestimated.

Marxist philosophy was evolved by **Karl Marx (1818-1883)** and **Frederick Engels (1820-1895)**. They showed the fundamental role of social practice in the development of the entire material spiritual and intellectual culture of mankind.

Positivism (originates in the 19th century) asserts that natural sciences as a positive knowledge can develop their own philosophical methods. The task of philosophy is the clarification of

THEME 4. UKRAINIAN PHILOSOPHY: APPEARANCE, RELATIONS, PERIODS, TENDENCIES OF DEVELOPMENT

I. GLOSSARY

The philosophical ideas of Kiev Rus (X-XIII centuries) were caused by the process of state integration of Eastern Slavic tribes around ancient Kiev, which was connected with the activities of Vladimir the Great, Yaroslav the Wise, Vladimir Monomakh and other princes. They were connected with the creation of Old Slavonic alphabet (brothers St. Cyril and Methody) and opportunity of translation of the ancient Greek philosophers' works.

The distinctive features of the Philosophical Thought in Kiev Rus: it has been preoccupied with practical, moral and religious rather than theoretical problems. The political calamities and attendant cultural disruptions account to a large extent for the lack of durable philosophical tradition.

Hilarion or Ilarion was the first non-Greek Metropolitan of Kiev and all Rus (1049). Sermon on Law and Grace, Confession of Faith, and Sermon on Spiritual Benefit to All Christians (a short collection of instructions for priests) are attributed to him.

Philosophical thought in Ukraine in XVI–XVIII centuries is connected with the struggle for independence against the Poles and the Crimean Tartars. Domination of church and Christian ideology. Its specificity was manifested in attempts to distinguish secular (different from religious) world-outlook in the frame of European Reformation that is necessity to adjust clerical teaching to the arising bourgeois social relations.

The Kyiv-Mohyla Academy (1658–1817) played an important role in transmitting Renaissance ideals from Western Europe through Poland to Ukraine. Philosophy studied here included different compromises. It was mainly religious philosophy, but idealism and materialism, empiricism and rationalism, dialectics and metaphysics coexisted in it. T. Prokopovich, I. Gizel, G. Konisskiy and the others were the Professors of Academy.

Hesychasm – the silent prayer, direct appeal to God, without involving priests as mediators.

Gregory Skovoroda (1722–1794) constructed an original synthesis of ancient and patristic thought. His worldview foreshadows the Romantic and religious tendencies in nineteenth-century Ukrainian Philosophical thought.

The purpose of philosophy for Skovoroda is practical – to show the way to happiness; hence the key questions are ‘What is happiness?’ and ‘How can it be attained?’ He defines happiness as an inner state of joy, peace and confidence. To reach this state one must know some basic truths about oneself and the world.

Skovoroda's idea of three worlds: the macrocosm or universe and two microcosms – human and the Bible. All three have a similar dualistic structure: they consist of an inner ideal nature that is **spiritual**, eternal and immutable and an outer sensible nature that is **material**, transitory and changing.

Skovoroda's idea of congenial task. Absence of fear, happiness requires self-fulfillment – the active pursuit of one's God-given innate calling or congenial task.

II. QUESTIONS FOR CONTROL AND SELF-CONTROL

1. When did the Ukrainian Philosophy appear?
2. What can you say about the preconditions of occurrence of Philosophical Thought in Ukraine?
3. What are the main features and trends in the development of Kiev Rus's Philosophical thought?
4. How did the Tatar-Mongol invasion affect the development of the Philosophical Thought of Kiev Rus?
5. When and where did appear the first University in Ukraine?
6. What are the features of the Philosophy of the Enlightenment in Ukraine?

THEME 5. BEING AND MATTER AS THE PHILOSOPHICAL CATEGORIES. CONSCIOUSNESS AS REFLECTION AND ACTIVITY

I. GLOSSARY

Being is anything that exists. It is both a subjective and an objective reality.

Consciousness is a term that refers to the relationship between the mind and the world with which it interacts. Consciousness is a subjective image of the objective world.

Matter is an objective reality. It is a general term for the substance of which all physical objects consist.

