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Hartmut Elsenhans
Puducherry University.

European integration at the crossroads* Part 3.

Paper for Puducherry University.

9. Allowing catching up, the nation state and redistribution

Germany is the most important market within the EU. Within the EU 27, it is one of the most innovative economies, as shown by her overall export performance despite her more limited performance in high-skill and technology-intensive industries. However, the mediocrity of Germany's performance in these latter areas is not in relation to other EU countries, but rather in relation to fast-growing catching up economies, especially in East Asia.

The security constraints which burdened Germany during the Cold War are long gone. In Europe, Germany is surrounded by friends. But the new multipolar system brings new challenges. Germany alone could meet these challenges only by attempting to occupy the kind of political niche that Switzerland came to occupy during the 19th century, on the basis of a neutrality agreed at the Vienna Congress. German unity was achieved in 1989 on the basis of no power being ready to let Germany remain neutral, not committed to the control by neighbouring powers.

Security for Germany means being embedded in a larger political constellation, though in a subordinate position and without access to nuclear weapons, for obvious historical reasons. NATO under the leadership of the United States during

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Европейская интеграция на перепутье. Часть 3.

the Cold War was such a larger political group. This setup has become unreliable because of the United States' unwillingness to continue to shoulder disproportionate burdens. An alternative setup is the EU, provided that it becomes political, as its founders had intended.

A political EU requires all participants to work in the direction of economic growth for its economically weaker areas, because without economic convergence the Union is unsustainable. Europe is not yet a nation, but it is becoming something like a nation, albeit a multi-ethnic nation endowed with fewer nationalist illusions than had been typical of those European nation states which emerged in the 19th century.

For such a union, a key necessity is the kind of redistribution that defines economic policy in any other federal state. The EU has no recourse to the international mechanisms of devaluation based on catching up and state promotion of catching up processes. Nor is migration for equalisation of economic conditions desirable and realistic. That said, the amounts necessary for redistribution are often overstated by the critics of deepening integration. Redistribution is not meant to compensate for income differences within the Union. Convergence occurred between the regions of the blue banana not because of redistribution but because of the effects of an intensified international division of labour.

The EU itself, however, already provides an example of redistribution within a community which is not yet a nation state. The clearest demonstration of this is the common agricultural policy (Hendriks 1991: 48). At this time, the conditions for redistribution included geopolitical pressure on Germany - a pressure which continues today, though now in the form of pressure on Germany and all other member states to maintain themselves in an emerging multipolar system.

The neo-corporatist perspective of the German left actually entails a kind of neoliberal/Marxist consensus on all resources being appropriated either by capital or labour, with growth de-

pending on capital accumulation. Redistribution in favour of labour thus appears as harmful for capital and growth. Similarly, redistribution among nations hampers the nation which has to give up resources, because this reduces its growth. By contrast, in a Keynesian / Kaleckian understanding of capitalism, the capital-output ratio does not increase and growth does not depend on ever-increasing shares of capital in national spending.

Ultimately, opportunities for growth in favour of less advanced economies do not depend on wealth transfers but on their access to dynamic markets. China did not grow primarily because Western importing countries paid high prices for her exports and transferred financial resources, but because they opened their markets in order to improve their consumption by replacing high cost local products with Chinese imports. Insofar as financial resources were transferred to China, this was private capital which brought very handsome remunerations in the form of quite acceptable profit rates. Indeed, the Chinese government accepted rather high profit rates and their retransfer to home countries, provided that technology transfers were efficient (Elsenhans and Babones 2017: 95).

In the same way, the convergence of the EU 27 will not depend primarily on transfers but on the readiness of the technically more advanced member states to increase their national spending by increasing mass incomes. This will provide much more important incentives for growth than redistribution within the Union. However, it will also require an ideological reorientation among decision makers, and especially among politicians, about the mechanisms of capitalist growth. Thus the EU depends on a kind of reconstruction according to Keynesian principles, and on the tedious work of convincing the lower income strata in all European countries that their interests will be served through such a reorientation. In the end, it will contribute to raising their incomes and employment (Elsenhans 2015b).

In a monetary union, this requires a co-ordination of wage policies. It also requires that the leading economies do not try

to solve their employment problems by running trade surpluses. The argument of there being no European working class and no European demos (Lapavistas 2019) is misleading. The existence of a demos without the existence of an economic sphere from which to launch modern industrial growth is devoid of the sovereignty that the nationalists of the new left claim to achieve by withdrawing from the EU. Here I would point to the argument about the weakening of labour by the crisis of the nation state, as has already been advanced on the same pre-Keynesian basis (MacMichael 1999).

Coordinated wage policies in order to increase mass consumption in the peripheries of an inegalitarian system is not possible if leading economies try to solve their demand problems through export surpluses. Keynes was quite aware of the harmful character of persisting balance of trade surpluses. He asked for them to be penalised under the new international order created in 1945 (Davidson 1992: 155). What is required from Germany is precisely the civilised behaviour Keynes tried to impose when constructing the Bretton Woods system.

I would point to Britain's maintenance of her hegemonic position during the 19th century through an acceptance of foreign trade deficits, admittedly by capital imports from the weaker regions of the world (Feis 1930: 23, Mitchell 1990: 453). Maintaining the EU therefore requires a total change of outlook among the German leadership and German working class. Both groups have to accept rising wages in Germany beyond the EU average, and they have to abandon their trade surplus, develop their internal market, and contribute by demand impulses to the rapid transformation of the European "periphery" (Grosser 2017: 3, Trittin 2018: 14). This is precisely what the United States did with the shattered economies of Europe during three decades of reconstruction after 1945 (Cecco 1989: 92).

It is difficult to imagine a concerted European wage expansion policy without strong Union-level institutions, which would imply a deepening of European integration (Hein and

Truger 2006: 9, Busch 2010: 5). And yet arguments against such a union hold that redistribution and socialist transformation are only possible within the nation state, and that socialist transformation by democratic means requires the demos.

All major revolutions and transformations in Europe were international. The shockwaves of the Russian revolution were felt keenly in Germany, but by 1923, revolutionary politics in Germany had clearly failed¹. Stalin's socialism in one country was a painful acceptance of the end of the revolutionary wave in central Europe. It was linked to mechanisms of economic protectionism which decisively contributed to the rapid emergence of bureaucratic decadence within the Soviet system. This is one of the key reasons why the youth movement - of May 1968 in Paris, or June 1967 in Germany - has been internationalist and has deliberately tried to spread to other countries².

Some argue that Europe must respect multiple identities - that it must be composed not of a demos but of many *demoi*. According to this argument, social transformation is possible only within the nation state. But this is to invert the relation between cause-and-effect. The EU refrains from performing the role of state in promoting economic convergence within the Union because the national powers in place instrumentalize the EU for reducing state intervention. Indeed, they are successfully doing so, because the locus of correcting these politics is at the EU - rather than the national - level. Any attempt to retransfer these competencies to national governments in a period where the EU itself is a minor part of the globalisation process would be cutting off one's nose to spite one's face.

Moreover, the national states are not a realm in which the left could easily launch measures of social transformation. In the 19th-century, national labour organisations cooperated in imposing labour standards. One important instrument for achieving this was the pressure for including labour protection into trade treaties, which influenced the globalisation

1 Sturmthal 1937: 29 f., Eyck 1957: 363-391, Erdmann 1959: 139 f.

2 Birnbaum and Childers 1970, Wallerstein 1988: 7, Bantiguy 2008, von der Goltz 2011.

process by collective imposition of common demands. Indeed, this transpired despite a level of “cultural” globalisation much less advanced than anything observable today³. So the problem is less that the EU does not provide sufficient space for social transformative strategies, but rather that national labour leaders are short-sighted in not understanding the necessity of occupying the decision-making levels of the EU. The rising fear among EU leaders over the populist wave shows that, despite a formal absence of these movements from the decision-making centres of the Union, that the EU decision makers are greatly influenced by the activities of these new forces, even if only in a negative way.

Formal institutions can hinder mass mobilization, but they cannot prevent it. Cosmopolitanism has been a major element of the tradition of working-class organisations, just as a withdrawal to the national sphere has characterised their response whenever there was an unemployment crisis (Fitch 1992).

But retreating to the national level for recreating state capacities for modifying market processes is inappropriate. This is because there are realistic opportunities for building labour coalitions beyond their primary constituencies. Labour organisations cannot hope to create lasting alliances with populist or extreme right organisations without losing their basic humanitarian approach. Since the 19th century, labour required an alliance with political liberals, who in some countries have even joined the social democratic left. In place of political liberalism as representative of the “enlightened bourgeoisie”, we now have green parties. These parties represent the dynamic rising salaried middle-class, which does not stick dogmatically to the neoliberal creed, but which is certainly reluctant to see too much state intervention in favour of redistribution. These parties of young urban professionals are certainly not natural allies of labour organisations, but they remain the only really realistic allies.

However, any discussion of cooperation with the green

3 Rosenberg 1962: 256, Dale 1967: 100, Huberman and Lewchuk 2003, Huberman and Meissner 2010: 681.

movement implies an acceptance of European integration, because the green movement is strongly committed to this type of limited globalization⁴. Any hope of winning such an ally for policies of renationalisation is utterly unrealistic. Without such an ally, big business' drive against the extension of state functions for correcting the market will prevail at European and national levels. Quite to the contrary, the commitment of big business to European integration as the minimum of participation in globalisation will allow business to mobilise larger segments of public opinion in member countries and isolate labour (Moravcsik 1991: 45).

If national solutions are economically inefficient due to the requirements of keeping up in the technical race, then the alternative is the political appropriation of the EU by labour. This requires cooperation between the labour movements of individual member states on the one hand and, on the other, new ideological orientations. It is the state which is used by labour organisations in order to modify market processes, but the ethnic character of the state is immaterial. German capitalists do not make concessions to German labour because they are both ethnically German. It is useless to bemoan the internationalist character of big business and to pretend that national solidarity exists, in the vain hope that concessions will be granted on the basis of the common ethnic origin of business and labour leaders.

To create an alternative to a neoliberal EU, large barriers have to be overcome in the German case. However, overcoming these barriers is not easy, whether there is a renationalisation of competencies or a deepening of European integration. The basic issue remains the overcoming of austerity policies, because they limit employment and thereby decrease empowerment of labour. Why should it be easier to fight against austerity policies in the framework of the German nation state than within the EU framework? After all, in the latter, there

4 Hooghe, Marks and Wilson 2002: 984, Evans 2007: 1101, Gaidis 2007, Schöler and Lada 2017: 2, Ciaglia, Fuest and Heinemann 2018: 34.

are many organisations other than German labour which are also committed to fighting austerity.

Within a monetary union, austerity policies are efficient for increasing employment in the most austere country to the detriment of its partners. In cases of a breakup of a currency union, they are useless for labour, because austerity policies only contribute to reinforcing the share of capital in total product. National unit labour costs increase due to currency appreciation, but labour's share in total product decreases, because labour tends not to participate in productivity increases in cases of austerity. Showing the mechanism of exchange rate changes and its role for competitiveness is a task for labour organisations in their function of educating the working class. This is a task similar to the demystification of capitalist mechanisms of exploitation in the 19th century. Awareness of these mechanisms did not emerge spontaneously then, and it will not do so now.

In the German example, monetary policy and fiscal policy as instruments of demand management in case of failing global demand are difficult to impose. There are certainly some cases from German history which create apprehension among broad sections of the public that such policies endanger monetary stability (Pierenkemper 1998, Bovenberg and Jong 1997, but Schmidt 1972). But there are also historical examples that state spending promotes employment and empowerment of labour. The Nazis copied the employment program of Woytinsky, Baade and Tarnow⁵ and, if one believes the reports of the exiled Social Democratic Party, even Hitler had to show some respect to the material demands of working people⁶.

The fight against mistrust of monetary and fiscal policy requires a fight against the monetarist illusion. Money and savings do not preserve value - they only preserve claims on debtors. In a world where the capital-output ratio declines and savings are not necessary for financing investment, savings will not attract interest payments, and the preservation

5 Gates 1974: 216 ff., Mommsen 1979: 375, Braunthal 1981: 74, James 1986: 327.

6 Schönbaum 1968: 151, Heuel 1989: 209, Reschke et al., 2012: 75.

of the future cannot be done individually on the basis of personal household savings (Mackenroth 1952, Elsenhans 1999b). Making this point clear is a condition for creating a large alliance between the middle classes and working people. The problems which characterise the household savings of today's middle classes demonstrate that individualistic strategies of preserving economic status are doomed to failure. Admittedly, it would be very difficult to promote such a view, as illustrated by a former member of the German Constitutional Court publicly declaring that earning interest on savings constitutes a "human right" (Kirchhof 2019).

