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Saratov State University

Presenting
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В данном сборнике опубликованы материалы участников гуманитарной секции
научной конференции «Presenting Academic Achievements to the World», которая состо-
ялась в Саратовском государственном университете 29–30 марта 2010 года. В сборник
включены статьи с результатами в области истории, социологии, филологии, экономи-
ки, юриспруденции и психологии.
Для преподавателей и студентов гуманитарных факультетов и институтов.

This publication assembles papers given at the conference for young scientists
«Presenting Academic Achievements to the World» which was held in March 29-30, 2010 at
Saratov State University. The articles present the results in such fields of humanities as
History, Sociology, Philology, Economy, Law, and Psychology.

Работа издана в авторской редакции

ENGLISH ARISTOCRATIC WOMAN IN THE BEGINNING OF THE XVI CENTURY: EVERYDAY COMMUNICATION AND FIELD OF ACTIVITY

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History has been changing, and we have a lot of new themes for studying. Gender history is one of the new trends. European scholars were the pioneers in this field which they began to study in the 60s of the XX century. Now the German school of the Gender Studies is the most advanced in the West. They have worked out the conception, a big amount of theoretical questions and gender terminology. In Russia women's and gender history is rather young, the first publications appeared in the beginning of the 1990s that is why our History school suffers the lack of bibliography. The first Russian specialists developed the Medieval and Early Modern periods, the reason for that is the variety of sources. Now the most fruitful and successful Russian specialists are L.P. Pepina, A.S. Souprianovitch, who consider the main theoretical questions and women's destinies.

It is important to say that the XVI century was rather difficult and ambiguous in the English history: Henry VIII's reign, cruelty and omnipotence, or the king's chief ministers Tomas Voulsy and Thomas Cromwell, the Break with Catholic Rome. It was also a transitional period for English economy and social structure, when traditional estates seemed to change their functions: an average peasant could become a gentry- a kind of a nobleman, and an aristocrat could lose the power and landowning. It is very important to study the aristocrats' position and the place of a woman in that society.

This work is divided into four parts: description of the sources, people, who were mentioned there, then everyday communication and occupation of a noblewoman.

We have used *Lady Lisle's correspondence* as a source for this work, which is only a part of the whole correspondence of the Lisle family. It is dated back to 1530-1540. The letters were published in English in 1981 at the University of Chicago by Muriel St.Claire Burne and only 10 of them were translated into Russian by E.V. Dvoinina and L.N. Chernova and then published.

Lady Honor Lisle lived during the period of 1493–1566. She was a daughter of the Cornish knight John Grenville, who was close to the Court and was a rich landowner in Cornwall and Devon. His first wife Isabell bore him 7 children, Honor was one of the youngest. According to the publisher of the letters she was a religious woman, read the Bible, matins books, but "she had lack of education".

Her first husband was a rich knight John Basset from Devon and they had 3 sons and 4 daughters. After his death in 1528 her jointure included the manors of Tehidy, Trevalga and Fermarshall, Devon, Umberleigh and others. All this gave her about £200 a year to provide for her family, including the two stepdaughters.

In 1529 when she was 38, she married her second husband Arthur Plantagenet, Viscount Lisle, an illegitimate son of the English king Edward IV. This marriage brought her into the Court. Arthur was Henry VIII's uncle, the Knight of Garter, Vice-Admiral of England, Lord Deputy of Calais. But in 1540 he was arrested at suspicion of treason, on the charge of plotting to betray the town to the French. He died of a heart attack in the Tower of London in 1541 or 1542. The whole family correspondence was confiscated, and this helped to preserve all these letters (even a bill for shoe leather).

It is not a secret that the most important sphere of people's life is communication with others, especially for women. But during the Middle Ages and the Modern History when a woman was considered to be only a housewife, Lady Honor had connections with relatives, servants and neighbors. But she wasn't an ordinary noblewoman and her connections included representatives of different estates. Properly speaking, Lady Honor's correspondence is dated back to 1531-1533. We have 51 letters, two of which were written by Dame Honor. Firstly, we have to say that she did not write her letters herself but she dictated them and her signature suggested that she handled the pen with difficulty. There are only 2 letters of which she is a sender. She wrote to **Thomas Cromwell** who was Henry VIII's chief minister from 1532 to 1540. He was one of the strongest advocates of the English Reformation, the break of the English Church with Catholic Rome. If we look at the letters we will see that 12 of them were written by clergymen of all ranges; 36 by seculars: relatives, neighbors, landlords and courtiers. This leads us to the conclusion that this woman had rather a wide sphere of communication.

Speaking about Lady Lisle's activities we can divided them into two parts: housekeeping and public life.

We will first consider **housekeeping.**

Lady Honor looked after her family estates and lands herself. We can find this information in the letters of the bailiff (the landowner's manager) and her faithful servant John Davy, John Bonde, a priest in Umberleigt and William Seller from Soberton – a servant. These letters show us that the state of things in the family was not very good. John Bonde [1] wrote in one of his letters, that the homestead in Umberleigh had to be repaired and "thatched houses had to be newly covered" but it cost a lot. John Davy [2] is considered to be the chief manager and he received the Books of accounts from all Lisle's households. But he did not mention the sums. William Seller [3] reported to Lady Honor about the harvest of wheat, yarn, how many hogs and swans were sold. For example, "The sum of wheat sown is 11 quarter…I've killed 3 of your hogs; the salt cost 1 pound…" and so on.

Her other activity which was a privilege only for some families was breeding deer. During the War of Roses a lot of deer, the symbol of English aristocracy, were almost exterminated. When Henry VII came to the throne, he made stealing or killing of these animals a criminal offence and the right for breeding was given only to a few families, including The Lisles. To get deer from these owners for a present was very honorable.

It's extremely important to speak about her communication with relatives. In their letters they thanked the Lady for venison, fish and other food supplies or just asked for help. For example, her brother's wife Margaret Grenville [4] in the letter of 26 August 1532 told Honor about her health and asked for giving a job to one of Margaret's servant.

From John Norton's [5], a purser, and James Hawkesworth's [6], (he identified himself as a "*ser*vand") letters we learn that Lady Lisle had her own vessel on which she made at least one trading venture. We can suppose that she was trying to increase the family income.

The next point of this work is Honor's social life and her activities in different circles of society.

The most remarkable thing is the correspondence with courtiers. It is extremely important to emphasize the fact that Honor Lisle wrote to Thomas Cromwell twice. The reasons for this letters were the same – asking for help. In the first one she wrote about a widow, who found herself in a difficult situation: her husband died granting her rather a big jointure, she had a difficult child birth and in addition one of Cromwell's servants Laurence Courtenay "purchased an injunction out of the king's Court of his Chancery [7], to void out of her inhabitation and lends incontinent upon the sight of the said injunction'[8]. Lady Lisle asked for help to influence Laurence. In the second she wrote about a man who killed another man but "hath a pardon". But the Abbot of Bruton did not recognize it [9]. Richard Green, a historian of the end of the XIX century, wrote that Thomas Cromwell was thought to be a protector of the offended.

But we cannot say that Lady Lisle was one of them. She was a representative of the English aristocracy and a wife of the Lord Deputy, who could write to the heads of the English realm.

George Taylor [10], a servant of Anne Boleyn, also wrote about "his mistress' and the Court. But it was not allowed to touch upon any political questions or the Reformation, and the letters concerned mostly the events of everyday life. In some letters he spoke about the King's and the Queen's voyages, their happiness and so on. It is obvious that Honor had access to the Court and the courtiers were glad to tell her about every event which took place there.

Another part of her life was connected with giving a hand and protection to other people: for example to find a job for servants or to protect the offended. A big part of the letters contains this information.

Since 1532 the Lisle family lived in Calais, because Lord Lisle became the Deputy of Calais – the King's Representative. Because of his position at the court a lot of people asked the Lady for news from this town. We can make a conclusion that Dame Honor had this information and could answer these questions.

Thus, we tried to analyze all the letters, and can say that this woman of the early Modern Ages had rather a wide range of duties and an active social life. During the Medieval Period a woman was considered to be only a housekeeper, a wife and a mother, even noblewomen had no rights to have relations with other people, except their neighbors: Lord Chancellor, the courtiers, other aristocrats. But the Dame had connections with the most powerful people of her time, had a lot of duties, not only housekeeping, and was rather a famous woman in the society of that time. She was a business woman, who looked after the lands and her children's heritage; also she had time for helping her husband in his affairs. Looking backward we can say that the formal norms of the society were very strict but there were a lot of exceptions as well – Dame Honor was one of them.

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PROFESSIONAL EVERYDAY LIFE OF SCIENTISTS
OF SARATOV UNIVERSITY IN THE 1920-S

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Everyday history, scientists in province, professional everyday life,
the scientific corporation.

The everyday history has recently become an actual trend in a historical science. Such interest to the given theme, in my opinion, is not casual. It is caused first of all by possibility to look in a new way at an essence of the historical phenomena through the prism of perception of the concrete person, the contemporary of a studied epoch. It allows the historian to consider past events free from whatever standard models and stamps which, undoubtedly, makes the research more objective.

Studying everyday history includes the consideration of such an important problem as professional everyday life. Professional everyday life considers the structure of scientific corporation and dynamics of its changes (especially the influence of the power, ideology and other scientists). Special attention in this work will be given to professional daily practice of scientists of Saratov University.

The twenty years period between the Civil war and the Second World War in the history of universities was characterized by special difficulties. During this period attempts to narrow the role of universities were undertaken repeatedly, to alienate scientist from research, to reduce the admission of applicant to a minimum and even to ban their existence completely. Teaching personnel of the universities was exposed to cleaning and repressions several times, the staff was almost completely updated and not always it brought positive results [7, P.86].

Saratov province turned out to be one of those which suffered most from burdens of the Civil war and the poor harvest of 1921. The situation was aggravated by the strongest famine and epidemics of typhus and cholera which have followed. Naturally it should affect and scientists of Saratov University.

The years 1921-1922 were extremely painful for all population of the province and affected universities' destiny. In one of the documents published at the beginning of 1920, the situation in institutions of higher education was described as follows: «… lecturers suffered without a piece of bread, and some ate assembled potato peel exclusively» [8, P.104].

This course of events was seriously reflected in the structure of scientific corporation of Saratov University. Under conditions of such serious difficulties and repressions many outstanding scientists, escaping from famine and prosecutions, started to leave Saratov University.

At the end of 1920 the course on higher school transformation was initiated as well as its cleansing from socially alien elements both among students, and the staff and full submission to the officialdom. In 1920-1921 a number of decrees and decisions of government of Russia on the institutions of higher education, among them «The act of reorganization of teaching of social studies at high schools of RSFSR» (on December, 3rd 1920 has been passed.), «Provisions about the management of high schools» (on March, 4th 1921.), actually deprived them of their autonomy, «The Code for higher educational institutions of RSFSR» (on September, 19th, 1921). It may possibly be considered first Soviet charter of the higher school, and others [9, PP.1 19-120].

After the Civil war a part of lecturers of the University who arrived in Saratov, escaping from repressions and famine, started to come back to those universities where they had worked before. Such eminent scientists, as V.M. Zhirmunsky, N.N. Durnovo, I.I. Privalov and a number of others left Saratov. Famine compelled to departure even those who under other conditions could stay at University and work fruitfully (F.P. Savarensky, V.P. Bushinsky, N.N. Jakovlev, etc.). It is possible to say that the level of teaching at Saratov University fell down considerably because of these academic losses. It is difficult to establish the total of personnel loss of the University in those years, but it is known that the number of professors was reduced from 78 in 1920 to 60 in 1921 [8, P.110].

At this time the prosecution of representatives of higher school intelligentsia by the Russian authorities amplified dramatically.

The instructor of Central Committee RKP (b) who inspected Saratov province in March, 1921 reported that Saratov, is similar to Kronstadt, there is a preparation for the overthrow of the Soviet power there. Professors of the University Zernov, Kakushkin and others who were holding speeches at some churches using the "chernosotennaya" and monarchic rethoric took part in this. In 1920 the Professor of Saratov University B.M Sokolov was arrested and put in to Tagans' prison, and in March, 1921 the rector of University V.D. Zernov was arrested. Professors I.N. Bystrenin and N.M. Kakushkin were sent by local security officers to Moscow where scientists stayed for a few months in Lefortovsky and Butyrsky prisons. They were accused of anti-Soviet activity, religious propagation and etc. [5, Sheet 4].

As the party-Soviet administration aimed to the replacement of the old lecturers by the new, adhering to Marxist positions, it resulted in the considerable personnel changes at the university. The measures concerning teaching personnel led to the fact that since 1922 in the country the mutual relation of the major bulk of teachers and bodies of the Soviet power started to vary. On December, 29th 1923 the conferences of scientists were held in Saratov and the turn of scientist and bodies of the Soviet power to rapprochement was discussed. The professors of the University of A.A. Bogomolts, V.V. Vorms, V.S. Elpatevsky spoke about this, noticing that in the hard times only the

University of Saratov worked without breaks, prepared experts, conducted lectures and a practical training [2].

Since the middle of the 1920s when the old experienced personnel was superseded substantially, the question of preparation of university graduates for teaching activity arose. With this aim since 1925 the postgraduate courses were started in Russian universities, the selection in them was carried out at the recommendation of a party cell. Among students the category of promoted workers included those who were either communists or the members of the Komsomol of the irreproachable class origin, or those who proved the value by participating to activities in public work, first of all [7, P. 89].

The change of the old personnel by the first graduates of the Soviet institutions of higher education, a few party personnel which had higher education having graduated from «Institute of the red professorate» was carried out. Special staff was at the working faculty where it was not necessary to have scientific merits and a profound knowledge, and the main criteria were an accessory to Communist party and a proletarian origin [8, PP.112-113].

Despite all the measures taken by the party and the Soviet Authorities, even up to the middle of the 1920s it was not possible to change radically the staff and students of the universities. So, in SGU on February, by 1925 out of 65 professors only 2 were communists, and out of 708 teachers and employees of University 61 persons (8,6 %) were the members of the communist party [3, Sheet 3].

As it may become clear from table, the quantity of researchers in SGU increased by 139 persons for a decade from 1920 to 1930s. This data can show us the dynamics of change in the structure of scientific corporation. The majority of them were from the bourgeois and petty-bourgeois families, with various political convictions. It is noteworthy that the number of professors and doctors of sciences was reduced by 55 %, and the amount of senior lecturers and candidates of sciences has on the contrary increased 4 times.

The shortage of teaching personnel resulted in the enormous overload of them. At Saratov University at the beginning of 1925/26 academic year there were 4422 students per 219 teachers, i.e. on the average 22,9 students per one teacher. Thus there were serious distinctions between the faculties. For example, at medical faculty there were 17,8 students per 1 lecturer, at pedagogical – 29,6, and at economics and law faculty – 31,1 [6, P.88].

Faculty movement [10, P. 270]

Years	In total scientists researchers worked	Including			
		Professors and doctors of sciences	Senior lecturers and candidates of sciences	Assistants, lecturers and scientific employees	Post-graduate students
1920	210	98	14	98	-

Years	In total scientists researchers worked	Including			
		Professors and doctors of sciences	Senior lecturers and candidates of sciences	Assistants, lecturers and scientific employees	Post-graduate students
1921	207	69	4	134	-
1922	237	66	-	171	-
1923	269	61	-	208	-
1924	170	63	-	107	-
1925	260	61	-	199	-
1926	196	61	31	95	9
1927	242	56	33	140	13
1928	255	57	35	145	18
1929	228	57	35	120	16
1930	349	54	56	225	14

In the second half of the 1920s the professorate cleaning, especially among humanitarians (V.A. Butenko, S.N. Chernov, G.G. Dinges) proceeded. It was not possible completely to be released from the old professorate in those years yet, though the soil for this purpose was prepared, as there was a category of promoted workers in institutions of higher education [8, P.124].

On the whole, professional everyday life of scientists of Saratov University of the 1920s was aimed to the coexistence with the Soviet power. Very few have accepted this power, and the majority of scientists continued to work under the conditions of difficult mutual relations with party bodies where, on the one hand, the authorities needed the qualified personnel, and, on the other hand, scientists worked for the Native land, without accepting the Bolshevist rule personally.

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RELATIONS BETWEEN THE USSR AND GERMANY DURING THE PREWAR PERIOD OF 1939–1941

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In the early thirties of the XX century the international situation in the world changed. As a result there were serious changes in all the capitalist countries; antidemocratic forces (fascist regime) came to power. This regime became an instigator of new military conflicts, especially after A. Hitler came to power in 1933.

The aggression of fascist Germany and Italy formed centers of intensity in Europe. Considering the existing situation the Soviet government took a new course of the foreign policy: the USSR refused to participate in international conflicts, especially of a military character; there was cooperation with the western democratic countries in the restraint of aggression to fascists – «policy of appeasement»; creation of the system of collective security in Europe and in the Far East. And this policy of non-interference has led the USSR to strengthening positions on the international arena. In the end of 1933 diplomatic relations were established between the USA and the USSR and it was reflected favorably on their trade and economic relations. In September, 1934 the Soviet Union was accepted in the League of Nations and became a constant member of its Council. The Soviet-French and Soviet-Czechoslovak agreements about mutual aid in case of an attack on these countries were also signed.

In the mid-30s, however, the position of the Soviet government changed. The USSR refused from the principle of non-interference into international conflicts. In the summer of 1935 the Soviet government accepted the decision to create a "left block" together with European social democracies, which will oppose fascism. In 1936 the USSR assisted to the government of the Spanish People's Front in their struggle against general F. Franco. The international tension was amplified, the «policy of appeasement" of western countries towards Germany, Italy, Japan, did not give any results. Germany and Japan signed the agreement against the Soviet Union in 1936. The western powers

hoped to create a reliable counterbalance against the USSR and to direct its fascist aggression to the east. A plot was formed around the Soviet Union. The Munich agreement (September 1938) signed by Germany, Italy, and England became the culmination of this situation. The last attempt to create a system of collective security between England, France and the Soviet Union was undertaken in 1939. However the western states didn't believe in the potential possibility that the USSR could resist fascist aggression; therefore they dragged out the negotiations in every possible way. At the same time there were offers from Germany to establish economic and political cooperation. By the end of the 30s, The Soviet Union faced the problem: to come to an agreement with fascist Germany, whose earlier policy it criticized or to start the war for which it wasn't ready.

The first steps to understanding between Germany and the Soviet Union.

It is difficult to say when in Moscow and Berlin the first steps to understanding between Germany and the Soviet Union were made. The first attempt, probably, was made after the Munich agreement from which the Soviet Union was excluded. The Counselor of the Germany embassy informed Berlin that Stalin would draw certain conclusions from the Munich settlement and he would try to build more positive relations between Germany and the USSR. Improvement of trade and economic relations between the two countries should become the first step, according to the Germans. The negotiations were conducted during several weeks, but actually they came to a deadlock. The German government wished to receive raw materials from Russia, but Germany could not give the goods which the Soviet Union required in exchange.

On 4 May 1939 the information that M.M. Litvinov was dismissed from the post of the national commissioner in foreign affairs appeared in Soviet newspapers. ("History lessons 1939», 1990). Vyacheslav Molotov took this post. It meant a change of the Soviet foreign policy. Litvinov was an active supporter of the policy of collective security, creation of the military alliance with Great Britain and France against fascists. Stalin considered that Litvinov's policy failed and threatened to involve the USSR in war against Germany in which the western powers could avoid participation.

Ineffectual negotiations between the western powers and the Soviet Union.

At the same time negotiations between the Western powers and the Soviet Union did not give any results, they were at a deadlock in the question of granting guarantees for Poland, Romania, the Baltic states. Poland and Romania resolutely refused to allow pass the Soviet armies to pass through their territories to meet the attack of Germany. Foreign secretary of Great Britain refused to arrive in Moscow for negotiations. Stalin understood that Chemberlen didn't want to form the alliance against Hitler. In such a situation the Soviet-German economic relations renewed. Germany openly proposed the cooperation to the Soviet Union which could be mutually favourable for politics, trade and economic relations. What can Great Britain offer to Russia? In the best case it

could be participation in the European war and animosities of Germany. What Germany could offer? It could be neutrality and nonparticipation in the possible European conflict and mutually advantageous cooperation. So it was the first German attempt to reach an arrangement with the Soviet Russia. (Secrets of Stalin diplomacy 1939-1941,1992)

It is sometimes argued that Molotov continued the talks with Britain and France to stimulate the Germans into making an offer of a non-aggression treaty and that the triple alliance failed because of the Soviet determination to conclude a pact with Germany. (W. Strang. Home and Abroad. 1956). Another existing point of view is that the strive for the triple alliance was sincere and that the Soviet government turned to Germany only when an alliance with the Western powers proved impossible. (Roberts, Geoffrey. The Soviet Union and the Origins of the Second World War: Russo-German Relations and the Road to War, 1933-1941. 1995)

On August 3, German Foreign Minister Joachim Ribbentrop outlined a plan where the countries would agree to nonintervention in the others' affairs and would renounce measures aimed at the others' vital interests and that «there was no problem between the Baltic and the Black Sea that could not be solved between the two of us."(Roberts, Geoffrey, Stalin's Wars: From World War to Cold War, 1939–1953, 2006,p.30) The Germans stated that "there is one common element in the ideology of Germany, Italy and the Soviet Union: opposition to the capitalist democracies of the West», and explained that their prior hostility toward Soviet Bolshevism had subsided with the changes in the Comintern and the Soviet renunciation of a world revolution. (Joachim C., Hitler, 2002, p.589)

Pact and commercial deal signing.

By August 10, the countries had worked out the last minor technical details to make all but final their economic arrangement, but the Soviets delayed signing that agreement for almost ten days until they were sure that they had reached a political agreement with Germany. The Soviet ambassador explained to German officials that the Soviets had begun their British negotiations «without much enthusiasm» at the time when they felt Germany would not «come to an understanding», and the parallel talks with the British could not be simply broken off when they had been initiated after 'mature consideration. (Erickson, John The Soviet High Command: A Military-political History, 1918-1941, 2001)

On August 19, the German–Soviet Commercial Agreement (1939) was reached. The agreement covered «current» business.

On August 22 the Soviet Union and Nazi Germany were about to conclude a non-aggression pact, and the dragged Soviet Triple Alliance negotiations with France and Britain were suspended. The Soviets blamed the Western powers for their reluctance to take the Soviet Union's military assistance seriously

On August 23, 1939, a German delegation headed by the Foreign Minister Joachim von Ribbentrop arrived in Moscow, and in the following night

the Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact was signed by him and his Soviet colleague Vyacheslav Molotov, in the presence of the Soviet leader Joseph Stalin. The ten-year pact of non-aggression declaring adherence to the Treaty of Berlin (1926) was supplemented by a secret additional protocol, which divided Eastern Europe between the German and Soviet zones of influence: (Secret Additional Protocol http://avalon.law.yale.edu/default.asp)

This protocol provided the possibility of including Latvia, Estonia, East Poland, Finland and Bessarabia in the sphere of interests of the USSR. On September, 1st, 1939 Germany began intrusion into Poland, and on September, 17th, 1939 the Soviet armies entered the territory of Poland. The territorial division of Poland between the USSR and Germany was finished on September 28, 1939 by signing the Border and Commercial Agreement. So the Baltic countries, Bessarabia and Northern Bukovina, and a part of Finland were attached to the USSR.

The news of the Pact, announced by the Pravda and Izvestia on August 24, was met with utter shock and surprise by government leaders and media worldwide, most of whom were aware only of the British-French-Soviet negotiations that had taken place for months.

The pact was ratified by the Supreme Council of the Soviet Union on August 31, 1939.

Nazi Germany terminated the Molotov–Ribbentrop Pact with its invasion of the Soviet Union in Barbarossa Operation on June 22, 1941. After launching the invasion, the territories gained by the Soviet Union due to the Molotov–Ribbentrop Pact were lost in a matter of weeks. (Roberts, Geoffrey, Stalin's Wars: From World War to Cold War, 1939–1953, 2006)

German officials found a microfilmed copy of the secret protocols of the Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact in 1945 and provided it to the United States military forces. Despite the publication of the discovered copy in western media, for decades it was the official policy of the Soviet Union to deny the existence of the secret protocol.

The document was declassified only after the dissolution of the Soviet Union.

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TRANSGENDER LANGUAGE AND EXPRESSIVE SYNTAX IN SPOKEN ENGLISH

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Colloquial speech, spoken English, expressive syntax, emotive language, gender, gender roles, cross-dressing, impersonating, transgender, building an identity

Speech is the most important object of scientific research. It reflects our immediate thoughts and impressions. The language we use to socialize with each other is highly emotional. However, it is the spoken language that had been virtually excluded from scientific research for many centuries. Spoken language and emotions were considered "illogical" whereas language was looked upon as a highly structured system with clearly definable norms. The problem with spoken English and especially emotionally colored patterns is that it can not be fitted into any strict system of codes and norms. It was only after sound recording started to be used in linguistics when colloquial speech could be analyzed.

Gender linguistics was also rejected by researchers when the society was not ready for it. Women's speech was excluded from research or included as deviant speech (Cameron, Coates 1988, 6). Nowadays, however, it has become increasingly evident that gender is not opposing men and women and gender behavior can vary and change dramatically during one's life. Moreover, gender expression varies from situation to situation (Green 2003, 283) and is the most salient in colloquial speech due to its spontaneous and informal nature.

This paper investigates the way a man changes his gender behavior when he impersonates a woman. Contemporary American films were chosen as the source of spoken examples to analyze.

Gender deviations' studies are controversial. Some of them show that gender differences are more pronounced when a man impersonates a woman and vice versa (Ощепкова 2002, 249). On the other hand, gender deviations are marked with features, typical of both genders (Файх 2002, 310). A term "genderlect" is used to describe a total sum of linguistic peculiarities of a person. It this paper a term "transgenderlect" will be used thought it must be

must be mentioned that transgenderism is such a complex phenomenon that we cannot judge about the whole field of gender deviation by the results of this survey. However, any study of this kind helps to determine the undercurrent trends of masculinity and femininity.

Depicting cross-dressing in movies is becoming increasingly popular. Men in dresses interest people as a means of fighting gender, one of the most inescapable systems of the society. Movie characters use more expressive speech than "real" people so that the frequency of syntactic patterns doesn't match that of an actual conversation. Still, stylisticians claim that the main traits of colloquial speech are still present in movies.

This paper deals with three groups of people – feminine women, masculine men and cross-dressed masculine men. For the purposes of brevity we shall use terms "women", "men" and "cross-dressed men"

We shall investigate the way genders function looking at preferences in the usage of expressive syntactic patterns. There are two tendencies in colloquial English – explicit and implicit. The explicit tendency is the tendency to make sentences longer and the implicit tendency is the tendency to make sentences shorter.

Explicit patterns are always more expressive. The main explicit patterns are absolute attributes, question-answer patterns, repetition (also used as in a question) and expletives.

– And look, there they are. The fen-phen twins. (woman, WC) – We can judge about emotions of the heroine by her mimics and consitulation. Splitting an utterance into two sentences focuses the attention on the expressive pattern (in this case an absolutive attribute) and makes the emotions more prominent.

– You know why? Because you are falling asleep again! (woman, WC) – Also the speaker may ask a rhetorical question and answer it himself. The rhetoric question does not display the emotions openly and thus the meaning is implied.

– We liked Brittany and Tiffany so much more when you were them. So much more! (woman, WC) – repeating part of the utterance focuses our attention on the most meaningful parts.

– The Halston.

– The Halston? Oh, no! You'll ruin it. You'll spill wine all over it. (man, T) – Sometimes the repetition is used as a question and the repetition itself is meaningless. We should analyze it as the reaction to the previous utterance.

– But for the life of me I cannot understand why she hangs around with that director. (man, T) – This construction reflects the indignation of the speaker. The meaning of an expletive is purely emotional.

The implicit tendency is most often reflected in attributive word combinations, and rhetorical questions. The most often seen examples of what used to be considered expressive ellipsis, phrases like Oh, you little witch! (cross-dresser, WC) You slut! (man, T) are in fact syntactically similar to name-calling (McConnel-Ginet 2003, 76).

– Daphne. Cut it out. <u>What do you think you're doing?</u> (woman, SLIH) – Rhetorical questions express the attitude of the speaker implicitly. This very utterance is particularly expressive because semantically it repeats the meaning of the previous one.

The quantitative analysis of expressive patterns of spoken English, used in American movies, helped to find subtle differences between the three groups.

The men's choice of patterns is richer but most of all they use rhetorical questions. Cross-dressed men and women spread their preferences more evenly among a few selected patterns.

One may suggest that some feminine language preferences have become part of linguistic stereotypes and cross-dressers copy it subconsciously. The problem is that it is too easy to "overdo" something that is not natural to you. The overstated feminity is typical of many gender deviations. This "overfeminising" of cross-dressers is reflected in the use of repetitions or expletives.

In many ways cross-dressed men speak almost like women, but still they are not womanly enough. For example, using repetitions in questions is often used by women, with a smaller frequency – by cross-dressers and is absolutely not typical of masculine men.

Also, some patterns, typical of women and masculine men (for example, the "question-answer" type of an utterance), are very rarely seen in the speech of cross-dressers.

That leads us to the conclusion that this particular transgenderlect is a complex linguistic phenomenon. When a man impersonates a woman, it changes his speech dramatically, in many ways shifting it closer to women's preferences.

Gender is not as simple as contrasting men and women to each other and gender deviations are much wider than the relatively small community of transgendered people. Every human being performs his/her gender roles individually and trying to change one's conversation style has a marked effect on the whole image.

The materials used in this research are:
1. Some Like It Hot (SLIH)
2. White Chicks (WC)
3. Tootsie (T)
4. Big Momma's Home (BM)
5. Big Momma's Home (BM2)
6. Mrs. Doubtfire (MD)

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VERBALIZATION OF STEREOTYPICAL REPRESENTATIONS OF SOCIALLY SIGNIFICANT OBJECTS (ON THE EXAMPLE OF RUSSIAN «ДВОР» AND ENGLISH «HOUSE» AND «ONTRYYARD»)

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Stereotype, contextual verbalization of stereotypical mental images

Stereotypes, as a variety of cognitive structures, can be defined as culturally determined schematic mental images («pictures»), which allow to economize our efforts while generalizing things and reconstructing objects of the real world by a trait or some detail correspondent to a well-known type kept in one's head [Lippmann, 44; 48]. And if one's mind stores stereotypical images, the language is the means of their verbalization.

Stereotypical representations comprise the images of people (that is generally understood, when referred to social stereotypes), orderly arranged sequence of actions (within a scenario), as well as those of socially significant objects, which are regarded to be typical in the minds of people, belonging to one and same linguistic community.

The subject of this research is verbalized stereotypical images of the objects, defined as "space", occupied by someone or places, where something happens or some action takes place.

The general meaning of the word «space» presupposes «being receptacle», connected with notion «inside» and «outside», as well as the concept of «border» [Kubryakova, 2004, 481]. As A.V. Kravchenko points out, "space" is not simply seen as receptacle for some objects, it is constituted by them, in oher words, "space" is always occupied, it does not exist without its constituents [Kravchenko, 1996, 45]. As far as it concerns socially significant objects or "locuses" (from Latin «locus» – a "place"), they are considered to be not only the background scenery for certain objects but are seen more as socialized places intended for

some particular type of men's activity. Being «socialized» space, a locus is kept in mind within a certain frame (implying the complex vision of the situation). This sort of frame contains only significant typical features of the set of circumstances given [Babushkin, 1996, 55]. Thus, a remarkable trait which marks a well known stereotype, is able to arouse the image of a whole place.