Ontology is the philosophical study of the nature of a being.

Phenomenology is a study of the structures of consciousness and the phenomena that appear in the acts of consciousness.

Self-consciousness is the human's "vision" of the own identity, own actions, motives of behavior, interests, and positions in the world.

Solipsism is the philosophical idea that only one's own consciousness is sure to exist and so called objective world is just an illusion.

Space is a category for explaining relation between bodies which are co-existed.

Space-time is any model that combines space and time into one continuum (space as being three-dimensional and time playing the role of a fourth dimension).

Time is a category for explaining relations between bodies and events which are carried out.

II. QUESTIONS FOR CONTROL AND SELF-CONTROL

1. What is "monism", "dualism", and "pluralism"?
2. How do you understand the concept "being"?
3. How many forms of being do you know? Name them please.
4. How do you understand the concept "matter"? Give the examples of a matter.
5. What is space?
6. What is time?
7. How do you understand the concept "consciousness"?
8. How many structural elements of consciousness do you know? Name them please.
9. What is self-consciousness? Do you have self-consciousness?

III. CREATIVE TASKS

1. Compare the concepts "objective reality" and "subjective reality".
2. How can you prove that matter is an objective reality?
3. There are some properties that can be found both at space and at time. Find them, please. Find the distinctive properties of space and time.
4. Describe please your understanding of such words: "The movement is absolute, but tranquility is relative"
5. Compare how subjective idealism, objective idealism and materialism understand consciousness.

THEME 7. DIALECTICS AND ITS ALTERNATIVES

I. GLOSSARY

Dialectics (Greek: διαλεκτική “the art of arguing, reasoning”) is a philosophical method aimed at studying the internal contradictions in the development of both the thinking itself and the cosmos.

Metaphysics (Greek: τὰ μετὰ τὰ φυσικά – “that after physics”) is a section of philosophy that seeks to find the root causes of being of things and realities, also a philosophical method in which the relationships between phenomena are ignored or considered simplified .

Sophistry is a philosophical system, where truth is considered as conditional and subjective, depending on a person’s point of view or on his desire.

Dogmatism (ancient Greek. Δόγμα “opinion, doctrine, decision”) is a form of postulating knowledge in which certain principles, opinions, laws or statements are declared unchanged, absolute and not subject to doubt or criticism.

Eclecticism is a philosophical method, with the help of which, new knowledge is formed by combining statements, theory and views that have no common grounds or contradict each other.

Categories of dialectics are fundamental concepts that reflect the diverse, most common important aspects of the development process. Categories of dialectics are sometimes called paired, because they reveal the inconsistency and unity of the development of things and processes of the world around.

The laws of dialectics – a set of philosophical methodological guidelines that determine the forms, elements and mechanisms, as well as the relationship between them in the overall process of the development of being.

Contradiction is a key phase in the process of the struggle of opposites, in which some quality is replaced by its opposite.

Measure is a quantitative characteristic that establishes a range within which a certain quality of an object is preserved.

Development is a form of change in material and social reality, which reflects the transition from one qualitative state to another, while a new quality must be a more perfect form of being in relation to the previous quality.

II. QUESTIONS FOR CONTROL AND SELF-CONTROL

1. What is dialectics?
2. What historical forms of the development of dialectics do you know?
3. What is metaphysics?
4. What does the law of the unity and conflict of opposites express?
5. What does the law of the passage of quantitative changes into qualitative express?
6. What does the law of the negation of the negation express?
7. What is sophistry?
8. What is dogmatism?
9. What is eclecticism?
10. How is development different from change?