German public opinion holds that the country does not have to make concessions because she is so efficient in international competition. And certainly, Germany is efficient in exports to EU countries, because she succeeded in flouting the inflation target of the European Central Bank, and has been assiduously devaluing her real exchange rate. Many will reply that Germany increasingly realises is export surplus with the non-Euro-countries. But the existence of the Euro and deficits in 2007, and the low surplus of the rest of the world with Germany in 2017, are largely based on deficits of other EU countries with the rest of the world (Tab. 4). Germany's surplus with the rest of the world often exceeds the surplus of the EU. In 2017, 58% of the trade surplus of the EU with the rest of the world was due to the German trade surplus (Tab. 3: lines 1 and 8).

Imagine, for example, that Germany is forced to leave the Euro by the other member countries suffering from German austerity policies (Elsenhans 2018b). In such circumstances, the German currency would appreciate in relation to the rest of the world. In the long run, German export surpluses would disappear, unless Germany began to massively export capital.

Fears such as those described above are difficult to overcome and more resistant than national myths. They will block labour-friendly policies, not just at the EU level, but also at

the international level. Big business benefits from the EU's legitimization of austerity policies as having no alternative. Similarly, rising mass incomes and state spending are said to be unfeasible at the national levels because of international competition, especially at the EU level. Defeating the "there is no alternative" argument is difficult at both the EU and the national levels, but it is much more difficult at the latter than it is at the former. And only at the European level can such national competition be compensated by state intervention into market processes.

If one wants to fight austerity, it is necessary to show that national solutions cannot optimize participation in technical innovation and growth in full employment. It was the aim of this article to show that participation in innovation depends on sufficiently large political units in which industrial policies and employment policies can be realised. The EU is such a unit, but the national levels of the individual member states are not. The rise of populist forces shows that EU institutions, whatever the treaty says, cannot isolate themselves from European public opinion. The great mistake of European labour movements has been to content themselves with maintaining some influence via the national levels instead of courageously understanding the necessity of becoming European in order to have weight in the decision-making process. And if European institutions prove unreceptive to labour, then they can take their fight to streets across the continent.

The current crisis of the political organisations of labour opens the possibility of a return to internationalist policies as a condition for gaining more influence. This would follow from labour becoming the most pro-European of the political camps within the EU (already Wiczorek-Zeul 1979: 12). It would correspond to the Union-wide interests of labour: in principle, the welfare of each segment of the labour movement would contribute via demand and therefore employment to the empowerment of the collective.

Tab. 3: Balances of trade by economic region (Billions \$)
(UNCTAD database).

		1997	2007	2017
	A	B	C	D
1	Germany to world	66.9	271.5	278.8
2	Germany to high-income economies	58.8	277.1	304.6
3	Germany to European Union 27	53.0	229.6	183.7
4	Germany to France	6.5	39.8	45.9
5	France to world	16.8	-71.7	-89.7
6	France to high-income economies	14.6	-33.8	-39.8
7	France to European Union 27	16.6	-26.1	-56.5
8	European Union 27 to world	73.4	-214.8	118.9
9	European Union 27 to high-income economies	80.9	201.1	524.4
10	European Union 27 without Germany to world	6.5	-486.3	-159.9
11	European Union 27 without Germany to high-income economies	22.1	-76.0	219.8

Tab. 4: Trade in services (UNCTAD database).

	Billion \$	Exports		Imports	
		2007	2017	2007	2017
	A	B	C	D	E
1	Germany	211.8	307.4	259.4	331.6
2	France	202.7	275.1	169.0	245.3
3	European Union 27	1733.2	2328.1	1506.0	1974.4

Tab. 5: World exports, growth and share (billion \$) (UNCTAD database).
5.1. World Exports by origin, destination and product group in billion US\$.

				1997	2007	2017
	A	B	C	D	E	F
4	World Exports to World					
6	All products	1	World	5570	14008	17677
7		2	high-income economies	4541	10122	11853
8		3	EU27	2234	5340	5852
9		4	China	183	1220	2263
10		5	FRGFRG	512	1328	1446
11		6	India	35	146	294
12		7	USA	686	1163	1546
14	Manufactured goods	1	World	4093	9583	12256
15		2	high-income economies	3510	7302	8340
16		3	EU27	1764	4111	4536
17		4	China	156	1134	2114
18		5	FRG	433	1026	1232
19		6	India	21	79	180
20		7	USA	554	901	994
22	Machinery and transport equipment	1	World	2178	5056	6328

	A	B		1997	2007	2017
			C	D	E	F
23		2	high-income economies	1946	3950	4467
24		3	EU27	887	2047	2239
25		4	China	44	577	1086
26		5	FRG	246	630	707
27		6	India	3	16	49
28		7	USA	353	537	527
30	High-skill and technology intensive products	1	World	1585	3863	5164
31		2	high-income economies	1397	3012	3707
32		3	EU27	614	1455	1675
33		4	China	37	462	838
34		5	FRG	136	356	415
35		6	India	5	25	62
36		7	USA	281	452	473
38	World Exports to EU27 (in billion US\$)					
40	All products	1	World	2006	5462	5682
41		2	high-income economies	1762	4474	4504
42		3	EU27	1357	3620	3679
43		4	China	24	246	371
44		5	FRG	285	860	833
45		6	India	8	32	51

			1997	2007	2017
	A	B	D	E	F
46		7	131	248	282
48	Manufactured goods	1	1477	3818	4113
49		2	1371	3302	3352
50		3	1058	2720	2831
51		4	22	234	356
52		5	238	669	687
53		6	6	23	40
54		7	108	204	186
56	Machinery and transport equipment	1	738	1860	1936
57		2	705	1629	1585
58		3	516	1311	1345
59		4	7	127	176
60		5	132	367	374
61		6	0.60	4.10	10
62		7	69	109	77
64	High-skill and technology intensive products	1	545	1414	1533
65		2	515	1245	1303
66		3	348	930	1002
67		4	7	101	128
68		5	74	218	231

					1997	2007	2017
	A	B	C	D	E	F	
69		6	India	1.20	5	10	
70		7	USA	67	121	109	
72	World Exports to Emerging Markets (in billion US\$)						
74	All products	1	World	1578	4690	7064	
75		2	high-income economies	1257	3290	4623	
76		3	EU27	378	1101	1455	
77		4	China	78	524	1003	
78		5	FRG	106	351	472	
79		6	India	11	64	129	
80		7	USA	267	489	763	
82	Manufactured goods	1	World	1184	3306	4767	
83		2	high-income economies	992	2437	3214	
84		3	EU27	307	910	1184	
85		4	China	66	482	925	
86		5	FRG	92	303	418	
87		6	India	6	27	71	
88		7	USA	307	379	479	
90	Machinery and transport equipment	1	World	652	1904	2748	
91		2	high-income economies	578	1460	1922	

					1997	2007	2017
	A	B	C	D	E	F	
92		3	EU27	168	512	654	
93		4	China	18	260	519	
94		5	FRG	54	189	259	
95		6	India	1	6	21	
96		7	USA	146	245	276	
98	High-skill and technology intensive products	1	World	497	1532	2382	
99		2	high-income economies	427	1148	1658	
100		3	EU27	105	307	426	
101		4	China	16	221	438	
102		5	FRG	27	91	134	
103		6	India	2	11	28	
104		7	USA	118	206	240	
106	World Exports to Asia (in billion US\$)						
108	All products	1	World	1534	4190	6567	
109		2	high-income economies	1183	2790	4013	
110		3	EU27	273	587	852	
111		4	China	109	569	1097	
112		5	FRG	67	174	265	
113		6	India	13	72	148	
114		7	USA	218	345	498	

					1997	2007	2017
	A	B	C	D	E	F	
116	Manufactured goods	1	World	1079	2735	4231	
117		2	high-income economies	871	1878	2625	
118		3	EU27	217	479	683	
119		4	China	88	593	998	
120		5	FRG	60	155	242	
121		6	India	7	28	74	
122		7	USA	169	257	287	
124	Machinery and transport equipment	1	World	580	1562	2429	
125		2	high-income economies	502	1130	1598	
126		3	EU27	123	282	399	
127		4	China	23	270	545	
128		5	FRG	38	103	160	
129		6	India	1	6	21	
130		7	USA	114	169	159	
132	High-skill and technology intensive products	1	World	488	1374	2232	
133		2	high-income economies	410	991	1499	
134		3	EU27	83	183	269	
135		4	China	22	228	483	
136		5	FRG	19	52	84	
137		6	India	2	11	28	

	A	B	C							
138		7	USA						109	163
									109	163
									109	165

5.2. Growth rates of exports by origin, destination and product groups (%).

4	A	B	C	H	I	J	K	L	M		
	World Exports to World										
6	All products	1	World	151	26	217	1.74	1.32	1.33		
7		2	high-income economies	123	17	161	1.72	1.31	1.32		
8		3	EU27	139	10	162	1.73	1.31	1.32		
9		4	China	567	85	1137	1.92	1.38	1.43		
10		5	FRG	159	9	182	1.74	1.32	1.33		
11		6	India	317	101	740	1.83	1.35	1.40		
12		7	USA	70	33	125	1.67	1.29	1.31		
14	Manufactured goods	1	World	134	28	199	1.73	1.31	1.33		
15		2	high-income economies	108	14	138	1.71	1.31	1.31		
16		3	EU27	133	10	157	1.72	1.31	1.32		

					growth 1997- 2007	growth 2007- 2017	growth 1997- 2017	annual mean growth 1997- 2007	annual mean growth 2007-2017	annual mean growth total
	A	B	C	H	I	J	K	L	M	
17		4	China	627	86	1255	1.93	1.39	1.43	
18		5	FRG	137	20	185	1.73	1.31	1.33	
19		6	India	276	128	757	1.81	1.35	1.40	
20		7	USA	63	10	79	1.66	1.29	1.30	
22	Machinery and transport equipment	1	World	132	25	191	1.72	1.31	1.33	
23		2	high-income economies	103	13	130	1.70	1.30	1.31	
24		3	EU27	131	9	152	1.72	1.31	1.32	
25		4	China	1211	88	2368	2.05	1.43	1.48	
26		5	FRG	156	12	187	1.74	1.32	1.33	
27		6	India	433	206	1533	1.87	1.37	1.45	
28		7	USA	52	-2	49	1.65	1.29	1.28	
30	High-skill and technology intensive products	1	World	144	34	226	1.73	1.32	1.34	
31		2	high-income economies	116	23	165	1.71	1.31	1.32	
32		3	EU27	137	15	173	1.73	1.31	1.32	
33		4	China	1149	81	2165	2.04	1.43	1.47	

				growth 1997- 2007	growth 2007- 2017	growth 1997- 2017	annual mean growth 1997- 2007	annual mean growth 2007-2017	annual mean growth total
	A	B	C	H	I	J	K	L	M
34		5	FRG	162	17	205	1.74	1.32	1.33
35		6	India	400	148	1140	1.86	1.36	1.43
36		7	USA	61	5	68	1.66	1.29	1.29
38	World Exports to EU27 (in billion US\$)								
40	All products	1	World	172	4	183	1.75	1.32	1.33
41		2	high-income economies	154	1	156	1.74	1.32	1.32
42		3	EU27	167	2	171	1.75	1.32	1.32
43		4	China	925	51	1446	2	1.41	1.44
44		5	FRG	202	-3	192	1.77	1.33	1.33
45		6	India	300	59	538	1.82	1.35	1.38
46		7	USA	89	14	115	1.69	1.30	1.31
48	Manufactured goods	1	World	158	8	178	1.74	1.32	1.33
49		2	high-income economies	141	2	144	1.73	1.32	1.32
50		3	EU27	157	4	168	1.74	1.32	1.32
51		4	China	964	52	1518	2.01	1.42	1.45
52		5	FRG	181	3	189	1.76	1.33	1.33