Aimed to reveal the lexical means of verbalizing mental stereotypical images, formed as a result of perceiving and reflecting the world around us, it is essential to note that the special lexical markers (with the generalizing function) directly pointing at stereotypical nature of an object, such as: "typical", "conventional", "common" "типичный", "обычный", "обыкновенный", "как" will present only top of the «information iceberg». To get the image complete, the range of other lexemes, denoting the key features of a stereotype should be considered as well. These traits should be perceived as necessary and sufficient to define the object as typical. The manifestation of either markers or such lexemes as well as both of them allows to consider a certain socialized space more as the prototype – a representative of the entire class.

With the reference to the above mentioned, we would like to turn to contextual analysis of the Russian lexeme «двор», and the English «house» (with the meaning of «a dwelling with the adjoining territory»), which vocabulary definitions contain the notions of «place», «space» or «borders of an object».

The lexicographic interpretation of the Russian «двор» is "участок земли между домовыми постройками одного владения, одного городского участка".

The image of «двор» from the near past is illustrated by the following example:

1) <…> знакомый до мельчайших деталей обычный городской двор со старыми гаражами, живописно разлапистыми деревьями, сараем под шиферной крышей (http://ptz.karelia.ru/gorod/city/info/8.htm);

A similar description of the place can be found futher:

2) <…> в обыкновенном дворе, заросшем акацией и топольками, с кривыми лавками и доминошными столами, голубятнями и жестяными гробами гаражей (А. Кабаков. Считается побег);

Another feature, peculiar of a typical " двор" is elicited from the next extract:

3) Дом был типичная «хрущеба» <…> во дворе <…> столбы с перекладинами, на которые вешались веревки для просушки белья (http://usasha.narod.ru/history.htm);

As the time went by, the image of the place changes:

4) <…> обычный городской двор многоквартирного жилого дома. Лоджии, увешанные разноцветными «флажками» трусов и простыней. Лавочки перед подъездами. Мамаши с колясками; мужики с машинами (М. Серова. Неслучайный свидетель).

Each of the following examples contributes a new detail, adding more attributes to the stereotypical image:

5) <u>Типичный</u> городской дворик – это окруженный жилыми домами четырехугольник <…> занят мусорными баками и всем надоевшими гаражами–ракушками, где-то можно увидеть пару песочниц, да нехитрые спортивные снаряды («Это спорт», № 4 (14) июль – август, 2008. с 14);

6) Двор девятиэтажного дома <…> Стоянка с машинами, детская площадка, <…> клумбы с уже поникшими цветами… Двор <u>как</u> двор (Е. Гришковец. Планка).

Thus, the stereotypical image of "двор" in town nowadays is specified not only by the blocks of flats, but also by a growing number of cars, left outside in the open air all day long.

If we look at the English examples, containing the description of a "house" or a "yard", we will find a verbalized vivid representation of how a typical «English cottage house» is supposed to look like:

1) < > homes stir the <u>typical notion of</u> lush gardens that an **English cottage house** plan can invoke. English cottage house plans bring to mind storybook fantasies of roses covering a trellis and climbing on thatched roofs (The Garden Is The Heart Of English Cottage House Plans);

A similar description emphasizing the same typical detail (flourishing greenery meticulously taken care of) is observed in the following:

2) It was a <u>conventional</u> **house.** <u>Commonplace</u> was perhaps the word to describe it. It had smooth green lawns, plenty of flower beds, carefully planted areas of shrubs to display a certain landscape effect (A. Christie. Third Girl);

3) The **house** < > was one story with a brick wall as tall as the walls of the house forming an enclosed **courtyard**. There was even a wrought iron gate to the curved entrance < > Except for the courtyard, the house looked like a <u>typical</u> **suburban ranch**. There was a stone path and square, rock-edged beds full of rosebushes (L. Hamilton. The killing dance);

Although the image of a typical house in Britain is that of either a cottage house or a (semi)- detached one, there is also a commonly shared stereotype of the cheaper houses – " terraced houses" mainly intended for «working class people» (Oxford Guide to British and American Culture). The attributes of a typical house of that kind are clearly seen in the passage below:

4) As you walk through the industrial towns you lose yourself in labyrinths of little brick **houses** blackened by smoke < > and little cindered **yards** where there are stinking dust-bins and lines of grimy washing and half-ruinous w.c.s (G. Orwell. The Road to Wigan Pier).

In conclusion, it's well worth mentioning that we do realize that each of the examples analyzed above, reflect personal opinions of the authors and their own visions of the locus, however, the obvious repeated coincidences in the manifestations of the verbalized images of this place, as well as similarity of the lexical means used to represent them, enable us to classify them as "stereotypical".

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REGRESSION OF THE FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE AT THE COMPANY'S VALUE IN TOURISM

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Company value, tourism, evaluation method, economic factors, regression models

Different evaluation methods (income, assets and tourist market approaches) or combinations of several methods are used depending on the valuation aim and the interests of the valuator. One of the most widely used methods in tourism is discounted future income method. Because of that this paper will analyze factors influencing the tourist company value from future income point of view – regression method.

When valuing a tourist company (object) within the framework of income method, it is analyzed from the profitability point of view – by making an assumption, that the value of the tourist company is the current value of all the future cash flow. It is possible to determine the level of influence on tourist company value of factors and financial indices. Sensibility analysis is used when analyzing economic and financial activity and evaluating investments and forecasts. The aim is to determine the possible financial plans at possible deviations of factors from the planned values. Financial forecasts in tourism calculated with a certain probability, real results usually differ from financial plans developed by analysts. Sensibility analysis does not only allow determining the essentiality of deviations from planed indices, but also allows developing a plan for increasing value. Sensibility analysis shows the change of the tourist company value in percent as a result of change of a factor influencing cash flow, given a condition of other factors constant. Tourist company value sensibility analysis can include several steps:

1. An indicator is chosen which changes under influence of certain factors and is of interest for the tourist company. Such an indicator can be the value of the company but another underlying indicator can be used as well (for example, pre-tax profit, investment etc.)

2. Factors are chosen, deviations of which influence value. The factors are selected depending on the analyzed object in tourism. For example, if the analyzed object is the value of the tourist company, then factors can be indicators of the second level (for example (profit, interest) or even indicators of a lower level (turnover, costs, productivity etc.). Possible reasoning for different factors is following:

– Earnings before interest, taxes, depreciation and amortization (EBITDA). EBITDA is influenced by such factors as turnover, production, sales, administration and other costs, that are manageable factors. It means that changes in the proportions of income and costs in tourism, that can be planned, realized and controlled by the manager, can influence the value of the tourist company. Conclusion: selected for testing.

– Interest. Interest to be paid is mostly dependent on the financial policy of the tourist company and structure of the capital, but the interest can fluctuate depending on the chosen credit institution and conditions. This factor can be only managed moderately, but targeted realization of the financial policy can improve the result from the economic activity and increase the value of the tourist company. Conclusion: selected for testing.

– Circulating capital changes. Investment in circulating capital is a prerequisite for ensuring tourist company work, although they decrease value. Amount of investment in circulating capital depends not only on turnover, but also on the cycle of the circulating capital – supplier's debts circulation, stock circulation, and supplier debts circulation. So circulation capital cycle is a manageable value that can help change value. Conclusion: Conclusion: selected for testing.

– Investment cash flow. It depends on tourist company's strategy, planed activities, so the effectiveness of investment has to be evaluated by one of the alternative methods. If sensibility of value against investment differences is analyzed, an option is to change the price of investment objects instead of changing the investment policy in tourism area. Conclusion: selected for testing.

– Discount rate. Method for the discount rate calculation is chosen by the evaluator. Risk assessment and calculation methods have a significant impact on chosen discount rate, so it is important to determine the sensibility of value against the discount rate in tourism. It is possible to calculate the fluctuations of value for each percent change of discount rate. Conclusion: selected for testing.

– Taxes. Tax legislation is based on state policy, so tax payments are made accordingly to legislation. So taxes as a factor are not manageable in tourism. In certain cases, if the tourist company has tax planning policy, it is

possible to legally lower the tax burden that would in turn increase the value of the company. Conclusion: not selected for testing.

– Finance and flow. Finance cash flow depends on the finance policy, financial levers and credit rules. Financial policy in tourism is based on planed investment and structure of the capital; operations with loans are done accordingly to the rules of credit institutions. Calculation of value sensitivity against finance cash flow is not essential in decision-making. Conclusion: not selected for testing.

3. Limits for the possible fluctuations of influencing factors are set (for example, pre-tax profit, interest and taxes can be changed in the ranged of 1 % and the resulting changes of tourist company value are calculated. Broader limits can be sent like 5% or 10%).

4. Conclusions are made from the result of sensitivity testing.

We will use a waste disposal tourist company as an example. Value will be calculated using income discounting method. Cash flow is forecasted for the next four years by taking activity perspectives, current economic condition and macroeconomic development into consideration. The value of company was calculated as 45, 5 thousand euro using a discount rate of 16%.

To determine the influence of cash flow, fluctuations of value based on changes in factors were calculated. According to the results we can conclude, that the value of a tourist company is primary influenced by earning before interest, taxes, depreciation and amortization (EBITDA) because of 1 % of this value causes in 2,2 % change in the value of tourist company. The influence of other factors is lower. Management can use this information to manage company value.

As earnings before interest, taxes, depreciation and amortization (EBITDA) are the most influential factor, it is necessary to examine this indicator and second-level factors influencing it. From the financial management point of view this indicator depends on turnover, production, sales and administration cost, other income from economic activity and costs. These factors in their turn depend on other indicators of internal and external environment in tourism. The chain of indicators has to be analyzed, to uncover the possibilities of increasing tourist company value.

Analysis of factors influencing value in tourism can be performed by various methods, econometric methods among them. Use of econometric methods not only facilitates the analysis of factors but also allows financial forecasting. The management will be in possession of analytical information that will help increase tourist company value.

If the sensitivity analysis showed that EBITDA has the highest potential of increasing tourist company value, then this indicator should be used as the dependent variable. Indicators can be analyzed using various methods, regression analysis amongst them.

Different regression models can be used, for example [1],
– Linear:

$$y_t = a + \sum_{j=1}^{\sim m} b_j x_{tj}$$

– Non-linear:

$$y_t = a\prod_{j=1}^{\sim m} x_{jt}^{bj}; \quad y_t = a\prod_{j=1}^{\sim m} b_j x_{jt}; \quad y_t = a\prod_{j=1}^{\sim m} e^{bjxjt} \quad \text{etc.}$$

Let's continue the example of a waste disposal tourist company. Sensitivity analysis has proven that EBITDA has the highest influence on company value in tourism. To exclude the impact of sold quality of service, we can use the relative EBITDA per m³ of disposed waste. Exclusion of amount of sold services allows analyzing the productivity of the process by not entering into sales policy. For tourist companies with a high share of fixed costs (considering depreciation expense) calculating profit per unit would be incorrect because increasing turnover will increase profit per unit. In our example tourist company has low share of fixed costs (without depreciation), so turnover has no effect on profit per unit. That's why we will use EBITDA per m³ as dependant variable.

Dumpling costs are the highest in tourist company. So it is essential to find a compromise between the price of scavenging m³ of waste and deposing rate per m³ at the dump. The first factor influencing EBITDA per m³ will be price and rate ratio.

Because of high waste deposing costs and modern waste management options, waste sorting becomes popular. By sorting waste, tourist company can increase quality of environment management and decrease waste dumping costs. In some cases it is even possible to gain profit from selling reusable waste to different waste treatment companies in tourism. So the amount of sorted and reused waste influence economic activity results and will be used as second factor.

Information about EBITDA per m³ (y_t), price and ratio (x_1) and sorted waste proportion (x_2) is shown in table 1. The best fit model for this data was non-linear regression model:

$$\overset{\sim}{y_t} = a*b_1{}^{xt1}*b_2{}^{xt2}.$$

The best parameters were as follows:

$$\overset{\sim}{y_t} = 0.15*2.57^{xt1}*2.04^{xt2}.$$

Regression analysis example

Period	EBITDA per m³ (yt)	Price and rate ratio (x1)	Sorted waste proportion (x2)	Forecasted EBITDA per m³ (yt)
2002 (I)	0,51	1,3	0	0,52
2002 (II)	0,47	1,2	0	0,48
2003 (I)	0,63	1,4	0,1	0,62
2003(II)	0,65	1,4	0,2	0,66
2004 (I)	0,65	1,4	0,2	0,66
2004 (II)	0,62	1,3	0,2	0,60
2005 (I)	0,72	1,5	0,2	0,73
2005 (II)	0,74	1,5	0,25	0,75
2006 (I)	0,78	1,5	0,25	0,75
2006 (II)	0,78	1,5	0,2	0,73
2007 (I)	0,81	1,6	0,2	0,80
2007 (II)	0,81	1,6	0,3	0,86
2008 (I) P	-	1,7	0,3	0,96
2008 (II) P	-	1,7	0,3	0,96
2009 (I) P	-	1,7	0,4	1,03
2009 (II) P	-	1,7	0,4	1,03
2010 (I) P	-	1,8	0,4	1,14
2010 (II) P	-	1,9	0,4	1,26
2011 (I) P	-	1,9	0,4	1,26
2011 (II) P	-	1,9	0,4	1,26

The regression equation allows us to forecast EBITDA per m³ (y_t) for the next 4 years. Thanks to this regression equation it is now possible to plan the EBITDA indicator per m³, to estimate possible value in the future. Other factors that influence with value can be analyzed using econometric methods. For example, we need to estimate the amount of tourist services provided in m³. Specialists can use most popular demand forecasting methods. Tourist service amount can be forecasted using comb regression – trend model [2]:

$$\tilde{y}_t = a + \sum_{j=1}^{m} b_j x_{tj} + ct.$$

Dependant variable is amount of services (y_t), but factors are number of contracts with legal (x_t) and physical persons. Regression – trend model was calculated based on data provided indicators.

$$\tilde{y}_t = (-)3731 + 153* x_1 +21* x_2 - 79* t.$$

This model allows us to forecast tourist service amount sold in next periods.

Table 2

Regression analysis example (continued)

Period	t	Tourist service sold, m³ (y)	Legal persons (x1)	Physical persons (x1)	Forecasted tourist services sold, m³ (yt)
2002 (I)	1	5 348	39	120	4 645
2002 (II)	2	5 705	42	150	5 647
2003 (I)	3	5 600	42	156	5 693
2003 (II)	4	5 772	43	160	5 850
2004 (I)	5	6 097	46	190	6 853
2004 (II)	6	9 490	58	230	9 440
2005 (I)	7	9 894	60	240	9 874
2005 (II)	8	9 944	62	257	10 457
2006 (I)	9	10 720	61	277	10 636
2006 (II)	10	11 495	65	297	11 580
2007 (I)	11	12 100	67	310	12 083
2007 (II)	12	12 654	66	320	12 359
2008 (I) P	13	-	73	349	13 641
2008 (II) P	14	-	76	368	14 396
2009 (I) P	15	-	79	387	15 151
2009 (II) P	16	-	82	406	15 905
2010 (I) P	17	-	84	425	16 660
2010 (II) P	18	-	87	444	17 415
2011 (I) P	19	-	90	463	18 170
2011 (II) P	20	-	93	481	18 924

The results of this example can be summarized for further use in decision-making, forecasting and value rising:
Indicator – EBITDA

– Dependent variable 1 EBITDA per m^3; Factor 1 (manageable variable) Price and rate ratio; Factor 2 (manageable variable) Sorted waste proportion;

Model $\overset{\sim}{y_t}=0.15*2.57^{xt1}\ 2.04^{xt2}$.

– Dependent variable 2 Services sold in m^3. Factor 1 (manageable variable) Legal persons count; Factor 2 (manageable variable) Physical persons count;

Model $\overset{\sim}{y_t}= (-)3731+153*xl+21*x2-79*t$.

With the help of regression analysis it is not only possible to improve the quality of financial forecasts, but also estimate the potential increase of tourist company value manageable factors and other indices.

The order of operations in regression analysis of factors is:

1. Selection of indicators affective value (usually earnings before interest, taxes, depreciation and amortization EBITDA, circulating capital changes, interest, investments, discount rate).

2. Selection of indicators for the regression analysis (sensitivity analysis, significance principle etc.)

3. Prioritization of factors for every indicator. Selection of second-level factors, if necessary.

4. Model development using regression methods.

5. Forecasting financial values with result gained in previous steps.

6. Estimation of target values for factors and development of a plan for increasing value.

Selection of factors, that influence at tourist company is a complex process based on analysis of the tourist company. Regression analysis gives a substantial help in increasing company value, because it reveals factors **that are** manageable. Results from analysis of factors **and** their **level** of influence allow development of plans for achieving desired **level** of indicators.

Tourist companies **can use** regression models to manage value increase **and develop** financial forecasts during valuation of **the** company. Econometric models possible to estimate **the** influence of factors in past **and** future periods.

One or several indicators gave to be selected for regression analysis of value (EBITDA, circulating capital changes, interest, investment, discount) and determine factors influencing these indicators (lower-**level** factors). Such a chain of **indicators** shows the complex econometric model for value calculation **and** target-oriented management.

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HORIZONTAL DIFFERENTIATION OF DOMESTIC RUSSIAN FIRMS AND INTERNATIONAL DIVISIONS IN THE WORLD WIDE AREA STRUCTURE

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Level of business, organizational chart, horizontal differentiation, international firms, matrix structure

Most firms begin with no formal structure and as they grow, the demands of management become too great for one individual to handle. At this point, the organization is typically split into functions reflecting the firm's value creation activities (e.g., finance, production, marketing, R&D) [1]. These functions are typically coordinated and controlled by a top-management team (see fig. 1). Decision making in this functional structure tends to be centralized.

Further horizontal differentiation may be required if the firm significantly diversifies its product offering. For example, although Philips NV started as a lighting company, it now also has activities in consumer electronics (e.g., visual and audio equipment), industrial electronics (integrated circuits and other electronic components), and medical systems (CT scanners and ultrasound systems). In such circumstances, a functional structure can be too clumsy. Problems of coordination and control arise when different business areas are managed within the framework of a functional structure [2]. It becomes difficult to identify the profitability of each distinct business area, and it is difficult to run a functional department, such as production or marketing, if it is supervising the value creation activities of several business areas.
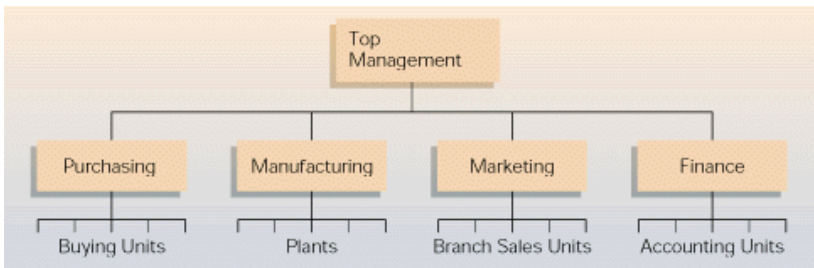

Fig. 1. A Typical Functional Structure

To solve the problems of coordination and control, most firms switch to a product division structure at this stage (see fig. 2). With a product division structure, each division is responsible for a distinct product line (business area). Thus, Philips has divisions for lighting, consumer electronics, industrial electronics, and medical systems. Each product division is set up as a self-contained, largely autonomous entity with its own functions. The responsibility for operating decisions is typically decentralized to product divisions, which are then held accountable for their performance. Headquarters is responsible for the overall strategic development of the firm and for the financial control of the various divisions.
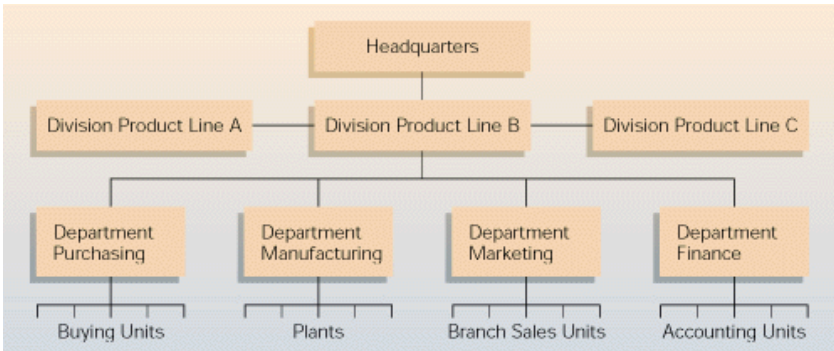
Fig. 2. A Typical Product Division Structure

Historically, when firms have expanded abroad they have typically grouped all their international activities into an international division. This has tended to be the case for firms organized on the basis of functions and for firms organized on the basis of product divisions. Regardless of the firm's domestic structure, its international division tends to be organized on geography. This is illustrated in fig. 3 for a firm whose domestic organization is based on product divisions.

Many manufacturing firms expanded internationally by exporting the product manufactured at home to foreign subsidiaries to sell. Thus, in the firm illustrated in fig. 3, the subsidiaries in Countries 1 and 2 would sell the products manufactured by Divisions A, B, and C. In time it might prove viable to manufacture the product in each country, and so production facilities would be added on a country-by-country basis. For firms with a functional structure at home, this might mean replicating the functional structure in every country in which the firm does business. For firms with a divisional structure, this might mean replicating the divisional structure in every country in which the firm does business.

This structure has been widely used; according to a Harvard study, 60 percent of all firms that have expanded internationally have initially adopted it.
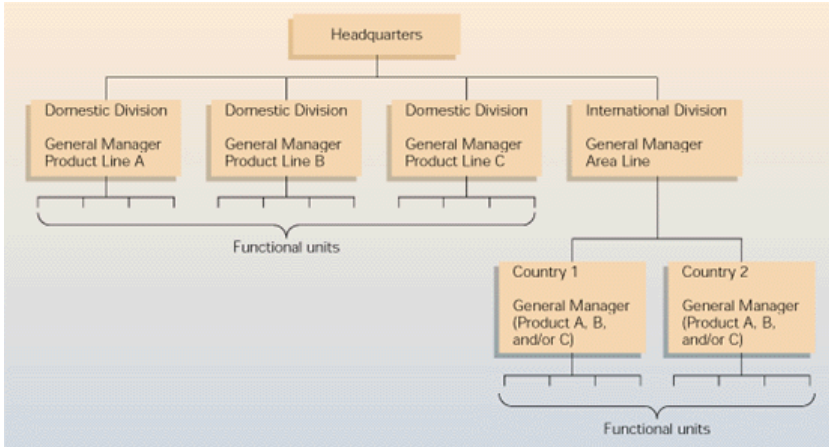
Fig. 3. One Company's International Division Structure

It gives rise to problems [3]. The dual structure it creates contains inherent potential for conflict and coordination problems between domestic and foreign operations. The heads of foreign subsidiaries are not given as much voice in the organization as the heads of domestic functions (in the case of functional firms) or divisions (in the case of divisional firms). Rather, the head of the international division is presumed to be able to represent the interests of all countries to headquarters. This relegates each country's manager to the second tier of the firm's hierarchy, which is inconsistent with a strategy of trying to expand internationally and build a true multinational organization.

Another problem is the implied lack of coordination between domestic operations and foreign operations, which are isolated from each other in separate parts of the structural hierarchy. This can inhibit the worldwide introduction of new products, the transfer of core competencies between domestic and foreign operations, and the consolidation of global production at key locations so as to realize location and experience curve economies. An example of these problems is given in the accompanying Management Focus, which looks at the experience of Abbott Laboratories with an international division structure.

Because of such problems, most firms that continue to expand internationally abandon this structure and adopt one of the worldwide structures we discuss next. The two initial choices are a worldwide product division structure, which tends to be adopted by diversified firms that have domestic product divisions, and a worldwide area structure, which tends to be adopted by undiversified firms whose domestic structures are based on functions. These two alternative paths of development are illustrated in fig. 4. The model in the figure is referred to as the international structural stages model and it was developed by John Stopford and Louis Wells [4].

Fig. 4. The International Structural Stages Model

Source: Adapted from John M. Stopford and Louis T. Wells, *Strategy and Structure of the Multinational Enterprise* (New York: Basic Books, 1972).
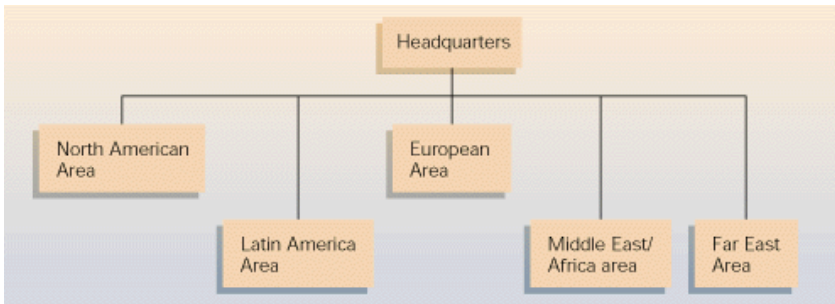

Fig. 5. A Worldwide Area Structure

A worldwide area structure tends to be favored by firms with a low degree of diversification and a domestic structure based on function (see fig. 5). This structure divides the world into areas. An area may be a country (if the market is large enough) or a group of countries. Each area tends to be a self-contained, largely autonomous entity with its own set of value creation activities (e.g., its own production, marketing, R&D, human resources, and finance functions). Operations authority and strategic decisions relating to each of these activities are typically decentralized to each area, with headquarters retaining authority for the overall strategic direction of the firm and overall financial control.

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This structure facilitates local responsiveness. Because decision-making responsibilities are decentralized to each area, each area can customize product offerings, marketing strategy, and business strategy to the local conditions. The weakness of the structure is that it encourages fragmentation of the organization into highly autonomous entities. This can make it difficult to transfer core competencies between areas and to undertake the rationalization in value creation activities required for realizing location and experience curve economies. The structure is consistent with a multidomestic strategy but with little else. Thus, firms structured on this basis may encounter significant problems if local responsiveness is less critical than reducing costs or transferring core competencies for establishing a competitive advantage in their industry. For an example of the nature of such problems, see the closing case about Unilever.

A worldwide product division structure tends to be adopted by firms that are reasonably diversified and, accordingly, originally had domestic structures based on product divisions. As with the domestic product division structure, each division is a self-contained, largely autonomous entity with full responsibility for its own value creation activities. The headquarters retains responsibility for the overall strategic development and financial control of the firm (see fig. 6).
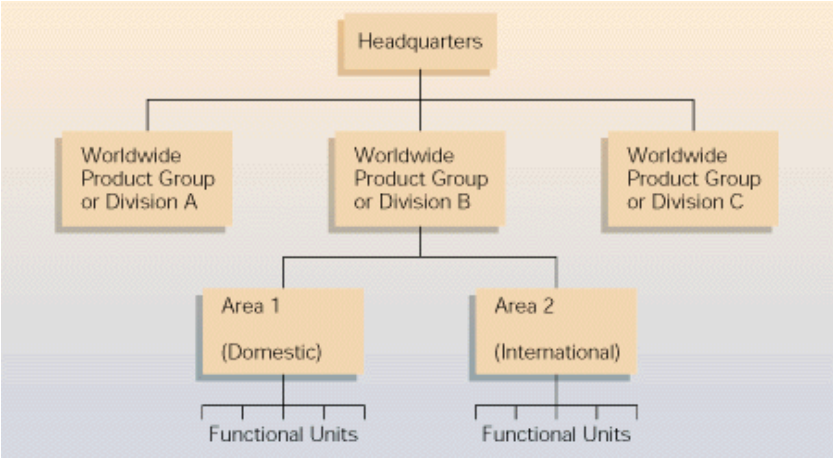

Fig. 6. A Worldwide Area Product Division Structure

Underpinning the organization is a belief that the various value creation activities of each product division should be coordinated by that division worldwide. Thus, the worldwide product division structure is designed to help overcome the coordination problems that arise with the international division and worldwide area structures (see the Management Focus on Abbott Laboratories for a detailed example). This structure provides an organizational context in which it is easier to pursue the consolidation of value

creation activities at key locations necessary for realizing location and experience curve economies. It also facilitates the transfer of core competencies within a division's worldwide operations and the simultaneous worldwide introduction of new products. The main problem with the structure is the limited voice it gives to area or country managers, since they are seen as subservient to product division managers. The result can be a lack of local responsiveness, which can be a fatal flaw.

Both the worldwide area structure and the worldwide product division structure have strengths and weaknesses. The worldwide area structure facilitates local responsiveness, but it can inhibit the realization of location and experience curve economies and the transfer of core competencies between areas. The worldwide product division structure provides a better framework for pursuing location and experience curve economies and for transferring core competencies, but it is weak in local responsiveness. Other things being equal, this suggests that a worldwide area structure is more appropriate if the firm's strategy is multidomestic, whereas a worldwide product division structure is more appropriate for firms pursuing global or international strategies. However, other things are not equal; most important, as Bartlett and Ghoshal have argued, to survive in some industries, firms must adopt a transnational strategy. That is, they must focus simultaneously on realizing location and experience curve economies, on local responsiveness, and on the internal transfer of core competencies (worldwide learning) [5].

Many firms have attempted to cope with the conflicting demands of a transnational strategy by using a matrix structure. In the classic global matrix structure, horizontal differentiation proceeds along two dimensions: product division and geographical area (see fig. 7). The basic philosophy is that responsibility for operating decisions pertaining to a particular product should be shared by the product division and the various areas of the firm. Thus, the nature of the product offering, the marketing strategy, and the business strategy to be pursued in Area 1 for the products produced by Division A are determined by conciliation between Division A and Area 1 management. It is believed that this dual decision-making responsibility should enable the firm to simultaneously achieve its particular objectives. In most classic matrix structures, dual responsibility is reinforced by giving product divisions and geographical areas equal status within the organization. Individual managers belong to two hierarchies (a divisional hierarchy and an area hierarchy) and have two bosses (a divisional boss and an area boss).

Unfortunately, the global matrix structure often does not work as well as the theory predicts. In practice, the matrix often is clumsy and bureaucratic. It can require so many meetings that it is difficult to get any work done. Often, the need to get an area and a product division to reach a decision slows decision making and produces an inflexible organization unable to respond quickly to market shifts or to innovate. The dual-hierarchy structure can also lead to conflict and perpetual power struggles between the areas and the product
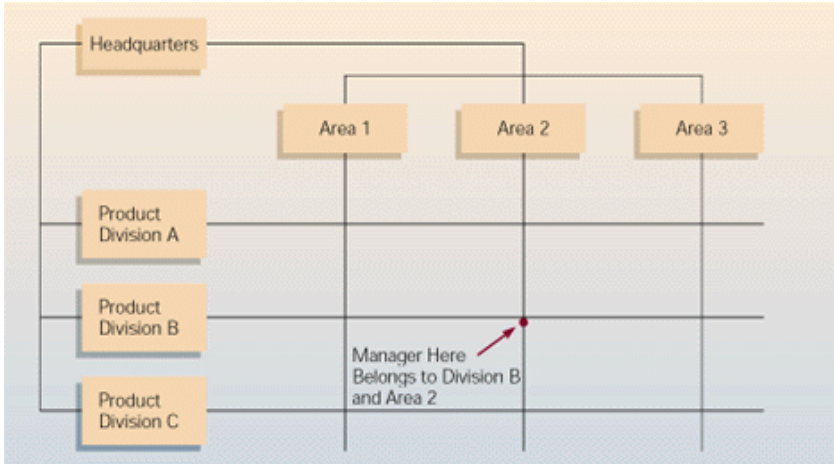
Fig. 7. A Global Matrix Structure

divisions, catching many managers in the middle. To make matters worse, it can prove difficult to ascertain accountability in this structure. When all critical decisions are the product of negotiation between divisions and areas, one side can always blame the other when things go wrong. As a manager in one global matrix structure, reflecting on a failed product launch, said to the author, "Had we been able to do things our way, instead of having to accommodate those guys from the product division, this would never have happened." (A manager in the product division expressed similar sentiments.) Such finger pointing can compromise accountability, enhance conflict, and allow headquarters to lose control over the organization.