2. Write an essay on the topic «Dialectics as a method of understanding of a development».

3. Read and analyze the proposed text. Explain its philosophical meaning:

“Another example is the word “God”. Here we must, apart from the variations of its usage within each domain, distinguish the linguistic usage in three different contexts or historical epochs, which however overlap temporally. In its mythological use the word has a clear meaning. It, or parallel words in other languages, is sometimes used to denote physical beings which are enthroned on Mount Olympus, in Heaven or in Hades, and which are endowed with power, wisdom, goodness and happiness to a greater or lesser extent. Sometimes the word also refers to spiritual beings which, indeed, do not have manlike bodies, yet manifest themselves nevertheless somehow in the things or processes of the visible world and are therefore empirically verifiable. In its metaphysical use, on the other hand, the word “God” refers to something beyond experience. The word is deliberately divested of its reference to a physical being or to a spiritual being that is immanent in the physical. And as it is not given a new meaning, it becomes meaningless. To be sure, it often looks as though the word “God” had a meaning even in metaphysics. But the definitions which are set up prove on closer inspection to be pseudo-definitions. They lead either to logically illegitimate combinations of words (of which we shall treat later) or to other metaphysical words (e.g. “primordial basis”, “the absolute”, “the unconditioned”, “the autonomous”, “the self-dependent” and so forth), but in no case to the truth-conditions of its elementary sentences. In the case of this word not even the first requirement of logic is met, that is the requirement to specify its syntax, i.e. the form of its occurrence in elementary sentences. An elementary sentence would here have to be of the form “x is a God”; yet, the metaphysician either rejects this form entirely without substituting another, or if he accepts it he neglects to indicate the syntactical category of the variable x. (Categories are, for example, material things, properties of things, relations between things, numbers etc.).

The theological usage of the word “God” falls between its mythological and its metaphysical usage. There is no distinctive meaning here, but an oscillation from one of the mentioned two uses to the other. Several theologians have a clearly empirical (in our terminology, “mythological”) concept of God. In this case there are no pseudo-statements; but the disadvantage for the theologian lies in the circumstance that according to this interpretation the statements of theology are empirical and hence are subject to the judgment of empirical science. The linguistic usage of other theologians is clearly metaphysical. Others again do not speak in any definite way, whether this is because they follow now this, now that linguistic usage, or because they express themselves in terms whose usage is not clearly classifiable since it tends towards both sides.

Just like the examined examples “principle” and “God” most of the other specifically metaphysical terms are devoid of meaning, e.g. “the Idea”, “the Absolute”, “the Unconditioned”, “the Infinite”, “the being of being”, “non-being”, “thing in itself”, “absolute spirit”, “objective spirit”, “essence”, “being-in-itself”, “being-in-and-for-itself”, “emanation”, “manifestation”, “articulation”, “the Ego”, “the non-Ego” etc. These expressions are in the same boat with “teavy” our previously fabricated example. The metaphysician tells us that empirical truth-conditions cannot be specified; if he adds that nevertheless he “means” something, we know that this is merely an allusion to associated images and feelings which, however, do not bestow a meaning on the word. The alleged statements of metaphysics which contain such words have no sense, assert nothing, are mere pseudo-statements. Into the explanation of their historical origin we shall inquire later.

(Rudolf Carnap “The elimination of metaphysics through logical analysis of language”)

THEME 8. THE HUMAN BEING IN THE PHILOSOPHICAL MEASURING

I. GLOSSARY

An individual is one of the representatives of the human race. Accordingly, it has special natural and social properties that distinguish it from other people. People differ in their biological features – eye color, growth, psychological features – emotionality, temperament, psychotype, social intellect, social activity, etc.

Anthropocentrism – man is the main value, the goal of the universe. Everything in the world appears in order to be, a man lived in it. Cognition is a struggle of equal power, and not the struggle of the dwarf and the giant.

Anthropology is the study of the human species and its immediate ancestors. Anthropology is the comparative study of past and contemporary cultures, focusing on the ways of life, and customs of all peoples of the world.

Cosmocentrism – man is seen as an integral part of the cosmos, which repeats all its essential features. The cosmos in these concepts is spiritualized, it is inherent in the dualism of the soul of the body, hence the mere fact that these two principles in man and their harmony are explained.

Theocentrism explains man as the fruit of divine creation. Man is the image and likeness of God. Immortal soul of man from God.

Human being reveals the main common features and manifestations that are inherent in all the representatives of the human race. It indicates the essential difference of a person from natural beings.