				growth 1997- 2007	growth 2007- 2017	growth 1997- 2017	annual mean growth 1997- 2007	annual mean growth 2007-2017	annual mean growth total
	A	B	C	H	I	J	K	L	M
53		6	India	283	74	567	1.81	1.35	1.38
54		7	USA	89	-9	72	1.69	1.30	1.29
56	Machinery and transport equipment	1	World	152	4	162	1.74	1.32	1.32
57		2	high-income economies	131	-3	125	1.72	1.31	1.31
58		3	EU27	154	3	161	1.74	1.32	1.32
59		4	China	1714	39	2414	2.12	1.46	1.48
60		5	FRG	178	2	183	1.76	1.32	1.33
61		6	India	583	144	1567	1.92	1.39	1.45
62		7	USA	58	-29	12	1.66	1.29	1.27
64	High-skill and technology intensive products	1	World	159	8	181	1.74	1.32	1.33
65		2	high-income economies	142	5	153	1.73	1.32	1.32
66		3	EU27	167	8	188	1.75	1.32	1.33
67		4	China	1343	27	1729	2.07	1.44	1.46
68		5	FRG	195	6	212	1.77	1.33	1.33
69		6	India	317	100	733	1.83	1.35	1.40

					growth 1997- 2007	growth 2007- 2017	growth 1997- 2017	annual mean growth 1997- 2007	annual mean growth 2007-2017	annual mean growth total
	A	B	C	H	I	J	K	L	M	
70		7	USA	81	-10	63	1.68	1.30	1.29	
72	World Exports to Emerging Markets (in billion US\$)									
74		1	World	197	51	348	1.77	1.33	1.36	
75		2	high-income economies	162	41	268	1.74	1.32	1.34	
76		3	EU27	191	32	285	1.76	1.33	1.35	
77		4	China	572	91	1186	1.92	1.38	1.43	
78		5	FRG	231	34	345	1.79	1.34	1.36	
79		6	India	482	102	1073	1.89	1.37	1.42	
80		7	USA	83	56	186	1.68	1.30	1.33	
82	Manufactured goods	1	World	179	44	303	1.76	1.33	1.35	
83		2	high-income economies	146	32	224	1.73	1.32	1.34	
84		3	EU27	196	30	286	1.77	1.33	1.35	
85		4	China	630	92	1302	1.93	1.39	1.44	
86		5	FRG	229	38	354	1.79	1.34	1.36	
87		6	India	350	163	1083	1.84	1.36	1.42	

				growth 1997- 2007	growth 2007- 2017	growth 1997- 2017	annual mean growth 1997- 2007	annual mean growth 2007-2017	annual mean growth total
	A	B	C	H	I	J	K	L	M
88		7	USA	23	26	56	1.62	1.27	1.29
90	Machinery and transport equipment	1	World	192	44	321	1.76	1.33	1.35
91		2	high-income economies	153	32	233	1.74	1.32	1.34
92		3	EU27	205	28	289	1.77	1.33	1.35
93		4	China	1344	100	2783	2.07	1.44	1.49
94		5	FRG	250	37	380	1.80	1.34	1.36
95		6	India	500	250	2000	1.90	1.38	1.47
96		7	USA	68	13	89	1.67	1.29	1.30
98	High-skill and technology intensive products	1	World	208	55	379	1.77	1.33	1.36
99		2	high-income economies	169	44	288	1.75	1.32	1.35
100		3	EU27	192	39	306	1.76	1.33	1.35
101		4	China	1281	98	2638	2.06	1.44	1.49
102		5	FRG	237	47	396	1.79	1.34	1.36
103		6	India	450	155	1300	1.88	1.37	1.44
104		7	USA	75	17	103	1.68	1.29	1.30

	A	B	C	H	I	J	K	L	M
	World Exports to Asia (in billion US\$)			1997-2007	2007-2017	1997-2017	1997-2007	2007-2017	annual mean growth total
106									
108	All products	1	World	173	57	328	1.75	1.32	1.35
109		2	high-income economies	136	44	239	1.73	1.31	1.34
110		3	EU27	115	45	212	1.71	1.31	1.33
111		4	China	422	93	906	1.87	1.37	1.41
112		5	FRG	160	52	296	1.74	1.32	1.35
113		6	India	454	106	1038	1.88	1.37	1.42
114		7	USA	58	44	128	1.66	1.29	1.31
116	Manufactured goods	1	World	153	55	292	1.74	1.32	1.35
117		2	high-income economies	116	40	201	1.71	1.31	1.33
118		3	EU27	121	43	215	1.72	1.31	1.33
119		4	China	574	68	1034	1.92	1.38	1.42
120		5	FRG	158	56	303	1.74	1.32	1.35
121		6	India	300	164	957	1.82	1.35	1.42
122		7	USA	52	12	70	1.65	1.29	1.29

				growth 1997- 2007	growth 2007- 2017	growth 1997- 2017	annual mean growth 1997- 2007	annual mean growth 2007-2017	annual mean growth total
	A	B	C	H	I	J	K	L	M
124	Machinery and transport equipment	1	World	169	56	319	1.75	1.32	1.35
125		2	high-income economies	125	41	218	1.72	1.31	1.33
126		3	EU27	129	41	224	1.72	1.31	1.34
127		4	China	1074	102	2270	2.03	1.42	1.47
128		5	FRG	171	55	321	1.75	1.32	1.35
129		6	India	500	250	2000	1.90	1.38	1.47
130		7	USA	48	-6	39	1.65	1.28	1.28
132	High-skill and technology intensive products	1	World	182	62	357	1.76	1.33	1.36
133		2	high-income economies	142	51	266	1.73	1.32	1.34
134		3	EU27	120	47	224	1.72	1.31	1.34
135		4	China	936	112	2095	2	1.42	1.47
136		5	FRG	174	62	342	1.75	1.32	1.36
137		6	India	450	155	1300	1.88	1.37	1.44
138		7	USA	50	1	51	1.65	1.28	1.29

5.3. Shares of regions in exports to destination in different product groups (%).

	A	B	C	share in % 1997	share in % 2007	share in % 2017
				N	O	P
4	World Exports to World					
6	All products	1	World	100.00	100.00	100.00
7		2	high-income economies	81.53	72.26	67.05
8		3	EU27	40.11	38.12	33.11
9		4	China	3.29	8.71	12.80
10		5	FRG	9.19	9.48	8.18
11		6	India	0.63	1.04	1.66
12		7	USA	12.32	8.30	8.75
14	Manufactured goods	1	World	100.00	100.00	100.00
15		2	high-income economies	85.76	76.20	68.05
16		3	EU27	43.10	42.90	37.01
17		4	China	3.81	11.83	17.25
18		5	FRG	10.58	10.71	10.05
19		6	India	0.51	0.82	1.47
20		7	USA	13.54	9.40	8.11
22	Machinery and transport equipment	1	World	100.00	100.00	100.00
23		2	high-income economies	89.35	78.13	70.59

24		3	EU27	40.73	40.49	35.38
25		4	China	2.02	11.41	17.16
26		5	FRG	11.29	12.46	11.17
27		6	India	0.14	0.32	0.77
28		7	USA	16.21	10.62	8.33
30	High-skill and technology intensive products	1	World	100.00	100.00	100.00
31		2	high-income economies	88.14	77.97	71.79
32		3	EU27	38.74	37.67	32.44
33		4	China	2.33	11.96	16.23
34		5	FRG	8.58	9.22	8.04
35		6	India	0.32	0.65	1.20
36		7	USA	17.73	11.70	9.16
38	World Exports to EU27 (in billion US\$)					
40	All products	1	World	100.00	100.00	100.00
41		2	high-income economies	87.84	81.91	79.27
42		3	EU27	67.65	66.28	64.75
43		4	China	1.20	4.50	6.53
44		5	FRG	14.21	15.75	14.66
45		6	India	0.40	0.59	0.90
46		7	USA	6.53	4.54	4.96

48	Manufactured goods	1	World	100.00	100.00	100.00
49		2	high-income economies	92.82	86.49	81.50
50		3	EU27	71.63	71.24	68.83
51		4	China	1.49	6.13	8.66
52		5	FRG	16.11	17.52	16.70
53		6	India	0.41	0.60	0.97
54		7	USA	7.31	5.34	4.52
56	Machinery and transport equipment	1	World	100.00	100.00	100.00
57		2	high-income economies	95.53	87.58	81.87
58		3	EU27	69.92	70.48	69.47
59		4	China	0.95	6.83	9.09
60		5	FRG	17.89	19.73	19.32
61		6	India	0.08	0.22	0.52
62		7	USA	9.35	5.86	3.98
64	High-skill and technology intensive products	1	World	100.00	100.00	100.00
65		2	high-income economies	94.50	88.05	85
66		3	EU27	63.85	65.77	65.36
67		4	China	1.28	7.14	8.35
68		5	FRG	13.58	15.42	15.07
69		6	India	0.22	0.35	0.65
70		7	USA	12.29	8.56	7.11

72	World Exports to Emerging Markets (in billion US\$)						
74	All products	1	World	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
75		2	high-income economies	79.66	79.66	70.15	65.44
76		3	EU27	23.95	23.95	23.48	20.60
77		4	China	4.94	4.94	11.17	14.20
78		5	FRG	6.72	6.72	7.48	6.68
79		6	India	0.70	0.70	1.36	1.83
80		7	USA	16.92	16.92	10.43	10.80
82	Manufactured goods	1	World	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
83		2	high-income economies	83.78	83.78	73.71	67.42
84		3	EU27	25.93	25.93	27.53	24.84
85		4	China	5.57	5.57	14.58	19.40
86		5	FRG	7.77	7.77	9.17	8.77
87		6	India	0.51	0.51	0.82	1.49
88		7	USA	25.93	25.93	11.46	10.05
90	Machinery and transport equipment	1	World	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
91		2	high-income economies	88.65	88.65	76.68	69.94
92		3	EU27	25.77	25.77	26.89	23.80
93		4	China	2.76	2.76	13.66	18.89
94		5	FRG	8.28	8.28	9.93	9.43

95		6	India	0.15	0.32	0.76
96		7	USA	22.39	12.87	10.04
98	High-skill and technology intensive products	1	World	100.00	100.00	100.00
99		2	high-income economies	85.92	74.93	69.61
100		3	EU27	21.13	20.04	17.88
101		4	China	3.22	14.43	18.39
102		5	FRG	5.43	5.94	5.63
103		6	India	0.40	0.72	1.18
104		7	USA	23.74	13.45	10.08
106	World Exports to Asia (in billion US\$)					
108	All products	1	World	100.00	100.00	100.00
109		2	high-income economies	77.12	66.59	61.11
110		3	EU27	17.80	14.01	12.97
111		4	China	7.11	13.58	16.70
112		5	FRG	4.37	4.15	4.04
113		6	India	0.85	1.72	2.25
114		7	USA	14.21	8.23	7.58
116	Manufactured goods	1	World	100.00	100.00	100.00
117		2	high-income economies	80.72	68.67	62.04
118		3	EU27	20.11	17.51	16.14

119		4	China	8.16	21.68	23.59
120		5	FRG	5.56	5.67	5.72
121		6	India	0.65	1.02	1.75
122		7	USA	15.66	9.40	6.78
124	Machinery and transport equipment	1	World	100.00	100.00	100.00
125		2	high-income economies	86.55	72.34	65.79
126		3	EU27	21.21	18.05	16.43
127		4	China	3.97	17.29	22.44
128		5	FRG	6.55	6.59	6.59
129		6	India	0.17	0.38	0.86
130		7	USA	19.66	10.82	6.55
132	High-skill and technology intensive products	1	World	100.00	100.00	100.00
133		2	high-income economies	84.02	72.13	67.16
134		3	EU27	17.01	13.32	12.05
135		4	China	4.51	16.59	21.64
136		5	FRG	3.89	3.78	3.76
137		6	India	0.41	0.80	1.25
138		7	USA	22.34	11.86	7.39

Tab. 6: Exports deflated and shares of export and export surpluses in GDP, China, Germany and United States.

		1997	2007	2017
	A	B	C	D
1	Chinese exports deflated by the Chinese deflator of the World Bank (billion \$ of 1997)	961.6	960.5	1348.8
2	German exports deflated by the German deflator of the World Bank (billion \$ of 1997)	563.7	1371.7	1387.5
3	United States exports deflated by the US deflator of the World Bank (billion \$ of 1997)	934.5	1325.2	1596.2
4	Share of exports in GDP (%) China	14.6	27.0	20.0
5	Share of exports in GDP (%) Germany	25.4	43.8	47.0
6	Share of exports in GDP (%) United States	10.9	11.4	11.9
7	Share of export surplus in GDP (%) China	4.5	8.7	1.8
8	Share of export surplus in GDP (%) Germany	1.2	6.7	7.0
9	Share of export surplus in GDP (%) United States	-1.3	-4.9	-3.0

Tab. 7: Export growth by origin, destination and product group, comparison to world exports by destination and product group (values indexed on world export growth = 100).