In light of these problems, many transnational firms are now trying to build "flexible» matrix structures based on firm wide networks and a shared culture and vision rather than on a rigid hierarchical arrangement. Dow Chemical, which is profiled in the accompanying Management Focus, is one such firm. Within such companies, the informal structure plays a greater role than the formal structure. We discuss this issue when we consider informal integrating mechanisms in the next section.

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INNOVATIONS IN A FAST CHANGING GLOBAL ECONOMY

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Innovation, global economy, invention, government, recession, bear market, entrepreneurship

In its history civilization has done several great steps. All these steps were based on great innovations which happened in economy. And these innovations were based on great inventions in different fields from science to simple life. Railway, computers and so on are innovations that changed people's life tremendously. Now innovations are an important component of the global economy that always change and give it a new breathe. At the time "innovation" is an often pronounced word because many people consider it to be the only way out of the economic crisis.

«Organizations have only two ways to grow. They can buy other companies or grow organically. To grow organically, again there are only two ways. They can try to squeeze more sales out of an existing portfolio of products or services. That's a dangerous proposition because first, your products will become stale – competitors will enter the market with newer products and your margins will decline over time. This can happen quickly: some products' lifecycles are only 12 to 16 months long. The other way to grow organically is to come up with new products and services – you have to innovate», – says Stefan H. Thomke, Professor of Business Administration at Harvard Business School.[1]

Innovation is a new way of doing something or "new stuff that is made useful»[2]. Very often people confuse such words as invention and innovation, but these are a little different words. "Invention is about discovery and the creation of something novel that did not previously exist. Innovation, on the

other hand, carries invention further with the commercial realization of the value of the invention or the receipt of an economic return." After all, Thomas Edison didn't invent the light bulb: he discovered the filament that could supply light reliably – what was required to make the light bulb commercially viable.[1]

For estimating success of different countries in the field of innovations there is the Global Innovation Index. Global Innovation – is the innovation that influences not only economy where it was born but also affects other national economies. Here you can see the latest index that was published in March 2009. Let's take a look at this. In the table below you can see countries which use innovations very successfully and this way they achieve good results in their economies. As you can see all the countries from this table are leaders of up-to-date global economy and in our opinion innovations are the way they took to turn to the most developed and powerful countries of the world.[2]

Table 1

Global Innovation Index

Rank	Country	Overall	Innovation Inputs	Innovation Performance
1	South Korea	2.26	1.75	2.55
2	United States	1.80	1.28	2.16
3	Japan	1.79	1.16	2.25
4	Sweden	1.64	1.25	1.88
5	Netherlands	1.55	1.40	1.55
6	Canada	1.42	1.39	1.32
7	United Kingdom	1.42	1.33	1.37
8	Germany	1.12	1.05	1.09
9	France	1.12	1.17	0.96
10	Australia	1.02	0.89	1.05

Innovation is one of a few factors that can easily change the situation on the market and turn its leaders to outsiders. During past ten years all lists and ratings of biggest companies constantly change. New companies with new ideas come and take places of former leaders and it often happens due to innovations. In the time of recession and bear market this process might speed up.

«The Ewing Marion Kauffman Foundation analyzed data from the U.S. Census, the Fortune 500 list of the largest US companies and the Inc. 500 list of America's fastest-growing companies. In a research study released in June 2009, there were presented three main findings:

• While recessions and bear markets often lead to short-term declines in

business formation, they do not seem to have a significantly negative impact on the formation and survival of new businesses.

• More than half of the companies on the 2009 Fortune 500 list, and just under half of those on the 2008 Inc. list, were founded during a recession or bear market.

• Job creation from start-ups is less volatile and less sensitive to downturns than job creation in the entire economy». [3]

So, we can see that innovations can make new market leaders and destroy companies which do not pay sufficient attention to new ideas and technologies and do not care of the innovative way of development. There is an even special term – disruption innovation. This term refers to unknown product or service that revolutionizes market through low prices or high quality. Such innovations can easily destroy business that cannot compete with innovative idea or technology. In this case, innovation is a good cleaner of markets that destroy ineffective business structures and establish new market leaders.

Now we will see the influence of innovations on the global economy. We will take the example of one innovation and will find the consequences of this innovation. We take the example of iPod as a recent innovation in computer industry of the USA. In the global economy innovation in one country often influences economic processes in other country, particularly in the case of the USA and other developed countries. Such influence can be easily spotted when we look at the product chain of iPod. In the table 2 you can see that this innovation created a lot of work places not only in the country where it was born. However, the biggest total benefit was got by the USA. It proves that its own innovations give a great advantage to a country.

Table 2[4]

Work places in iPod production and commercial chain

	Production	Retail	Engineering	Total
US	90	7789	6101	13920
Non-US	19160	4825	3265	27250
Total	19190	12614	9366	41170

Governments should not stay away from the innovation activity. It is a very risky business and government has to help to entrepreneurs who run innovative business. Here are some ways governments can help:

• **Strengthen and invest in education systems.** Innovation requires a well-educated, competitive labor market, brimming with both skills and ideas.

• **Encourage businesses to connect with global, cross-border markets.** The point is most relevant for entrepreneurs launching a start-up or expanding an existing business so they can consider the largest possible market for their services or goods.

• **Cultivate confidence in capital markets.** Governments are responsible

for creating conditions that attract foreign investors. Adopting a financial reporting language (such as IFRS) that can be understood by investors around the world will go a long way to ensuring a common language. The reform provides a vehicle for tapping international capital flows that can benefit business activity at home and boost growth – especially when attracting capital for initial public offerings.

• **Simplify procedures and requirements.** Burdensome processes can create roadblocks that increase the cost of doing business. This is an entry barrier for many nascent and growing businesses. No government can afford this during a time of economic downturn or recovery.

• **Champion robust R&D programs.** This is especially beneficial in the increasingly active areas of energy (such as cleantech) and scientific research.

• **Allow for failure.** If an attempt at innovation does not succeed, does the tax code allow for the business to write it off?

• **Encourage sound public/private partnerships.** It only behooves the government, universities and business sector to work together in the spirit of innovation.

• **Make the tax framework friendly to innovation.** Different countries will develop different approaches that can include tax credits for new workers, immediate expensing of capital assets and making tax credits available to lenders to lower the cost of finance.[3]

And countries which realize the importance of help to innovations are successful in global economy. Here are for example words of Tony Blair about innovation and their importance. The former prime-minister says: "The creativity and inventiveness of our people is our country's greatest asset and has always underpinned the UK's economic success. But in an increasingly global world, our ability to invent, design and manufacture the goods and services that people want is more vital to our future prosperity than ever…The challenge is to create the conditions where all our firms put innovation at the centre of their strategies for the future. Government can't do this alone. We need to work with industry, trade unions, employees and consumers. But Government does have a key role". [5]

At the time of crisis almost all big companies cut their spending for innovations. They stop R&D to save money because of financial troubles. The task of government is to find ways of stimulating innovative programmes in big companies. As it is a wrong way to stop innovations now, as we said, only innovations now can give a powerful push to a global economy and finish all crisis' effects.

So, if governments and companies want to save the innovative way of development they must know and remember a few principles:

– Innovations are often disruptive and can destroy companies that do not pay enough attention to innovations. And we do not need to be afraid of it.

– The larger organization, the more money they will be spending on innovations.

– To stimulate innovations government has to pay attention to

entrepreneurship.

– We should see innovation and reward people and companies who did it.

And remember that innovation is always a step forward, a step to the future.

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RUSSIAN TRANSNATIONAL CORPORATIONS: ACHIEVEMENTS AND OBSTACLES TO DEVELOPMENT

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Transnational corporations, foreign expansion, stateowned companies, transparency and disclosure level, government support

Economic growth in the 2000s resulted in the greater foreign expansion of Russian companies. A growing number of Russian companies cannot imagine their further development without investing abroad. Foreign expansion of Russian capital is basically focused on raw materials, although there are examples of complementing the value chains with facilities for advanced processing, direct access to distribution, and so on. Yet these exceptions do not change the overall picture. Although the emerging Russian transnational corporations are quite aggressive, Lukoil, the biggest Russian transnational corporation in terms of foreign assets occupies only 160th place in the world table of ranks.

There are multiple factors that explain the desire of Russian companies

to invest abroad: access to new market channels and new sources of raw materials, overcoming tariff and non-tariff limitations in regional integration groups, operational diversification, reduction of production costs, and capturing additional competitive advantages on the domestic and external markets, among others. Another driver for expansion is the building of distribution chains that would be closer to end consumers and bring in a greater trading margin than wholesale deliveries. There are many factors that "push out" Russian companies' investments to foreign markets: lack of opportunities to access new assets and resources inside the country, more fierce competition on the domestic market, acquisition of assets abroad, and emergence of new international companies help avoid both third-party claims to the old business structures and dependence on the state that has been increasing recently, thus making it possible to hedge one's own investments and to defend more efficiently against hostile takeovers.

As it is shown by table 1, the oil and gas and metal companies are the largest Russian investors abroad, judging by the accumulated value of their foreign assets. In addition, it should be noted that very few companies are responsible for the bulk of foreign investment from Russia. For instance, the combined value of foreign investment of the two leading Russian oil and gas companies, Lukoil and Gazprom, exceeds $45 billion, which is roughly equivalent to the remaining 8 companies on the top-10 list. Moreover, the the two companies are responsible for nearly 90% of FDI from the oil and gas sector. Judging by the recent development, no other Russian oil and gas companies have the sufficient will or resources to become truly global player [1].

Table 1

Top-10 Russian companies ranked by foreign assets, as of 31.12.2008, m/n $ [2]

2008 rank	Company	Industry	Foreign assets
1	Lukoil	Oil and gas	23577
2	Gazprom	Oil and gas	21408
3	Severstal	Ferrous metals	12198
4	Evraz Holding	Ferrous metals	11196
5	Novolipetsk Steel	Ferrous metals	4985
6	Sovkomflot	Shipping company	4642
7	Norilsk Nickel	Non-ferrous metals	4600
8	VimpelCom	Telecommunications	4386
9	Mobile TeleSystems	Telecommunications	3812
10	TMK	Ferrous metals	2361

The foreign investments by the Russian metals and mining companies

have grown substantially during the past two years. The combined value of the foreign assets of the two leading Russian steel companies Evraz Holding and Severstal, is nearly $ 23 billion, the majority of which has been raised during the past few years.

Besides the natural resourcebased enterprises, the Russian telecom companies are gaining ever stronger foothold on the CIS market. In virtually all the CIS countries, the Russian telecom operators are the indisputable market leaders. Led by MTS and VimpelCom (Altimo/ Alfa Group), the Russian companies have acquired controlling shares in local telecom operators throughout the CIS. Moreover, the top Russian telecom holdings have voiced their interest in equity participation in the leading Scandinavian telecom companies, such as TeliaSonera and Telenor.

Judging by their investment paths, most of the leading foreign investing companies among the Russian industrial corporations – Lukoil, Norilsk Nickel, Evraz, Severstal, MTS, etc. – have retained at least most of their autonomy in investment decisions. Although it has become evident that no big business can survive in Russia without certain support from the high levels of the state administration, it does not mean that the companies receive instructions for daily operations from the high ranks of power. Thus, Gazprom is the only stateowned company among the top Russian foreign investors. In many respects, the natural gas giant is the symbol of Russia's current geopolitical ambitions, being the most powerful bearer of the Russian economic (and often political) influence abroad. The state buying into the key strategic sectors of oil and gas has dramatically shaped balance of power in these industries and led to a notable concentration of resources. No doubt there is a considerable temptation to use these resources to gain economic and political leverage in the target countries. The natural gas giant, Gazprom, is a case in point. The ever increasing domestic leverage and extensive resource base have been effectively used to create a vast international energy empire, covering all the countries of the former Soviet Union and most of the EU with increasing appetite for additional downstream assets near to the end users of the Western Europe.

Table 2

Transparency Scores of the Most Transparent Russian Companies, 2009 [4]

2009 rank	2008 rank	Company	2009 score, %	Ownership structure, shareholder rights, %	Financial and operational information, %	Board and management structure, %
1	2	Rosneft	80	88	80	78
2	1	CTC Media	80	88	77	78

2009 rank	2008 rank	Company	2009 score, %	Ownership structure, shareholder rights, %	Financial and operational information, %	Board and management structure, %
3	13	Magnitogorsk Iron & Steel	78	88	82	69
4	5	Mechel	77	90	77	76
5	4	MTS	76	84	73	77
6	3	Novolipetsk Steel	76	80	78	77
7	6	TMK	74	86	73	75
8	7	Vimpelcom	72	84	71	75
9	11	Rostelecom	72	79	70	71
10	56	Acron	71	79	73	53
		Top 10 average	75.6	84.6	75.4	64.3

Involvement of the governmental apparatus in the Russian economy remains one of the key issues for both domestic and foreign operations of the Russian companies. The increasing state control over the large Russian enterprises has had a considerable effect on Russia's domestic business environment and economic power balance [3].

From the point of view of state interests, advantages of the Russian companies' transnational expansion include a stronger geopolitical situation for Russia, increased revenues for other national players that are economically tied to transnational corporations, better competitiveness between the leading companies because of more sources of resources, access to new technologies, and so on, which has a positive impact on the overall competitiveness of the national economy, and a more transparent business of transnational corporations. Having transparent foreign assets makes a company more attractive for foreign investors.

The lack of transparency in Russian companies' investment behavior is exacerbated further by the poor transparency and disclosure record of Russian enterprises. According to Standard & Poor's (table 2), the organizational transparency of Russian companies remains low in comparison to internationally accepted practice. In particular, Russian companies rank low in disclosing their ownership and affiliate structures. Although the aforementioned study shows an improvement in transparency and disclosure performance in 2009 over the previous years, most Russian companies constantly underperform in comparison to their Western counterparts. Of Russia's top 10 foreign investors (see table 1), only the telecommunication companies, MTS and VimpelCom, and Novolipetsk Steel achieved the international standard of transparency and disclosure, reaching a score of around 80%.

The most transparent company this year is Rosneft Oil Company, which was number two in the 2008 ranking. The company has improved its transparency and disclosure level by 2 percentage points The breakdown of transparency by industry shows that the telecommunications sector remains the most transparent, with an average capitalization-weighted transparency score of 74%. The metallurgy sector maintained its second place ranking.

The policy of the Government of Russia towards Russian companies' internationalization is currently not supportive enough. The government should encourage firms particularly in non-natural resource-based industries to expand their operations particularly in the developed West, since the expansion towards the developing countries does not force the Russian companies to transform their business practices as fast as the developed West. The encouragement could occur for instance in a form of providing risk finance, know-how and networks. In addition, the foreign expansion of the companies in natural-resource-based sectors, and energy in particular, is continuously overshadowed by Russian political interests 'near abroad'. By promoting transparent and business-oriented investments abroad, Russian firms could change the attitude in the host countries [5]. Given the deep-rooted historical resistance towards Russia's political and economic dominance in the former socialist bloc, the ultimate goal behind the internationalization of Russian companies plays a significant role in how these companies are perceived in the host countries. However, more recent developments point to the emergence of companies in the newly emerging industries. These Russian manufacturing and telecommunication companies are rapidly catching up with the natural resource-based conglomerates in the global scene [6]. From the host countries' point of view, Russian firms conducting transparent and non-politically-motivated businesses are the most welcomed ones.

Given the intensification of competition on key world markets, almost every country provides state-level support to their companies as they expand abroad. The struggle for natural resources, especially energy, leads to a substantial increase in state protectionism in this particular field. Overcoming protectionist barriers requires a systemic state policy to support national companies' expansion abroad.

Currently, state support to domestic business is increasing. Official delegations are accompanied by numerous groups of businessmen. Yet in addition to political and diplomatic support, financial support should be stepped up to companies engaged in foreign expansion. The Russian export credit insurance fund is too small. It does not allow for radical changes in the structure of our export in favor of manufacturing industries. It makes sense to think about creating a specialized agency that would combine functions pertaining to the coordination and encouragement of foreign investments and export credit insurance. What is needed is a special law stipulating the principles of supporting Russian companies' investments abroad, because with this kind of cooperation, entrepreneurial risks are often burdened with various force-majeure circumstances, including political factors. Such a law could not

be replaced with measures liberalizing the export of Russian capital to foreign countries or with multilateral or bilateral agreements in this field.

In conclusion, I would like to say that the Russian foreign investments are in a rapid rise. The Russian TNCs are the largest foreign investors among the companies from the emerging markets of the world and the value of foreign assets of the top 10 Russian investors has become threefold during the past two years. The Russian oil and gas companies' remain the leaders among Russian companies in terms of the total foreign asset value. However, transnational expansion requires significant support and control from the state.

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SOME ASPECTS OF POVERTY IN RUSSIA

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Consumption level, poverty line, cost of living, transitional period in Russia, unemployment, inflation, corruption, anti-poverty strategy, national project to fight poverty, innovative economy

Nowadays poverty is considered to be one of the most important problems in Russia. Poverty is defined as an economic condition of lacking both money and basic necessities needed to live successfully, such as food, water, education,

healthcare, and shelter. Poverty may therefore also be defined as the economic condition of lacking predictable and stable means of meeting basic life needs [1].

A common method used to measure poverty in different countries is based on incomes or consumption levels. A person is considered poor if his or her consumption or income level falls below some minimum level necessary to meet basic needs. This minimum level is usually called the «poverty line». What is necessary to satisfy basic needs varies across time and societies. Therefore, poverty lines vary in time and place, and each country uses lines, which are appropriate to its level of development, societal norms and values.

The table lists countries by the percentage of the population living below the national poverty line – the poverty line deemed appropriate for a country by its authorities. Among these 20 countries Russia has the 13th place with 15,8% of poverty. Definitions of the poverty line may vary considerably among nations. For example, rich nations generally employ more generous standards of poverty than poor nations. Thus, the numbers are not strictly comparable among countries.

Population below poverty line by country (2007) [2]

Rank	Countries	Amount
1	Gaza Strip	80%
2	Nigeria	70%
3	Tajikistan	60%
4	West Bank	46%
5	Djibouti	42%
6	Benin	37.4%
7	Burma	32.7%
8	Ghana	28.5%
9	India	25%
10	Argentina	23.4%
11	Iran	18%
12	Trinidad and Tobago	17%
13	Russia	15.8%
14	Belgium	15.2%
15	Morocco	15%
16	Vietnam	14.8%
17	Kazakhstan	13.8%
18	Montenegro	7%

Rank	Countries	Amount
19	Serbia and Montenegro	6.5%
20	Taiwan	0.95%

Every Russian poor man is different – poor for different reasons and to a different extent. They come from different backgrounds: ages, religions and different regions of the country. However, there is an important fact – the poor in Russia are numerous. According to the World Bank, 15.8 percent (this percent is different according to different organizations) of the Russian population (roughly 22,3 million) live below the poverty line, which is defined as a monthly income of 6,000 rubles (cost of living less than $210). The proportion of poverty in Russia ranges between 13-18% or 40% depending on who is doing the study and what data they are using [3].

Population below poverty line (%) in Russia [4]
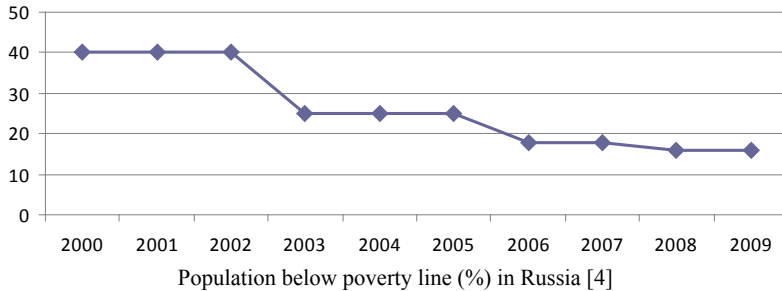
From this illustration we can see the reducing of poverty in Russia since 2002 year from 40% to 25%. In 2006 year it reduced to 17,8%.

Some of the causes for extremely poor living conditions for many Russians are:

1. The collapse of the Soviet Union that caused the disappearance of social security nets and emergence of poverty;

2. Political and societal changes over transitional period – acute corruption and abuse of power, leading to a deeply divided society;

3. Poorly elaborated and/or implemented economic reforms;

4. High unemployment rates and significant underemployment;

5. Inequality between public and private sector development leading to even full-time working people being hostages of poverty, mostly low-ranking civil servants;

6. High inflation rates resulting from the growing "export money" inflow and irrational budgeting policy;

7. Extreme weather conditions that aggravate poverty, requiring expenditure for heating, clothing and calorie-intake.

The collapse of the Soviet Union became one of the most important causes for poverty. Since the Soviet Union broke apart in 1991, the transition has been difficult for many Russians. It has been an enormous adjustment that they were not prepared for. Many poor people frequently express the view that they were better off under socialism. With the sudden shift to a market economy and privatization of public enterprises, tons of industries collapsed. This led to more unemployment, lost or reduced social assistance and wage arrears for many [5].

The effect of corruption on the poor is very profound and it can be gauged through both its direct impact (through, for example, increasing the cost of public services, lowering their quality and often all together restricting poor people's access to such essential services as water, health and education) and the indirect impact (through, for example, diverting public resources away from social sectors and the poor). Corruption in Russia is today more rampant than ever. Transparency International published annual Corruption Perceptions Index, that include 180 countries, in which Russia has in 2009 146th place with countries, such as: Cameroon, Ukraine, Kenya, Ecuador, Zimbabwe. The scores range from ten (squeaky clean) to zero (highly corrupt) [6].

There is a need to have a national anti-poverty strategy incorporating the following measures:

• Strong budgeting policy, reorganizing the structure of government spending by focusing on the most vulnerable fields and those adding the most value to the economy;

• A true educational and health system reform, where they are made accessible to all echelons of the population;

• Aggressive anti-unemployment policy;

• Premium on improving living standards, developing infrastructure and providing access to information and modern technologies.

All-out efforts have to be made to ameliorate national economy, especially by diversifying. Exports are mostly commodity-based and investments remain concentrated in the natural resource sectors. This is undesirable in any case, even more so in light of reducing poverty. The economy success will depend on the scope and speed of diversification, both away from oil and gas, and deeper into Russia's regions.

Improving public sector management and fighting corruption is essential. Important measures include modernizing the civil service, public administration and judicial systems, and improving public finances. It is crucial to eliminate corruption and provide equal opportunities for individuals and businesses.

There are some plans set in Russia now to fight poverty. At a session of the Institute of Labour's Scientists' Council, the Deputy General Director of Scientific Work at the Scientific Research Institute for Labour, Alexander Razumov, presented a report entitled 'Justification and development of a national plan to fight poverty 2010 –2012'. The economic crisis has ushered in a new wave of poverty. At present 17.4% of the population could be deemed

poor; 65.2% of those deemed poor come from the working-age population. Among them 25.4% are 16-30 years old. Moreover, according to Razumov, in Russia there are four million people without fixed accommodation or occupation. In 2009 year the overall number of unemployed rose by 51.2%, from 4.3 million to 6.5 million [7].

The Scientific Research Institute for Labour, on the orders of the Russian Ministry of Health and Social Development, has developed a national project plan to fight poverty in Russia from 2010 – 12. In accordance with the project, there are plans to guarantee employment for citizens through the development of small and medium-sized business, assistance in placing low-skilled workers in employment, and a reduction in the number of low-paid jobs. There are also plans to increase state expenditure on education and healthcare and the size of social guarantee directed to the support of children, mothers, families, students and pensioners. And the fight against poverty will not be successful unless Russia develops a more innovative economy.

So, we can come to the conclusion, that poverty in Russia is one of the primary and very serious problems. The situation now is critical and it's necessary for our Government to take effective arrangements to combat poverty. We can see, that such arrangements have to begin with fighting corruption in Russia as one of the key reasons for the country's problems, such as poverty, and then all of them should prosecute in complex of different reforms and the introduction of innovations in national economy.

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SERGE DIAGHILEV'S BALLETS RUSSES

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Art, music, theatre design, Ballets Russes, Serge Diaghilev, Igor Stravinsky, Leon Bakst, Alexandre Benois, Vaslav Nijinsky

The Russian Ballet, better known as *Ballets Russes*, was an itinerant ballet company established in 1909 by the great Russian impresario Serge Diaghilev.

The idea of bringing Russian traditional art and folklore to Europe was spread in the artistic society of *Mir Iskusstva*, or *The World of Art*, which Diaghilev joined in 1899. Its members were Alexandre Benois, its founder, Walter Nouvel, Konstantin Somov, Dmitri Filosofov and Leon Bakst.

Diaghilev arranged an exhibition of portrait painting in St Petersburg in 1905. The next year he showcased Russian art for Parisian audience with *The Russian Seasons* company. It was the beginning of displaying Russian art in France. In 1907 he presented Russian opera in Paris. It was warmly received there, and they planned another season the following year. In 1908, the group presented a combination of opera and ballet in Paris and enjoyed tremendous success. Although the opera *Boris Godunov* was in favor, the ballet was particularly a success. Repeated visits in the following years resulted in the formation of the *Ballets Russes* in 1911 as an independent private company, which Diaghilev directed until his death in 1929.

Diaghilev rejected conventional ideas of ballet. His major achievement was to integrate music, dance, costume and design. He created a new modernist ballet by encouraging the artistic collaboration of painters, choreographers and composers. Diaghilev's genius was his ability to identify talented individuals and get them to collaborate on producing new and exciting theatrical works. *The Ballets Russes* company performed in many countries, including England, Spain, France, North and South America. Ironically, it never performed in Russia.

"It should be mentioned, that at the beginning of the 20th century, ballet was in decline. In Russia, however, it was undergoing a renaissance, with a new generation of dancers and choreographers galvanized by the revolutionary energies fermenting in the country's politics and art" [1].

The *Ballets Russes* was noted for the high standard of its dancers. Most of them were originally members of the Russian Imperial Theatre of St. Petersburg. They were engaged by Serge Diaghilev to perform in Paris during the theatres' summer holidays. At first, the Russian Ballet company consisted of only 13 members, but their number increased from year to year.

As a real impresario, Diaghilev had infallible flair and immaculate taste for talented people. He found and nurtured a galaxy of gifted dancers and choreographers. Among the male dancers were Michel Fokine, Leonide

Massine, Adolphe Bolm, Serge Lifar, George Balanchine. Diaghilev was responsible for raising the status of male dancing, which had been ignored both by the audiences and choreographers since the early nineteenth century.

Vaslav Nijinsky is the most notorious male dancer of the twentieth century. Being a soloist of the Maryinsky Theatre, he went to Paris with Diaghilev's *Ballets Russes* and danced the lead roles in *Le Pavillion d'Armida* and *Les Sylphides* with Anna Pavlova in 1909. The next year he appeared in *Scheherazade*. Vaslav Nijinsky's performance in *Petrushka* was absolutely extraordinary. His movements to Igor Stravinsky's music were jerky and awkward; he could fill the body of a puppet with inner freedom. The love-sick puppet symbolized the Russian soul and its immortality. In 1911 Vaslav Nijinsky danced with Tamara Karsavina in one of the most famous ballets of the time, *Le Spectre de la Rose*, or *Specter of the Rose*.

The main object of Diaghilev's theatrical enterprise was to integrate the ideas of other art forms – music, painting and drama with those of the dance. His choreographers were longing for dance experiments, which were often not taken positively by the audience. Diaghilev's choreographers not only brought a tremendous success to the company, but influenced greatly the subsequent destiny of the world ballet. The most significant choreographers were Michel Fokine, Leonide Massine and Vaslav Nijinsky. Diaghilev also collaborated with Serge Lifar, Bronislava Nijinska and George Balanchine.

During the company's existence, the female dancers included Anna Pavlova, Tamara Karsavina, Ida Rubinstein, Lydia Lopokova, Olga Spessivtseva, Mathilde Kschessinska, Alicia Markova Bronislava Nijinska, and Diana Gould among many others.

Tamara Karsavina began traveling regularly with the *Ballets Russes* to Paris in 1910s. It was during that period when she created many of her most famous parts in the ballets of Mikhail Fokine, including *Le Spectre de la Rose* and *Petrushka*. She was perhaps the most notable for her lead role in Fokine's *Firebird* with Nijinsky.

Diaghilev collaborated with the most famous artists and designers of the period. At first, the principal designers of the Russian Ballet's sets and costumes were Leon Bakst and Alexandre Benois. Benois fascinated the sophisticated Parisian audiences with a marvelous mixture of both Russian and French traditions in his unusual interpretation, while Bakst caused a sensation with his stunning vision of exotic cultures. Russian avant-garde artists like Michel Larionov, Natalia Goncharova also became associated with the Russian Ballet. Nicolas Roerich, Henri Matisse, Pablo Picasso, Georges Braque, Joan Miro, Giorgio de Chirico also designed scenery and costumes for the performances.

Diaghilev employed both Alexandre Benois and Henri Matisse to create the appropriate scenery and costumes for different versions of the Chinese fantasy *Le Rossignol*, or *The Nightingale*. As a result they got brilliant lush watercolors and delicate silk robes. *Petrushka* was a triumph of Alexandre Benois as a designer.

At the end of the nineteenth century European artists and designers plunged into romantic and mysterious atmosphere of exotic civilizations. Leon Bakst was the principal designer of the *Ballets Russes's* Oriental ballets, for which he drew on Indian, Persian, and Middle Eastern art. This is what *The New York Times* of the 1915 says:

"It may be claimed that we have never got out of the Russian influence since the Russian ballet under the wizardry of Leon Bakst held Paris in thrall. Every night one would see there the most famous designers with keen, watching eyes, and the artists for the best designing houses were always working rapidly with their pencils, taking in a line here and a suggestion there" [2].

Bakst was perfectly familiar with the artistic traditions of different cultures which helped him design sets and costumes. He was fascinated by splendid Oriental traditions and art. He used geometric patterns along with mosaics and stylized plant ornaments. An exotic Egyptian melodrama, *Cleopatra* of 1909, was Bakst's first hit in Paris. His extraordinary combination of intense colors and complex patterns influenced new designs in fashion and interior decoration. Inspired by Persian and Arabic ethos, Bakst created lavish sets and costumes for *Scheherazade*, a tale from *1001 Nights*, in 1910.

"Bakst's designs for *Scheherazade* caused a style revolution in Paris. Drawing rooms were furnished with exotic rugs, and the couturier Poiret (a French fashion designer, whose contributions to twentieth-century fashion have been likened to Picasso's contributions to twentieth-century art) brought out a collection of sinuously draped evening dresses" [3].