Singularity describes the hypothetical explosive growth of the speed of scientific and technological progress, which will lead to the creation of artificial intelligence and self-replicating machines, the integration of man with computers or a significant increase in human brain capabilities on the basis of biotechnology.

Sociocentrism – the essence of man is social. Man is the result of social relations, and at the same time, the subject, the creator of culture.

The concept of **“personality”** emphasizes the essential social qualities of a person. If a person – as a representative of the human race, the form of Homo sapiens – is born, then become a personality. The concept of personality emphasizes the integrity of the person, the uniqueness and complexity of its inner world.

Transhumanism is a kind of reflection on the latest technological practices. Its specificity is related to the need for a positive assessment of the latest biotechnological practices in the philosophical, scientific and mass consciousness, as opposed to only their mythologization in the context of human fears and fears.

II. QUESTIONS FOR CONTROL AND SELF-CONTROL

1. What is anthropology as a branch of philosophy?
2. What is specific of interpretation of human being's issues in Ancient Philosophy?
3. What are the main features of the interpretation of human being's issues in the Medieval Philosophy?
4. What are the main features of the interpretation of human being's issues in the philosophy of Renaissance?
5. Describe please the main points of understanding of the human being predestination in the philosophy of the Enlightenment.
6. Please explain the features of understanding the sense of human life and its purpose in Existentialist.
7. Please explain the features of understanding the sense of human life and its purpose in Personalist Philosophy.

8. What are the nuances of theoretical interpretation in each of the following concepts: a person, an individual, a personality, individuality?
9. How the biological, social and psychological features of human being do correlate with each one?
10. Give a description of the basic philosophical concepts of the meaning of life?

III. CREATIVE TASKS

1. Please compare the role of freedom, choice and responsibility in human being life.
2. Please compare the main features of the interpretation of life and death in religion.
3. What do you think about doctor's moral responsibility for the life of a patient?
4. Please compare the concept of mentality and corporeality to human understanding.
5. Please compare the concepts of actual immortality and virtual immortality.

IV. HIGH LEVEL CREATIVE TASKS

1. The problem of freedom is also determined by the fact that a person thinks and does what he is used to in his life. The French sociologist P. Burdy calls this habituality of behavior (from the Latin habitus - appearance), that is, behavior by habit, tradition, under certain mastered schemes, stereotypes. **Is it possible to change such situation in human being life? Do people need it or not?** Please give arguments of your points.
2. **Read the text and please give your reflections about the human being issues and bioethics.**
“Francis Fukuyama, professor of political economy at Johns Hopkins University and member of the President’s Council on Bioethics, realizes the precarious position in which we currently find ourselves. As Fukuyama states in the first chapter of Our Posthuman Future, “The most significant threat posed by contemporary biotechnology is the possibility that it will alter human nature and thereby move us into a “posthuman” stage of history”. Fukuyama is best known as the author of the widely read and even more widely debated 1989 essay “The End of History?”

In that essay, Fukuyama used a sweeping and rather idiosyncratic Hegelio-Marxist analysis to argue that the remarkable collapse of the Soviet Union signaled that History in the strong sense of that term had at last come to an end. The West's victory in the Cold War marked the last stage in human historical development, proving once and for all that liberal capitalist democracy fulfills mankind's natural desire for "recognition" better than any other political order. But in *Our Posthuman Future*, Fukuyama rather reluctantly concedes that History may not be over after all. If, for example, biotechnology can use germ-line therapy to successfully alter the physical make-up of the human body and brain, then, he argues, History will once again be set in motion. Fukuyama's interest in this question is by no means narrowly academic. On the contrary, his concerns are emphatically moral and political. As he makes painfully clear, what neither the scientists nor many of our elected leaders presently understand is that human nature is what "shapes and constrains... the nature of politics" and thus that the biotechnological transformation of human beings could have "malign consequences for liberal democracy". Fukuyama begins his book with an informative overview of the current state of the biotechnological revolution, sketching the recent advances in neurological science, neuropharmacology's latest efforts to manipulate and control the emotions and human behavior, the attempt to radically prolong the natural lifespan of human beings (an effort Leon Kass has perceptively dubbed "the immortality project"; see FT, May 2001), and the prospects for genetic engineering. Fukuyama is clearly no Luddite; he is too much a partisan of human well-being to dismiss all biotechnological advancements as either bad or undesirable. But unlike those seduced by promises of endless benefits, he knows that each biotechnological advancement raises difficult and serious questions that must be directly confronted.