1997/2007	All products to		
	world	emerging markets	Asia
China	266	226	191
India	166	196	200
High-income countries	89	88	86
Germany	103	111	95
EU 27	93	98	79

1997/2007	Machinery and transport equipment			High-skill and technology intensive products		
	world	emerging markets	Asia	world	emerging markets	Asia
China	565	495	436	512	448	367
India	230	205	223	205	179	195
High-income countries	88	87	84	89	87	86
Germany	110	120	101	107	109	97
EU 27	100	104	223	97	62	78

2007/2017	All products to		
	world	emerging markets	Asia
China	147	126	123
India	243	134	131
High-income countries	93	93	92
Germany	87	89	97
EU 27	87	87	92

2007/2017	Machinery and transport equipment			High-skill and technology intensive products		
	world	emerging markets	Asia	world	emerging markets	Asia
China	150	139	129	135	128	131
India	1306	521	481	185	165	157
High-income countries	90	92	90	92	93	94
Germany	90	95	99	87	95	100
EU 27	167	89	90	160	90	91

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European integration at the crossroads. Part 3.

Abstract. The process of European integration is in crisis. This crisis is not the result of social, political and economic tendencies that have emerged only recently. In fact, the inner contradictions of European integration have been apparent since its beginning.

Key words: Europe, Russia, integration, society, analysis.

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Европейская интеграция на перепутье. Часть 3.

Аннотация. Процесс европейской интеграции переживает кризис. Этот кризис не является результатом социальных, политических и экономических тенденций, которые возникли совсем недавно. Фактически, внутренние противоречия европейской интеграции были очевидны с самого ее начала. Некоторое время они не создавали проблем.

Ключевые слова: Европа, Россия, интеграция, общество, анализ.

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The problematic field of national cultures in the era of globalization*

For thousands of years, culture and art were generally under the patronage of the church, monarchs, aristocrats and wealthy merchants. In the 19th century, artists, writers, musicians and theatre workers began to make wide use of market opportunities to increase their income. It was not until the 20th century that public authorities began to take over some of the functions of patronage of the arts. The first efforts of governments to support culture generally consisted in establishing archives, museums and libraries.

State institutionalisation of culture and art required establishing appropriate governing bodies - arts councils, ministries and departments of culture. They were generally responsible for supporting major art forms that were a part of the Western canon, such as painting and sculpture, and the basic performing arts (classical music and theatre).

In the 20th century, many governments began to develop and implement various measures to promote, support and protect art, artists and artistic institutions. Relevant cultural policies were implemented both at the level of a nation-state and at the sub-national level (e.g., federal subjects), as well as at the regional and municipal levels (e.g., a city government establishing a museum or an arts centre).

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Проблемное поле национальных культур в эпоху глобализации

In any case, state and local government initiatives in cultural policy tend to have two objectives: to support the best (according to the state and power elites) practices in the field of art (e.g., a government grant program that provides funding to the most successful artists or writers in the country) and to increase citizen access to the arts (e.g., the government-funded Music in Schools program, which enables children from low- and middle-income families to listen to live music).

However, it should be borne in mind that these two objectives require a certain political compromise due to the limited financial resources allocated to culture by the state. As a result, any decision taken in this regard will be, by definition, political in nature.

Of course, not the entire sphere of culture and art is influenced by state policy. In general terms, when speaking about cultural policy, it seems appropriate to distinguish three of its “levels” at least for research purposes.

The first level refers to institutional culture, the carriers of which are the main state institutions (museums, theatres, etc.), which traditionally rely on budgetary funds and are the object of state/local cultural policy.

At the second level, there is the so-called “independent culture”, created, reproduced and maintained by arts professionals, networks, foundations and associations, which are not directly linked to the state and therefore have their own cultural policy, taking initiatives of their choice and requesting funding and other types of support as needed, generally without compromising their principles to please the so-called “state interest”.

Finally, there is the so-called “market-oriented” culture that develops mainly within creative industries, whose products tend to be initially oriented towards the global market.

The impact of globalisation on state cultural policy in the modern world is unquestionable. The existing prerequisites for reducing the role of nation states and the fact that global-

isation has created a cultural context for the rapid and effective exchange of cultural contents entail inevitable changes in the very attitude of the state and society to culture. The phenomenon of cultural stratification is becoming increasingly apparent.

After World War II, culture acquired, on the one hand, a “national dimension” through its role in restoring national identity, but, on the other hand, it also received a boost at the international level through the creation of institutions such as the Council of Europe, UNESCO and the EU. UNESCO plays a particularly important role in promoting the idea of cultural diversity, emphasising the role of national/global heritage in building a just society.

However, it is a political given that international organisations act as vehicles for transmitting the Western view of culture, when national cultural policies in developing countries are subjected to a kind of “diagnostic assessment” aimed at identifying what they “lack” in the view of the “advanced” states.

As a result, global cultural policy is largely based on Western models revolving around a market economy embodied in creative industries. In particular, many cultural development projects concern areas such as the tourism industry, the economics of World Heritage sites and employment opportunities in creative industries. Sustainable development and the global creative economy are the most popular in this context.

For example, the Tallinn Manifesto, adopted at the representative international conference “Creative Economic Policy and Development” in 2011, formulated “an agenda for a refreshed and re-invigorated approach to knowledge development, collaboration, strategy and policy – across Europe and internationally” to develop “which is productive, value-adding, sustainable, resilient, inclusive and fair. It does this from the specific perspective of emerging markets – to bring the ‘margins’ to the ‘centre’ so that a new wave of nations, regions

and cities are able to develop genuinely productive Creative Economies on their own terms”.

The essence of such rhetoric is quite obvious: if developing countries follow the Western model, they will achieve social and, more importantly, economic growth, and will be able to compete in the global market. However, this raises many questions, the main of which, from a political point of view, are, in our opinion, the following: whether developed countries encourage “false hopes” and whether culture in its modern global development is a form of modern colonialism.

The theory of cultural (media) imperialism gives an unequivocally positive answer to these questions, which gives the impression that it is impossible for the countries belonging to the periphery and semi-periphery (using the world-systems approach by I. Wallerstein) of the modern globalising world to respond adequately to the pressure of the Western concept of cultural policy.

However, other theoretical approaches, which can be characterized in general terms as “sociostructural,” seem much more promising in this regard. Being in consonance with ideas of “glocalisation”, they emphasise the continuing vitality and possible revival of local cultural diversity even in conditions of an increasing transnationalism of products, peoples and ideas.

This idea underlies the desire of modern states to develop such strategy for cultural policy that would meet the national interests of the relevant country to the greatest extent. And the first step in this direction is to determine the attitude towards global culture and to adequately assess national culture in terms of its positioning in the modern world.

The choice of possible strategies for cultural policy (preserving and protecting inherited cultures, renewing traditional cultures, resisting cultural globalisation, changing or transforming local and national cultures for global consumption) is in most cases a compromise, resulting in the choice of a combination of several strategies.

The decision-making in the field of cultural policy is determined by the dominant political regime in the country, the ideologies dominant in the elites and society, historical and cultural traditions and norms, as well as the overall positioning of the country in the world, its self-identification within the framework of ideas about the global future.

Cultural policies of different countries are quite illustrative in this regard, reflecting the phenomenon of the multidimensional impact of globalisation on various social systems and the variability of choices made by political elites, despite the existence of common threats and challenges.

For example, the specifics of the situation in the Federal Republic of Germany, which is still struggling with the difficult legacy of World War II and is searching for its own place in the world system, is determined by the following features.

First, the issue of culture and cultural policy is at the center of ongoing discussions between various political forces in the country, being reflected in policy documents of the main political parties and forming an integral part of political agreements and coalition agreements.

Secondly, the internal and external vectors of a country's cultural policy are inextricably linked.

Thirdly, the main challenge is to ensure that German culture can demonstrate to the world the same high level of success as the German economy without causing other countries and peoples to have undesirable associations with the Nazi past.

The main goal for France (the "homeland" of anti-globalisation) is to succeed in countering Americanisation of global culture and to maintain the high status and influence of French culture in the world. In order to achieve this, the state, relying on the prevailing public moods, is prepared to make large-scale financial injections into this sphere in an effort to ensure an appropriate level of the country's competitiveness on the global cultural market.

The cultural policy of Japan is characterised by active con-

frontation between different interest groups and the experts representing them, who have a direct influence on the decision-making process in this sphere. As a result, two main areas of cultural activity - the national, traditional, profit-oriented one and the non-commercial, anti-authoritarian one, which is aimed at unlocking the cultural potential of an individual - are in a certain competition with each other not only within the country but also globally, offering the world two completely different versions of Japanese culture, which are not always in harmony with each other and, as a result, form a rather contradictory picture of “truly Japanese”.

The situation in Malaysia is a kind of quintessence of the problems faced by cultural policy in a multiethnic and multi-confessional society. The process of transition from “National Cultural Policy”, based on the idea of Malay-Islamic privilege in the country, to the policy of “One Malaysia”, which seeks to improve relations between all Malaysians, regardless of their racial, religious or cultural origin, was determined not only by the internal need for social balance and national (civil) unity, but also by direct pressure from global leaders like China and India, who openly defended the interests of their diasporas.

Thus, we can see that globalisation has a significant impact on the state’s efforts to protect and support national culture, which is largely determined by the increasing role that culture plays as a “soft power” that allows to strengthen a country’s position on the world stage in the face of rapid change, mitigating existing concerns about the economic and social consequences of globalisation.

Therefore, in our view, we can conclude that the attention to cultural policy from the state and major political actors will increase steadily as globalisation processes (in whatever form they occur) intensify.

Currently, another completely new actor is entering the arena of “cultural confrontation” - “artificial intelligence”, which may further minimise national features of the cultural

landscape, although, as cultural workers hope, it will contribute to the continuation of the dialogue between different cultures and stimulate their development.

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The problematic field of national cultures in the era of globalization

Abstract. The article substantiates the possibility and necessity of implementing the state cultural policy taking into account international experience. The existing prerequisites for a decrease in the role of national states and the fact that globalization has created a cultural context for the rapid and effective exchange of cultural content entails inevitable changes in the very attitude of the state and society to culture. It is concluded that the attention to cultural policy on the part of the state and the main political figures will constantly increase as the globalization processes intensify.

Key words: cultural policy, models of cultural policy, national cultures, globalization.

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Проблемное поле национальных культур в эпоху глобализации

Аннотация. В статье обосновывается возможность и необходимость реализации государственной культурной политики с учетом международного опыта. Существующие предпосылки уменьшения роли национальных государств и тот факт, что глобализация создала культурный контекст для быстрого и эффективного обмена культурным содержанием, влечет за собой неизбежные изменения в самом отношении государства и общества к культуре. Делается вывод о том, что внимание к культурной политике со стороны государства и основных политических акторов по мере усиления глобализационных процессов будет постоянно нарастать.

Ключевые слова: культурная политика, модели культурной политики, национальные культуры, глобализация.

***UNESCO: culture
and national traditions***

***ЮНЕСКО: культура
и национальные традиции***

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**A new phenomenon of the unicorn:
the power of myth
and its ability to be reborn in old images***

The picture of the world of the first quarter of the XXI century, formed in the minds of most of humanity, is a mosaic one. It consists of many fragments that reflect not only the real situation of different states and the life of their peoples, but also a figurative series made up of bizarre characterizations of this life, its interpretations in political institutions, socio-economic calculations, and cultural works... Along with the scientific justification of all the features of the polysyllabic plot, this picture is filled with mythologems that refer to the past with their origins. And this past, in turn, also did not have to be real, but could be reconstructed by later mental reconstructions. All together, it created a desire to revive it in a new way, using the language of the time-specific reconstruction of the mythologeme, which acts as “plot-forming characters and situations that determine the overall content of the mythological plot and can be repeated in semantically homogeneous series.”

But what is myth itself? Dictionaries explain it as the equivalent of science, as a whole system in terms of which the whole world is perceived and described, the development of reality in the forms of figurative narration. The great Russian thinker

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Новый феномен единорога: сила мифа и его способность возрождаться в старых образах

Alexey Fyodorovich Losev wrote in the *Dialectic of Myth* that “myth is a personal being, or, more precisely, an image of personal being, a personal form, the face of a person.”