The Firebird was always praised for its brilliant synthesis of music, choreography and scenery. It was a great success and became one of the most regularly performed ballets in the repertoire of the Russian Ballet. It was the first Stravinsky`s work to be heard in Europe. This is what Henry Gheon, a French music critic of that time, says about the ballet:

"*The Firebird*, being a result of an intimate collaboration between choreography, music, and painting, presents us with the most exquisite miracle of harmony imaginable, of sound and form movement. The old-gold vermiculation with that of the shimmering web of the orchestra. And as one listens, there issues forth the very sound of the wizard shrinking, of swarming sorcerers and gnomes running amok. When the bird passes, it is truly the music that bears it aloft. Stravinsky, Fokine, Golovine, in my eyes are but one name" [4].

The Polovstian Dances made quite a hit with the audience of the Russian Ballet's first season in Paris in 1909. It was a performance of a completely wild tribal dance. The costumes designed by Nicholas Roerich demonstrated his profound knowledge of the early Russian history and folklore. Choreographed by Michel Fokine, the dance steps seemed imaginary and unreal.

Serge Diaghilev, together with contemporary composers created innovative music of a high standard which was frequently the starting point for his ballets. He cooperated with becoming famous Igor Stravinsky, Sergei Prokofiev, Maurice Ravel, Claude Debussy, Darius Milhaud, Ottorino Respighi, Francis Poulenc

and Erik Satie to compose music for his company. Maurice Ravel composed music for *Daphnis and Chloe* which became a symphonic classic.

The most remarkable person of the *Ballets Russes* was Igor Stravinsky, who is now recognized as the most important and influential composer of the early twentieth century. Diaghilev had hired him to create music for the *Firebird*, when Stravinsky was young and unknown. But he was equal to Diaghilev's expectations to the fullest. And this is what Michel Dimitri Calvocoressi, a music critic, writes about Stravinsky:

"Mr. Stravinsky's chief merit is that he remains free from this dangerous prejudice. Russian born and Russian in spirit, he has no ambition but to assert his personality in the fullest and most independent way. He has eagerly drunk-in the often misunderstood or forgotten message of Russia's greatest matters, and thereby learned to stand his own ground, exactly as they had done, and to a great extent by the same means. He has undergone no foreign influence, except perhaps to a slight extent of the modern French "impressionist" School – itself much influenced by the more progressive Russian musicians, like Borodin and Mussorgsky. I would not venture to say that he is at present the only young Russian composer who shows himself not an imitator, but a continuator of the chiefs of the nationalist school; but assuredly he stands apart among his colleagues for the abundance, boldness and vigour of his imagination as well as for his command of craftsmanship; his originality is greater and at the same time more typical: he is the only one who has achieved more then mere attempts to promote Russia's true musical spirit and style" [5].

Le Sacre du Printemps, or *The Rite of Spring,* by Stravinsky was one of the crucial moments in twentieth century music. Its premiere was marked by a riot; the audience was shocked by the expressive, primitive rhythms and vehement movements of the dancers. The musical innovatory of the rhythmic structures, timbres, and use of dissonance made it fruitful for music of the 20th century. The original choreography was by Vaslav Nijinsky, and sets design and costumes by Nicholas Roerich.

"The really remarkable achievement of the three great ballet scores Stravinsky wrote for Diaghilev, however – *Firebird* (1910), *Petrushka* (1911), *The Rite of Spring* (1912–13) – is the way in which he manages to bring these two elements into ever closer relation with one another. The flagrant stylistic discrepancies of *Firebird* are the raw material from which the intensely individual language *of The Rite* was forged – and in only four years! The rapidity and surefootedness of Stravinsky's development at this period is comparable only with Schoenberg's in the middle of the preceding decade.

The enormous, and well-publicized, success of these three ballets first in Paris and then in London and elsewhere (a success which the riotous first night of *The Rite of Spring* did nothing to diminish) set up certain public expectations from which Stravinsky was to suffer for many years" [6].

The Ballets Russes was a spawn of the scores of talented people, but it was a unique conception of the only person – Serge Diaghilev. He could never

go to sleep without thinking up a new idea for a ballet and the way of how to get enough money to stage it. He was the founder and the main link in his grand company. The final season for the *Ballets Russes* was in 1929, the year when Serge Diaghilev died on August 19 in Venice. The company he had been working on for so many years and which he had devoted all his life disbanded immediately.

But Diaghilev's Russian Ballet did not sink into oblivion. He launched a new epoch in the world ballet despite the decline of the theatre art. The Russian Ballet remained the only bearer of the world elite culture of that period. For two decades the *Ballets Russes* being a hotbed of the artistic life was popularizing Russian native traditions and culture in Europe.

The skills and experience of the leading artists ensured high standards of Russian ballet school. Generally, Russian choreographers founded ballet schools and studios: Serge Lifar followed in Diaghilev's footsteps, George Balanchine had moved to the USA in 1933, where he formed the American Ballet School.

Diaghilev originated a new ballet style that had never existed before. His innovation was to unite different kinds of art – costume and scenery design, dance and music – in one. This synthesis turned into a new and unique art with a permanent tendency, or even necessity, to experiment and create something unheard and unprecedented of all time.

For twenty years all Europe was charmed with Russian artistry performed by Diaghilev's company, but ironically Russia itself had never seen its triumph. The First World War was an insurmountable obstacle for Diaghilev's theatrical enterprise despite his passionate willingness to give performances in Russia.

We still enjoy watching Diaghilev`s ballets and visit exhibitions of the costumes which have been put on display in the art museums all over the world. And, of course, we still have a unique opportunity to listen to the magnificent and mysterious music by Stravinsky, Debussy, Ravel, Prokofiev and others.

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A FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEXTBOOK AS A CULTURAL PHENOMENON

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Textbook, language, cultural phenomenon

Humanization in education presupposes increase in its cultural capacity. Educational space is becoming one of the main channels through which fundamental social and cultural values are sent and obtained. So, an important tendency for any educational institution to develop and successfully function is to create cultural environment. A foreign language textbook can serve this purpose as it is not only a means of keeping human being experience and not only a valuable source of information but a product and a phenomenon of this or that culture. In the late 1990s the English language textbooks of foreign publishers like Longman, Oxford, Cambridge etc. came onto the Russian market. They have become very popular in Russian educational space because of some advantages main of which are authentic text and audio materials reflecting present-day state of the language and culture.

A foreign language textbook like any others accomplish educational and pedagogical tasks. Therefore, its important characteristic is functionality. The author of the article has earlier addressed a textbook functioning and found out that one of the most essential functions it performs is representing a foreign culture. A foreign language textbook can be identified as a basic and mass element of acquaintance with a foreign culture and of forming a primary and integral, so-called matrix, idea of the culture. Being the first representator of a foreign culture the textbook has a noticeable effect on students' cross-cultural vision and promotes clearer perception of their native culture. It is undoubtedly true that the main function of the textbook is teaching a foreign language but the language world opens reality represented by it as each foreign word reflects a culture conditioned by national self-consciousness. Some features typical of the language itself are worth mentioning here. The language acts as a factor of socialization and communication. Language structures contain social and

cultural structures. Edward Sapir considered the language to be a symbolic guide for understanding culture. So, no language can be learnt separately from its culture.

Yuri Lotman defines culture as the sum total of texts or a text built in a complicated manner. In that case texts of the textbooks spoken about (of foreign publishers) can be considered as cultural objects, material bearers of culture by means of which culture manifests itself (both in a material and spiritual way). The material bearers represent culture in different modes of subsistence. Social and cultural contents of the textbooks provide students with the background knowledge of

1) traditions, everyday behavior, morals and manners, mentality features, geographical features etc;

2) direct cultural manifestation in the form of fiction, painting, music etc;

3) events and processes of significance for the society;

4) subjects of the culture having become national and cultural heritage.

Being a representator of a foreign culture the textbooks perform some functions typical of culture on the whole. For example, it carries out integrating, socializing and adapting functions which help student enter a foreign culture world more easily. As for the integrating function of the textbooks, on the one hand, it promotes contact with a new culture, penetration into it leading to understanding that there are specific national components as well as universal ones and comprehension of the mankind as a single whole. On the other hand, it helps students' realization that they belong to a certain community and culture which is different from the culture they study. Students' own language and culture are undoubtedly enriched and developed which only becomes possible in the process of comparing cultures, in the dialogue between them. "Monologue for a culture is a blind alley"[1].

The adapting function of the foreign language textbooks helps students adapt themselves to the new space of a foreign culture getting in touch with unknown values and norms and adjusting them with their own culture and their individual position. The process of adaptation does not always go smoothly as it requires psychological and behavioural changes. The foreign language textbooks make it easier to enter the new space and get acquainted with a foreign culture in a pleasant way. It has a positive effect on students' behavior, stimulates their cognitive and other activities, forms various skills and increases the level of individual development.

The foreign language textbooks also have the function of socialisation and enculturation. Each of the terms has its own field of application. They can be used as synonyms if cultural space is equated with social space. Mastering indivisible social and cultural space of the world speaking another language is a case in point. The foreign language textbooks are an effective means in the process of mastering. "A book does not only become a main source of knowledge but one of the most important means of personality socialization, a means of familiarization with the experience of generations replacing each other"[2].

Primary socialization within native culture begins in the early childhood. Socialization within a foreign culture happens while learning another language when a personality has been already formed. The foreign language textbooks help learn new cultural objects, acquire new values, ethical and legal norms, behaviour typical of the society. Mastering a new culture is taking place alongside mastering its cultural code (a foreign language) which makes the process of enculturation far easier, gives an opportunity to state the value of foreign culture phenomena more objectively.

While doing research on social and cultural contents of the English language textbooks some questions arise which need highlighting. One of them concerns culture/cultures represented by the textbooks. The culture of the English-speaking world is not homogeneous and is characterized by a multitude of its objects. The English language has spread far beyond the borders of its homeland having covered new geographical and cultural regions. Nowadays it is spoken as an official language in many countries of the world. The common language of the countries does not mean the common culture. Cultural space of each English-speaking country has its own qualitative characteristic, cultural heritage and spiritual basis. Mastering cultures of the English-speaking world in the process of studying the textbooks students perceive a complicated and many-sided phenomenon.

Moreover, the English language has become a tool of international communication, a factor of unification and this circumstance is taken into consideration by authors of the English language textbooks. From the standpoint of multiculturalism authors of the textbooks consider it to be politically correct to represent cultures of different countries of the world through the English language. The idea of multiculturalism stimulates heated discussions. L. Gorodetskaya comes to a conclusion that the role of this phenomenon is not always constructive and it leads to something opposite to democracy, liberalism and tolerance [3].

It is worth saying a few words here about correlation between language and culture. Language is defined as a constituent of culture, mirror of culture, bearer of culture, tool of culture, storage house of culture. It is placed on one and the same level with culture as a form of thinking (S.G. Ter-Minasova) [4]. Language is also described as a specific national component of culture, essential means of preserving cultural experience (B.S. Yerasov) [5]. According to all that it is obvious that language and culture are closely interrelated. Thus, the English language must reflect the culture of the English-speaking counties where it is spoken as official, especially the culture of the countries of civilizational importance.

Being a cultural phenomenon the foreign language textbooks are influential in stirring and moving a student's spirit. As culture is rich in values it becomes a means of a person's spiritual development, a reorganizer of their inner world. Consuming, preserving and propagating values form a man of culture, which means a spiritual man. Mastering a new culture through the textbooks contributes to:

1)developing students' introspection and capability for self-identification, awareness of themselves as bearers of certain social values;

2)changing students' world view and their priorities and tastes;

3)broadening horizons of perception of the world culture;

4)developing personal cultural space as a result of coming into contact with the space of a foreign culture and acquiring new ideals, norms and values from the outside;

5)forming personal culture including aesthetic culture by means of information from the field of the beautiful like music, painting, fiction, religious traditions which are spiritual constituents of any national culture (English-speaking cultures in particular);

6)forming tolerance to other cultures, willingness to carry on a constructive dialogue.

As the result of mastering a new culture students have a chance to introduce their new experience into surrounding cultural and social environment making it a lot richer. Apart from that, knowledge of a foreign culture and development of personal cultural space promote forming cross-cultural competence urgently required in our days under cross-cultural contacts typical of the modern world.

Thus, being a product and a representative of a foreign culture the foreign language textbooks (the English language textbooks in particular) are a means of mastering both the language being learnt and the space of its culture. The culture of the English-speaking world is not homogeneous and is characterized by a multitude of its objects. Therefore, mastering cultures of the English-speaking world in the process of studying the textbooks students perceive a complicated and many-sided phenomenon. As cultural space is saturated with values the textbooks providing students with background knowledge of English-speaking cultures also become an influential means of spiritual development, broaden personal cultural space forming a personality at the turn of languages and cultures.

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GEORGE BRUMMELL AND HIS LIFE:
THE REFLECTION IN CONTEMPORARY MEMOIRS

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Modern History, England, Great Britain, Regency, Dandyism, Memoirs,
G.B. Brummell, W. Jesse, R.H. Gronow

George Bryan Brummell (1778–1840) is known generally as one of the most famous and magnificent dandies of his times, or even of "all the times"[1]. His name became well-known in Russia during several recent years thanks to the research of O.B. Vainshtein who published series of articles devoted to dandyism the result of which was her doctorate thesis in literature on poetics of European dandyism[2]. However, he is also the object of interest as a bright and outstanding person of his times and the research of his biography gives an enormous possibility to enlighten one of the most interesting periods in English History, the Regency.

One of his biographers said, not without the grounds, that Brummell burned up all his papers in insane assault. "That he wrote some detached papers in the shape of reminiscences, there can be no doubt: many passages in his letters prove this"[3]. So the only sources of information on his life, except for a few survived letters, are only some memoirs and recollections of his contemporaries.

A brief account of his life could make the further information easier for understanding. George Brummell studied in Eton, then he entered Oxford but abandoned it for joining the 10th Hussard in 1795. There he became a very close friend of Prince of Wales, George, and after living service began a gorgeous life of an aristocrat in London. He was the central person of all the events that happened in the high society in London during approximately 1800-1810, being a dictator of fashion and bon ton in the highest circles of the society. In 1813 George Brummell seriously quarrelled with Prince Regent George, besides, he had enormous gambling debts. Thus, he had to fly to France in 1816, where he lived until his death in 1840.

George Brummell and his image have been attracting the attention of writers and researchers almost since his death. The first edition of "Dandyism and George Brummell" by Barbey d'Aurevilly (1808-1889) took place in

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[1] *Д'Оревильи Б.* О дендизме и Джордже Браммелле. М., Независимая газета, 2000.

[2] *Вайнштейн О.Б.* Денди: мода, литература, стиль жизни. М., НЛО, 2006. Вайнштейн О.Б. Европейский дендизм XIX века [Электронный ресурс]: Литературная традиция и поэтика поведения: Дис. д-ра филол. наук. М.: РГБ, 2006.

[3] *Jesse W.* The Life of George Brummell, Esq., Commonly Called Beau Brummell. In 2 vol. L.: Saunders and Otley, 1844. Vol. 1. P. iv.

1845 in Paris (the first re-edition in 1861). The edition was actually symbolic (only 30 samples), «the book for me and thirty unknown friends»[4], but the appearance of such a book was significant itself. Then, excluding rather a wide range of books about beaux and beauties of Regency[5], we can name the essay of V. Woolf (1882-1941) "Beau Brummell" [6]. This sketch was rather emotional, the first part was written with the feeling of admiration and delight, whereas in the second part, which was devoted to Brummell's life in France the tone was too regretful, sad, and with bitter irony.

A few years later, a full Brummell's biography appeared in print. It was written by Cathleen Campbell, and published in 1948[7]. The main question raised by the author was the question how the man who initially had neither pedigree nor wealth reached such a prominent position in London high society, which was famous for its eager guarded insularity[8].

It is possible to name two sources which can give us the data and general presentation of Brummell's life and behavior. They are rather different in style and content, but it makes the comparison even more interesting. So let me describe these two works in details.

I would like to start with the work of captain William Jesse published in 1844, four years after Brummell's death. These two large octavo volumes named "The Life of George Brummell, Esq., commonly called Beau Brummell" were intended to be written during Brummell's life. Captain Jesse got acquainted with the former lord of fashion in France after his service in India; there he began to write his work. As Brummell had destroyed all his writings and letters, the main part of Jesse's work was based on the reminiscences of Brummell's friends and acquaintances, and the survived letters, except for the last period in France, which was the result of Jesse's personal observations. The biography was written with extraordinary warmness and admiration. However, there was strong edifying moral in the end of the narration: still Brummell's way of life did not correspond to the respectable England's concept of "appropriate behavior". Such condemnation was typical for the forthcoming Victorian era, because during the Regency Brummell's mode of life considered to be almost ideal. In the preface Jesse notified in advance that there was no "delightful dish of scandal" in his book, and that he had no intention to retell all the anecdotes and mystifications that were connected with Brummell, for "it would be impossible to vouch for its authenticity; for no one so delighted in mystifying and hoaxing people as he (Brummell) did"[9].

Actually two thirds of his work was devoted to the final episode of

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4 *Д'Оревильи Б*. О дендизме и Джордже Браммелле. С. 52.
5 Monvel de R., Beau Brummell and His Times. L., Eveleigh Nash. 1908. Melville L., The Beaux Of Regency. L., Hutchinson & Co. 1908.
6 *Woolf V.* Beau Brummell. 1925. http://www.dandyism.net/?page_id=201
7 *Campbell K.* Beau Brummell. L.: Hammond & Hammond, 1948.
8 Ibid. P. V.
9 *Jesse W.* The Life of George Brummell, Esq.: Vol. 1. P. IV.

Brummell's life, when he lived in misery in France and went mad. Even some authors, especially d'Aurevilly, blamed Jesse severely for this part, because "starving, the man stops following the conditionality of society, and he is no more the subject of interest as a dandy".

On the contrary, another source on Brummell's life is the collection of anecdotes, written by captain Rees Howell Gronow (1794-1865), "Reminiscences of Captain Gronow being anecdotes of the camp, the court and the clubs at the close of the last war with France"[10] in four volumes, that were printed in 1861-1866. These memoirs presented his recollection of London high society in the first two decades of the XIX century, its favorite hobbies, habits and entertainments. Some parts in his work were dedicated to the most interesting people of the Regency, including Brummell and innumerous anecdotes about him and his jokes. Comparing these two works may give us a lot of food for thought, but now I would like to stress only a few episodes.

Omitting his life in childhood, there was some disparity in telling how Brummell entered the high society. Jesse presented his appearance in the high society after leaving Eton: "According to Brummell's own statement, he had been presented to the heir-apparent on the Terrace at Windsor, when a boy at Eton; and he used to say that his subsequent intimacy with His Royal Highness grew out of the slight notice with which he was then favoured"[11]. However, Gronow told the reader about Brummell's aunt, Mrs. Searle: "She said that one day the Prince of Wales, accompanied by the beautiful Marchioness of Salisbury, called upon her, and as it was a beautiful summer evening, stopped to see her cows milked. Her nephew George Brummel, who had only a day or two before left Eton, happened to be present. The Prince, attracted by his nice manners, entered into conversation with him, and before he left said, «As I find you intend to be a soldier, I will give you a commission in my own regiment." Tears of gratitude filled the youth's eyes, and he fell on his knees and kissed the royal hand. Shortly after, George Brummell's commission in the 10th Hussars was made out, and he was soon quartered with his regiment at Brighton"[12]. Of course, such details like "tears of gratitude" might have been an exaggeration, but the episode itself seems to be rather significant, even if it was not true, it was a kind of a fairy-tale episode, where a hero is obliged to the fortune of all his virtues.

There was an immense quantity of anecdotes, information and arguments on Brummell's reign in the world of fashion, but the other moment that was really interesting too, was how Brummell abandoned this high society. The descriptors of his life connected it with his quarrel with Prince-Regent, but the interpretation differed in some ways.

There was a famous anecdote of "Wales, ring the bell!" how Brummell

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10 *Gronow R.H.* Reminiscences of Captain Gronow being anecdotes of the camp, the court and the clubs at the close of the last war with France. In 4 vol. L.: John C. Nimmo, 1900

11 *Jesse W.* The Life of George Brummell, Esq.: Vol. 1. P. 40.

12 *Gronow R.H.* Op. cit. Vol 2. P. 228–229.

ordered Prince Regent to ring the bell during the dinner. This episode was always denied by Brummell[13], as Jesse said, Brummell's intimates also claimed that this joke was too rude even for Brummell. Captain Gronow gave his version (by one of the witnesses, Sir Arthur Upton: "The Prince therefore pretended to be affronted with Brummell's hilarity, and said to his brother, the Duke of York, who was present," I think we had better order Mr. Brummell's carriage before he gets drunk." Whereupon he rang the bell and Brummell left the royal presence. This circumstance originated the story about the beau having told the Prince to ring the bell"[14]. Besides, "Brummell warmly espoused the cause of Mrs. Fitzherbert, and this of course offended the Prince of Wales"[15]. The final tragic page of his quarrel was connected with another event, in Jesse's interpretation it happened "not long after in a morning walk, when the Prince, leaning on Lord Moira's arm, met Brummell and Lord A (lvanley), coming in the opposite direction, and, probably with the intention of making the cut more evident, his Royal Highness stopped and spoke to his Lordship, without noticing the Beau little thinking that he would resent it; great therefore must have been his surprise and annoyance, as each party turned to continue their promenade, to hear him say in a distinct tone, expressive of complete ignorance of his person, "A (lvanley), who 's your fat friend?"[16]. Gronow described this episode as taking place at Lady Cholmondeley's ball, when the beau, turning towards the Prince, said to Lady Worcester, "Who is your fat friend?". It is notorious that the places and circumstances were different whereas the fatal phrase tended to be the same, and there was even a popular cartoon on this occasion.

There was some more discordance in these memoirs, but now it is important to make some conclusions. In spite of the fact that they was written by totally different men (Jesse tended to be a "true" Victorian, whereas Gronow might be named as a "man of Regency"), and therefore the interpretation given might differ, the general moments were the same and that gives us the possibility to reconstruct Brummell's biography in order to further research into the English history.

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FOLKLORE AND MYTHOLOGY IN THE CONTEXT OF SCIENCE FICTION (O. LARIONOVA'S WORKS AS AN EXAMPLE)

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Folklore, mythology, science fiction, symbol

Olga Larionova, a science-fiction writer, was born in 1935 in Leningrad. In 1967 she became a professional writer. Her first large-scale work was a novel called 'The leopard from the Kilimanjaro top' (1965). This work appeared to be a great success. In 1985 Larionova's first narrative "The sea sonata" was published, which brought the writer an "Aelita" (for the best book of the year) award in 1987.

The creation work of the writer is different from the work of other science fiction writers, for it has a tale-parable basis which combines quite naturally with the science fiction constituent. O. Larionova is the author of the unique cycle of stories called *'on the motives of Churlenis' paintings'*.

Science fiction turned to folkloric and mythological subjects quite a long time ago in the Russian literature. In the course of this 'folklorisation' of science fiction the lyrical and romantic school became quite noticeable (ancient myths in the story 'Urania' by V.N. Zhuravleva (1963), biblical plots in the narratives by L.A. Obuchova 'Lilith' (1966) and 'Noah's daughter' (1970), etc.).

As A. Briticov mentions in one of his works, in the cycle of Larionova's narratives called 'The kings' fairy-tale' (1975), 'The grass snake's sonata' (1975), 'The sun enters the sign of Virgo' (1981), 'The sun enters the sign of Gemini' (1981) '…the moral and philosophical reexamination of world folklore's symbology is shown' (Britikov, 2000, p 162).

Some of the above-given titles of O. Larionova's works coincide with the titles of the paintings by M. Churlenis. Philosophical metaphors from the folk poetry of different countries were the source of inspiration of this famous artist. In this case we can speak of 'adoption of folkloric motives by O. Larionova

through their pictorial interpretation' (Britikov, 2000, p 162) (Fine arts also show interest in the science fiction subjects, for example, there exists a science fiction painting).

In the second half of XX century the formation of a new kind of science fiction literature started. In this new type the scientific imagination joined together with the folkloric and romantic ones.

The researchers of science fiction note that science fiction's general genre elements are similar to folklore's firm formulae and poetic stereotypes. This similarity can be explained by generality of prerequisites and logic of the creative imagination, as well as by their main aim – to guess some of the traits of our foreseeable future.

The most common situation is when science fiction takes different magical images from the folk poetry. Folkloric adoptions get, along with the second poetic life, a typological and notional multiple meaning.

In their new, science fiction version, 'mythical creatures' perform different functions.

In O. Larionova's story 'The grass snake's sonata' a 'magic snake-like creature' appears. There also appears its stylized representation, some kind of a totem, which turns out to be a control and observation tower.

The snake has intellect. Sometime ago he used to be the 'ruler' of this planet, wise and beautiful, but now he experiments on the other creatures, putting them into a special reserve. According to the mythological tradition of different countries, a snake symbolizes both wisdom and blind anger, as well as the power of fire (Zmei Gorynych, a dragon that breathes fire, etc.). It is not without reason that the fire, which the main character of the story, postman inspector Tarumov, kindles to save his 'younger brothers-in-intellect', resembles a snake: "…now it looked like a snake, wearily and lifelessly lay flat on the upper edge of the valley" (Larionova, 1991, p 60). Fire, bonfire is a widespread symbol of self-sacrifice.

In the Lithuanian folklore snake is a symbol of wisdom. In Churlenis' works, which impressed Larionova so greatly, this symbol has a philosophical meaning – 'it is both an image of biblical temptation, which brings Wisdom for people, and personification of the ancient astrological symbol of closed ring of endlessness, where the whole world is based, being torn apart by temptation' (Luneva, http://www.rostcons.ru/intconf_2008/mat_luneva.htm).

It is necessary to pay attention to the abundant green colour in the same story 'The grass snake's sonata'. The whole story is 'coloured' by green: a green lake, inescapable green mist, green vegetation and that green pillar tower which reminded Tarumov of an ancient snake totem. Green colour is associated both with growth and death. Some more interpretations exist such as suppression, passivity, submission and hope. Green is 'a mediator between the animal world and destruction' (Pivovarov, http://www.humanities.edu.ru/db/msg/46688). In the context of this story green is the choice between passivity and action. Tarumov, unlike the other imprisoned residents of the planet who

accepted this situation, prefers to fight until the end and die, saving other lives and defending the right for freedom.

In the folklore of different countries there are some plants that have magic, unusual qualities. They can be helpful or, on the contrary, very harmful and dangerous ('odolen-trava' from the Russian folklore; the grass that can brake iron; nettle, which is used to knit shirts, etc.). Tarumov often uses grass for different purposes. This grass is abundant in the place where he is imprisoned: '…he plucked some emerald green "hair"… and knit new laces for himself' (Larionova, 1991, p 38). The grass-mat, made by Tarumov, is used as a masking cover when the man goes on reconnaissance; with the help of grass-rope Tarumov actuates the levers of the climate-control machines to cause fire in the 'reserve'.

In the mythology of the Jewish culture bitter grass Maror is a symbol of the servitude's bitterness. In the Slavic nations 'odolen-trava' ('the overcoming grass') was a charm to protect from different diseases. People used to think that the Evil Powers visited people with diseases and the double Fire Sign (the symbol of 'odolen-trava') could burn any disease down, purify the body and the soul. In the story Tarumov sets the tangles of the grass on fire to make 'younger brothers' (they are afraid to do anything themselves) to go to the space-ship and fly away from the planet. In the meantime, he draws the snake's attention away from them. The burning 'odolen-trava' in this context is a symbol of purification, liberation and overcoming of fear.

In the Larionova's story 'To lie until midnight', which is a typical cosmic science fiction, an angel suddenly appears: '…outside, slightly waving its wings in the perfect vacuum of interstellar space, an angel was flying by' (Larionova, 1991, p. 149).

As messengers of God, angels (according to the Christian mythology) are mediators between the Heaven and Earth. They protect people who are in danger. Angel is a symbol of spirituality. In the science fiction context of this story the suddenly arisen angel is seen not as a superior being from myths and legends, but as some alien creature, a kind of 'brother in mind'. Such a characteristic of this angel as 'lean palms' makes the reader imagine not a shining, immensely beautiful creature, but an alien as it is offered by mass media and movie directors (that is small, with thin hands and big black oval eyes), though O. Larionova gave her character such a 'classic' detail for an angel as wings. The writer confesses that she simply needed 'someone omniscient but not omnipotent – a look from the side' (Larionova, 1991, p 149).

It seems that fantastic fiction, which has become scientific, is going back to its fairy-tale roots without loosing its scientific realism and combining magic with scientific and technological advance, 'enriching scientific logic of art models with poetical convention' (Britikov, 2000, p 166).

Science fiction, getting closer to other literary genres, do not dissolve in them, but actively cooperates, retaining its originality and its own genre forms. Science fiction takes a great part in the development of other genres – drama, poetry and fantastic-realist prose.

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POSSIBLE ECONOMIC OUTCOME OF LINGUISTIC POLICY: THE U.S. SUPREME COURT ON YU KONG ENG V. TRINIDAD

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Linguistic policy, due process, equal protection of the laws, US Supreme Court, language of bookkeeping

According to the Russian official statistics, the nowadays Russian society is relatively linguistically homogeneous, in the sense that about 98,2% of its multi-ethnical population speaks the majority language, i.e. Russian (2002 Census). This extremely high percentage of the majority language speakers mostly takes for granted the official-language status of the Russian language and its legislative consequences, such as Russian being the language of the administrative bodies (with certain privileges reserved for republics), language of litigation, etc.

It may be said, however approximate such a generalization might be, that the modern Russian linguistic policy is directed mainly at legalization of the already established sociolinguistic situation. But it is far from being true when speaking about linguistic policy in general, where seemingly reasonable and insignificant decisions may lead to a somewhat unexpected outcome.

During his research of the United States constitutional law the author of this article came across a US Supreme Court decision which, in his opinion, could serve a felicitous illustration of language policy pitfalls.

On February 21, 1921 the Legislature of the Philippine Islands (ceded to the United States by Spain under the 1898 Treaty of Paris and remaining by that time under the US control (Price, 2002)) passed Act No. 2972, making it a crime, punishable by fine and imprisonment, for any person engaged in business for profit in the Islands to keep his account books in any language other than English, Spanish, or any local dialect.

To understand the purpose which the Philippine legislators were trying to achieve by approving that act and assess the impact which the act could have

on the Philippine economic situation, we need to have a brief look at the ethnic composition of the Philippine business community of the period.

At the moment there were about 85,000 merchants in the Philippines to whom the enacted bookkeeping law applied. Of these, 71,000 were Filipinos, who might use their own dialects; 1,500 were Americans, or British or Spanish subjects; 500 were of other foreign nationalities, most of whom knew the Spanish or English language. The remainder, some 12,000 in number, were Chinese; the problem was, the aggregate commercial business transacted by these was about 60 percent of the total business done by all the merchants in the Islands (Yu Kong Eng, 1926, p.512).

Such a large number of business transactions performed by a relatively small group of entrepreneurs resulted from a significant diligence of the Chinese businessmen, their remarkable commercial acumen and, last but not the least, network building facility. According to the president of then largest company in the Philippine Islands, an American who had been 21 years in business in the Philippines, the Chinese system of distribution covered the Philippine Islands through the medium of middlemen in the principal centers, and then by the small Chinese storekeepers throughout the Islands, extending even to the remotest and smallest settlements.