Take, for example, Serotoninreuptake pharmaceuticals such as Zoloft and Prozac that are now routinely used to treat people who suffer from clinical depression. Early precursors to future neuropharmaceuticals that will be designed to match an individual's particular genome, these drugs have helped many people lead what appear to be happier lives. But is having a relatively low level of serotonin really a pathological condition that needs to be chemically treated? Or is it instead that serotonin levels, like so many other biological features, naturally differ from person to person? This is but one of many instances in which biotechnologies blur the line between medical therapy and technological manipulation and enhancement of mankind. Genetic engineering is an area of research in which Fukuyama rightly thinks biotechnology leaps over that line. Although presently beyond our scientific capabilities, in the future we very well may be able to alter the human germ-line itself. Such manipulation of the human genome would allow for new genes to be inserted directly into the fertilized egg, resulting in permanent genetic changes that would then be passed down from generation to generation. Such a procedure could be used for a variety of purposes, from repairing identifiable genetic defects such as deafness to increasing physical strength to elevating IQ. This is the path that Fukuyama sees as leading straight to a posthuman future. An alteration in the genetic make-up of human beings would undoubtedly cause a rupture in our commonly shared human nature and the world it has helped create. Such alterations in the genetic structure of individual human beings could very well bring about a world where there could be, at least in principle, a variety of posthuman species. In the last part of his book, Fukuyama argues that in order to prevent biotechnology from changing the very face of humanity democratic societies must establish a regulatory legislative framework "to separate legitimate and illegitimate uses" of biotechnology. The actions of such a regulatory schema would range from banning certain biotechnologies such as human cloning and genetic engineering to regulating the application of others. And in Fukuyama's view, the time to act is now, before the biotech genie escapes the bottle completely. Fukuyama has little faith in the libertarian claim that the free market can or even should be allowed to decide the fate of biotechnology.

(Marc D. Guerra "Our Posthuman Future: Consequences of the Biotechnology Revolution")

3. **Read the text and give your reflections about “how to say YES to life”. Is it possible or not in all life challenges people have in it?**

“Viktor Frankl was an Austrian psychiatrist who spent the years 1942–45 in four different Nazi concentration camps, including Auschwitz. By the end of the war his pregnant wife, his parents and his brother had been murdered; among his immediate family, only he and his sister survived. After the war he published “Man’s Search for Meaning”, a book inspired by his experiences in the camps, and one in which I’ve found wisdom and comfort during times of difficulty.

We can discover this meaning of life in three different ways: (1) by creating a work or doing a deed; (2) by experiencing something or encountering someone; and (3) by the attitude we take toward unavoidable suffering. The first, by way of achievement or accomplishment, is quite obvious. The second and third need further elaboration.

The Meaning of Love

Love is the only way to grasp another human being in the innermost core of his personality. No one can become fully aware of the essence of another human being unless he loves him. By his love he is enabled to see the essential traits and features of the beloved person; and even more, he sees that which is potential in him, which is not yet actualized but yet ought to be actualized. Furthermore, by his love, the loving person enables the beloved person to actualize these potentialities. By making him aware of what he can be and of what he should become, he makes these potentialities come true...

The third way of finding a meaning in life is by suffering.

The Meaning of Suffering

We must never forget that we may also find meaning in life even when confronted with a hopeless situation, when facing a fate that cannot be changed. For what then matters is to bear witness to the uniquely human potential at its best, which is to transform a personal tragedy into triumph, to turn one’s predicament into a human achievement. When we are no longer able to change a situation--just think of an incurable disease such as inoperable cancer – we are challenged to change ourselves...