The definition of personality presupposes that it has, first of all, self-consciousness. But self-consciousness does not arise by itself with the birth of a person, it is formed. There are periods when the government and society are most active in the process of such formation, using a wide arsenal of methods for this, including the creation of a new mythologeme. One of these stages occurred in the first decades of Soviet power. In the 1920s. Losev noted the emerging mythological thinking of the builders of the new society. In the picture of the world, “a ghost walked through Europe”, “the jackals of imperialism howled”, “the hydra of the bourgeoisie bared its teeth”, “financial sharks gaped”. Everywhere there were such figures as “bandits in tailcoats”, “robbers with a monocle”, “crowned bloodletters”, “cannibals in mitres”. But their fate was doomed, because these “dark forces” were opposed by the “red dawn of the world fire” and the “red banner” of the uprisings.

The ambiguity of the myth allows it to be divided according to the spheres of application to politics, economy, and culture... The German philosopher and cultural critic, a representative of the Marburg School of Neo-Kantianism, Ernst Cassirer, in his work “The Technique of Modern Political Myths”, noted that such myths do not arise spontaneously and are not the fruit of unbridled imagination, but are artificially created by “skilled and dexterous masters “. Political myth seeks to represent all the vicissitudes of political life through proven plots and images in which cultural heroes form a new order, but gives both these heroes and their actions the features of modernity. The myth connects different times, strengthening the integrity of the modeled project of the future with the help of borrowed details from the past.

The need to create a new political mythologeme stems from the goals not only to achieve victory over a political/geopolit-

ical rival, but also to ensure the movement of society forward through its ideological mobilization. For this purpose, for example, during the years of socialism, a set of myths was used, which began to form in the USSR immediately after the Bolsheviks came to power, but were corrected as the world socialist system expanded. These myths include the following:

1. the myth of the “material base”, which the myth created the delusion that success necessarily depends on the growth of production, the number of economic and socio-cultural objects, the vastness of those employed in them, etc.;

2. the myth of the “single maneuver” allowed us to absolutize the idea of exclusivity: the leader, the advanced class, the leading construction site, the main method, etc. Reinforcement of the truth of this mythical paintings served as a mass campaign of eradication of illiteracy or proletarianization management layer, when such campaigns have failed, such as alcohol, then they were destroyed not only the segment of the myths that they had to provide, but all of the constructed model;

3. the myth of the “completeness of conditions” balanced the previous construction, indicating the need to reinforce efforts in one direction with appropriate resources;

4. the myth of “no alternative development” was intended to strengthen in the minds of the masses the idea of the uniqueness, the steadfastness of any plans, programs, strategic attitudes. This myth was often clothed in a succinct slogan formula, for example: “Professionally trained personnel decides everything” or “The Party is always right!” (the slogan of the Socialist United Party of Germany on the eve of the collapse of the German Democratic Republic);

5. the myth of nomenclature hid the order of personnel movement, which resembled the laying out of solitaire with a strictly limited number of cards. But bypassing this model of personnel growth, there was an archaic scheme of nepotism, in which the nomenclature was formed according to the dynastic principle (the Ceausescu clan). The isolation of this

circle of people, its privileges themselves contributed to the debunking of this myth, and the opposition was formed from a wide variety of political and ideological trends precisely on an antinometric basis;

6. the myth of the “priority of the chair over competence” allowed the authorities to exalt the position, the post, and not a specific person, to replace it with another, hiding management errors that arose as a result of the lack of competence, experience, moral qualities and talent, the former owner of a particular official position;

7. the myth of the “shift” focused on the mobilization of the “reserve”, allowed to use the impact work of young people, claiming that she had “steel arms-wings, and instead of a heart-a fiery engine” and she would withstand any adversity and trials with honor;

8. the myth of the machinations of the “enemy” provided an opportunity to write off all the mistakes of socialist construction on political or ideological opponents and helped to deal with them. It is known that the wave of repression affected not only our country, but also the states of Eastern Europe, especially in the late 1940s-early 1950s.

With the end of the cold war, the change of bipolarity to unipolarity, this sharpness of the mythological confrontation between the socialist and capitalist models has lost its sharpness. Political myths went into “sleep mode”, and they were replaced in Russia by economic myths, in particular about: the market, the effectiveness of economic reform, the fight against privileges, economic heroes-giants, and many others. These myths reflected the new interests and goals of a person, helped to implement a kind of regulation of the behavior of a significant part of people.

Since economics is much more material than ideology and politics, it was inevitable that not only realities, but also mythologies, would differ in this area. The myth demanded imagery. The American sociologist Charles Hanji suggested four types

of organizational culture, metaphorically using the names of the gods in Greek mythology; 1. culture power culture of Zeus; 2. the role of culture — the culture of Apollo; 3. culture task culture Athens; 4. culture, identity culture of Dionysus. In the economic competition, not only false, fake information was actively used, but also the tools of trolling, which revives evil mythological trolls with its name, were used.

Echoes of economic myths have emerged in the resurgence of mythical figures such as dwarves or leprechauns. Both are associated with wealth, the protection of hidden treasures. The term “Zurich gnomes” appeared in November 1964 at a crisis meeting of British Labour politicians, at which they accused Swiss bankers of fueling speculation against the pound. This expression was used by George Brown, who actively criticized the Swiss bankers. The characters of Irish folklore-leprechauns-have accumulated huge wealth and can give a piece of their pantry to the person they like. Their image is actively used to attract tourists not only in Ireland, but also abroad, for example in the United States, where residents of the town of Crichton in Alabama also claim that leprechauns live in its vicinity.

The time has come for the arrival of unicorns in the modern economy, which in ancient legends symbolized chastity, spiritual purity and search. Although descriptions of these beings, known from the V century BC, and among the authors who saw them meet highly respected person, such as Julius Caesar, telling about the unicorns “Notes on the Gallic war”, to ensure their reality no one could. This did not prevent the artists from visualizing numerous stories about the encounters of unicorns with people.

The image of the unicorn became part of its system of heraldic symbols. For more than six centuries, this figure is the national animal of Scotland, was part of its coat of arms. The first known example of a Scottish monarch using a unicorn as a symbol of power dates back to the late 1300s. Then Robert

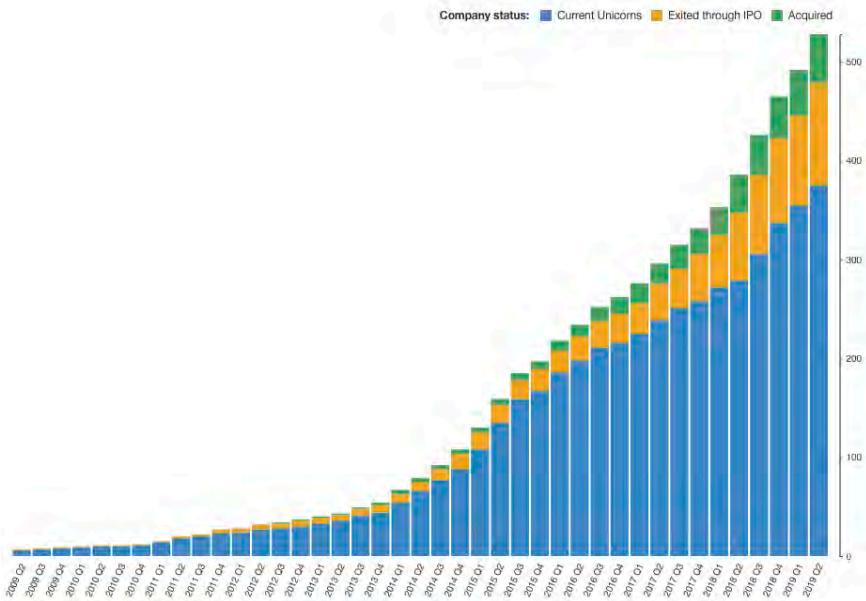


Domenichi. A virgin with a unicorn. Fragment of a fresco, 1602.



Unicorn made by Bear Factory (photo: The Bear Factory).

II (or Robert III) used a unicorn, placing its image as part of the coat of arms on the gate of Rothesay Castle on the Isle of Bute. This fact gave reason to the security service of high-ranking officials coming to the United States, which assigns such persons their own code names, to call Prince Charles a Unicorn. If this fact revealed several patterns that reflect both the image of the unicorn and the activity of the Prince of Wales in the field of ecology and charity, then the example of the passage of a small Englishwoman Emily Harris passport control when entering Turkey on the passport of a toy stuffed unicorn should be considered illogical. The child, when approaching the border control, accidentally turned out to have a toy passport. However, the Turkish border guard missed Emily on the unicorn passport and even stamped the document of the toy unicorn, which looks very different from real British passports. This kind of application to the toy is produced by the company Bear Factory. The passport was pasted with a picture of a toy



Growth rates of the World club of Unicorns by gm.

unicorn, as well as all the information about the toy named Lily Harris: place and date of birth, size and color.

Such popularity of the image of the unicorn in our days contributed to the fact that the founder and partner of the venture fund Cowboy Partners, Eileen Lee, introduced the concept of “unicorn” for startups valued at one billion dollars. In 2013, her article “Welcome to the Unicorn Club” was published on TechCrunch. At that time, there were only 39 “unicorns” on the list. But since then, they have been growing rapidly. Entrepreneur Hovier Ksu estimated that in the first nine months of 2018, such startups appeared on average once every four days.

Now a non-public company with a current valuation of one billion dollars or more fits the definition of a “unicorn” company. The restrictions associated with the establishment of such companies in the United States or their software orientation have disappeared. There were also “unicorn” companies focused on the consumer. These are Chinese-Toutiao, Meituan-Dianping, Didi.

The main way to turn an organization into a “unicorn” is to attract investments not only from traditional venture funds, but also not very traditional ones, such as SoftBank, sovereign funds, private equity funds, and mutual funds. It is known that Amazon, Microsoft, Cisco and Oracle went on the stock exchange at a valuation of less than one billion dollars, but now these companies together are worth more than two trillion. The geographical coverage of the “unicorn club” is global. The US and China each have 40% of the companies in it. In Europe, the leader is the United Kingdom.

According to CBINSIGHT, as of July 2020, there were 476 unicorn companies in the world. The top 7 include:

Toutiao (Bytedance) (China) – \$ 75 billion

Didi Chuxing (China) - \$ 56 billion

Stripe (USA) - \$ 36 billion

SpaceX (USA) - \$ 36 billion

Palantir Technologies (USA) - \$ 20 billion

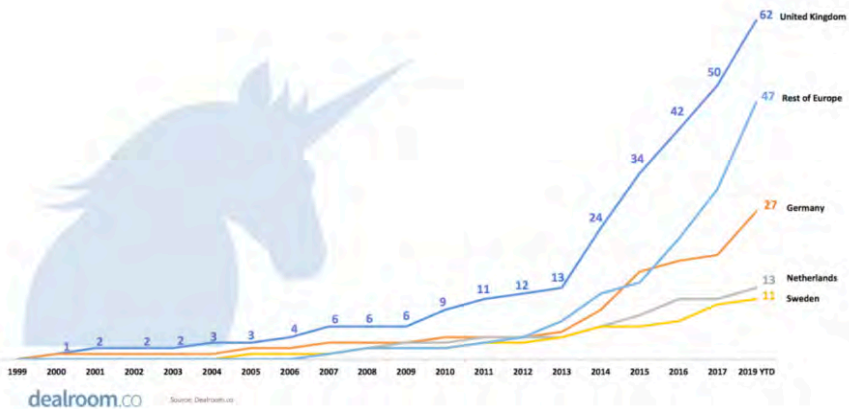
Airbnb (USA) – \$ 18 billion

Kuaishou (China) – \$ 18 billion

Leading “unicorn” Bytedance works in the field of artificial intelligence and manages platforms such as TikTok and Toutiao. The Russian” unicorns “ can be conditionally attributed to the company OCSiAl (Luxembourg), which provided the technology for the synthesis of graphene nanotubes and offered them to consumers at a price 75 times lower than the one that existed at that time on the market. In 2014, this project was invested by Rusnano Corporation, which currently retains a 17.3% stake. According to the data dealroom.com, European unicorns in 2019 included Russia’s Avito, VKontakte, and Yandex.