That accounts for the strong interest of the Philippine authorities in the islands' tax collecting agencies maintaining control over such an important source of internal revenue. However, the efficiency of the fiscal interaction with the Chinese was to a certain extent disrupted by the latter's poor command of English. Indeed, according to then incumbent Chinese consul general, not more than eight (of the twelve thousand!) Chinese merchants in the Islands could read or write proficiently in any other language than Chinese. If in everyday contacts with their Philippine customers they could rely on signs and a patois, these primary communication skills were evidently insufficient for double entry bookkeeping they implemented to have record of their business. They kept therefore their accounting documents in the Chinese language with its peculiar written characters, which, in its turn, made their business records totally incomprehensible for the officers of the Philippine tax authorities.

The social situation in the Philippines was also aggravated by the resident Chinese being more sojourners than settlers in the Philippines leaving families to return to in China, living separately and retaining their native languages. The economic success of the Chinese aroused not only the usual envy and resentment but also fears that gold was being drained away to China (Sowell, 1996, p. 206).

This outline of the part which the Chinese business community played in the Philippine economy elucidates the historical context of the mentioned Act No. 2972 and the outcome of the related litigation.

In 1926 the US Supreme Court reviewed the decision of the Supreme Court of the Philippine Islands denying an original petition for prohibition against the enforcement by criminal prosecution of Act No. 2972 on the ground of its invalidity. The petitioner, Yu Cong Eng, a Chinese merchant engaged in the wholesale lumber

business in Manila, was charged with its violation. He was arrested, his books were seized, and the trial was about to proceed when he and the other petitioner, Co Liam, on their own behalf, and on behalf of all the other Chinese merchants in the Philippines, filed the petition against the fiscal or prosecuting attorney of Manila, and the collector of internal revenue engaged in the prosecution, and against the judge presiding. The US Supreme Court found the challenged law invalid on the grounds, which doubtlessly deserve our attention.

The court analyzed the dramatic consequences which Act No. 2972 could have for the Chinese merchants. By reason of their ignorance of the English and Spanish languages and of all local dialects the only way out for most of them was to employ a bilingual bookkeeper or else an English- or Spanish-speaking bookkeeper together with an interpreter. For most small shops owners, who were in fact the only employees of their businesses that would imply total loss of profitability, while those capable of affording such an "increase in manpower" were compelled to remain in total ignorance of the status of their business and put completely at the mercy of their employees, who, if dishonest, might cheat and defraud them of the proceeds of their business.

The extreme effect of the legislation on the Chinese absent any perceptible inconvenience its requirements entailed for the rest of the Philippine business circles brought the court to the conclusion that Act No. 2972 deprives the Chinese merchants of liberty and property without due process of law and denies them the equal protection of the laws. Trying to balance the Chinese entrepreneurs' right to due process of law and equal protection of the laws against the Philippine authorities rightful interest in adequate tax collection, the court cited Lawton v. Steele (1894), saying: "To justify the state in thus interposing its authority in behalf of the public, it must appear, first, that the interests of the public generally, as distinguished from those of a particular class, requires such interference; and, second, that the means are reasonably necessary for the accomplishment of the purpose, and not unduly oppressive upon individuals"(Yu Kong Eng, 1926, pp.525-526).

By mentioning the difference between the "interests of the public generally" and "those of a particular class" the court obviously alluded to the possible impact the Chinese merchants driving out of business could have on the Islands' economy. An influential American businessman testified, that after the collapse of the Chinese business community in the Philippines there would be no other system of distribution available throughout the Islands, as the Filipino merchants were not sufficiently numerous, nor had they enough resources and experience to provide a substitute.

It is also worth noting that the challenged legislation became, in its way, a prisoner of its own efficiency as a statute providing for a penal punishment. When contemplating the possibility of giving Act No. 2972 "such reasonable construction as can be reached to bring it within the fundamental law" (Yu Kong Eng, 1926, p. 518) by giving it a more generalized interpretation (i.e. construing it as a requirement to keep "such account books in English, Spanish,

or the Filipino dialects as would be reasonably adapted to the needs of the taxing officers in preventing and detecting evasion of taxes"), the court found that by doing so it would come up with "a vague requirement, and one objectionable in a criminal statute" thus violating the provision of the Bill of Rights that the accused is entitled to demand the nature and cause of the accusation against him, and the principle that a statute which requires the doing of an act so indefinitely described that men must guess at its meaning violates due process of law.

However, the ultimate purpose of this article is not to research the numerous nuances of the US law system, but to provide a most picturesque illustration of how thoroughly a resolute language policy decision might change a social and economic situation in a region. Of course, such a domino effect is rather exceptional; still this Philippine experience should be always borne in mind as a reminder, that linguistic policy requires discreetness and consideration of a large variety of circumstances.

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MARC CHAGALL: THE SYSTEM OF SYMBOLS IN HIS ART

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Mark Chagall, Jewish art, Russian avant-garde, French modernism, symbols in art

Marc Chagall is one of the art's giants of the 20th century. He was a member of the international art scene and synthesized the art forms of different cultural traditions such as the traditions of Jewish folklore, Russian icons and lubok, and French modernism. This mixture gave rise to creating a unique language of the images based on emotional and poetic associations. Chagall developed his own system of symbols and these permanent motives have been seen throughout his career. As Robert Hughes said, "Chagall's was a textbook case of the way some artists receive their subject matter, their grammar of signs, in childhood."

(Hughes, 1988) His early years gave him a continual source of imagination and creativity, so his romantic and anxious art was full of childlike sensibility.

The first group of symbols is connected with two cities: Vitebsk and Paris. In "The Promenade", 1917-1918, we can see the picturesque landscape of Vitebsk with churches, synagogues, fences and wooden houses. Vitebsk, Chagall's native town, was a little Russian province that he left forever in 1922, but kept it in his memories and pictures so it became a symbol of dreaming about the homeland for him.

"Paris, as Vitebsk, occupies a significant place in the compositions of Chagall. The iconography of Parisian motifs is also constant: the Eiffel Tower, Notre Dame, the Louvre, the bridges over the Seine," noticed Karandasheva. (Karandasheva, 2008). In 1910 Chagall entered the mainstream of contemporary art, he opened up a completely new world of colors and forms in the works of French artists, so Parisian scenes represented the atmosphere of artistic freedom and new reality. "Paris through the Window", 1913, includes the emblems of stringent modernity: the Eiffel Tower, a parachutist, a train upside-down and the world is sparkling with rainbow colors.

The second group is about people: ghostly figures floating in the sky, a gigantic fiddler sitting on the roof, exotic acrobats and clowns dancing everywhere. These flying couples appeared after Chagall fell in love with Bella Rosenfeld. In "My Life" Chagall described his first meeting her: "Her silence is mine, her eyes are mine. It is as if she knows everything about my childhood, my present, my future, as if she can see right through me." (Chagall, 2007, p 118) Bella became his muse and inspiration, and the euphoric paintings ("Lovers in the Lilacs", 1931) which show young lovers embracing, caressing each other, meeting in flowers keep the motives of the eternal love.

The musicians, especially the fiddlers, were connected with the form of a visual metaphor combined with folk imagery. For example, "The Green Fiddler", 1923-1924, combines a folklore village setting with a fiddler as the way to show the Jewish love of music, because the fiddler took part in the most important moments of life: birth, wedding and death.

Scenes of the Circus appear in Chagall's compositions in the 20's. He was touched by the makeup and grimaces of clowns and acrobats and liked the illusions of this spontaneous world where dances, music, and theatre were mixed. (Walther, Metzger, 2008, p 57) "The Three Acrobats", 1926, was the earliest in the circus works and shows us three figures that are staying on the carpet like antique sculptures in high-colored costumes preparing for a new act. For him, the Circus always represented harmony between man and animal, which induces the power of creativity.

We can also add the images of the angels to this group – they were not only religious personages, but the figures which were the part of the human world for Chagall. Sometimes he rhymed or even combined them with human ones, presenting people with wings. These blue, red, pink and violet boneless angels became the symbols of links between the creation of cosmos and the creation

of man. According to an art critic Daniel Marshesso, "Self-Portrait with Muse (Dream)", 1918, indicates a return to old methods of the pictorial language. The meeting of the angel and the artist turns to the likeness of modern icon by its expression and plastic significance." (Marshesso, 2006, p 51) This angel entering through the window brings the inspiration to the artist and helps him to create a new world.

The next part of symbols is connected with nature: graceful animals and colorful plants growing everywhere travell from picture to picture and represent the codes of the vital energy. "All the little fences, the little cows and sheep… looked to me as original, as ingenuous and as eternal as the buildings in Giotto's frescoes," Chagall noticed. (Hughes, 1988) These images are linked with his childhood and life in Vitebsk where cows, roosters and goats surrounded him. As Goldina said, "The rooster is a symbol of an active male hypostasis and creativity, of the time, fire, sun". (Goldina, 2001) "The Rooster", 1929, proves that: a big rooster, painted with the flaming shades of red, is carrying a girl who is gently hugging him, they are smiling and on the background we can see two couples of lovers hugging each other too.

"The Cow with Parasol", 1946, demonstrates the cow which is flying in the hot sunny sky and a dog near it is trying to catch the cow's udder. So we can suppose that the cow is a slightly female character, essentially the embodiment of sacrifice giving milk, meat for the human being. Another female symbol is fish ("Time is a River without Banks", 1930-1939). Some art critics think that Chagall included fish motifs making a respect for his father who worked hard, carrying heavy barrels with herring but earning only 20 roubles a month.

The Plants: blooming trees, twinkling bouquets of flowers, foliage and juicy fruits abounded everywhere, were also the motives of the eternal blossom of life. Geiser writes about "Lilies-of-the-Valley", 1916: "Chagall wrote it in 1916, when Bella gave birth to his daughter. Mark visited his wife in hospital, on the table beside the bed stood a bouquet of lilies of the valley. Bella looked affectionately at her daughter, her name was Ida, then at her husband, then at the flowers. Her eyes were filled with tears of joy and happiness. "What a pity! This beauty is so fragile and instantaneous", – said Bella, referring to the beauty of flowers. "May it be God that our Idochka lived as long as this beauty will survive", – said Mark and on the next day brought Bella the picture "Lilies-of-the-Valley."(Geizer, 2000)

Finally, different objects such as mirrors, clocks, candlesticks and windows form the forth group. Naturally in "Clock with Blue Wing", 1949, the clock symbolizes the time which is eternally and inexorably running and only wings can help to escape from its captivity. The windows show us Chagall's love for freedom and discovery of a unique and glorious world: intense fresh colors and natural light in "The Window", 1924, make the composition full of miracle and lyrical mood. "The Mirror", 1915, "associatively related to the ability of man to self-reflection, a sense of duality, and linked with the nature of fine art which is, even purposely, hardly able to part with reflectivity," – German noticed. (German, 2008, p 148)

Art historians Ingo Walther and Rainer Metzger write "His life and art together added up to this image of a lonesome visionary, a citizen of the world with much of the child still in him, a stranger lost in wonder – an image which the artist did everything to cultivate. Profoundly religious and with a deep love of the homeland, his work is arguably the most urgent appeal for tolerance and respect of all that is different that modern times could make." (Walther, Metzger, 2008, p 7)

The Ceiling of the Paris Opera, 1963, demonstrates practically all images of Chagall's lyric and flyaway fantasy. He built a comprehensive living organism, in which the architectural buildings, people, animals, trees, bouquets of flowers sprout into each other forming a common circulatory system. There is a special feeling of relationship between great and small in the universe. So using this perfect system of symbols helped Marc Chagall to create his own reality where all members of the world live in harmony and love.

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THE COMBINATION OF RUSSIAN AND FRENCH CULTURE IN THE LIFE OF THE RUSSIAN COMMUNITY IN PARIS (1830–1860s)

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Paris, history, Russia, France, immigrants, culture, nobility, orthodoxy, patriot, cosmopolitan

At the end of the XVIII century Paris became a universally recognized Europe`s capital of culture. At that time Paris was the Mecca for all educated people. Both sophisticated intellectuals and pleasure seekers from all over

the world came to this city in search for food for thought and refined entertainment.

Russian nobility was not an exception, and the rich Russian travelers arrived in Paris in an endless stream. Many of them stayed there for a long time but some stayed forever. Thus, in the 1830s the Russian colony began to form gradually. The Russian community was closely connected with other communities in Paris, such as German, Italian, Polish and particularly Greek. It was a closed community, which consisted of noble families and a few rich merchants. This social structure of the Russian community had existed even before the 1860s, when a new wave of immigrants arrived in Paris. These new immigrants were mainly raznochinets (intellectuals not belonging to the gentry of the XIX century in Russia) and revolutionaries who escaped from the Russian police pursuits, so the Russian community in Paris changed dramatically.

The purpose of this article is to answer the following questions: whether the members of this particular group considered themselves to be Russian rather than French; if they had any connections with Russia; which elements of Russian culture the immigrants preserved in the life of their community. Another task is to show synthesis of Russian and French cultures and the influence of both cultures on the life of the Russian colony in Paris.

In the first half of the XIX century the Russian colony in Paris was very large despite the fact that it was not easy to get a visa (Автономова, 1916, p.305). Tsar Nicholas I believed that European countries and particularly France were breeding-grounds of revolutionary ideas (Удалов, 2002). During his reign (1825-1855), it was impossible to get permission for continuous residence in Europe without any valid reasons. Of course, diplomats and people going abroad on business did not have any problems, but all the rest had to invent a plausible excuse. The most convincing and frequently used reason for departure among the Russian elite was «for medical treatment», which, however, did not prevent them from dancing at the balls and going to the theatre. For example, according to the records 909 people out of 1131 noblemen leaving the country in 1846 were seriously ill (Гросул, 2008).

At that time Russian noblemen arrived in Paris «with the whole family, children, household servants and even their own cooks» (Автономова, 1916, p. 306). The salons of Russian women, such as famous princesses Lieven, Naryshkina, Bagration, etc. were extremely popular. The Parisian high society liked Russian aristocrats particularly for their hospitality and lavishness, for example, prince Tyufyakin who was nicknamed «Russian Lucullus» for his fabulous dinner-parties (Тургенев, 1964, p.338). Their lifestyle cost a lot of money, but Russian noblemen could afford the life of luxury as they received the income from their estates in Russia.

The Russian government could not put up with the situation. According to the law, Russian noblemen were allowed to live abroad for 5 years. (Гросул, 2008). But as this law was constantly violated, the Russian government began to take strict measures. Lyudmila Avtonomova described a typical situation

in one of the Russian noble families. They belonged to the high society and possessed considerable fortune, but as Russian people put it at that time, they stayed in Paris for too long. According to the Russian laws they were deprived of the Russian citizenship and all of their estates were sequestrated. However, even that a clampdown produced an effect on them only when they ran into debt to such an extent that feared to ruin themselves. But when this family came back to Russia they were rehabilitated with comparative ease, so they could go to Paris again (Автономова, 1916, p.29).

We would like to consider the issue of attitude of Russian immigrants to Russia. The Russian community in Paris did keep connections with Russia (all of them were in correspondence with their relatives and friends in Russia and a lot of them sometimes went to Russia). Russian writers and book publishers who lived in Paris had heated discussions about Russian literature. Some of them, for example Alexander Turgenev or Nicolay Grech worked for Russian magazines. Alexander Turgenev was a columnist, who reported Russian readers about the life of the Russian community in Paris and cultural events in the «Chronicle of a Russian in Paris». He and his brother, Nicolay, according to the memoirs of Aleksey Pletnev, the son of a famous Russian book publisher, who spent his childhood in Paris, were true patriots of Russia. As he wrote, when Nicolay Turgenev visited his father, «they talked to each other mostly about Russia» (Плетнев, 1907, p.959).

But such people were rather an exception, which proved the rule. The daughter of the Russian Embassy's church dean in Paris Lyudmila Avtonomova wrote in her memoirs, that a lot of Russian aristocrats stayed in Paris for years, bought houses and spent all the time entertaining, for example, a countess Butera, who owned a hotel in Paris and «completely forgot about Russia» (Автономова, 1916, p. 306).

Newly-arrived Russian noblemen easily assimilated with the French society and felt very comfortable in the new country. It might be explained by the fact that both Russian and French cultures have a lot in common. Therefore, there was no language or any other barriers for the Russian elite so they could easily adapt to the way of life of the high society in Paris. It is generally known, that France was considered to be the standard of an enlightened country, and so French culture became a model for the Russian elite. The Russian high society lifestyle imitated the French. The Russian language was used by the elite mainly to communicate with servants while excellent knowledge of French was considered to be an integral part of good education. It can be said that young aristocrats were brought up as cosmopolitans rather than patriots.

As far as the education of children in the Russian community in Paris is concerned, most of the Russian noblemen hardly taught them the Russian language. Usually Russian immigrants` children were sent to boarding-schools where they forgot Russian in a short time, for example, Pauline Turgeneva, the daughter of the famous Russian writer who left Russia when she was 8, could not speak Russian at all after 6 years of studying in a foreign boarding-school.

When her father realized that she could not pronounce «bread» and «water» in Russian, he was shocked but could not do anything to improve the situation.

Not all parents were so irresponsible. For example, Aleksey Pletnev wrote in his memoirs that his parents decided to employ a special teacher of Russian for him and his brother, because attending a French school turned him into «a semi-French boy» very soon (Плетнев, 1907, p.953). The parents of Lyudmila Avtonomova talked to their children only in Russian, so she and her sisters spoke Russian quite well, but with a French accent. Then her father specially went to Russia and came back with a mademoiselle, whose duty was to improve their pronunciation (Автономова, 1916, p.307). Also her father as a dean of the Russian Embassy's church set up special courses for Russian immigrants` children, where he taught them the basics of Orthodox religion and Russian. As his daughter remembered, it was absolutely necessary, because a lot of Russian immigrants did nothing to religious education of their children. Sometimes parents sent them to the Jesuit schools but then they found out that their children were going to Rome (Автономова, 1916, p.306).

The Russian Embassy's church dean Vassilyev tried to preserve Russian traditions and played a very important role in consolidation of the Russian community. Building a special house for an orthodox church in Paris in 1861 was his great contribution. This Russian church became almost the only centre of the Russian culture in Paris. The whole Russian community came there to celebrate, for example, Easter. It was a very beautiful ceremony, when the whole church was illuminated inside and outside. The Russian elite dressed up and went to church. Then they visited the dean for breaking their fast together. As his daughter said in her memoirs, about 200 Russians visited her father on Easter (Автономова, 1916, p.31-32). According to the Russian traditions they ate Easter cakes, pashas and painted eggs. When Russian and French holidays synchronized, the Russian community celebrated both. For example, when the Russian pancake week and the French Mardi Gras occurred at the same period of time, the Russians both made pancakes and took part in the carnivals, so Russian and French traditions overlapped.

Sometimes elements of Russian culture came into fashion in Paris because a number of Russian immigrants came to France. For example, they kept the tradition of Russian tea-drinking with a samovar. But even Parisian shops could not satisfy the requirements for these specific goods. Thus, a Russian merchant Koreshchenko set up the first Russian teashop in Paris, where he sold Russian tea and samovars. This shop was very popular not only with growing Russian community. The Parisian inhabitants were very interested in such an exotic thing like a samovar and were convinced for a long time that Russian people used it for some medical treatment (Автономова, 1916, p.38). But Koreshchenko was very entrepreneurial and soon brought samovars into fashion in Paris.

Summing up all of the information about the Russian community in Paris in the first half of the XIX century we could draw some conclusions. The Russian immigrants of the first generation were cosmopolitans but they considered

themselves to be Russians at the same time. They preserved some elements of Russian culture, particularly connected with orthodox religion, in the life of their community and connections with Russia. As some scholars believe, they belonged to a peculiar type of «the European Russians» (Кантор, 2001). But in general they could not bring up their children the way the Russians did and teach the sense of patriotism to them, so the second generation of Russian immigrants was mainly naturalized in France.

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LYRICS BY VLADIMIR NABOKOV AND POEMS IN HIS NOVEL "THE GIFT"

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Nabokov, poems, color, form, memory, past, impressions

On first reading the novel "The Gift», some biographic similarity of the author and the main hero, Godunov-Cherdinzev catches one's eye. They are both Russian emigrants and young literary men. They both started with poetry, dreaming all the time about bigger forms. In 1916 Nabokov published his first book of poems, and the novel begins with the fictitious review on the protagonist's book of poems. Later, both writers got an idea of a short story: Nabokov finished his story «Undead» and Godunov-Cherdinzev wrote about Jacob Chernishevskij. At last, the main novel «The Gift» came, which was their common child: the hero, living inside the novel, came to the idea of it.

But one shouldn't put a sign of equality between Nabokov and Cherdinzev. On closer examination we can see, that only the external background is

common. In one of his interviews Vladimir Nabokov said, «It portrays the adventures, literary and romantic, of a young Russian expatriate in Berlin, in the twenties; but he's not myself. I am very careful to keep my characters beyond the limits of my own identity. Only the background of the novel can be said to contain some biographical touches» (Nabokov, 1962).

Invariably the question appears: why does Nabokov put Godunov-Cherdinzev in such analogous conditions?

In my opinion, through the description of some other's creative process the writer can show his attitude to these questions, hand over his way of thinking, and lift the veil of his secrets. He may not agree with the methods of some other authors, but this disagreement would also tell us about artist's literary preferences.

Let me demonstrate that by comparison poems by Nabokov and Godunov-Cherdinzev.

Both for Nabokov and Godunov-Cherdinzev the main subject of the early poems is the Motherland, Russia and childhood. Writers feel their disability of handing over the memoirs untouched, without the effects of their memory («I've put memory into verse» (*Translation is mine. – I.K.)*. Memories, getting through time and poet's thinking, became a stopped shot and lost their inner movement.

Nabokov said, "Memory is, really, in itself, a tool, one of the many tools that artist uses and some recollections, perhaps intellectual rather than emotional, are very brittle and sometimes apt to lose the flavor of reality when they are immersed by the novelist in his book, when they are given away to characters… I think it is all a matter of love: the more you love a memory, the stronger and stranger it is. I think it's natural that I have a more passionate affection for my old memories, the memories of my childhood, than I have for later ones, so that Cambridge in England or Cambridge in New England is less vivid in my mind and in myself than some kind of nook in the park on our country estate in Russia" (Nabokov, 1962).

Godunov-Cherdinzev's book of poems is devoted to his childhood, spent in family estate in Russia. The poet remembers his toys (a ball and a clown), plays, dreams, feelings and impressions.

Cherdinzev tries to imagine, how his reader would react on his poems, so he writes his review. He often gives just a pair of verses and than retells them in prose. So the review represents a constant interweaving of verses' lines and analysis that gives a settled feeling of reality of his stream of consciousness.

In process of reflection, Godunov-Cherdinzev moves immediately in Russia, in his past. The poet openly tells not only about his past connection with Russia, but also about his future meeting with the country: "… I know for sure, that I'll return, because in hundreds of years I will live there in my books or in researcher's foot-notes" (*Translation is mine. – I.K*). Nabokov also used his works to create an invisible bridge to Russia and his childhood:

Close my eyes – and in a moment
In my own country, in paradise…
(Translation is mine. – I.K)

Nabokov in his works always made a journey to Russia through memories, associations or dreams. In his poem «For a night trip I needn't anything…" Nabokov determined his Motherland as an "another shore".

A special place in the novel takes a poem «Thank you, Motherland…». It's interesting to analyze how the protagonist (and Nabokov with him, of course) shows the process of poem's birth. At the beginning of the process, the poet gets a rhythm, the melody, and after that he put words on it: "And in the speech of ta-ta night my soul ta-ta-ta-t… mad… madness ta-ta, this mu… music ta-ta-ta-s» (*Translation is mine. – I.K*).

In Nabokov's poem «Fame» the central theme is also the theme of recognition in Russia:

I kept changing countries like counterfeit money,
hurrying on and afraid to look back,
like a phantom dividing in two, like a candle
between mirrors sailing into the sun.
It is far to the meadows where I sobbed in my childhood
having missed an Apollo, and farther yet
to the alley of firs where the midday sunlight
glowed with fissures of fire between bands of jet.
But my word, curved to form an aerial viaduct,
spans the world, and across in strobe-effect spin
of spokes I keep endlessly passing incognito
into the flame-licked night of my native land.
(Nabokov, 1942)
Another method that is used here is «word's selection»:
This mystery ta-ta, ta-ta-ta-ta, ta-ta,
And I can't say more certainly…
(*Translation is mine. – I.K*)

Both poets not only adored their Motherland and all the time wanted to get there, but they both ranked Europe as a «foreign country» (i.e. «foreign place», «foreign Berlin», «foreign heavens», etc.). For Nabokov Europe was just a geographic center of his life, but it was only a periphery in his values. Europe was something amorphous, that he portrayed with a few strokes, whereas the Motherland, Russia, was a weighty character that he felt and adored. The same thing we can see in Cherdinzev's thoughts and expressions.

Both poets in their childhood had a turn for painting: Nabokov was intended for being a talented artist. He said about it in some of his interviews, «I think I was born a painter – really! – and up to my fourteenth year, perhaps, I used to spend most of the day drawing and painting and I was supposed to become a painter in due time. But I don't think I had any real talent there. However, the sense of color, the love of color, I've had all my life: and also I have this rather freakish gift of seeing letters in color» (Nabokov, 1962).

The same feel of color and the same play with color are shown by Godunov-Cherdinzev in his poems: «On the black velvet a maple leaf I, as

a relic, put: golden leaf with crimson pollen between lilac thin sinew…" (*Translation is mine. – I.K*).

In the review in the novel one can read, that "Godunov-Cherdinzev was much more closed to paintings, than to literature in his childhood» (*Translation is mine. – I.K*).

All these examples have shown not only common things in biography, but also in the form and color's technique.

If we listed common poetic methods of both literary men, we could see the following ones: kaleidoscopic view, adaptation for the stage, playful stylistics, rhythming and rhyming prose and metaphorization.

Thus, Nabokov's poetry and prose are in close connection. "I never feel any difference between poetry and prose. What's more, I have always considered a good long verse as a concentration of good prose, no matter what a rhythm and rhyme are" (*Translation is mine. – I.K*).

Probably, this causes many frequent changes of poetry into prose and vice versa in "The Gift". In the novel we can read, "I'm translating it into poetry, so it wouldn't be so bored" (*Translation is mine. – I.K*).

To conclude, I'd like to say that, despite of similarities in the biographies and some common methods in poetry they used, we shouldn't put a sign of equality between these two poets. I suppose, Nabokov formed two spheres of creative mind in the novel. The first one belongs to Godunov-Cherdinzev. The author watched his development, alluded to his future achievements, but at the same time he appreciated the young literary man from the position of the senior teacher.

The second sphere depicts the author's mind.

These two spheres are always connected with each other and combined with other elements of the text such as works by Chernishevskij, critics' works and so on. But this is the issue for another analysis.

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VERSATILE ARTIST NATHAN ALTMAN

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Nathan Altman, Russian avant-garde, Cubism, Impressionism

By the beginning of the 20th century the revolt against all forms of naturalism (in Russia it was called Realism) was in full swing and the decade before the First World War "was to be one of the most daring and adventurous in the hole history of Western art"(Honour, Fleming, 2005, p 768). Fundamentally new ideas and methods were put forward – in painting, sculpture and architecture – and the radical innovations of these years underlie all later developments.

Fine art sought not only new forms, but the new content. The new vision on the world and surrounding reality appeared at that time.

These searches concerned not only European, but Russian art too. Russian artists were intent on getting away from the sort of studio-based art promoted and suggested by the Academy of Arts. The newest tendencies of the Western Art compelled Russian artists to continue the search, to rush to the discovery of the radical expressive instrumentals. Recently popularized trends such as Symbolism and Impressionism were excluded by arisen avant-garde tenors like Primitivism and Cubism.

A new type of universal artist for whom there was no division into art and craft formed at that time (Allenov, Evangulova, Lifshic, 1989, p 399). One of these versatile masters was Nathan Altman – an outstanding painter, sculptor, graphic and scenic artist, who created magnificent landscapes, portraits, still lives and sculptures. His art is represented by different trends and techniques. This paper is the attempt to renovate the interest to this person and to show his catholicity as an artist.

Nathan Altman was born in a provincial town in the Malorossiyan part of the Russian Empire. He lost his father early and had to count only on himself in achieving his goal to become an artist. He decided to dedicate himself to painting.

He became a student of Odessa Drawing School in 1902, but after four-years of study left it, unsatisfied with the system of teaching, which came to strict form's construction in space and work with light and shadow, while Nathan Altman was already interested in painting pure colors and tried to create geometrical constructions in his pictures. He did not want to copy famous masterpieces (it was a requirement of the Academy system); he wished to create by himself.

On his return to Vinnitsa, he went on working alone. Human faces attracted him, thus Altman appealed to portrait genre. One of the most lyrical pictures

of this period was "Grandmother's portrait", filled with human warmth and reverent fillings. The artist used black and colored pencils to create sense of tenderness and love (Etkind, 1971, p 15).

The work "Spring" was the result of Nathan Altman's impressionist search. He did not know this trend theoretically, but he came to this manner with his own intuition. The artist placed the figures of a young woman and himself against the landscape background and owing to this produced the effect of a viewer's implication into the heart of this picture.

The second period of his creative work was connected with Paris (Efros, 1922, p 53) – a contemporary art capital of the whole world. Paris at that time was the centre of artistic discussion and debates, which were based on new trends and tendencies. One of them was Cubism arisen in 1907 and developed in collaboration of Georges Braque and Pablo Picasso (Honour, Fleming, 2005, p 782). Their main influences are said to have been Tribal Art and the works of Paul Cezanne, who was the first to express the idea that the diversity of forms could be conveyed with geometric figures. The key concept underlying Cubism is that the essence of an object can only be captured by showing it from multiple points of view. The subject matter is portrayed by geometric forms without realistic details, stressing abstract forms at the expense of other pictorial elements largely by use of intersecting often transparent cubes and cones. Cubist painters were not bound to copying form, texture, colour, and space; instead, they presented a new reality in paintings that depicted radically fragmented objects, whose several sides were seen simultaneously.

Altman went to Paris at the end of 1910 and lived there for about a year. On his way there he visited Vienna and Munich (Etkind, 1971, p 16). European art museums which contained plenty of items representing the authentic masterpieces of art were his teachers; many canvases produced a great impression on the beginning artist – for example Zurbarán, El Greco and especially Velázquez's picture "Infants". He attentively learned postimpressionist works at the exhibitions of the "Société des Artistes Indépendants", where Pablo Picasso, André Derain, Henri Matisse and others were exhibited.

Later Altman lived and worked in "La Ruche des Arts" – an international art colony, where he met other Russian students – Marc Chagall, Ossip Zadkine, David Shterenberg. These young bold talents experimented on forms and colors, creating new trends almost every day. Then Altman worked in the studio which was called "Free Russian academy" and which was established by a Russian painter who studied under Henri Matisse Maria Vasilieva. It was here that Altman for the first time started using Cubism manner. Cubists rushed to expose elementary geometric base (cube, cone and sphere) in complex real forms. All this time Altman worked hard, he created distinct in style and genre still lives, portraits and landscapes. The work "Landscape. La Ruche" referred to Cézanne's landscapes owing to its composition and application of geometric forms.

This trip played an important role in Altman's future career: he adopted techniques and methods of Cubism and Fauvism. His natural talent helped him to feel and understand the art ideas and trends of his time, and inborn professionalism helped to realize the ideas into artistic and elegant works of art.