But let me make it perfectly clear that in no way is suffering necessary to find meaning. I only insist that meaning is possible even in spite of suffering--provided, certainly, that the suffering is unavoidable. If it were avoidable, however, the meaningful thing to do would be to remove its cause, be it psychological, biological or political...

There are situations in which one is cut off from the opportunity to do one’s work or enjoy one’s life; but what can never be ruled out is the unavoidability of suffering. In accepting this challenge to suffer bravely, life has a meaning up to the last moment, and it retains this meaning literally to the end. In other words, life’s meaning is an unconditional one, for it even includes the potential meaning of unavoidable suffering...

What we find comforting in Frankl’s perspective is that he’s not denying the grief and rage that spring from suffering and tragedy. He’s not “making the best of things.” And he’s not blithely suggesting that “everything happens for a reason” (which I find a particularly unhelpful expression of condolence.)

What Frankl is doing is encouraging us to acknowledge our grief and rage, and also to see our suffering as an experience in which it is possible to find meaning. The nature of that meaning will be different for all of us, of course, even in response to the same tragedy. There’s no one-size-fits-all meaning-of-life. And discovering that meaning will be hard work, made even harder by our grief and rage.

(Ed Batista “Viktor Frankl on Love, Suffering and the Meaning of Life”)

THEME 9. SOCIETY AS THE MATERIAL SYSTEM

I. GLOSARY

Consumer society is a social and economic order that encourages the purchase of goods and services more than people really need.

Industrial society is the historical form of development of society used of technology to enable mass production, supporting a large population with a high capacity for division of labor.

Open society (Karl Popper term) is the type of a society based on democracy and critical thinking individuals, opened to multiple points of view and cultures, where the key decisions are the result of agreement and consensus.

Political ideology is a certain set of ideals, principles, doctrines, myths or symbols of a social movement, institution, class, or large group that explains how society should work.

Post-industrial society is the historical form of development of society based on the provision of information, innovation, finance, and services.

Pre-industrial society is the historical form of development of society based on food production as the main economic activity.

Risk society (Ulrich Beck term) – is a society increasingly preoccupied with the future and also with safety.

Social consciousness is a consciousness shared by individuals within a society.

“Social Contract” (Thomas Hobbes term) is a system in which individuals have consented, either explicitly or tacitly, to surrender some of their freedoms and submit to the authority of the ruler (or to the decision of a majority), in exchange for protection of their remaining rights.

Social evolution is the form of social development based on regime of slow changes (social, political, scientific, technological etc.).

Social philosophy is the field of philosophy about society, principles of its functioning and development, questions about social behavior.

Social revolution is the form of social development based on sharp transitions from one condition to another.

Society is a historical form of the coexisting of people involved in persistent social interaction, lived together in an organized way, making decisions about how to do things and sharing the work that needs to be done.

II. QUESTIONS FOR CONTROL AND SELF-CONTROL

1. What is society?
2. What sciences study society?
3. How does social philosophy understand a society?
4. How does society connect with nature?
5. What is the essence of the economic sphere of a society?
6. What is the essence of base / superstructure model of a society (Karl Marx concept)?
7. What is the essence of the political sphere of a society?
8. What is the essence of the social sphere of a society?
9. What is the essence of the spiritual sphere of a society?
10. Describe the main forms of the social consciousness.

THEME 10. CULTURE AS THE PHILOSOPHICAL PROBLEM. PHILOSOPHICAL ASPECTS OF GLOBALIZATION

I. GLOSSARY

Acculturation Difficulty – a problem stemming from an inability to appropriately adapt to a different culture or environment. The problem is not based on any coexisting mental disorder.

Assimilation is a process of consistent integration whereby members of an ethnocultural group, typically immigrants, or other minority groups, are “absorbed” into an established larger community.

Attitude – evaluation of people, objects, or issues about which an individual has some knowledge

Biological Determinists are those who argue that human behavior and social organization are biologically determined and not learnt.

Cross Cultural – interaction between individuals from different cultures. The term “cross-cultural” is generally used to describe comparative studies of cultures. Inter cultural is also used for the same meaning.