The example of the “unicorn” companies only adds new colors to the understanding of the complexity of the passage of time. In it, even in the most difficult moments, there are all the signs of striving forward. And time, like a flying arrow, draws a straight line of the movement of society. In time, there

Cumulative number of companies by year in which \$1 billion valuation mark is crossed



Top 10 most expensive startups (according to CB Insights, as of 25.01.2020).

is always space for imagination, for the search for alternatives. This time is subject to people with a parallel type of perception of it. Unicorns and other mythological creatures prove the resilience of cyclical time, in which nothing goes irrevocably, but is able to be reborn on a new turn of history. Sometimes it may seem that some of the valuable actions and attitudes of people that are characteristic of the past have disappeared. But it is enough to turn to the monuments of culture, including extensive mythological material, to understand that the time has not yet come to translate this information into the operational array of our reality, but life will make a few more movements in its own chronological cycle, which only he understands, and then the characters of former times will emerge from the depths of history, regardless of whether they belonged to real history or its mythological side.

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A new phenomenon of the unicorn: the power of myth and its ability to be reborn in old images

Abstract. Mythology allows one to express such ideas of a person about the world around him and about himself, which not only have amazing accuracy, while maintaining imagery. Mythology is also able to provide a key not to a separate perception of the described phenomena, but to present them holistically and in a certain hierarchy. It is no coincidence that myths were created not only in antiquity, but also in subsequent times. Then the myths took on a political or economic character. Nowadays, economic myths dominate, which use images that have been tested for thousands of years. Among them we find the image of the unicorn, which is now used to designate successful companies.

Key words: history, culture, economics, mythology, organizational culture, mass consciousness, unicorn.

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Новый феномен единорога: сила мифа и его способность возрождаться в старых образах

Аннотация. Мифология позволяет выразить такие представления человека об окружающем его мире и о самом себе, которые не только обладают удивительной точностью, сохраняя при этом образность. Мифология также способна дать ключ не к разрозненному восприятию описываемых явлений, а представить их целостно и в определенной иерархии. Не случайно мифы творились не только в древности, но и последующие времена. Тогда мифы приобретали политический или экономический характер. В наши дни господствуют мифы экономические, которые используют апробированные тысячелетиями образы. Среди них мы находим образ единорога, которым теперь обозначают успешные компании.

Ключевые слова: история, культура, экономика, мифология, организационная культура, массово сознание, единорог.

*Social projects
and information technologies*

*Социальные проекты
и информационные технологии*

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**Gender stereotypes
of participation in charitable activities:
material of secondary analysis***

In December 2016, President of the Russian Federation, Vladimir Putin, in his annual Address to the Federal Assembly made a special emphasis on the development of charity in Russia. The Public Chamber was instructed to support charitable movements and non-profit organizations. In December 2018, was approved the Concept for developing Volunteering (voluntary service) in the Russian Federation till 2025.

Charitable activity and philanthropy in modern literature are considered as synonymous concepts. Philanthropic activity is a term that is used to define the process of voluntary do-

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nations or other charity in favour to those in need. The term comes from the fusion of two Greek words: *phileo* (loving, to love) and *anthropos* (human), which can literally be translated as “love for people” or “love for a person”.

Federal Law No.135-FZ of August 11, 1995 (as amended on 5/5/2014) “On Charitable Activity and Charitable Organizations” defines charity as “voluntary activities of citizens and legal entities for the gratuitous transfer of property, including money, to citizens or legal entities, for the selfless performance of work, the provision of services, and the provision of other assistance” [10].

Kislyakov P.A., Shmeleva E.A. note in their work: “Charity, as a form of socially significant activity and pro-social behavior, allows you to show such personal qualities as social responsibility, social reciprocity, social justice, the ability to empathize and readiness to provide assistance to those in need. Being engaged in charity, a person gains self-respect and a sense of self-importance and usefulness [6].

Charity in the modern world is quite common. And it manifests itself not only in being a benefactor – individual behavior of a particular person, but also in corporate projects implemented within the framework of corporate social responsibility in parallel with entrepreneurial activity.

The research in the field of charitable practices note certain features in the behavior of men and women in the process of participating in philanthropic events. Modern ideas about the gender manifestations of private charity are based on the entrenched postulates of differentiation of typical forms of “male” and “female” pro-social behavior, namely, women are more caring, more emotional and more sensitive to the needs of others than men.

At the same time, the researchers note that “the social responsibility of women in entrepreneurship is higher than that of men. The manifestation of this social responsibility is, on the one hand, a focus towards humane management, taking

into account a person in all its manifestations, on the other – a pronounced focus towards social assistance. Women more often become organizers, leaders, full-time employees and activists of charitable organizations, and represent a voluntary unpaid asset of volunteers” [7].

Elyutina M.E, Andronova Yu.E. indicate in their work the gender differences in charitable behavior. According to scientists, “children, the elderly, the disabled, and animals are the main recipients of charity of the interviewed women entrepreneurs, in other words, their efforts are primarily aimed at solving the basic social problems that are directly related to the life and health of the most needy and vulnerable segments of the population and animals. Activities related to the development of culture, art, as well as education, scientific research, turned out to be more significant for male entrepreneurs” [4].

The differences in charitable behavior of men and women are clearly demonstrated by the results of a study on the topic “Russian philanthropist: the importance of personal trust in performers and the expectation of definite results”, conducted in 2017 by the Wealth Management and Philanthropy Center (WMPC) of the Skolkovo Business School (Figure 1).

Similar data were obtained from the results of the study “Private donations in Russia”, conducted in 2018 by the Foundation for the Support and Development of Philanthropy (CAF).

Thus, according to the results, in general, women are more likely than men to make donations (54% of women and 43% of men) (Figure 2).

It can be concluded that the philanthropic efforts of women are primarily aimed at social facilities that are closely related to the life and health of the needy and vulnerable segments of the population.

“In general, gender characteristics are one of the main factors influencing participation in charity. Based on the results of our research, we can conclude that there is a pronounced

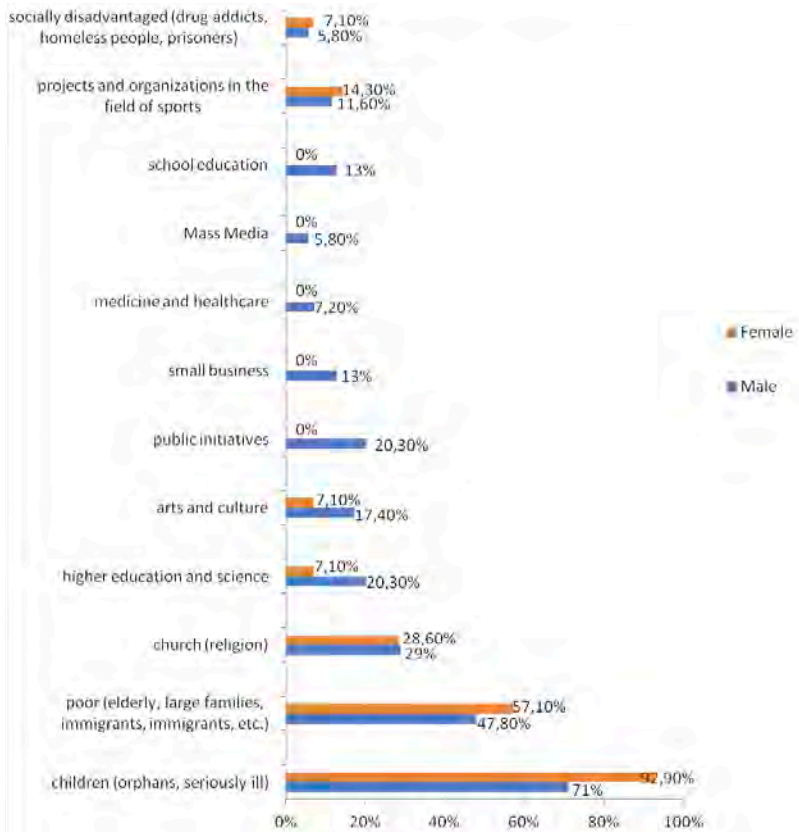


Figure 1. Gender differences in the choice of the recipient of charitable assistance, a study of the WMPC, %. Source: [9].

susceptibility of women entrepreneurs to participate in charitable activities. Their motivation is based mainly on ethical values and has a pronounced emotional component. For male entrepreneurs, pragmatic aspects are important, based on a rational comparison of the expected costs and benefits of various types of charitable activity, related to image, competitiveness, and rating” [4].

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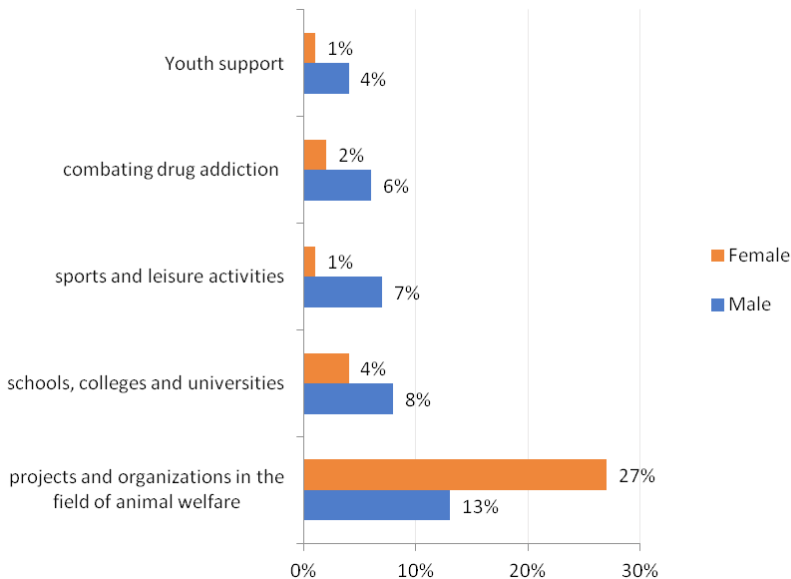


Figure 2. Gender differences in the choice of the recipient of charitable assistance, CAF study, %. Source: [5].

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Gender stereotypes of participation in charitable activities: material of secondary analysis

Abstract. The article deals with the issues of gender differences in philanthropic activities. On the basis of the secondary analysis is carried out a review of scientific works devoted to the practice of charity in the gender context. The article presents the data of sociological studies reflecting the characteristics of men and women in the choice of recipients of charitable assistance, volunteering, etc.

Key words: gender, sex, man, woman, charity, philanthropic activity.

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Гендерные стереотипы участия в благотворительной деятельности: материал вторичного анализа

Аннотация. В статье рассматриваются вопросы гендерных различий в благотворительной деятельности. На основе вторичного анализа проведен обзор научных работ, посвященных практике благотворительности в гендерном контексте. В статье представлены данные социологических исследований, отражающих особенности мужчин и женщин при выборе получателей благотворительной помощи, волонтерства и др.

Ключевые слова: гендер, пол, мужчина, женщина, благотворительность, благотворительная деятельность.

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Research activities among students: involvement, causes and prospects*

Research activities among young people are becoming an increasingly important aspect for the life of the University, the region and the country as a whole. The need for qualified personnel with the potential to introduce innovative developments is the most urgent and the importance of this direction is increasingly important for the development of the country. Even if there will be more specialists of the necessary profile in the regional markets, who are fond of their field of activity. But despite the growing technical and organizational requirements for Universities, there is insufficient motivation of students to participate in science.

It is necessary to consider that the motivating factor for involvement in research activities current students, to disclose the source of the difficulties, to identify features of the assistance to Universities research activities of students, to determine the features of obtaining the students information about opportunities to participate in research activities to establish students ' attitudes to the prospects of participation in research activities.

A sociological study was conducted, where the theoretical object in this case was the student youth involved in research activities, and the empirical object-students of bachelor's and

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master's degrees of a large regional University of the Tula region (TSU).

Mass survey through Google forms was chosen as a method of research. This tool was used based on the fact that it is the most flexible – it is possible to fill out the form at any time, which is convenient for students. It is also possible to distribute the survey among the elders of different groups, which contributes to the search for scientifically active students.

114 respondents participated in the survey. The majority of respondents were female (60.5 per cent), respectively, the men's was 39.5%. The number of full years was mainly 23 years (36,8%), also many were 22 years (31,6%). 5.3% of respondents are 21 years old and 7.9% are 24 years old.

All of them to some extent take an active part in the research life of Tula State University. Most often, respondents noted such types of involvement as "Writing scientific articles" (78.9%) and "Attending scientific events (forums, round tables)" (63.2%). It should be noted that in this question several variants of answers could be noted at once, and the combination of these two was the most frequent (36 respondents). Less popular activities are such areas as "research" (13.6%) and "Participation in laboratory experiments" (13.2%). 27 respondents said that they conduct research and are engaged in writing scientific articles.