When Altman returned to Russia, impressed by his Paris experience he started to created splendid works. The portrait became a favorite genre of this period. His portraits are among the finest of all his works, for instance, his "Self-portrait" (1911) constructed on a more vigorous and contrasting colors – black, yellow, green, red and lilac. The lines are angular and all figures are outlined with a black contour. In the picture «Lady with a Dog" – the portrait of Esther Schwartzmann (1911) Altman rushed to a compactness and generality of a plastic form; he sculpted dimension by color.

His art was always fulfilled with attempts to unite ancient symbols of Jewish religious art with avant-garde mediums of contemporary trends, for example, his work "Jewish funeral", which was based on his own vital drama. Altman still remembered the Grandfather's death; so he depicted the state of ossification and despair. The artist did not paint faces – just yellowish spots. Altman skillfully expressed the atmosphere of death and grief, anguish and sadness owing to compositional and pictorial mediums.

At the end of 1912 the artist moved to Saint Petersburg, where he continued to paint in the Cubist manner. Since that time came the flourishing of his art. His paintings are the result of prolonged meditation in front of human nature and nature of things. In one of his best known still-life paintings "Jug and tomatoes" (1912) the horizontal surfaces seem to tilt upwards and there are other features which make a perspective appear incorrect. Physicality of this painting referred to Cézanne's still lives.

In 1914 he painted his famous portrait of Anna Akhmatova. It was accepted by the public with great success. It expressed the spiritual atmosphere of the epoch (Petrov, 1969, p 9). It included the best progress of Cubism – the view on the person through the prism of geometric figures, wrong perspective and local colors. Some motifs were used by the artist in another work, for instance, the motif of plants in the pictures "Lady near the piano" (1913) and "Trees" (1915).

Nathan Altman made a valuable contribution to the progress of sculpture. His pioneering work "The portrait of a Young Jew (Self-Portrait)" referred to the great European sculptors Rodin and Maillol. Boldly experimenting with forms, he used non-central elements.

After the Bolshevik Revolution (November 1917) Altman, as most artists of the 'left' wing started an active public life and made works of mass propaganda; sculpture works, stamps for the new Soviet state, decorations for the holidays of the 7th November on the Palace Square in Petrograd (St. Petersburg) and executed a series of graphic portraits of Vladimir Lenin, which were published in a separate album and became very popular (Etkind, 1971, p 39).

He used methods of emergent Suprematism in the series of pointless canvases of 1919-1920 such as "Petrocommune", "Material Collection", and

"Russia. Labour". The following years he worked mostly in graphics, created a series of portraits of contemporary writers (1926–27) and book illustrations. The portrait of his wife Irene Rachek-Degas is fulfilled with some mystic feeling owing to using tinges of dark green and reddish colors. Especially successful was his work in the theatre as a scene designer.

In 1928 Altman left Russia for France, where he returned to painting. He painted many landscapes and still lifes, in which he originally and daintily revived the tradition of Impressionism. He illustrated several children books and also designed interiors. Altman returned to Russia in 1935 and found himself in a very difficult political atmosphere of ideological pressure. His painting was so far away from the criteria of critical realism enforced by the Communist party that he had to drop it altogether and was engaged only in book illustrations, which allowed him, to some extent, to remain not so prominent. The best works of that period were his scene and costume designs for Shakespeare plays King Lear (1941), Othello (1944), and Hamlet (1954).

Nathan Altman played an outstanding role in the development of Russian art throughout the whole 20th century. Nathan Altman continued to work up to his death in 1970 and he remained the "versatile artist" (Petrov, 1969, p 8). No painter understood so well the limitation and inner contradictions of using the only artistic trend. So he synthesized in his art many different, at times discrepant methods and techniques. His art is the embodiment of discrepant features such as sensitivity and rationalism, smoothness of lines and geometric accuracy. With such great works Nathan Altman gave an answer – not the only answer but a wonderfully coherent one – to the basic questions the 20th century had raised about art and nature, perception and reality and about the nature of reality itself.

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THE MODERN INTERPRETATION OF DREAMS
ABOUT THE DECEASED

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Folklore, dream, oneiromancy, deceased

There is no need to prove the fact that all people can dream. Every man has such an experience. Every time humans sleep, they are dreaming, but after the awakening they often cannot remember, what the dream was about. Even if we remember the plot of the dream with all details, more often we keep it in memory for one or two days, and only small part of our dreams – dreams with a bright, exciting, unusual story or details – lives in our mind for years or even decades. People call these dreams "prophetic" and often want to tell about such a dream to their relatives or friends, and at this time the dream turns into an oral text.

In Russia stories of such unordinary dreams became the object of study for students of folklore in the last two decades. Several scientists have analyzed these texts and started to speak about a new genre of folklore – "story about the dream". The term "story about the dream" means a prosaic epic genre, which presents retelling a dream with informant 's commentary that contains elements of popular oneiromancy and shows their religious beliefs, conceptions of another world, etc.

Preparing to this presentation I have analyzed texts, which I collected in the student's folklore scientific expeditions, joint expedition with the ethnographic museum and from my own archive. I noticed that the biggest group of the stories about the dreams is a group of texts with a deceased as a protagonist. In most cases this dead person is the informant's relative. It is not difficult to explain the reason of it, because most people believe in the connection between them and their died relatives, between our world and another world.

So, the purpose of this research is to find the laws which determine the process of development of ideas about dreams with a deceased as a protagonist by analyzing the stories of dreams about dead people and by comparing ancient and up-to-date conceptions

First of all, let's go to the **traditional oneiromancy**, in particular to the part of a dream book with the interpretation of dreams about meeting with a deceased. In ''The new and the most complete digest'', which was published in Moscow in 1918, we can find:

«To see a deceased. In the house – a trouble; a speaking deceased – bad weather; to move a deceased – shame or an illness; to step on a deceased – news about someone's death; to sleep with a deceased – success; a coming to live

deceased – finding of a lost thing; to see a deceased asking for a drink means there is not enough of commemoration; to dress a deceased – an illness; to carry a deceased – death» *(my translation, – A.N.)* (Russkaya starina, 1992, p 181).

Here we can see that the dream book of the beginning of the XX century puts too wide interpretation on dreams about meeting with a deceased: such a dream, according to this book, can mean everything from success to death. Let me compare it with some modern idea.

● Nowadays many of these meanings sank into oblivion (for instance, a dream where you sleep with a dead man means success in future), we can not find an example of this thought in the modern texts.

● Some of this interpretations have changed, but sill live in our mind, for example, "to see a deceased asking for a drink means there is not enough of commemoration", the great majority of my informants said that if a deceased asks you for anything, it means that you under-pray for him. On occasion, several informants asserted that the deceased want more commemoration even if they just visit you in your dreams, "… my mother often dreams about dead relatives and she always says in that case, "All right! We need to give something." Then she goes and lights a candle for the souls…" [4].

● A part of explanations still remains relevant. For example, if you dreamed about a speaking deceased, the weather would change into bad, "Did you see a deceased? Oh yes, wait for bad weather" [1].

Thus, we see that some part of modern interpretations came to us from the past. In the previous centuries such explanations were published in the mass books, some of them were wide-spread, other disappeared, and some new ideas, developed from the old ones, took their place.

Let's proceed with the analysis of the plots of the stories about the deceased, and consider the main **functions** of the dead men in dreams. It is necessary to note that there are some other classifications of functions of the deceased in scientific literature, but I do not accept them. Thus, Safronov says about dead man's ambivalent behaviour (Zhivaja starina, 2006, p 29). I cannot agree with him, because there are a lot of texts where we cannot call a deceased person neither evil, nor kind, neither harmful, nor useful, where a deceased is neutral like an ordinary person. In my opinion, we can define three main functions.

a) The first huge group of texts is **about the wishes** of deceased, stories, in which a dead person asks for something. Sometimes the deceased don't tell directly about their desires, and a sleeping person sees some symbols or signs. People believe that if you comply with a dead man's request, the deceased will not visit you in dreams anymore. Let's study some examples.

● A deceased asks straight for something: a dead daughter visited her mother in dream and asked her to collect the necessary things for the bride and carry them to the road, where she should stop the third car and give these things to the man. The mother did it, but when she addressed to the driver, he could not understand anything, and only when another man came from the lorry body, the situation became clear: he was transporting the corpse of his

young son. These people recognized that the girl and the young man would marry in heaven [1].

● A sleeping person dreams about some symbols or signs: a woman saw in her dream her dead mother and dead little son, standing in a huge hole filled with water. When the woman woke up, she realized that they had given her signs not to wash clothes on Sundays [1].

There is an opinion that the deceased often visit the members of their family, whom they loved most of all [4].

Besides, in this big group we can distinguish a smaller group of stories, where the deceased speak about their last lifetime desire, which they had before their death. The most interesting texts are those, where a sleeping person dreams about a dead man's last wish, which was not known to the informant and later the relatives explain the meaning of this unusual dream.

b) **Self-communicative** function. The usual plot of such dreams is about meeting with the deceased chiefly in another world, where the sleeping person wants to find out how the dead relative lives in the world of death, if he or she likes it, etc. There can be another situation: the deceased want to know, what happened after their death. I have defined this group on the grounds that such dreams often have no consequences (compare: after the dreams from the previous group an informant usually goes to the church and gives some clothes or other things to the poor).

For example, a woman in her dream comes into a room, where she sees her dead husband in sports wear. She starts to reproach him for wearing these clothes instead of the good smart suit in which he was buried, but he answers that he wears it only at home and goes to work in the suit. She asks him if he needs anything but he says no, because she prays for him enough [1].

This dream is very interesting because of its conception of another world, it is similar to ours: there are houses like our flats, dead men have to go to work, etc. Such interpretations have appeared only in dreams of the last several decades.

c) The group of the texts where a deceased plays a role of a **conductor**. In this dreams a dead relative or even a huge group of them comes to a sleeping person and try to take him or alive member of the family to another world. If the sleeping person or another member goes with them he would die in real life, otherwise this person would get some injuries.

For example, a woman in her dream sees her father trying to take her son, but she remembers that he is dead and does not give him a boy. Several days later her son breaks his arm [2].

This motif is very ancient and widespread in folklore.

So, we can see that the situation is similar to the results of the previous part of our research: there are a lot of ancient elements, but here we can find some more new details – realities of the modern world.

Another issue that I would like to deal with is **appearance** of the deceased. In the great majority of cases the informants say that their dead relatives or

friends, any close people are the same they were in real life. In the dreams the deceased look like humans with a normal height, their own features, wear the same clothes as they did it before the death ("she was as usually, in her kerchief" [4]). An informant not infrequently can say that the deceased in the dream had their typical features, but a sleeping person always can recognize them. I have collected just several interesting texts on this topic.1. A deceased was like an incorporeal ghost, who did not need a place to be: a dead grandmother can stand between the wall and the wardrobe, which stood closely to this wall [4]. We can compare this appearance with ancient conception of the human's soul. In the book named "The Poetic Outlook on Nature by the Slavs " written by A.N. Aphanasev and published the first time in 1865-1869 we read, "We can find the short stories about dead men, rambling as ghosts, which are light like the air, with which they suddenly appear and disappear, and also elusive for touch like the air, in the literature of each Indo-European people" (Aphanasev, 1995, p 108) *(my translation, – A.N.)*

2. A sleeping person saw her grandmother in a cloud [3,5]. The idea that a soul is a cloud can also be found in Aphanasev's book.

So, on the one hand in modern stories about dreams we can see traces of ancient conceptions of the human's soul, and its appearance. But on the other hand, Aphanasev wrote about many other variations of transformation of man's soul after their death (for instance, a fire, a bird, etc.). There were about 10 ideas. We cannot find such examples in the modern texts. Besides, people have not added anything new. That is why the most typical appearance of the soul is an ordinary human body.

To summarize, we can see that oneiromancy and interpretation of dreams about the deceased in particular is moving towards reducing the number of available interpretations (lack of pray, death, etc.) and some bright images. Instead realities of modern, up-to-date life come to dreams. Perhaps, some time later we would speak about new figurativeness, but undoubtedly the ancient concepts will never leave us totally.

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The list of the informants:
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2. Sivokhina Galina Dmitrievna was born in 1968, lives in Saratov.
3. Dudko Viktoria Valerievna was born in 1989, lives in Saratov.
4. Parkhomenko Marina Alexandrovna was born in 1989, lives in Saratov.
5. Egorova Tatiana Victorovna was born in 1989, lives in Saratov.

THE REASONS FOR BRITISH PARTICIPATION
IN THE EUROPEAN INTEGRATION

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The financial crisis of 2008 combusted in the US and other Western economies. It made political elite reconsider the development of international affairs. The United Kingdom the world's largest economic power banking industry was heavily affected. The country was on the edge of bankruptcy. That catastrophic state of affairs was a fertile ground for the successful mobilisation of Eurosceptics. Like Greece now wants to leave the European Union, the appeal for Britain's leaving the European Union was heard more often in 2009. In this regard it is important to understand why the UK entered the EU.

By the end of the Second World War Britain's economy was on the decline. About a quarter of its national wealth was lost (Court, 1954, p. 7). According to the Statement by the National Executive Committee of the Labour Party (1950), Britain's postwar economic problems were greater in scale than those of any other European country, except perhaps Western Germany. It is essential to remember that the main economical consequence of the war devastation was the gap in the balance of payment caused by fluctuation of pound. Prices had increased and pound went down in value. Limiting ability to produce and export consumer goods led Britain to economic dependency on the United States. In other words, the British economic situation was under severe conditions. Nevertheless many experts pointed out that in 2009 British economy was in the worst state since the Second World War.

As for political sphere, it is also worth saying that the Second World War was a critical episode in Britain's long political domination on the international arena. By the end of the war Britain was on the brink of defeat but it acceded to the victorious countries. British politicians saw that the Empire was becoming unsteady and that India and others were impatiently waiting for independence (Pugh, 2003, p. 238). The Cold War determined Britain's position as a great power rather than a super power or great empire. Consequently, British government had to choose between European international movement viewed as a threat to national sovereignty and American's massive support providing the status of a junior partner. The Labour Party's report (1950) considered that 'close co-operation with America is vital to Europe's peace and prosperity'. So after the World War II British policy was based on its Commonwealth links, its global political role and its special relationship with the United States. However these factors did not return economic and political power to Britain.

From the beginning British government considered the European integration and foundation of the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) as politically incompatible with London's world role. Economically, British participation would have put an end to the Commonwealth preferences because of a common external tariff in the ECSC. As shown in the European Union Enlargement (2004) the political stance has often been accused by European politicians. They supposed that the UK 'missed the bus' denied integration between European nations. La Libre Belgique (1957) linked that idea with the statement that only 'close economic and political cooperation with Europe can safeguard the independence of Europe and of Britain'.

The foreign ministers of the six member-states of ECSC agreed to create the Common Market and an atomic energy community in 1957 (Jovanovic, 2005, p. 12). Britain decided not to take part in the final negotiations, because she wanted to obtain free access to the goods manufactured in the Common Market, without giving reciprocal access to farm goods from the continental Europe to its domestic market. As a response to the creation of the EEC, Britain gathered together the 'other six' countries. They set up the European Free Trade Association (EFTA). As British Government emphasized in the Memorandum to the Organisation for European Economic Cooperation (OEEC) the EFTA was founded 'to strengthen the cohesion and promote the prosperity of Western Europe' (1957). This organization did not have any supranational authority. Agriculture was excluded from the process, so the whole business concerned manufactured goods only. Soon it turned out that the EFTA became weak economic area and did not have any grand expectations regarding integration, compared to the EEC.

Just one year after the establishment of the EFTA, Britain submitted its application for full membership of the EEC. British government realised that it had to be a part of a stronger and larger economic group, especially as the EFTA appeared to be stillborn. After the World War II it seemed that Britain would be neither ready nor willing to accept strong integration links between the European countries. The reasons could be found in the unacceptability of supranational, ties with the Commonwealth, membership of the EFTA and a system of farm prices (which allowed much higher prices in the EEC than in Britain). The British economy, however, did not develop at a satisfactory pace compared with the other EFTA or EEC countries. A boost to the economy could come from the access to a larger market.

The Conservative government headed by Harold Macmillan decided to enter the Common Market in 1961. Apparently, the markets of the Commonwealth were too small, and Britain had to sell her manufactured goods in the wealthy European markets instead. This was why the Tory Prime Minister, Harold Macmillan, decided in July 1961 to begin negotiations with the EEC for full British membership. In his speech in the House of Commons (1961) the Prime Minister claimed the further relationship with the European Community as the main target for Britain. 'Although the Treaty of Rome

is concerned with economic matters it has an important political objective, namely, to promote unity and stability in Europe which is so essential a factor in the struggle for freedom and progress throughout the world'.

The United Kingdom wished to avoid being economically and politically excluded from the new Europe and sought rather to preserve its traditional role of intermediary between Europe and the United States (Baranovskij, 1986, p. 35). It is clear that the main reason for London's cautious attitude to the European integration movement is that it might cause the damage to Britain's special relationship with the USA. According to Backer and Seawright (1998, p. 19), those ties determined the crisis in the foreign policy of Britain. Hitherto, the UK tries to swim between national interests and American stance.

It is essential to note that, before the negotiations, London wanted to stipulate certain conditions. One of them was the preservation of preferential system in the rade between the UK and the Commonwealth. British government considered that legislation which regulated the agricultural product prices did not cover the UK. Britain should enter Common Market as a nuclear power, and privileged American ally (Lebedev, 1988, p. 26). The National Executive Committee of the British Labour Party (1962) announced that if those demands were met by the Six, Britain should join the Common Market. Therefore the UK sought to establish itself as a leader of the European Community.

Nevertheless, entry into the EEC was not profitable to anyone. The struggle against integration was both inside parties and inside specially made organizations, such as 'The Anti-Common Market League', 'Britain, not Europe', and 'Commonwealth before Common Market' (Lieber, 1970, p. 212). However, from the national interests' point of view, Britain's joining into the Community was a justified act, because it was connected with harmonization of economic policies and reconstruction of international system (Baranovskij, 1986, p. 44). Put the other way round only Europe might maintain Britain's influence or status in the world affairs.

By the end of the 1950's Britain's export to Western Europe was more than to the Commonwealth. Under that circumstances, the EEC market was seen as much more important in the long term than the Britain traditional markets and the EFTA. The UK had lower increases in productivity and growth than the EEC countries and experienced repeated sterling crises. London believed that the EEC membership would be a strong political framework for stabilizing sterling and safeguarding its status as a reserve currency

In addition, British government hoped that the EEC would carry out free foreign policy functions. First of all, it was concerned with the guarantee of Britain's political leadership within the Community. British political elite believed that their country had a historic right to leadership, rooted in its domination as a great empire of the 19th century. Secondly, the membership in the Common Market could calm the US administration and stabilize 'special relationship'. The new Kennedy administration, elected in 1960, considered that Britain should join the EEC (Kennedy, 1961), because it would ensure

the stable increase of American influence over European future development.

The European Economic Community became the unique chance to strengthen the economic and political role of Britain as a great power. It is important to note that the European integration process was initiated in two directions. It started from Great Britain, which was caused by the objective economic reasons, and also from the European Economic Community because the member-states had to change the form of association to strengthen its world position. Thus, integration as a real process was not included in the foreign policy doctrine of Great Britain, but became, in fact, inevitable for the country.

To conclude, it is noteworthy to summarise the reasons for British membership in the European integration. Firstly, London wanted to strengthen the unity in Europe with its leadership; andt Britain's influence in Europe would have to provide the influence in the world. Secondly, British industry, which is concentrated more and more on the complicated, sophisticated, specialised goods, needed a very large market such as the Common Market. That is why, Europe offered the only viable alternative for Britain's post-war development. Nowadays, in a more globalised and interdependent world the EU provides an excellent forum for discussion and cooperation between its members. If the UK had never joined the EU it would be seen as isolationist and uncooperative country. No doubt, this would worsen Britain's relations with other EU members. That is why the influence of Europe on the future of Britain is as important as ever. So the European Union membership is good for Britain, and British membership is good for Europe.

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PECULIARITIES OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE CONSTITUTIONAL PRINCIPLE OF EQUALITY REGARDLESS OF THE ENTERPRISE LOCATION IN CASES WITH THE PARTICIPATION OF FOREIGNERS IN THE PRACTICE OF RUSSIAN ARBITRATION COURTS

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Constitutional principle of equality, equal treatment for all before the court, Russian arbitration courts, the cases with the participation of foreigners, a breach of procedural order, the improper notice of the arbitration process members, the deprival of rights, the reversal of judicial act

The requirement of equality has a significant place in the system of fundamental values in a modern democratic state. According to the tenor of the Constitution 1993, the requirement of equality has a multifaceted universal content characterized by various regulatory forms of its manifestation. We must admit that among the variety of equality the equality before the court is of a fundamental importance as it applies to all branches of both substantive and procedural law.

A constitutional principle of equality before the court can be applied to the arbitration courts, which act as an essential part of the judicial system in Russia. The aim of this paper is to consider peculiarities of this constitutional principal in cases with the participation of foreigners regardless of the enterprise location.

Provision for the administration of justice by arbitration courts on the basis of citizen and organization equality before the law and the courts formulated in Article 7 of the Arbitration Procedure Code of the Russian Federation results from the requirements of Articles 8 and 19 of the Russian Constitution and Article 7 of the Federal Constitutional Law of the December 31, 1996 "About

the Judiciary of Russia". The law requires equal treatment for all regardless of any characteristics and circumstances. It claims equal recognition and protection of private, state, municipal and other forms of property [1]. The equal treatment for all at the court is provided by the equality of the procedure in arbitration court, by the equal rights and duties and the right guarantee, which aims to create conditions for ensuring the legal equality of trial participants.

The equality before the law defines the legal status of a Russian citizen and means that the court can not apply the law depending on the gender, race, nationality, language, origin, property and official status, place of residence, attitude to religion, convictions, membership in public associations and other circumstances. Justice at arbitration courts also implies the equality of all organizations before the law and courts regardless of their business legal structure, form of ownership, subordinacy, location and other circumstances.

A significant change in economic conditions of Russia, reforms in the system of State agencies and the realization of various programs aimed to improve the investment climate have led to the increasingly marked process of integration of foreigners in business projects which are being organized and carried out in Russia. The very existence of economic and legal relations between foreign and domestic companies have led to a new wave of international law development. This process has a number of significant difficulties affecting the implementation of both substantive and procedural rules.

Cases involving foreign persons has begun to appear in the practice of Russian arbitration courts more often. As we have found out from the official document of the Supreme Arbitration Court of Russia on the review of cases with the participation of foreigners is steadily increasing (Table). In 2005 this category examined 1200 cases, in 2006 – 1320, in 2007 – 1338, in 2008 – 1639, in 2009 – 1723 [2]. And the one of the first difficulties encountered by any court of arbitration system is a special procedure for notification of foreign participants. The lack of any clear mechanism for implementation of the established international legal norms and patterns of interaction of the court with judiciary and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs led to a breach of procedural order and, consequently, to reversal of the taken decisions. Improper notice of the arbitration process members of time and place of the hearing and thus the deprival of the party against whom the case is decide to defend their rights grounds for repeal of a judicial act.

Distribution of cases from 2005 to 2009

Category of cases	Year				
	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
The amount of cases resolved by the courts	1 467 368	1 094 849	905 211	970 152	1 409 503

Category of cases	Year				
	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
The amount of cases with the participation of foreigners	1 200	1 320	1 338	1 639	1 723
The amount of cases with satisfied requirements	583 (48,6%)	678 (51,4%)	696 (52,0%)	833 (50,8%)	965 (56,0%)

Under Part 5 of Article 121 of the Arbitration Procedure Code of the Russian Federation foreign persons are notified by arbitration courts in accordance with the rules established in chapter 12 if anything else is not provided in this Code or the international treaty of Russia. A notice of time and place of the hearing or a separate procedural action, which is a general rule, takes place by sending a copy of the court act no later than 15 days before the trial or proceedings. It is clear that such a formula for the notice of a party is practically impossible for a foreign person. This fact is generally admitted, but there are a lot of ways and peculiarities of its application to foreigners. Provided that, the central position in this area occupies the norm of the relationship between international and domestic law which is set out in Part 4 of Article 15 of the Russian Constitution, and regulating the priority of ratified international law. So almost every case of appearance of a foreign person in trial requires an individual approach to an organization of the judicial notice.

For example, on an important element of equality regardless of the company location has drawn attention in the decision of the Federal Arbitration Court of Moscow District of the March 2, 2009 # KG-A40/11719-08 [3].

In that case B.V.V. filed a lawsuit in the Moscow Arbitration Court seeking a payment by a Limited liability company "Menonsovpoligraf" of an actual value of shares in the amount of 9 934 000 rub. By the decision of the Moscow Arbitration Court of the September 28, 2004 in case # A40-33884/04-32-213, left unchanged by the decision of the Ninth Arbitration Court of Appeal of the December 28, 2005 # 09AP-5093/04-GK, the claim was satisfied.

In the cassational appeal M.R. asked the court to reverse the judicial acts and to refer the case for reconsideration to the court of the first instance. In support of the complaint informer refers to the improper notice of time and place of the trial. M.R. underlines the fact that he is a citizen of India and subject to the notice in accordance with the procedure established by the Treaty between Russia and the Republic of India on Legal Assistance and Legal Relations in Civil and Commercial Matters of the October 3, 2000. Having reviewed the case materials, having discussed the arguments of the cassational appeal and having validated the use by courts of the first and appellate instances of substantive and procedural law, the cassation court concluded to reverse the acts being appealed on absolute grounds. The files of the case show that

M.R. involved in the case as a third party not presenting independent claims in relation to the subject-matter of the dispute is a citizen of India residing on the territory of that State.

M.R. did not participate in the proceedings of courts of the first and appellate instances. Leaving without changes the lower court decision, the Ninth Arbitration Court of Appeals in its decision pointed out that on an address of M.R. was directed a decision of the appointment of the hearing with the translation into English.

In accordance with paragraph 3 of Article 253 of the Arbitration Procedural Code of Russia foreign person involved in the case of an arbitration court in Russia who is located or living outside Russia will be notified about the trial by the judicial decision directing a request to the institution of Justice or other competent authority of a foreign state. A similar procedure for notification the citizens of the Republic of India is set by the Treaty between Russia and the Republic of India on Legal Assistance and Legal Relations in Civil and Commercial Matters (New Delhi, October 3, 2000) ratified by Federal Law of the December 9, 2002 number 163-FZ [4].

Thus, we can see that the court found out that the files of the case do not show that during the notification of M.R. by the courts of the first and appellate instances the proper order of notification has been observed. Accordingly, the cassation court found the notice of M.R. (3rd person) on the time and place of the trial improper, and concluded that the judicial acts should be reversed and the case should be referred for the reconsideration.

During the new hearing the court should meet the requirements of an international treaty and Article 253 of the Arbitration Procedural Code of Russia to notify a foreign national thus providing him the right to express the position on the suit upon which the court had to take a legitimate and justified act.

Thus, we can conclude that in arbitration cases involving foreign persons and legal entities should be paid a particular care to compliance of the requirements of law relating to the procedure of notification of a foreign entity. The non-compliance of the requirements of proper notification of a person involved in the case on time and place of the proceedings leads to the violation of one of the guaranteed elements of equality namely regardless of the company location which can be also the place of residence of a person involved in the case, and consequently the reversal of the judicial act.

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LITERARY CREATIVITY OF STUDENTS ON AMATEUR AND HIGH SCHOOL WEBSITES

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Internet literature, students' creativity, students' folklore, personal site, amateur site, high school site, first steps in literature

The main principles of the Internet proclaimed by John Perry Barlow in the "Declaration of cyberspace independence" – independence and self-regulation – formulated ideology of the Internet remain till now the main bait for many novice users of the Net. The impossibility of compulsory restrictions and absence of the Internet content control open unique prospects for creativity.

Realizing boundless possibilities of the Internet, many creative users begin their life in the network space with creation of personal web-resources. Knowledge of the basic commands of the HTML language only permits to "write" a web page quickly enough and to fill it with any contents. After that it is also possible to buy a "beautiful" domain name from special Internet agencies or to use a free platform, and a personal site will appear on the Internet.

At the end of the XX century the great bulk of creative Internet projects were made by amateur resources: at times primitive and featureless, but sometimes effective and promising. In 2000 the company Yandex "launched" the service-constructor Narod.ru which became a unique network project at the beginning of the XXI century. Its authors' plan was very simple: to give the users the tools that are simple in use and do not demand special computer skills and knowledge, and also provide the users with infinite space to create and place personal sites in the network free of charge. Today 2 472 407 sites function on this server.

The search of "Students' creativity" in Yandex gives 21000 pages on which there is this phrase within the project Narod.ru. The majority of them are personal pages of students or students' associations (companies on interests, creative clubs, educational groups, faculties).

Among the amateur students' sites the group of the resources devoted to inscriptions on the school desks makes the major share. For such students' folklore – sometimes witty and apt, but more often humiliating and vulgar – in the university environment comic terms "partiynoe tvorchestvo" (Silver Press, no date), "rock creativity" and "partkultura", designating "various creative displays of students which can be seen on school desks in audiences or something else of this sort" (Partkultura, no date) are used:

The maths analysis exam is hanging in the air,
There is a sheet in front of me
And nothing's written there.
O holy shit, maths can't be mine –
I only wish to make AI. *(artificial intelligence)*

The author of the section "Student" of the site "At Kuzma" addresses the visitors of the web page with the offer: "All students for certain have the zany records written by themselves or read on the school desks. For example, phrases, aphorisms, poems. Send them here. We will enjoy each other's culture. Students of all High Schools and countries – unite!" (At Kuzma, no date). However till now only his own inscriptions are published on the site "At Kuzma":

Suddenly I fell asleep.
Everybody sees that I'm scrappy.
Lecturer, please, hush your voice –
Don't you feel that I'm happy?

Such rhymed texts, transferred from the surface of the student's school desks into the network for general amusement, represent doubtful art value. And, despite their wide spread in the amateur sector of the Runet, today they enjoy rather small popularity. The majority of the sites with "partiynoe tvorchestvo" appear to be neglected, and last updates on them are dated 2004-2005.

Along with "on desk" literature amateur students' sites at times offer visitors interesting art samples too. The network author Oleg K. Fogier created his personal site with samples of literary creativity in August, 2002. Since then his Internet resource was visited by 1268 people. On the site it is possible to get familiarized with verses about friendship, love, eternity, life on the Internet, and also with prosaic sketches "Silence" and «Mosquitoes» and the text stylized as a diary "Notes of the student: Entrant".

"June 18. My Mum and I came to the selection committee. We were given a list of professions. <…> I wished to be a director of a night club, but there was not anything like that in the list, therefore I chose, in my mind, a similar profession – the rector of the university. In the committee they told me, that it was the signature of the chief, and the future specialties were given above.

We were choosing my future for a long time; Mum wanted me to become an expert in the field of aviation engines, but I decided that I wanted to be a car mechanic because already long ago I wanted to make tuning of my bike, but my knowledge was not sufficient. Mum tried to persuade me – but I was firm as a real adult person. Therefore the decision was made as I wanted; I will be an expert in the field of engines… aviation engines" (Oleg K. Fogier, no date).

Administrators of the official high school sites quite often try to increase popularity of the Internet resource adding pages or sections devoted to students' creativity to its structure. As a rule, in these sections the talented youth is offered to publish literary or would-be-literary works, drawings and photos, video clips and animation films. However, initially preconceived attitude of the students to everything official leads more often to the fact that such sections remain empty and by no means creative. At the same time the informal sites of educational institutions, where students feel certain freedom, frequently offer the users interesting materials which are beyond the rubric "First steps in literature".