Cultural Boundaries can be defined as those invisible lines, which divide territories, cultures, traditions, practices, and worldviews.

Culturally Competent Healthcare – healthcare practice which recognizes the importance of cultural beliefs and practices in restoration and maintenance of health, and thus adapts, modifies and reorients perceptions and practices within a bio-medical setting in response to the cultural background of the patient.

Cultural Competency – the ability to respond respectfully and effectively to people of all cultures, classes, ethnic background and religions in a manner that recognizes and values cultural differences and similarities.

Cultural Norms are behavior patterns that are typical of specific groups, which have distinct identities, based on culture, language, ethnicity or race separating them from other groups.

Cultural Relativism – the position that the values, beliefs and customs of cultures differ and deserve recognition and acceptance.

Culture – the shared values, norms, traditions, customs, arts, history, folklore and institutions of a group of people. Integrated pattern of human knowledge, belief, and behavior that is both a result of an integral to the human capacity for learning and transmitting knowledge to succeeding generations.

Globalization – a disputed term relating to transformation in the relationship between space, economy and society.

II. QUESTIONS FOR CONTROL AND SELF-CONTROL

1. How do you understand the modern meaning of the term “culture”?
 2. What functions of culture do you know?
 3. What is the significance of culture in the development of a personality?
 4. What is the significance of culture in the development of society?
 5. According to your opinion what is the supreme goal of a culture?
 6. Describe the correlation between concepts “culture” and “civilization”?
 7. What is the difference between Eastern and Western civilizations?
 8. Please give the theoretical definition to the term “globalization”.
 9. What are the global cultural problems the modern world face with?
 10. What is spiritual and material culture?
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First, contemporary analysts associate globalization with deterritorialization, according to which a growing variety of social activities takes place irrespective of the geographical location of participants. As Jan Aart Scholte observes, “global events can – via telecommunication, digital computers, audiovisual media, rocketry and the like – occur almost simultaneously anywhere and everywhere in the world” (Scholte). Globalization refers to increased possibilities for action between and among people in situations where latitudinal and longitudinal location seems immaterial to the social activity at hand. Even though geographical location remains crucial for many undertakings (for example, farming to satisfy the needs of a local market), deterritorialization manifests itself in many social spheres. Business people on different continents now engage in electronic commerce; television allows people situated anywhere to observe the impact of terrible wars being waged far from the comfort of their living rooms; academics make use of the latest video conferencing equipment to organize seminars in which participants are located at disparate geographical locations; the Internet allows people to communicate instantaneously with each other notwithstanding vast geographical distances separating them. Territory in the sense of a traditional sense of a geographically identifiable location no longer constitutes the whole of “social space” in which human activity takes place. In this initial sense of the term, globalization refers to the spread of new forms of non-territorial social activity (Ruggie, Scholte).

Second, recent theorists conceive of globalization as linked to the growth of social interconnectedness across existing geographical and political boundaries. In this view, deterritorialization is a crucial facet of globalization. Yet an exclusive focus on it would be misleading. Since the vast majority of human activities is still tied to a concrete geographical location, the more decisive facet of globalization concerns the manner in which distant events and forces impact on local and regional endeavors (Tomlinson). For example, this encyclopedia might be seen as an example of a deterritorialized social space since it allows for the exchange of ideas in cyberspace. The only prerequisite for its use is access to the Internet. Third, globalization must also include reference to the speed or velocity of social activity. Deterritorialization and interconnectedness initially seem chiefly spatial in nature. Yet it is easy to see how these spatial shifts are directly tied to the acceleration of crucial forms of social activity. As we observed above in our discussion of the conceptual forerunners to the present-day debate on globalization, the proliferation of high-speed transportation, communication, and information technologies constitutes the most immediate source for the blurring of geographical and territorial boundaries that prescient observers have diagnosed at least since the mid-nineteenth century. The compression of space presupposes rapid-fire forms of technology; shifts in our experiences of territory depend on concomitant changes in the temporality of human action. High-speed technology only represents the tip of the iceberg, however.