Most of the respondents (55.3%) noted that this type of activity is necessary in the framework of training: writing Final Qualifying Work, getting credit for disciplines. Also popular is the second option, which is often noted - "Opportunity to receive an increased academic scholarship" (47.4%). Less popular were the answers "I need It for future work" (34,%), "This is a way of self-realization, communication" (26,3%).

Young people most often take part in research activities only 1-2 times a year (55.3%). At the same time, 28.9% noted that they participate in 3-4 events a year and 15.8% of respondents attend more than 5 events a year.

It is necessary to clarify what affects the involvement in research activities within the framework of the above question. More than half of the respondents (57.9%) said that they take the initiative on their own. Also, many respondents (36,8) claim that teachers recommend them to take part in research activities. Some (5.3%) were interested on the advice of friends and acquaintances. None of the respondents said that research is one of the conditions of the employer, and the answer “My family insists on doing science” was not chosen by anyone.

It is necessary to consider what is the main reason for maintaining this type of activity among the students of Tula State University.

A significant part of respondents (63.2%) claim that diplomas (letters of thanks, certificates, diplomas, etc.) motivate to engage in research activities. Having analyzed the correlation between this question and the question of the type of scientific activity, it can be noted that to a greater extent (50%) this method of motivation affects those students who take part in writing scientific papers. To a lesser extent (2.6%) they are interesting to those who are engaged in laboratory experiments and experiments.

It is important to pay attention to the capabilities of the University, when investigating the degree of involvement and motivational components, which should contribute to this. To the question “Do you think Tula State University is sufficiently equipped with resources for research activities?” 65.8% of respondents answered in the negative. To a greater extent, young people who participate in laboratory experiments and experiments are satisfied with the equipment of TSU, while representatives of all other species noted the opposite.

According to the results of the correlation analysis, between “Participation in laboratory experiments” and “Assessment of the level of equipment of the University” there is a weak correlation significant at the level of 0.01. The more of-

ten students participate in laboratory experiments, the more highly they evaluate the level of equipment, the less often, the lower. If we consider this correlation proportionally, the students engaged in writing articles are more dissatisfied with the equipment.

Within the framework of this issue, it is necessary to study in detail what aspects students are dissatisfied with and what specialties.

The equipment of the educational institution for the presence of technical equipment was estimated in the majority of respondents (39.5%) at 3 out of 5, where 1 – the lowest score, 5 – the highest.

A significant part (31.6%) believes that the university is equipped with the indicator “2”, 23.7 – “4”. 2.5% of respondents rated the university’s equipment for the presence of technical equipment at “1” and “5”.

Most satisfied with this factor are those who are engaged in research. This category of youth is the only one that did not give the highest rating of “5” and the lowest “1”, but also gave the least rating of “2”. Similar data have those respondents who conduct laboratory experiments, but they are more likely to assess the technical equipment on the “2”. A small part (2.6%) of respondents who are engaged in writing scientific articles rated the technical equipment of the University at “1”, in General, as the analysis of conjugacy shows, they are less satisfied with this component. Some part (also 2.6%) attending the events were rated “1” and “5”, while the rest were almost equally distributed according to the remaining indicators.

An important factor is the equipment of laboratories in higher education. 42.1% of respondents rated this parameter “3”. Similar to the previous indicator of equipment, the second most popular is the indicator “2” (26.3%) and the third “4” – 18.4%. 10.5% of the respondents rated the equipment of laboratories as the lowest indicator – “1”, while 2.6% rated it as “5”.

Considering this aspect based on the type of research activ-

ities, it can be noted that the “excellent” appreciated the equipment of the laboratory those students who attend the event. The “4” was evaluated mainly by those who are directly affected by this indicator-participants of experiments and laboratory experiments. They’re not given the lowest rating, in contrast to the other directions. To a lesser extent, the equipment of laboratories satisfies those students who conduct research. In relation to other activities, they rated the criterion at “1” and “2” the most.

It is also necessary to assess such a parameter, which will be more significant for those who participate in the event, because such respondents are the majority.

Exactly half of the students rated the equipment of TSU in terms of the number of conference rooms and their equipment at “4”. Equally (by 15.8%) this criterion was evaluated by respondents on “2”, “3” and “4”. And only 3 people (2.6 percent) rated as “1”.

Considering this criterion, depending on the type of involvement in research activities, it is worth noting that to a greater extent, the equipment of conference rooms are satisfied with those students who participate in laboratory experiments and experiments, they in equal shares (5.3%) rated this parameter at “3”, “4” and “5”. Less satisfied are those who attend events. Despite the fact that 2.6% of respondents rated “1”, 13.2% rated “2” and this is more than in other activities, not only proportionally, but also as a percentage.

Thus, according to students, the university is equipped with technical equipment and laboratories on average “3”. Conference rooms were marked to a greater extent - on the “4”. Most often, students who participate in laboratory experiments and experiments were more satisfied, they put higher marks, while those who are engaged in scientific activities assessed the equipment more critically-the prevailing rating is “3”.

It is necessary to pay attention not only to equipment, but also to a number of motivational programs. The survey found

that 7.9% of students surveyed are unaware that student activity in research activities is encouraged.

For 92.1% of respondents, an additional question was asked: "What forms of encouragement are your priorities? (specify no more than 2 options)". In 92,3% of percent the increased academic scholarship interests-this variant of the answer was present or in single number, in a smaller part in aggregate with one of two following. 38.5% are interested in health trips from the University, and 23.1% rely on grant support for young scientists, which is requested by TSU.

Increased academic scholarship interested mainly those students who participate in the writing of scientific articles (48.2%), this point is also expressed proportionally. To a lesser extent, the scholarship is of interest to students participating in laboratory experiments (5.3%). Wellness trips are one of the predominant responses among those who write articles (21.1%), as well as among those who conduct research (13.3%). Grant support to a greater degree (13.2 percent) are interested in those places of the event.

As part of this aspect, it is necessary to return to question 3 and examine the reasons for involvement in research activities in relation to the types of material incentives. It can be noted that the increased academic scholarship is a priority (34.2%) for those who need to be active in the framework of writing Final Qualifying Work, getting credit in disciplines and so on. That is, students are more involved directly in the educational process, which directly depends on the type and size of the scholarship. To a lesser extent, the increased scholarship is of interest to those who are engaged in research activities for the sake of communication with people and self-realization (21.1%), as well as those who need it for their future profession (16.7%). Participation in health trips is mainly a priority for those who began to be interested in research activities precisely because of the higher scholarship and participation in internships (23.7%). Absolutely (0%) are

not interested in trips of those who are engaged in science for future work, portfolio, etc.

Considering the grant support, it is easy to note that the majority (10.5%) of respondents interested in it are interested in scientific activities for self-realization and communication. To a lesser extent (2.6%) it interested those who were interested precisely because of the increased scholarship, because the grant is issued for a completely different type of work on the project.

The information part is the most important, as it was revealed earlier that students take the initiative in participating independently, at least - on the instructions of the supervisor. The study also needed to determine what sources students use and what is more of a priority for them. Thus, the majority of 81.6% learn about research activities in the educational institution, 13.2% draw information from national sources, the rest – from regional. In this case, it is obvious that the equipment of the regional base of research activities is absent, because 5.2% compared to 13.2% at the national level – a small figure, at best, they had to be built in the opposite way.

Let's consider how students who are engaged in one or another type of scientific activity receive information. It should be noted that the information source of the University is a priority for everyone, and the highest priority (63.2%) for those who write scientific articles.

The regional source is used equally (2.6%) by all, except those who conduct research – they prefer the all-Russian source to a greater extent (10.5%), because it is likely that the regional source will not be informative for them.

To what extent is the University equipped to facilitate the receipt of information from various sources. To do this, it is necessary to evaluate the equipment as a whole with the source of information. To a greater extent (52.5%) in the case of the internal distribution of information, as well as in the

regional (2.6%) and all-Russian (10.5%), not enough information is distributed to TSU.

Consider where we address the students of the TSU, if you get the information directly from the University. Most often it is the employees of the organization (40.6%), 31.3% of respondents said that it is with the help of social networks (often departments lead their own group, where they spread the profile information of the research profile), and less effective was the site (28.1%) which could be a more convenient and extensive information platform.

Respondents rated the availability of information about upcoming research activities on a 5-point scale, where 1 is very easy to find information, and 5 is very difficult. The predominant number of responses (36.8%) rated the availability of information at "3", 34.2% answered "4", 13.2% indicated "2", and an equal part of respondents (7.9% each) indicated the most extreme options- "1" and "5". In General, it can be noted that obtaining information causes difficulties for respondents.

As part of the conjugacy analysis, it was found that those who write scientific articles experience more significant difficulties – 26.3% of respondents rated it "4" (difficult) and 5.3% as "5" (very difficult). Also, this group of respondents for the most part (31.6%) rated availability at "3" (average). Anyway, some respondents who write articles and participate in events find information much easier than students with other areas. They are in equal proportion at 5.3 percent indicated "1" (very easy) and 7.2% indicated "2" (easy). Respondents participating in laboratory experiments do not experience extreme difficulty or ease in finding information, the predominant number of respondents in this type of activity (7.9) rated availability at "3" (average). Those who conduct research have difficulties in finding information, because 15.8% of respondents rated this criterion "4" (difficult).

Comparing the question about the source of information on upcoming research activities and assessment of accessibil-

ity you notice that it is easier to find information in higher education. On “1” and “2” (easy and very easy) rated by 7.9% of respondents. Nevertheless, this category has impressive difficulties (34.2% rated it “4” (difficult) and 5.3% rated it “5”).

Obtaining information from a regional source on the responses of respondents in an equal proportion (2.6%) is more difficult than not. Respondents who draw information from all-Russian sources rated the availability of information in the University mainly (7.9%) at “3” (average).

Thus, it can be noted that the problem of obtaining information about events is significant. Most students in all areas of research are guided by information from the University, particularly from staff who can most often advise on internal activities. The opportunity to get information about regional events is low, and it is lower than the prevalence of information about national events.

Also, as part of the motivational component, much attention is paid to the attitude of young people to research activities in General. 76.3% of respondents said that it is prestigious to engage in research activities. Most often (42,1%) so consider those who are involved in this type of activity for writing Final Qualifying Work and other educational forms. Also, 15.8% of respondents of this type of activity noted that it is not prestigious. Only 2.6% of respondents who are interested in self-realization and communication with people said that it is not prestigious and this is the minimum percentage.

To the question “Is it promising to engage in research activities in your opinion”, the majority (42.1%) of respondents answered “Yes”. Also, the majority (31.6%) chose the answer “Rather Yes than no”. 21.1% of respondents said “Rather no than Yes” and a minority (5.2%) said “No”. Most often, it is considered a hopeless direction for those who are engaged in science because of their studies (18.4% answered “Rather no than Yes”) and those who prioritize increased scholarships and internships (7.9% answered “Rather no than Yes”

and 2.6% answered “No”). Those who are involved coming down because of future employment and portfolio consider research activities a promising direction and answered “ Yes “ in 21.1% of cases.

Respondents who considered research activities unpromising, or rather not promising in 81.8% of cases said that this problem is associated with low wages of researchers. 63.3% of the answers were related to the fact that the degree of demand for specialists of this profile is small. Part of the answers (45.5%) is related to the fact that the use of professional skills is limited and only 9.1% said that there is a high competition in employment.

Such statistics reflect that most often students involved in science during their studies believe that the remuneration of researchers is low (15.8%). They're to a greater extent (8.8 per cent) believe that the experts are not in demand and skills are restricted (to 6.1%). People who seek self-realization and communicate with people through involvement in science equally (2.6%) claim that wages are really low and demand is small, but the indicator in this category of involvement is the lowest compared to others.

To the question “Do you Plan to continue to be active in research activities after graduation?” respondents most often gave the answer “Rather Yes than no” - 34.2% and “Rather no than Yes” -28.9%. The affirmative answer was received in 26.3% of cases, 10.5% of respondents do not plan to continue their activity.

Research activities as a future profession are equally viewed by respondents (21.1%) as positive and negative. Also, the option “Rather Yes than no” is also 21.1%. But the majority of 36.8% rather do not consider science as a profession.