On the students' site of St. – Petersburg State University – spbgu.ru – the young writer concealed under the network pseudonym **kaprise** is registered. In the section "Creative" the author submitted the poetic and prosaic texts for the readers' approval. The series of miniatures "Persons" which the student "has written down observing people" distinguishes among others. In the ironic portrait sketches the young writer depicts student Petya Nulis, the pro-rector, professor-chemist Kim. The author draws the details of students' life, recreates images of people surrounding him: "Kim Alexandrovich Burkov always, as long as Gena remembered him, wore the same beige jacket, with the crumpled flap soiled with chalk half let out outside. His sleeves were always in chalk too. Sparse grey hair helplessly hanged down from his flabby senile head. And there was something confusing Genka's unshakable peace of mind – scared, as though even exhausted Kim's look. A look not of a tired out wolf and not of a wounded deer. There was something different in it which Gena could not formulate" (kaprise, no date).

In the section "Our creativity" of the Students' site of KFEI (Kazan State Financial and Economic Institute) three rubrics are presented: "Articles in the Economist", "Poetry" and "Artworks and just thoughts". Among all the students' works on the site the comic sketch "I'm searching for you" – the address of the student to the pencil lost somewhere – is of the greatest interest. "We were the best friends; we had a lot of fun together: we covered school desks with drawings at sociology, and I was rebuked by the teacher for that… we wrote the reports in the economic theory together… we went to all parties and made records in the record books of nice guys <…> Farewell! Perhaps some time over one thousand years I will meet you at somebody of my group and I will tell: "Well-well, give me my pencil back! I gave it to you for a pair of minutes, and you withheld it for already two weeks!")))))" (Liliya S., no date).

The first creative experiments of the students turn out to be different in form, style and orientation; however, all of them are similar in one aspect: the

art world space in them is filled with the atmosphere of students' life with its daily educational problems, unexpected discoveries, merry holidays and new acquaintances.

Unfortunately, the largest part of the young literary initiatives, published on the amateur and high school sites, still remain in the category of the naive first steps in literature which do not reach a higher level. However, even unsuccessful creative attempts remain in the general literary receptacle and in contrast with worthy works of art make unity of the newest Russian Internet literature.

More information, some more examples of student literature and parts of this research can be found in the article "Student Literature in the Modern Russian Internet: Classification of Worldwide Web Resources" by Kirill A. Rozanov published in "Proceedings of Saratov University" vol.10. Ser. Social science. Political science, iss.1.

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ISSUES OF UNIFICATION OF GERMANY WITHIN THE FRAMEWORK OF SOVIET-AMERICAN RELATIONS DURING 1945 – 1949

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Power, victorious, separate sphere of influence, occupied zone, agreement, to divide, airlift, supplies, force, influence

The end of the Second World War forever changed the economic, political, and geographical landscapes of the United States (US), the Soviet Union (USSR), and the majority of European powers. The US and the USSR, as

victorious superpowers of the Second World War, would now seek to shape the world into separate spheres of influence that matched each of their respected ideologies. As early as 1948, the fragile peace between the US and the USSR shared since 1945 was brought to a breaking point over the German city of Berlin. The city of Berlin, which had been divided into four separate spheres of influence after the end of the war, had long been a center of conflict between the two superpowers. The question between the powers of what to do with the German industrial capability and production in the post-war economy served as a key element of division between the nations. In addition, the agreements reached at the wartime conferences of Yalta and Potsdam and the stark refusal by both powers to comply with all demands would ultimately destroy the alliance between the former wartime allies. In June 1948, this division would come to the forefront on the world scene with the Soviet blockade of Berlin to western forces by ground, road, and rail. The blockade of Berlin and subsequent airlift of supplies and materials by the US and the United Kingdom (UK) would forever seal the division between the former wartime allies. The blockade and overall context of the outcome would shape both western and Soviet roles in the coming Cold War. In many senses, the Berlin blockade served as the opening round in the Cold War conflict that would last for the next 42 years and result in the creation of two separate German states.

Following the defeat of Germany in May 1945 the German industrial and war-making capability was brought into question by all the victorious allied powers (US, UK, USSR). The USSR and other European powers shared the common fear that Germany could become an economically and military viable power in the near future and in doing so would directly threaten their safety. (Sullivan Ronald. American Defense Policy, 1965). In order to address these fears the Morgenthau Plan was proposed as early as 1944, by the US, to establish the guidelines for administering the post-war German economy. Under this plan, Germany was to be divided into two independent states, the main centers of industry including the Saar and the Ruhr valley would be internationalized or annexed by neighboring nations, and the heavy industry was to be dismantled or destroyed. The harshness of the Morgenthau Plan was met with support, but the idea of a completely non-industrialized Germany did not sit well with all the allied powers. Germany, even in ruins, still would play the central role in European economic recovery and affairs. The question of German industry and economic production would be decided at the wartime conferences in Yalta and Potsdam. These conferences would determine the role of post-war Germany not only economically and politically, but the relationship between western and Soviet forces in determining how Germany would shape their global spheres of influence. The Yalta Conference in February 1945 and the Potsdam Conference in July 1945 set the tone for future divisions over Germany between the allied powers. At the Yalta conference in February 1945, the allied powers (US, UK, USSR) agreed that Germany was to go through de-nazification, demilitarization, and would be forced to unconditionally

surrender to the allied powers. In addition, after the conclusion of the war Germany would be split into four occupied zones; American, British, French, and Russian. In addition, the City of Berlin would also be divided into four separate zones. At the Potsdam Conference in July 1945, the allied powers met for the final time during the war and issued the following mutual agreements; the Big Three (US, UK, USSR) would treat Germany as a single economic unit, the Big Three also agreed that there would be no "partial or complete dismemberment of Germany", and the Big Three agreed reparations for the Soviet Union from Germany in the amount of 20 billion dollars.

With the agreements from the Big Three in hand the process of rebuilding Germany was now tasked to the victorious powers. However, this agreement was not made at an equal state, the American zone controlled the single largest population and the British zone had the largest single concentration of industry in the area of the Ruhr valley. This unequal division of Germany sat uneasily for the Soviet Premier Joseph Stalin. Stalin had thought as early as April 1945 that the victorious powers would be able to shape their own social and political systems within their respected German zones. However, Stalin seeing the poor economic and political conditions in his own zone felt that the Soviet zone would be lagging behind that of the British or American zones. Stalin felt that a single German state would provide the most economic success for the Soviet sphere of influence and that a unified German state would eventually embrace communism as opposed to capitalism. Stalin, in fact needed the unified German state to help promote Soviet economic interests and promote trade with Germany. (Smyser W.R. From Yalta to Berlin, 1999).

On January 1, 1947 the American and British forces joined their two German zones into an area called "Biozonia." This unification of zones was in direct opposition to the agreement reached at the conferences of Yalta and Potsdam for a unified German state. The USSR protested this decision by the American and British governments as going against the agreements at both Yalta and Potsdam. In addition, in that same year a proposal was made for economic assistance under the Marshall Plan. The plan would provide $12.7 billion dollars in economic assistance to Germany and all countries that requested it. The Soviet Union felt that this plan was the groundwork by the allied powers to establish an anti-Soviet bloc in the west and forbid all powers under the Soviet control in the east from requesting Marshall Aid.

In February 1948, at the London Conference in London, England, western ambassadors agreed that total European recovery lay exclusively in German recovery and based upon this all western powers should ease restrictions in their German zones and end wartime reparations to promote a strong German economy. By the conclusion of 1947 between the victorious powers of the Second World War they were no longer alike and it seemed only a matter of time before a total division between western and Soviet powers would occur. The western ambassadors also began the discussions for a future government in Western Germany without Soviet influence. Stalin, angered by this decision

of western powers, ordered Marshal Vasily Sokolovsky and his political adviser Vladimer Semyonov to apply stricter control measures to the most exposed western point of the city of Berlin. Sokolovsky, under orders from Stalin ordered on March 31, 1948 that all lines in and out of Berlin to be cut off from western forces. With the relative success of this Soviet blockade it became evident that the lines of division between western and Soviet forces were to be drawn forever. Further increasing tensions between western and Soviet forces, the American and British "Bizonia" became the "Tri – zone" in late-April 1948 with the inclusion of the French zone for not only economic but military reasons.

On June 24, 1948, the introduction of the Deutsche Mark in the allied controlled areas of Germany was met with praise in the west and condemnation in the east. The D-Mark for Western powers was a hope of strengthening the economies in the western zone. But for the Soviet Union it meant D-Mark instant inflation and demand that it should be produced in the Soviet controlled areas. The USSR was unable to produce the economic conditions necessary to compete with the western zones after the introduction of the D-Mark. On June 24, 1948, Stalin ordered the blockade of the city of Berlin to the west by rail, ground, and road as what he saw was the only option to counter the increase in western economic production and influence in Germany. (Friedman Norman. The Fifty-Year War: Conflict and Strategy in the Cold War Annapolis, 2007).

The USSR demanded that there be four-power implementation of final German de-militarization, four-power control over the Ruhr valley for heavy industry, and four- power control over German economic development.

By June the western forces saw no immediate end to the blockade of Berlin and decided that an action was necessary to be taken so that fewer people of Berlin would starve, or fall into Soviet hands. With support from both the US and UK the western powers started dropping nearly 80 tons of supplies to Berlin by air every day. The airlift stated that Berlin would be protected at all costs from what was seen as the Soviet aggression and the allied powers would continue to support Berlin as long as they were required to do so. In addition, the Soviet controlled blockade of Berlin was met with the so-called "counter blockade" by western forces. On April 4, 1949, as a commitment of joint military and economic assistance the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) was formed by the western powers. The Soviet blockade and western counter-blockade would continue until May 12, 1949, when the USSR requested that both be ended with none of the Soviet demands being met. (Jackson Robert. The Berlin Airlift, 1988).

The failure of the USSR to end the blockade on the Soviet terms left Stalin with no bargaining tools for the upcoming meeting between the Council of Foreign Ministers (CFM) and forced the Soviet Union to face a divided German state. On May 23, 1949, the Federal Democratic Republic of Germany (FDR) or West Germany as it was to be known, was founded by the allied powers and would remain in the western alliance until the collapse of the

USSR in 1990. In addition, the German Democratic Republic (DDR) or East Germany as it was to be known, was created on October 7, 1949, and would remain in the Soviet sphere of influence until the collapse of the USSR in 1990.

In the overall context of the Cold War, the Berlin blockade serves in many cases as the opening shot. The blockade itself did not start the Cold War, nor did the actions by the western or Soviet forces. However, the Berlin blockade firmly established the spheres of influence that both western and Soviet forces were willing to define. The western ideals placed Berlin and to a greater extent Germany, in the western sphere of influence and would not allow it to fall to the Soviet side. Whereas the Soviet sphere still held hope for a unified German state and hoped by conducting the blockade the western forces would analyze their positions and go back to the agreements made at Yalta and Potsdam. The conclusion of the Berlin airlift in May 1949 signaled to the world that the western powers, led by the US, were willing to commit themselves to a strong and prosperous Europe which would be free from Soviet influence. The creation of the NATO and the FDR in 1949 signaled to the Soviet forces and to the rest of the world, that western powers would not cave to aggression by Soviet forces over Berlin or anywhere else on the globe. The question of Berlin and Germany in the context of the Cold War remained a key issue of the conflict between the western and Soviet powers until 1961. Germany represented the key economic and political ideals in Europe and whoever controlled Germany would be best equipped to shape the entire European sphere of influence. At the time of the Berlin blockade, the fate of Germany was still in doubt; Germany represented in many cases a win/loss option for the western and Soviet powers. A united Germany under the banner of western or Soviet influence represented a total loss of Germany by one side and a total victory for the other. Neither western nor Soviet forces were willing to accept this fate for their sphere of influence in Germany or for the rest of the globe. Thus the conflict in Berlin would be the first of many to dominate for the next 42 years on both the European continent and abroad.

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THE ARMED NEUTRALITY OF 1800-1801: A CONFLICT ON THE BALTIC

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Revolution, war, coalition, allies, diplomacy, assassination, navy, battle

It's common knowledge that Great Britain and Russia had always been rivals on the international scene. Despite this fact they seldom stopped contacts. The diplomatic relations between the two countries could have been badly spoiled, but very rarely – broken down. And, surely, Britain would have often tried by all possible means to get Russia as an ally to combat some country which was gaining strength on the continent. The money was British, while the cannon fodder was mostly Russian. Russia often served British interests and took part in wars and conflicts with which she had actually nothing to do.

But at the end of the XVIII century, when the Great French Revolution broke out, all the legitimate regimes were almost shocked by the execution of Louis XVI and Mary-Antoinette, when the French declared they would try to expand their revolutionary ideas to other countries and to persuade common people to rebel against nobility and to dance around Freedom trees, Russia and England had nearly the same attitude to what was going on in Europe.

Indeed, what could the reaction of such conservative countries be? At first everyone was pleased with what was happening in France, because the Revolution weakened the country, which for nearly two centuries was trying to dominate over Europe. But when the French army started winning battles, old monarchies realized at once the very scale of danger they were in and decided to take measures at once. Coalitions were created. And the British Empire was the main coalition-builder, led by its prime-minister William Pitt Jr.

The 2nd coalition began successfully. The British fleet under the command of the famous admiral Nelson won a great victory over the French in the Battle of the Nile in 1798, then Suvorov did his best in North Italy, while Ushakov conquered the island of Corfu in 1799. The Russians were sent to the Mediterranean by the Emperor Paul I to help the allies. But soon after he was greatly disappointed with them. Actually, the Austrians didn't appreciate Suvorov as much as he deserved. And boosting tension between Ushakov and Nelson concerning the case of Malta and its future was no longer a secret.

Malta. That was the sticking point. A small island which de-jure belonged to the Kingdom of Both Sicilies, but many centuries ago, after the Crusades, became the residence of the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, or the Hospitallers. An old document declared that in case the Johannites left the island it should be returned to the King of Both Sicilies. In 1798 Napoleon conquered Malta on his way to Egypt. And as the Grand Master escaped and

then passed his privileges and power to the Russian Emperor (who was much flattered), Russia joined the coalition.

But Russia was not the only country eager to bring the island under her control. Though it can't be said that all this was only due to the Emperor's strong addiction to medieval traditions and mysterious rituals, that he made such a fuss about this "gloomy rock" – the Russian naval officers used to be trained on Malta in the times of Catherine II – still Russia was shut within the Black Sea and had very slight connections with the Mediterranean. And Britain, which proved to be the Master of the Seas, was eager to get another naval base there except Gibraltar. Malta appeared to be a perfect base. A British force had settled down to besiege Malta. It was already clear that Britain had no intention of handing Malta over to the Russians, and Tsar Paul had already started to move against British interests. He saw the hypocrisy of his ally and decided to return home both his troops and navy.

Napoleon, who by that time had escaped the British fleet and landed safely in France, where he was soon created First Council, decided that it was just the time to gain peace with Russia and work out a plan against Britain. He set several thousands of captured Russian soldiers free and seemed to be a better ally for Paul. The Emperor started making decisions in favor of revolutionary France. When he learned that after a lengthy siege Malta had surrendered to the British in September 1800, he became furious. Sir Charles Whitworth, the British ambassador in St. Petersburg, was expelled from Russia for being "extremely curious". Such actions meant undeclared war.

Diplomats spread rumors that the tsar was mad. But if sending the Don Cossacks to India really seemed to be a crazy and impracticable idea (though no one considered Napoleon to be mad despite his plan to reach India from France), the reunion of the Baltic states, the so-called Armed Neutrality appeared to be a real threat to Britain.

The Armed Neutrality was first formed in 1780, initiated by Catherine II, who refused to help the English and to send Russian troops to the North American colonies. After the American states won the War for Independence, the union of the Northern countries broke. And in December 1800 it was revived. The prime mover of the league was Tsar Paul. On August, 27, 1800 he issued a call for the formation of the Armed Neutrality. Soon afterwards he showed just how neutral that would be by ordering an embargo on all British ships.

Sweden's king, Gustavus IV Adolphus, strongly pro-Russian, visited St. Petersburg. While there, the Neutrality was formed. And the main of its objectives were that every neutral vessel should be free to navigate from port to port and on the coasts of nations at war and that the declaration that cargoes do not include contraband should suffice to prevent inspection. Denmark and Prussia joined later.

In Britain it was reguarded as a hostile move, in effect adding the Baltic navies to the French cause. Russia had little or no maritime trade, and so her claims to be defending neutral trade were particularly unconvincing. The

concept «free ships, free goods» could never be acceptable to Britain, one of whose means of imposing her will upon an adversary, and thus of winning her wars, was controlling sea traffic to her own advantage, and by blockade and embargo. Britain was ready to take measures in return.

In early 1801, the British government assembled a fleet at Great Yarmouth, with the goal of breaking up the league. The expedition had three enemies to deal with. Simply because of their position at the entrance to the Baltic, the Danes would have to be dealt with first, probably at Copenhagen. Once the Danes were neutralized, the fleet was to enter the Baltic, where its main objective would be to defeat the Russians – they were seen as the main enemy. The Swedish fleet would be dealt with if it tried to intervene, but was not a prime target.

On January, 26, it was reported in The Times that Sir Hyde Parker was in fact to command the Baltic Fleet with Lord Nelson as his second-in-command. The British fleet sailed from Yarmouth on March, 12: it needed to act before the Baltic Sea thawed and released the Russian fleet from its bases at Kronstadt and Revel in order to cut it from the Swedish and Danish fleets. Parker was cautious and moved slowly. He wanted to blockade the Baltic despite the danger of the combination of fleets. Nelson wanted to ignore Denmark and Sweden, and instead sail to the Baltic to fight the Russians. Orders were sent to Parker to go to Copenhagen and detach Denmark from the league by 'amicable arrangement or by actual hostilities', to be followed by 'an immediate and vigorous attack' on the Russians (Hibbert, 1995, p. 300).

On March, 23, 1801 Parker called a council of war at which the diplomats revealed that the Danish Crown Prince and his government, actively hostile to Britain, were not prepared to withdraw from the confederation and were strengthening the defences of Copenhagen.The Danes rejected the British ultimatum. After the failure of diplomacy it was the time for guns to speak.

Nelson was able to persuade Sir Hyde to attack the Danish fleet, currently concentrated off Copenhagen. He urged attack without delay. On the 26th of March 1801 the Fleet moved towards the Sound, the gateway to the Baltic, and on the 30th of March 1801 passed it, keeping to the Swedish side. The British anchored five miles below Copenhagen, allowing the senior officers to reconnoiter the city's defences. The plan required the commander in chief, Hyde Parker, to advance from the North, pre-empting any relieving attack by the Swedish or Russians, while Nelson had to take his division into the channel outside Copenhagen Harbour and attack the Danes, whose fleet was moored along the shore at Copenhagen, turning their ships of the line into gun batteries. Nelson's ships were each "to anchor in its appointed place and attack its assigned Danish rival – this meant classical line tactics"(Tanstall, 2005, p. 383).

The beginning of the action in the morning of April, 2, was not successful, because three of Nelson's ships ran aground. But the rest of them filled their position, and the battle started. Many of the Danes were inexperienced, but they were fighting close to land, to defend their capital, and with the Crown Prince watching from the shore. They were easily able to reinforce the ships.

Seeing the intensity of the battle, Sir Hyde Parker concluded that he should give Nelson the opportunity to break the action. So he hoisted the signal to disengage, giving the battle its most famous episode. Nelson said: "Do you know what's shown on board of the commander in chief? Number 39, to leave off action! Leave off action! Now damn me if I do." Turning to his flag captain, he continued: "You know, Foley, I have only one eye. I have a right to be blind sometimes." Nelson then raised his telescope to his blind eye and said "I really do not see the signal!" (Jones & Gosling, 2006, p. 139)

The battle lasted for three hours, leaving both Danish and British fleets heavily damaged. By 2 pm much of the Danish line ceased firing, with ships adrift and on fire, several having surrendered. But this was not quite the end of the battle. The most powerful Trekroner battery was still firing, while the inexperienced crews of several Danish ships kept on firing after their officers had signaled their surrender. Nelson decided not to wait until the end of the battle. A British officer went ashore with correspondence from Nelson to the Danish Crown Prince inviting an armistice. It went like this: *"To the Brothers of the Englishmen, the Danes:* Vice-Admiral Lord Nelson has been commanded to spare Denmark, when she no longer resists…but if firing is continued on the part of Denmark, he must set on fire all the prizes he has taken, without having the power of saving the men who have so nobly defended them…" (Hibbert, 1995, p. 310). This note is sometimes taken as a sign of Nelson's weakness, a skillful ruse of war to persuade himself and others it was he who won the battle, or fear that the signal to disengage would be repeated and he couldn't pretend not to see it for the second time – one could be tried by a tribunal for that.

The Crown Prince sent back a letter asking what the intention behind Nelson's letter had been. This letter was sent back under a flag of truce, at about 3 pm. When this flag reached the battle, all firing stopped. Nelson replied with a second letter that his aim in sending the Flag of Truce was humanity. Historians still diverge in opinions considering this truce. Some are fully convinced that Nelson was sincere; the others say it was a clever trick to move his damaged ships from Copenhagen Harbour, to a safe distance from the Danish guns, and then threaten the city with bombardment if the Danes didn't surrender and sign the truce on British conditions.

Having left the conduct of the battle to Nelson, Parker was now equally willing to let him handle the diplomacy. The morning after the battle, Nelson was sent into Copenhagen to meet Crown Prince Fredrick. Nelson was able to secure an indefinite armistice. He then tried to convince the Prince of British protection against the Russians. The one sticking point was a sixteen-week armistice to allow action against the Russians. It's considered that one of the Danes turned to another and said in French that disagreement might lead to a renewal of hostilities. «Renew hostilities!" responded Nelson, and turning to his interpreter said: "Tell him that we are ready in a moment; ready to bombard this very night!" (Hibbert, 1995, p. 314). The British fleet was now in positions that would allow the bombardment of Copenhagen. An agreement

was reached and signed the next day, thus showing Nelson's political victory. But it was more due to the fact that in the final hour of negotiations the Danes found out (but not the British) that the Russian tsar had been assassinated as a result of a plot formed by a group of noblemen and sponsored by Whitworth, the former British ambassador to St. Petersburg. This made the end of the Armed Neutrality very likely and freed the Danes from the fear of Russian action against them, allowing them to come to agreement. The armistice was reduced to fourteen weeks. The Danes left the league for its duration and the British were to have free access to Copenhagen. In return, Copenhagen was not attacked and the Danish prisoners were returned on parole.

After recovering at the Danish capital, the British fleet moved on into the Baltic. There, at the end of April, they learned about the events in Russia. On May, 5, orders for replacement reached the fleet. Parker was recalled, and Nelson given command of the fleet. Amongst his orders was a command not to let the Swedish and Russian fleets combine. As the Swedish fleet simply had taken shelter in port Karlskrona, Nelson started for Revel, where he hoped to find the Russian fleet. When he arrived on May, 14, he discovered that it had escaped up the Gulf of Finland to the strongly defended Russian naval base at Kronstadt. He also discovered that negotiations to end the Armed Neutrality were underway, so the tone of his visit was changed at once. Nelson wrote to Count Palen, the Russian Minister for Foreign Affairs that he came in person to show British respect for the new tsar Alexander I. Palen answered that to show his respect the British fleet should immediately leave the Russian base. In order to avoid damaging the negotiations, Nelson withdrew from Revel on the 17th of May, despite being politely invited to be presented at the Russian court.

The rest is history. Russia and Britain restored relations. After breaking the shaky truce of Amiens in 1803 Russia joined the next coalition. As for the Russian-English open conflict, it was over: the new Emperor was strongly pro-English, especially baring in mind that he reguarded Napoleon as his private enemy. Russia combated him till his final fall in 1815, and at the Vienna Congress Britain, having won the war mainly due to Russian help, began to set up intrigues against "the Northern Colossus", whose strength on the continent had grown…

The Armed Neutrality seemed to sink into oblivion. Nowadays it is seldom mentioned in books – the Epoch described is full of events which are said to be much more important and thrilling. This incident was supposed to be a mistake by both contemporaries and historians – just a whim of a mad tsar, who valued his private interests more than those of his country. Only many years later there appeared an opinion that Paul I chose the right foreign policy and made it clear he would follow the interests of his state, and wouldn't be an obedient tool of the British. He paid dearly for that – the cost was his life.

And still the Emperor's life is a life of one man. Who remembers those who died at Copenhagen, which was considered to be one of the bloodiest

naval battles of the entire revolutionary and Napoleonic wars? Nelson himself considered it to be his hardest won victory, but probably the least influential. The explanation is simple: it was… useless – Paul was murdered on March, 11 and the battle took place on April, 2, nearly a month later – the news spread slowly at that time. But who regrets about the victims? Who cares? Britain won the game. By what means? It doesn't matter. Has Moral ever taken place in Politics? Only those who win are right; History steps over dead bodies of those who lose and continues Her way in silence.

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JAPANESE NOBLE WOMEN'S CLOTHING IN HEIAN PERIOD. COLOR SYMBOLISM

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Japan, clothing, Heian period, noble women, court, aristocracy, color, symbolism, culture, history

Japanese clothing has a long history, which is closely connected with the influence of Chinese culture as well as with original traditions of Japanese nation. Owing to its unique identity and peculiarity it has always attracted attention of scholars, art critics and Asian culture-lovers from all over the world. Japanese court clothing of Heian era still exists. Members of the Emperor's family wear Heian-style costumes on special occasions. We can find information about court women clothing in narrative sources of Heian period. There are Pillow Book of Sei Shonagon (Makura-no Soshi) and The Tale of Genji (Genji-monogatari) and the Diary of Murasaki Shikibu, both aristocratic Japanese women.

Chinese influence manifested itself in consolidation of Buddhism in Japan. It had an effect on court clothing as well. In China proper clothing was a very important part of the etiquette. There were strict rules regulating fashion, cut, color, ornament and for each rank and estate.

In 647 in Japan the Table which stated a list of the most valuable fabrics was made. The most expensive coloring was red, then purple and green. Yellow color became an Emperor's color, likewise in China, where only emperor was privileged to wear it. In 701 a special code, which fixed three types of clothing was issued. There are ceremonial clothing, court clothing and official clothing. According to official's rank, color, fabric and cut were strictly regulated. For full-dress clothing, for example, expensive brocade and silk fabrics were used. There were also regulations on clothing colors in some edicts of 810. About two hundred rules which governed things like the combination of kimono colors and outside colors and the lining were established

Widening contacts with China and Korea promoted further development of weaving. Patterned multicolored brocade fabric, tiffany, lavishly embroidered, padded, stenciled material, batik and dense silk appeared. The most popular was brocade fabric, designed with big flowers, garlands and rosettes interlaced with theme motifs, and silk with family emblems. Landscape motifs were also popular.

The Heian era of Japan encompasses years of 792-1192 AD. It is generally seen as the «Golden Age» of Japanese culture. It was also the time of one of the greatest Courts in Japanese history. The most intricate costume the world has ever seen stemmed from the privileged court society. At that time traditional Japanese motifs replaced Chinese patterns and details. Chinese clothing turned into Japanese national clothing on the brink of the IX century.

Women clothing in Heian Period were characterized by complicated mix of colors. This clothing was named "juni-hitoe" which means "twelve-layered dress". But there were also juni-hitoe, which had up to forty layers. After 1074 this number was reduced to five layers. Juni-hitoe weighed about 44lbs or more.

The layer put on the naked body was the kosode. It was a short robe, falling to an ankle or low-calf length. The kosode was usually made of silk of white or red color. The kosode was never shown, it served as underwear.

Hakama was put on kosode. The hakama is a full pleated split skirt, worn even by men. It is made of unglossy, stiff, raw silk for regular wear and glossed silk for formal occasions. Formal hakama is called nagabakama (long nakama) or haribakama. Nagabakama is the term used to describe the hakama the noble women wore. Women wore haribakamas that were dyed red and young girls wore haribakama dyed dark purple-red. Haribakama is worn like a pair of pants over the kosode and tied on the right side of the waist by a sash.

The next layer is a hitoe. It was a light, unlined robe of white, red, or blue-green color. The color depended on the season. The sleeves of a hitoe often hang over the hands and the hem of which is longer than that of the other

robes. Hitoe is either plain colored or patterned in simple, geometric shapes. The hitoe is the first layer that is visible.

The next layer, uchigi is translated as «robe» and is the basis for the next layer. Uchigi is made of fine silk and can be either lined or not. It is brightly colored and often patterned with more intricate details than the hitoe. Ten to forty uchigi were commonly worn until the sumptuary laws reduced that number to five in 1074. For lower nobles, attendants, or for informal occasions, the dress was finished with uchigi. But for upper nobilty or for formal dress, the uchiginu is worn over the uchigi. The uchiginu is a padded silk robe worn as stiffener and support for the outer robes. It is described as a stiff uchigi lined with scarlet silk.

Over the uchiginu goes the uwagi. The uwagi is also patterned like an uchigi but made of much finer woven and decorated silk. It is shorter and narrower than the robes. The color and fabric of the uwagi is prescribed by rank. Only the Empress and the royal family could wear a purple magenta uwagi. Red uwagi was allowed to high-ranked court ladies with special permission. Lower-ranked women were allowed to wear any color, except purple magenta, red, blue and black. First two colors were forbidden, blue was considered as color of the common people and black symbolized deep mourning.

Over the top the karaginu or «Chinese jacket» is worn. It was described as «waist-length» but the hem comes closer to mid-thigh length. This is the only layer that is not buttoned on the front. The karaginu is intricately brocaded, embroidered, or painted silk that is lined with twilled silk and only worn by high-rank nobles. Imperials wore red or blue, with the Empress wearing red. Attendants wore twilled silk with simpler, often geometric patterns.

Mo is an apron-like remnant of a Chinese skirt. It is tied on over the uwagi and worn beneath the karaginu. The mo is usually white and either embroidered or painted with images. Popular choices were seascapes. The Empress and Princesses preferred bamboo and phoenix. Both mo and karaginu are optional and reserved for the highest rank nobles and formal occasions.

During the summer months in the heat, the court society wore light, unlined robes.

Combination of colors was very important. Clothing fabrics were thoroughly selected in accordance with the system of ranks and also with specially developed conceptions and meanings. Clothing color varied with a woman's age. The color combination is called Irome no Kasane. It comes from the twelfth century manuscript called Nyobo no shozoku no iro ("Colors for a Court Lady's Dress") written by Minamoto Masasuke, Master of Court Ceremony to Senior Grand Empress Tashi. Most of the combinations include five uchigi, less in the summer and more for special ensembles. Each color combination had special name: white and purple – "plum", green and blue – "bluebell", green and pink – "peach". For example, clothing matsugasane, «pine tree layers," is used for New Year's celebrations and consists of two deep maroon uchigi and three green uchigi in different shades from the darkest to

the lightest. The hitoe is scarlet. Maroon robes were used in fall and spring. Nature inspired the names and arrangement of each ensemble:

- many have floral associations;
- description "Beneath the snow" (yuki no shita) refered to a dark green hitoe worn beneath several robes in gradations of lighter to darker pinks, with the outermost robes in white;
- pomegranates symbolized male posterity, cherry thee blossom is a symbol of bravery, prowess and chivalry;
- pine, bamboo and chrysanthemum were symbols of longevity;
- images of butterflies and bats meant happiness wishes;
- peony referred richness wishes.