Fourth, even though analysts disagree about the causal forces that generate globalization, most agree that globalization should be conceived as a relatively long-term process. The triad of deterritorialization, interconnectedness, and social acceleration hardly represents a sudden or recent event in contemporary social life. Globalization is a constitutive feature of the modern world, and modern history includes many examples of globalization (Giddens).

Fifth, globalization should be understood as a multi-pronged process, since deterritorialization, social interconnectedness, and acceleration manifest themselves in many different (economic, political, and cultural) arenas of social activity. Although each facet of globalization is linked to the core components of globalization described above, each consists of a complex and relatively autonomous series of empirical developments, requiring careful examination in order to disclose the causal mechanisms specific to it (Held, McGrew, Goldblatt & Perraton). Each manifestation of globalization also generates distinct conflicts and dislocations. High-speed technologies and organizational approaches are employed by transnationally operating firms, the so-called “global players,” with great effectiveness. The emergence of “around-the-world, around-the-clock” financial markets, where major cross-border financial transactions are made in cyberspace at the

blink of an eye, represents a familiar example of the economic face of globalization. Global financial markets also challenge traditional attempts by liberal democratic nation-states to rein in the activities of bankers, spawning understandable anxieties about the growing power and influence of financial markets over democratically elected representative institutions. In political life, globalization takes a distinct form, though the general trends towards deterritorialization, interconnectedness across borders, and the acceleration of social activity are fundamental here as well. Transnational movements, in which activists employ rapid-fire communication technologies to join forces across borders in combating ills that seem correspondingly transnational in scope (for example, the depletion of the ozone layer), offer an example of political globalization. (“Globalization: Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy”)

3. Please read the text **and give your reflections about the role of Culturally Competent Healthcare in medical practice.**

“Culturally Competent Healthcare Systems

Defining Cultural Competence in Health Care Cultural and linguistic competence is a set of congruent behaviors, attitudes, and policies that come together in a system, agency, or among professionals and enable effective work in cross-cultural situations. Culture refers to integrated patterns of human behavior that include the language, thoughts, communications, actions, customs, beliefs, values, and institutions of racial, ethnic, religious, or social groups. Competence implies having the capacity to function effectively as an individual and an organization within the context of the cultural beliefs, behaviors, and needs presented by consumers and their communities. A culturally competent healthcare setting should include an appropriate mix of the following:

- a culturally diverse staff that reflects the community (ies) served,
- providers or translators who speak the clients’ language(s),
- training for providers about the culture and language of the people they serve,
- signage and instructional literature in the clients’ language(s) and consistent with their cultural norms,
- culturally specific healthcare settings.

The Role of Culture in Health Care

Culture and ethnicity create a unique pattern of beliefs and perceptions as to what “health” or “illness” actually mean. In turn, this pattern of beliefs influences how symptoms are recognized, to what they are attributed, and how they are interpreted and affects how and when health services are sought. Cultural differences in the recognition and interpretation of symptoms and in the use of health services are the subject of a rich literature. 12–16 Fifty years ago Zaborowski conducted a classic study on the effects of culture on pain: although pain was considered a biologic phenomenon, he found that sensitivity to pain and attributing significance to pain symptoms varied by culture and ethnicity. Almost 40 years ago Suchman¹⁸ accounted for ethnic differences among people seeking health care as related to social structures and relationships and the degree of skepticism about professional medical care. Delay in seeking care was found among individuals belonging to cultural groups characterized by ethnic exclusivity, traditional family authority, and high skepticism about medicine. More recently, level of acculturation has been shown to account for differences in the use of health services within ethnic groups after controlling for age, gender, health status, and insurance coverage.

In the social environment and health logic model (described elsewhere in this supplement 31) access to “health promotion, disease and injury prevention, and health care” serves as an intermediate indicator along a pathway linking resources in the social environment to health outcomes. An important component of access to care for culturally diverse populations is the cultural competence of healthcare systems. This is integral to healthcare quality, because the goal of culturally competent care is to assure the provision of appropriate services and reduce the

Навчальне видання

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