To a greater extent (13.2%) the choice in favor of science is made by those who conduct research. Those who write articles, most often (34.2%) answer “Rather no than Yes” and” No” in 13.2% of cases. Also, science is not a priority as a pro-

fession for those who attend events (21.1%- “Rather no than Yes”, 10.5%- “No”).

Considering the reasons for involvement in science, it can be concluded that those respondents who see it as a way of self-realization and communication want to associate their career with it to a greater extent (13.2%). Most often, those who are involved in science because of training answer a categorical “No” in 13.2% of cases and “Rather no than Yes” in 26.3%. Those who need it for work respond both positively and negatively, which equates the overall percentage for this reason of involvement. Those who are interested in scholarships and internships tend rather to the negative answer.

The survey was conducted among specialists of different profiles. The vast majority of respondents identified themselves as technical (42.1%), many also studied in the Humanities (36.8%), medical and biological students also participated in the number of 13.2% of the total number of respondents. 7.9% of respondents study in the socio-economic direction.

Most of the respondents are undergraduates (68.4%) and bachelors (13.2%). Residency and postgraduate studies for 7.9% of respondents, specialty-only 3 people (2.6%).

Most often students of humanitarian and technical profile equally (28.9%) are engaged in writing scientific articles. Less often-participate in laboratory experiments and experiments (2.6% humanitarian and 5.3% technical). Students of socio-economic profile mostly write articles (7.9%) but are active in other types of scientific activity equally (2.6%). Students of natural science profile participate in laboratory experiments and attend events (2.6%). Respondents from the medical and biological direction are more likely to write articles (10.5%) and attend events (7.9%). Less often they participate in laboratory experiments and experiments (2.6%), research is carried out actively by 5.3% of respondents.

The availability of information about research activities is

best reflected in the responses of respondents of natural science profile- “2” (easy) answered 2.6% of respondents. Socio-economic profile has difficulty finding information, the average score is “3”. The situation is similar in medical and biological, because some respondents experience difficulties, and some do not (5.3%).

Technical specialties find information more difficult than easy, respondents often rated “3”, a little less “4”(hard). For the humanitarian profile, there are also difficulties, 13.2% answered “4”, it is also difficult for them to search for information.

Among the respondents, 1st year students were 26.3% (18.4% - undergraduates, 7.9% - specialty), 52.6% are 2nd year students (50% - undergraduates, 2.6% - graduate students), 5.3% - 3rd year undergraduate students, and 15.8% of 4th year students participated in the survey (10.5% - undergraduate, 2.6% - graduate, 2.6% - specialty).

Assessing the availability of information about research activities, it should be noted that students of the 1st year (masters, specialty) experience less difficulties than others (5.3% said that the information to look for “1” (very easy) and “2” (easy). Less favorable conditions have students 2 - ‘s rates – the search for information for them in 21,1% cases harder average. 3 course (5.6%) is a bachelor’s degree where the position is average (2.6% each answered both “easy” and “hard”), similar to 4 courses.

Based on the data obtained, it can be concluded that the motivation of students in research activities is relatively low. Most often, students begin to engage in this activity by the end of the University at the first stage – bachelor’s degree. Mainly, these works are necessary for them in the magistracy, than there is a high percentage of answers to the question about the reasons for doing science – it is necessary for studying, writing Final Qualifying Work and passing credit disciplines. Here it is worth noting that the majority take the initiative in this activi-

ty on their own, and a slightly smaller number of respondents claim to be involved on the advice of a teacher, supervisor.

Only a few students plan to pursue science further and do not consider this type of activity promising, most often due to low wages. Many participate in various activities only for the material benefit that the University can allocate.

In rare cases, there is a desire to develop their intellectual abilities, interest in scientific conferences and their own desire to study problems.

Nevertheless, in the process of scientific activity there are a number of reasons that can cause demotivation of students. In General, many noted that the state of the classrooms, tools, equipment and other necessary materials and facilities for science students enough, this applies to both the humanitarian profile, and to the technical, scientific and natural profile. Conditions for medical students less satisfactory.

However, there is another problem that can be described as more critical. Many students replied that it was difficult for them to get information about research activities. Most often they receive it at the Department from their teachers. In this case, it can really cause difficulties, because the teacher can independently transmit information to students enrolled in specific courses and specialties. Also, he may not know about most of the activities, because it may be either not reported for him, or simply there is no time for reporting.

The low degree of involvement due to a lack of information and high degree of resource limitation, partly may be improved through the establishment of special information platforms, since the introduction of regional Internet resource that is not currently, will increase the motivation of students in research activities.

Within the educational institution and at the regional level, it is recommended to hold their own events that can attract participants not only once, but also to interest them in this type of activity in General for a longer period. This direction

will set the status of the region, where you can get a better education and acquire knowledge.

At the level of public administration: it is necessary to increase funding for higher education in Russia, which will be aimed at directly increasing interest in science. In this case, special attention should be paid to two aspects: the social status of the scientist, the prestige of the profession and the introduction of various benefits for teachers, as well as to improve working conditions and update tools, repair laboratories, purchase of new equipment.

Popularization of the direction through the placement of information in the media, presence on youth websites and forums can significantly change the attitude of young people, because often students are more involved in science on their own initiative, which is an important fact.

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Research activities among students: involvement, causes and prospects

Abstract. The article reveals the motivational aspects of student youth participation in one of the most significant and important directions for modern Russia—research activities. The author conducted a sociological study, a mass survey on the Internet by means of Google forms. The motives of students, their attitude to science, as well as the most problematic aspects of involvement in research activities were identified after analyzing the answers of the responses, as well as evaluating their relationship with the help of correlations and conjugation tables. This made it possible to develop recommendations for optimizing this direction and to initiate the development of a project that contributes to increasing interest.

Key words: student youth, types of scientific activity, prospects of science, motivation of youth, scientific activity, research activity, popularization, project activity, innovative developments, educational activity, prestige of science, perspective of science.

Лабзина И.А.

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Исследовательская деятельность учащихся: участие, причины и перспективы

Аннотация. В статье раскрываются мотивационные аспекты участия студенческой молодежи в одном из наиболее значимых и важных направлений современной научно-исследовательской деятельности России. Автор провел социологическое исследование, массовый опрос в Интернете с помощью форм Google. Мотивы студентов, их отношение к науке, а также наиболее проблемные аспекты участия в исследовательской деятельности были выявлены после анализа ответов ответов, а также оценки их взаимосвязи с помощью корреляций и таблиц сопряжения. Это дало возможность разработать рекомендации по оптимизации этого направления и инициировать развитие проекта, способствующего повышению интереса.

Ключевые слова: студенческая молодежь, виды научной деятельности, перспективы науки, мотивация молодежи, научная деятельность, исследовательская деятельность, популяризация, проектная деятельность, инновационные разработки, образовательная деятельность, престиж науки, перспективы науки.

Abstracts

Hartmut Elsenhans

European integration at the crossroads. Part 3.

The process of European integration is in crisis. This crisis is not the result of social, political and economic tendencies that have emerged only recently. In fact, the inner contradictions of European integration have been apparent since its beginning.

Key words: Europe, Russia, integration, society, analysis.

Devyatov R.S.

The problematic field of national cultures in the era of globalization

The article substantiates the possibility and necessity of implementing the state cultural policy taking into account international experience. The existing prerequisites for a decrease in the role of national states and the fact that globalization has created a cultural context for the rapid and effective exchange of cultural content entails inevitable changes in the very attitude of the state and society to culture. It is concluded that the attention to cultural policy on the part of the state and the main political figures will constantly increase as the globalization processes intensify.

Key words: cultural policy, models of cultural policy, national cultures, globalization.

Ternovaya L.O.

A new phenomenon of the unicorn: the power of myth and its ability to be reborn in old images

Mythology allows one to express such ideas of a person about the world around him and about himself, which not only have amazing accuracy, while maintaining imagery. Mythology is also able to provide a key not to a separate perception of the described phenomena, but to present them holistically and in a certain hierarchy. It is no coincidence that myths were created not only in antiquity, but also in subsequent times. Then the myths took on a political or economic character. Nowadays, economic myths dominate, which use images that have been tested for thousands of years. Among them we find the image of the unicorn, which is now used to designate successful companies.

Key words: history, culture, economics, mythology, organizational culture, mass consciousness, unicorn.

Gorsky A.A.

Ananchenkova P.I.

Brostrem V.O.

**Gender stereotypes of participation
in charitable activities: material of secondary analysis**

The article deals with the issues of gender differences in philanthropic activities. On the basis of the secondary analysis is carried out a review of scientific works devoted to the practice of charity in the gender context. The article presents the data of sociological studies reflecting the characteristics of men and women in the choice of recipients of charitable assistance, volunteering, etc.

Key words: gender, sex, man, woman, charity, philanthropic activity.

Labzina I.A.

**Research activities among students:
involvement, causes and prospects**

The article reveals the motivational aspects of student youth participation in one of the most significant and important directions for modern Russia-research activities. The author conducted a sociological study, a mass survey on the Internet by means of Google forms. The motives of students, their attitude to science, as well as the most problematic aspects of involvement in research activities were identified after analyzing the answers of the responses, as well as evaluating their relationship with the help of correlations and conjugation tables. This made it possible to develop recommendations for optimizing this direction and to initiate the development of a project that contributes to increasing interest.

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Аннотации

Хартмут Эльзенханс

Европейская интеграция на перепутье. Часть 3.

Процесс европейской интеграции переживает кризис. Этот кризис не является результатом социальных, политических и экономических тенденций, которые возникли совсем недавно. Фактически, внутренние противоречия европейской интеграции были очевидны с самого ее начала. Некоторое время они не создавали проблем.

Ключевые слова: Европа, Россия, интеграция, общество, анализ.

Девятов Р.С.

Проблемное поле национальных культур в эпоху глобализации

В статье обосновывается возможность и необходимость реализации государственной культурной политики с учетом международного опыта. Существующие предпосылки уменьшения роли национальных государств и тот факт, что глобализация создала культурный контекст для быстрого и эффективного обмена культурным содержанием, влечет за собой неизбежные изменения в самом отношении государства и общества к культуре. Делается вывод о том, что внимание к культурной политике со стороны государства и основных политических акторов по мере усиления глобализационных процессов будет постоянно нарастать.

Ключевые слова: культурная политика, модели культурной политики, национальные культуры, глобализация.

Терновая Л.О.

Новый феномен единорога: сила мифа и его способность возрождаться в старых образах

Мифология позволяет выразить такие представления человека об окружающем его мире и о самом себе, которые не только обладают удивительной точностью, сохраняя при этом образность. Мифология также способна дать ключ не к разрозненному восприятию описываемых явлений, а представить их целостно и в определенной иерархии. Не случайно мифы творились не только в древности, но и последующие времена. Тогда мифы приобретали политический или экономический характер. В наши дни господствуют мифы экономические, которые используют апробированные тысячелетиями обра-

зы. Среди них мы находим образ единорога, которым теперь обозначают успешные компании.

Ключевые слова: история, культура, экономика, мифология, организационная культура, массово сознание, единорог.

Горский А.А.

Ананченкова П.И.

Брострем В.О.

Гендерные стереотипы участия в благотворительной деятельности: материал вторичного анализа

В статье рассматриваются вопросы гендерных различий в благотворительной деятельности. На основе вторичного анализа проведен обзор научных работ, посвященных практике благотворительности в гендерном контексте. В статье представлены данные социологических исследований, отражающих особенности мужчин и женщин при выборе получателей благотворительной помощи, волонтерства и др.

Ключевые слова: гендер, пол, мужчина, женщина, благотворительность, благотворительная деятельность.

Лабзина И.А.

Исследовательская деятельность учащихся: участие, причины и перспективы

В статье раскрываются мотивационные аспекты участия студенческой молодежи в одном из наиболее значимых и важных направлений современной научно-исследовательской деятельности России. Автор провел социологическое исследование, массовый опрос в Интернете с помощью форм Google. Мотивы студентов, их отношение к науке, а также наиболее проблемные аспекты участия в исследовательской деятельности были выявлены после анализа ответов ответов, а также оценки их взаимосвязи с помощью корреляций и таблиц сопряжения. Это дало возможность разработать рекомендации по оптимизации этого направления и инициировать развитие проекта, способствующего повышению интереса.

Ключевые слова: студенческая молодежь, виды научной деятельности, перспективы науки, мотивация молодежи, научная деятельность, исследовательская деятельность, популяризация, проектная деятельность, инновационные разработки, образовательная деятельность, престиж науки, перспективы науки.

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