There were rules that regulated color of women clothing. Green color, called midori, was a male color and was used in men's clothes of 6-rank officials. Sprout-green, called moegi, was a main color of spring clothing. There were several shades of yellow color, one of them – yamabuki, color of Kerria japonica, a plant with bright yellow flowers. Kichiba is a color of falling leaves, it was often used in winter clothing combinations. Kobai is called plum violet, but to be more exact, pink-plum color. This color was used in clothing in February and March. Kurenai is red with a light shade of yellow. There was also ake – scarlet color, but it was not used in women clothing. Murasaki, purple, was a forbidden color that was only used in Empress's clothing.

There were special color combinations. Cherry color was a combination of white upon scarlet or lilac. Shion – color of china aster – was light cardinal on green. Hagi color was dark-scarlet on green. Certain colors were associated with November to February. They were called ume-gasane or «shades of the plum blossom. Such kimonos were white on the outside and red on the inside.

For March and April there was a combination called «shades of wisteria», a kimono with lavender outside and a blue lining.

Winter and Spring had their own set with an outer garment of yellow and orange.

The colors were set to mirror the seasons and people's mood, showing how closely the Japanese were attuned to the world of nature around them. This also, of course, led to other things. For example, no one will wear clothing with cherry blossom designs in winter or fall. Examples of summer motifs included ocean waves and red maple leaves.

Special colors were related to pregnancy and childbirth. Before the childbirth all walls in the chamber, where mother to be lived had to be curtained with white fabric. Everyone who was connected with that part of the house had to wear white clothing. The color was changed only on the hundredth day after childbirth.

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«THE BOOK OF THE DUCHESS» BY GEOFFREY CHAUCER: THE POSSIBILITIES FOR STUDYING THE PROBLEM OF SEXES' INTERPERCEPTION IN THE NOBLE SOCIETY AND THE POET'S APPROACH TO GENDER

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Gender history and behavior, middle ages, English medieval city and aristocracy, sexes' interperception, poem «dream-vision», main character of the poem, historiography

Let's remind of Chaucer himself (1340-1400), that he was a son of a rich London wine-merchant and became an important royal officer, whom the kings appointed many posts. According to king's wish Chaucer was a page at a court of the duchess of Olster, then a diplomat, who represented king's interests in many countries such as France, Spain, Italy, then he became an inspector of customs' collecting in London, then a justice of the peace in Kent, then was chosen in Parliament from Kent and in the end – an inspector of royal building jobs. [12].

The Gender history, connected with the Middle Ages, is very interesting for the historians today, because there are many weakly studied aspects, which are about the gender behavior of men and women, their ideas about the sexes roles in family, the relationship between wives and husbands. In the last decades the problem of family's making and childhood was very actual. The scientific collective monographs, especially «Adam and Eva» bear witness about the actuality of these problems in the native historiography [5; 4; 7,].

Besides, it is unknown, what the possibilities for gender studying in the medieval literature are, and, in particular, in «The Book of the Duchess», which is not studied in our country. And as for Chaucer himself many foreign and native authors tried to analyse the issues of poet's socio-political, cultural and gender views, especially on the basis of the famous «The Canterbury Tales» [11; 14; 6].

In some researches there are a few points dealing with «The Book of the Duchess», which are connected with the plot of the poem, its sources, the story of making (writing) this poem, the peculiarities of main characters' temper [11; 13; 10; 9; 12; 14; 2; 3].

We should make some general remarks about the source. According to the majority of the historians, Chaucer wrote this poem for commemorating the name of the duchess Blanch (the wife of John Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, the friend and patron of Chaucer), who died of plague. The main character of the poem is Whyte, White, Blanch (in French). [9, P. 9; 12, P. 164; 14, P. 5; 2, P. 205]. Because of it this poem is considered «elegy» [3, P. 36; 12, P. 164].

It is noteworthy, that the dating of the poem, according to D. Brewer, relying upon the time of duchess's death (1368) supposes that «The Book» could be written soon after this event, but he doesn't call the date [9, P. 9]. J. Gardner supposes, that Blanch died of plague in autumn of 1369. He also doesn't call the exact date of poem writing, arguing that this work was very prolonged [12, P. 240].

The native literary critics – Alekseev M.P.(1943), Anikst A.A. (1956) note 1369, which is the year of poem writing without comments [2, P. 205; 3, P. 36]. Sergey Aleksandrovsky in his recent article notes September of 1368 as the date of duchess's death, and 1369-1370-as the period of poem writing. He notes that «The Book» is the only great poem of Chaucer, which is exactly dated [8, P. 179].

Thus (We should summarise) that Chaucer began to write his book immediately after duchess's death and probably he finished it after a year or so.

The poem was translated by S.A Aleksandrovsky and published in 2005 (We should remark, that the title of this edition is «The Book of the Queen», and the translator explains his choice according to the fact that there isn't obvious information about the title of the main character of the poem – White, and it is very interesting to correlate the combination of the words: duchess-chess. There is a symbolic link between the title of the poem and its content, according to which, the main character (The Black Knight) lost his lover (White Lady) to the Fortune as it was a chess game [8, P. 180].

«The Book» is a poem-elegy, which is a «dream-vision». [2, P. 205; 10, P. 59]. Chaucer is one of the main characters, and he is a teller of the love story. Besides Chaucer is not only a teller, and observer, but also a philosopher and a moralist.

Being a character of the poem, Chaucer considers many problems: overcoming sufferings, love, sorrow, loyalty. The other characters support his arguments upon these topics basing on their own life and emotions. The poet makes up a dialogue with his main character, he analyses his replies, appreciating them. That's why Chaucer becomes a specific partner-participant to the tragedy of person's fate, with whom Chaucer makes acquaintance in his dream. Chaucer's dream became the source of the poet's bitter experience in his attempts to analyse the essence and character of man's sufferings.

We should like to consider the structure of the source in more details. The poem consists of the Proem (Introduction) and the plot – The Dream. The plot: Chaucer couldn't fall asleep, he read the legend of Alkiona and Keik (or Seys), their love, death of Keik, Alkiona's sorrow and her death in the end in Ovid's «Metamorphoses». Then the poet fell asleep and in his dream he met a sorrowful Black Knight (according to the authors' opinions, The Knight is the image of John Gaunt, and the knight tells a story of his loss (that is the death of White Lady, obviously, Blanch Lancaster). [1]. Let's try to single out the opening: Chaucer's sufferings, because of insomnia, then reading the legend, falling asleep; the culmination – the dream (meeting and conversation with the Knight); the denouement – Chaucer's awakening and the analysis of the dream. The form of the poem is the dialogue between Chaucer and sorrowful Knight.

Let's try to reveal the sources of borrowing of the structure and the composition of the poem. These sources are mythological, historic and biblical.

It is noteworthy, that Chaucer follows the French tradition of a love novel writing: the researches stress the strong influence of «The Novel about the Rose» by G. De Lorrice and J. De Men and of «The garden of Love» by J. Froissart [13, PP. 10, 48, 50, 52, 54; 10, PP. 59, 71; 9, PP. 9-10, 24-25; 2, P. 205, 3, P. 41].

Thus, the historic-mythological sources (extracts) are:

a) from the ancient Greek-Roman myths and history (for example, about the Trojan war and its participants: Hector, Ahilles, etc.:

> «For hoolly al the storie of Troye…
> …of Ector and of king Priamus,
> …of Achilles…
> …of Paris, Eleyne…» [1, P. 6];

then Orphey, Afina:

> «…Orpheus, god of melodye» [1, 10];
> «Or ben as wys as Minerva» [1, P. 18].

Myth from «The Eneid» by Virgil:

> «Dydo, quene eek of Cartage,
> That slow hirself for Eneas
> Was fals…» [1, P. 13].

b) from the biblical plots (for example, Joseph, who analysed pharaon's dream:

> «…Ioseph…
> Of Egipte, he that redde so
> The kinges meting Pharao» [1, P. 5].

c) from the European historic plots (Chaucer refers to «The Novel about the Rose», enumerates the characters of «The song about Roland»:

> «of al the Romaunce of the Rose»;
> «Genelon,
> He that purchased the treson
> Of Rowland and of Olivere» [1, PP. 6, 19];

Let's make a note the abundance of tropes to attract attention of a reader. They are: a) epithets (for example, in the description of nature: «blew,bright, clere was the air» [1, P. 6]; in description of appearance of the characters:

«…eyen my lady hadde!
Debonair, goode, glade, and sadde,
Simple,… noght to wyde….» [1, P. 15].

b) metaphors (for example, in the description of the knight: «But argued with his owne thought» [1, P.9]); c) personifications (for example, the description of the ancient character: «Orpheus, god of melodye» [1, P. 10]); d) comparisons (knight's lover as Penelope and Lucrece with their loyalty:

«She was as good…
As ever was Penelopa…
As the noble wyf Lucrece» [1, P. 18].

Let's enumerate the possibilities (literary components) of gender studying (the problem of mutual sexes' perception in the noble society and Chaucer's gender approach):

A) through Chaucer's description of his main characters: their appearance and the peculiarities of their temper, behavior in marriage. This description arises the problem of Chaucer's gender approach, his attitude to the noble women, to their behavior in marriage (gender behavior).

B) through the description of one character, made by another, and also relations between the characters. These descriptions arise the problems of gender behavior of sexes, and the peculiarities of the mutual sexes' perception in the noble society.

«Gender possibilities» are very numerous. We should note the poet's approach, and attitudes of his main characters, that's why the main problem is to single out poet's ideas and character's positions. The latter «doubles», as it were, the problems of the researcher (historian).

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PRINCE ESPER UKHTOMSKY AND THE IDEOLOGY
OF THE ASIANISTS

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E. Ukhtomsky, *Vostocliniki,* Asianist, Far East, Asia, Nicholas II, Orientalism

The 1890's marked a distinct eastward turn both in Russian diplomacy and intellectual life. When Tsar Alexander III decided to build a railway to link St. Petersburg with its distant Pacific territories it seemed to many that the empire's future lay in Asia.

Indeed some thought that Russia was fundamentally Oriental rather than Western in character. This peculiar offshoot of Slavophils felt that Russia's roots lay in the East was labeled *vostochniki,* or Asianists. Their holy mission was to «reunite» Russia with China and the whole Far East, like some latter-day Khan.

In addition to its influence on tsarist foreign policy, Asianism also reflected a profound unease with Russia's sense of itself and its place in the world. The pessimistic *'fin-de-siecle'* literature of St. Petersburg's Silver Age often brooded about the nation's Asian links (Schimmelpennink, 1997, p. 189).

In spite of their little number, the Asianists were influential. One of the most prominent advocates of Asianism was Prince Esper Esperovich Ukhtomskiy (1861–1921).

In 1884 Ukhtomskiy graduated from History-philological Faculty of the University of St. Petersburg with a silver medal for his master's thesis, 'A Historical and Critical Survey of the Study of Free Will' (IRLI, f. 326, o. 1. d. 72, l. 2.). Upon graduation he was able to indulge his interests to the Orient by starting to work with the Interior Ministry's Department of Foreign Creeds, which dealt with the affairs of the Empire's non-Orthodox faiths (RGIA, f. 821, o. 12, d. 546, l. 2.).

This work did enable the prince to travel extensively to Eastern Siberia, where he studied the Buriats, a nomadic Lamaist people living near Lake Bai-

kal. A journey there was undertaken in 1886 to report on frictions between the Buriats Buddhist clergy and Orthodox missionaries, who had been accused of forcible converting the local inhabitants to Christianity in contravention of earlier treaties. During the late 1880's Ukhtomskiy took a number of trips to Russia's Asian domains, as well as to China and Mongolia.

When plans were being made in 1890 to send the Tsarevich on his Grand Tour of the East, Ukhtomskii's reputation as a connoisseur of Oriental art and his solid social credentials made him an ideal candidate to serve as a tutor on the journey (RGIA, f. 821, o. 12, d. 546, ll. 28-29).The friendship that resulted from his ship-board intimacy with the heir enabled Esper Esperovich to exercise considerable influence on Nicholas in the early years of his reign.

Like many journalists, the prince was a prolific author, devoting much of his pamphleteering to the Asianist cause. His most important work was a lavish three-volume account of the Grand Duke's trip, *Travels in the East of Nicholas II when Cesarevich* (Uktomskiy,1893-1897). Written as a travelogue, the work essentially served as Ukhtomskiy's Asianist manifesto. This book was written during six years in close consultations with Nicholas II, who personally approved each chapter. The book was published in three volumes between 1893 and 1897 by Brockhaus, in Leipzig. Empress Alexandra Fyodorovna bought several thousand copies for various government ministries and departments, and a cheaper edition was subsequently printed. The work was translated into English, French, German and Chinese.

Like the Slavophiles half a century earlier, the prince argued that the West's excessive reliance on reason was alien to the Russian soul. This characteristic, he felt, bound his countrymen to the Orient: 'We feel our spiritual and political isolation from the Romano-Germanic countries overburdened by a too-exacting civilization. For us…[as] for Asia, the basis of life is faith'(Cit. op. Schimmelpennink, 1997, p. 192). Russia and the East were also united by repugnance for crass materialism. In drawing closer to Asia, Ukhtomskiy implied, Russia would also renounce Peter's the Great reforms and return to its true roots: 'There, beyond the Altai Mountains and the Pamir, lies really the same boundless, uninvestigated Russia as that of the ages before Peter the Great, with an untouched store of tradition and quenchless love for the marvelous, with its humble submission to the elemental…yet bearing the stamp of a stern majesty on every spiritual feature' (Cit. op. Schimmelpennink, 1997, p. 193).

According to Ukhtomskiy 'in Asia we have not, nor can have, any bounds, except the boundless sea breaking on her shores' (Cit. op. Schimmelpennink, p. 193). Ukhtomskiy's statement that Russia has no boundaries in Asia can be taken two ways. On the one hand, it could be seen as a clarion call for ceaseless expansion. Indeed, elsewhere in the book, the prince writes that 'beyond the Caspian, the Altai Mountains and Lake Baikal we cannot find a clearly-defined border… beyond which our rightful land ceases to be' (Cit. op. Schimmelpennink, 1997, p. 194). Yet the earlier citation can also be understood to mean that there is no separation between Russia and the Orient in the sense that both are fundamen-

tally alien to the West. In an age when tsarist prerogatives were perennially under siege by calls for European-style reforms such as parliaments and constitutions, the Asianist ideology provided an attractive argument for maintaining the autocratic status quo. Ukhtomskiy predicted that the Russian Tsar would eventually add China to his dominions, but such a union would occur peacefully, according to the logic of a common heritage and similar interests.

Ukhtomskiy became a close confidante and adviser to the Tsar on matters of Eastern policy and was made editor of the Saint Petersburg Gazette in 1895. He used the paper to promote and emphasize the importance of the East in the Russian policy, an approach which sometimes drew fire from his right-wing colleagues, and those advocating Westernisation. He continued to converse with Nicholas and used his position to advocate Russian intervention in East Asia, but by 1900 Ukhtomsky's influence was waning. Although Ukhtomskiy no longer took an active part in the affairs of the state, he continued to editorialize about Asia for a few more years, condemning English encroachments on Tibet and cheering his countrymen on during the War with Japan. On the Tibetan question the book *Iz oblasti lamaizma* (Ukhtomskiy, 1904a) was written. A collection of articles with his thoughts about the Russo-Japanese War was published in *Pered groznym budushchim* (Ukhtomskiy, 1904b). The defeats at Tsushima and Port Arthur in 1904 snuffed out Russian dreams of the Asian empire.

So the ruling elites of the Russian empire sometimes made use of the ideas of cultural and spiritual kinship with their Asiatic populations to legitimize the Imperial rule. In the Russian case this took the form of 'Asianism', expounded by vostochniki such as Prince Esper Esperovich Ukhtomsky, who argued that Russia's special path comprised a greater affinity with Asia than any other European power. Asianism did not survive the war with Japan. Subconsciously, however, its influence long outlived the Revolution of 1917. Throughout the twentieth century, the Russians continued to believe that their country was the only one with Asia in its struggle against the decadent, materialist West. For a brief period at the turn of the century, the Orient excited a peculiar fascination on the Russian imagination.

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INNOVATION AS A SUCCESS FACTOR OF THE TOURISM INDUSTRY DEVELOPMENT

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Tourism, innovation, innovative activity

In this study, the term "innovation in tourism", different classifications of innovations, the essence of innovative activity and specific aspects of it have been considered.

Innovation and new service development are important strategic features to assure growth and sustainable wealth for every industry, but in particular for those industries where markets are saturated and clients choose products and services from all over the world, such as in the case in tourism. However, in general the phenomenon of innovation in tourism is not as common as in the manufacturing industry. It has even been argued that innovations are non-existent in tourism. Although it would probably be a lot closer to the truth to say that they are less frequently occurring and sometimes taking on different features making them harder to detect.

There are various definitions of the term "innovation", but it can be said that *innovation* is the search for, and the discovery, development, improvement, adoption and commercialization of new processes, new products, and new organizational structures and procedures.[1] A broad definition like this is useful when applied to the field of tourism.

As far as innovations in tourism are concerned, there is an appropriate sub-division of innovations into five categories – product, process, management, logistics and institutional innovations, described in the following section:[2]

– Production innovations

This category consists of changed or new products or services, developed to the stage of commercialization. Their novelty should be evident to producers, suppliers, consumers or competitors. Loyalty programs, events based on local traditions and environmentally sustainable accommodation facilities are examples of production innovations of recent years.

– Process innovations

These innovations involve a way of raising the performance of existing

operations with new or improved technology or by redesigns of the entire production line. This kind of innovations can be combined with or result in product innovations. Robots for cleaning and maintenance, self-service devices and computerized management and monitoring systems make up good examples.

– Management innovations

New job profiles, collaborative structures and authority systems among others belong to this category, often in combination with the introduction of new products, services and production technologies. These can for instance lead to staff empowerment through job enrichment, training and decentralization.

– Logistics innovations

Materials, transactions, information and customers constitute examples of the flows handled. Recent innovations in this field are Internet marketing, enhancement of airport hub systems and integrated destination information systems.

– Institutional innovations

This category deals with collaborative and regulatory structures in communities.

Institutional innovations go beyond the individual firm. They transect public and private sectors and form new rules and regulations. Reforms of the financial incentives that restructure social or health tourism concepts, the setting up or change of credit institutions and changes in the conditions for obtaining finance are such examples affecting tourism.

Adding another perspective, there is a developed scheme that can be applied to innovations in tourism.[3] It illustrates four types of innovations – regular, niche, revolutionary and architectural. The scheme provides a framework for a clearer understanding of the nature of particular innovations in tourism (fig. 1).

Scheme's vertical axis indicates the knowledge and competence used for the production of services or products. Sometimes old qualifications and ideas need to be replaced and other times further development of existing structures is all that is needed. The horizontal axis indicates whether specific innovations make existing business linkages obsolete or whether they lead to an entrenchment of the existing ones.

The least radical innovations are the regular ones. Their impact over a longer period can, however, become rather considerable. Niche innovations usually challenge collaborative structures, but not basic competence and knowledge. Revolutionary innovations, on the other hand, tend to keep external structures unchanged, while having a radical effect on competence. The fourth and last category involves architectural innovations that tend to change overall structures as well as establish new rules that remodel the concept of tourism.

While analyzing types of innovations in tourism, it should be said that innovation is a base for innovative activity. *Innovative activity* of the tourist company is a special kind of business based on constant development and introduction of innovations for the purpose of the maximum satisfaction of clients'
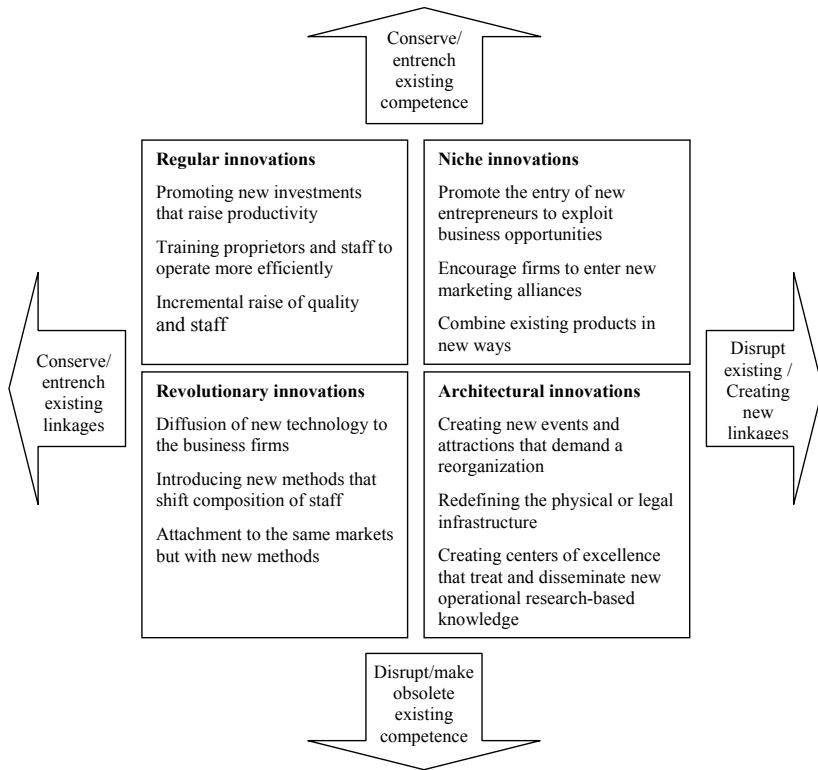
Fig. 1. Types of innovations in tourism

requirements.[4] As a business process, innovative activity includes the following stages: search for innovative ideas and their estimation, business plan working out, search for necessary resources, management of the created product/enterprise. The specified stages are presented in more details in the following scheme:

To receive good results of innovative activity, it is necessary for companies to solve problems connected with the following aspects:

− Organizational enterprise structure. Besides the department of current production, a tourist company should organize a pilot production department which will be responsible for all actions of providing new products/services.

− Innovative marketing. The marketing concept of innovations is the basis of market research and searches of competitive strategy of the enterprise. The innovative marketing complex includes working out of innovative strategy, market research and operative marketing. The main objective of strategic innovative marketing consists of working out of a penetration

strategy of an innovation to the market. Therefore, the analysis of market structure, the subsequent working out of market segments, the organization and demand making, the customer behaviour modelling are in the basis of strategic marketing researches. At the stage of operative marketing, specific forms of realization of the chosen innovative strategy are developed. Operative marketing is aimed at the profit maximization and sales volume, maintenance of reputation of the firm, market share expansion.

– Employees. Company executives should not only organize employees' trainings, but also form their motivation for introducing innovative processes at the enterprise work. Also it is necessary to reveal the employees who are inclined to non-traditional and innovative way of thinking and to involve them into a pilot production department work (fig. 2).

Search for innovative ideas
↓
Selection of the most perspective ideas
↓
Working out of the detailed business plan of the innovative project
↓
Expert estimation of the business plan
↓
Experimental production of new goods
↓
Updating of the schemes of production and goods distribution
↓
Mass production of the goods and its distribution to the market on the basis of updated scheme

Fig. 2. Stages of innovative activity

It should be emphasized that successful innovators of tourism prove that creation and introduction of innovations are not simply desirable today, but it is necessary in the competition. It should be admitted as a survival condition on the market. Moreover, innovations have crucial importance for maintenance or increase of a profit level. It is considered that indicators of profitability of the organization start reducing after the supply of goods/services to the market. Modernizations of a tourist product and specialization expansion allow the support of a profit level, but really innovative products (goods, services, technologies etc.) bring a significant income.

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A CONCEPT OF CULTURAL CODE IN A SOCIAL DIALOGUE

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Culturally- specific values, background knowledge, cultural code, oral dialogue

It's known that language is a unique sign system and one of the basic signs of the nation because it expresses culture and reality of its people. National cultures of different communities never fully coincide, each consists of its peculiar national and international lexical units, words with cultural-specific values [2] that reflect not only a style of life, language characteristic of communities, and very often- even their mentality.

In linguistics there is a concept of a cultural code – that is a key to adequate interpretation of culturally-significant information concluded in a certain context. The sociologist and the researcher in the field of a human dialogue Ervin Hoffmann says, that «using all these speech units, the person ceases feeling himself (herself) on an isolated island, easily understands nearby people, always ready to enter a dialogue and then sees that people are not indifferent to him (her)».

From my experience it is really important to give our students a look at different aspects of life in an English-speaking world inquiring different national realities and then absorbing intra linguistic factors [2] through real English touch (personal contact, pen palling, emailing, charts, video) and other cultural tools in this increasingly border-free world because

all these resources maintain student's interest, make them culturally aware and create intercultural speaker.

Personal contact is a major point of my ongoing linguistic review. For my learners I adapted the Elements of Culture (of Little C culture – with the component-»way of life») [3] through my interaction with the Americans (who stayed in Krasnoyarsk) and live in a region of the US known as the "Bible Belt"(Kentucky State) (The Bible Belt is the part of the United States where strict fundamentalist Christianity dominates life) and then listed some features of their «social dialogue» that really reveal the phenomena of so called «background knowledge» [1].

The Americans say with a smile, that they really «abuse» the English language.

Referred to Bible Belt they call it «a dry county" (alcohol sales are not allowed) and prohibited in certain areas of their state at certain times. Most areas will not serve alcohol on Sundays. In fact, liquor stores are closed on Sundays but if a store sells other items, it may remain open on Sundays but with the alcohol covered. Also, alcohol can not be served or sold on Election Day. It may only be served or sold after the voting polls closed.

When alcohol sales are allowed, they call them "wet counties".

My friends remarked that the Americans really want to be body conscious. And they spend millions of dollars on gym memberships. "Working Out" is a phrase meaning "to exercise". Gyms offer a variety of exercise opportunities – pools, saunas, machines and weights, treadmills, classes, etc. Some gyms are even open 24 hours a day.

Referred to food – it is very region specific in the US. For example – the Southern US is known for "comfort food" – fried meats (chicken), fried vegetables, mashed potatoes, macaroni and cheese, biscuits and white gravy, BBQ pork (pork smoked or grilled and basted in a vinegar/ketchup sauce with herbs) and sweet iced tea. Although most food is available, certain foods (Am.) are more popular in certain regions. However, the "more is better" concept has led many Americans to obesity. Fast food restaurants (like McDonalds) serve quick and easy meals. They offer large portions, known as "super sized". A person ordering a fast food meal may say "super size it", ordering the largest meal portion.

As for outings, it stands for another valuable thing of their nation. They say Americans love to vacation. But, because of the recent economic woes, many Americans are taking a "stay-cation". This is a term meaning "a stay at home vacation". Instead of spending money to travel to far away places, many people take vacation time from work, stay at home, and travel to local attractions-area parks, sporting events, lakes, etc. Another current body trend is tattooing. Tattoos are very popular – for men and women. To get a tattoo is known as "getting inked".

Americans seem to be proud of their Military Forces. And they say that there are many «slang» words around the Army.

The US have 4 branches of military – Army, Navy, Air Force and Marines. The Army special forces are "Rangers" and "Green Berets". Helicopters are referred to as "birds". The Navy special forces are "SEALS" – this stands for sea, air and land. These men will go anywhere! The men enlisted in the Marine Corp are jokingly known as "Jar Heads". The phrase "jar head" refers to a Marine's appearance (haircut – "high and tight").But, it would be considered offensive for a person not in the military to refer to a Marine in such a way.

All military personnel wear "dog tags" when on active duty. Dog tags are metal chits worn around the neck as a necklace. The tags list personal information about the soldier, such as name, rank and blood type. These were first used during the Civil War (late 1800s) as a way of identifying the wounded and dead soldiers.

To say more, Americans tend to speak on their police, they say that Law Enforcement in the US is based upon jurisdiction … federal, state, county and city and that there are many branches of federal law enforcement (FBI, CIA, Homeland Security, etc). A common citizen rarely comes in contact with federal law enforcement, they come in contact with State police which have authority throughout the state. They "do not play" (a saying meaning they are serious and are all business, all the time! State police are often called "State Troopers").

County police are under the supervision of a sheriff. The sheriff is a political position. He must be elected by the people of the county. The police who work for the sheriff are known as "deputies".

City police are under the supervision of a chief of police. The Chief is appointed by city government. The city police have power only within the city limits. They are known as officers, unless promoted (sergeant, lieutenant, captain, etc).

Police are commonly referred to as "cops". But younger generations and minority groups may refer to the police as "5-0" (five-o).

As for mail service, then the US Postal Service has come upon hard times since the invention of email. The cost to mail a letter has increased to almost 50 cents. To mail a letter through the postal service is known as "snail mail". It is called snail mail because the mail takes so long to get to the intended receiver. This is not just «a click of a button when the message is sent and received immediately».

Moreover it was interesting to know about their locations and its names: Roads that link their states together are known as "interstates". They are well maintained roads, with at least 2 lanes of fast moving traffic.

Within the states are "parkways". This is a funny word because you don't "park" anywhere on the parkway. The parkways provide well maintained roads that link the state together.

Within the cities are "bypasses". A bypass allows you to avoid the traffic of downtown roads … it "bypasses" the city.

Many large cities will have "carpool" lanes. (A carpool is several people riding together in one car who have a common destination (usually work). Those who ride in a carpool take turns driving to save money on gas. This can also be a verb …("are you carpooling today?") Carpool lanes are for cars with 2 or more persons in them, during normal working hours. These lanes are often "fast lanes", moving faster than the other traffic congested lanes.

Another funny word (like parkway) is driveway. Most houses have a driveway where the owner of the house parks his car. You do not drive in a driveway. You park in a driveway.

«Frost Heaving». This is what causes potholes, or as the defense try to claim, what caused this «fence to be crooked». Frost heaving is the process by which the freezing of water-saturated soil causes the deformation and upward thrust of the ground surface. This process can cause cracks in pavement, and damage the

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foundations of buildings, even below the frost line. Now I know the official term for what causes those ruts in the roads.

Discussing services, we discovered that they have not seen a lot of difference in the way services are conducted Russia. US (malls, cafes, restaurants, hotels, etc). But they were very upset when purchasing in a big Russian supermarket. A number of plastic bags confused them a lot. They asked -" Do not Russians think about the planet?"

And a few more observations: Americans will tip waitresses/waiters (also known as "servers") much more. The common tip is 15% – 20% of the bill. Servers do not make good money from their paychecks. They are allowed to receive only a very small portion of pay and expected to make their money on tips. Concerning facilities (gas stations mainly), it turns to be, that most if them in the US offer "pay at the pump" service. This is where you use your credit card at the gas pump. You swipe your own card and the machine will print you out a receipt if requested. This type of service is also seen in larger grocery stores. "Self check-out" lines – you scan your own merchandise and pay a machine. You never come in contact with an employee. Of course, there are employees who monitor these lines to prevent theft.

Another difference may be in the way Americans use their money. The debit card is becoming the standard of money exchange from person to business. It is a card, much like a credit card, except it pays the merchant from your banking account. It is quick and easy. They rarely carry cash…

I think that promoting intercultural communication in the classroom successfully develops the skills of oral dialogue in a second learner.

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THE STATUS OF WEST BERLIN IN THE POLICIES OF THE SOVIET UNION AND THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA (1958–1962)

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West Berlin, Berlin Wall, Cold War

The topic of my research is "The Issue of West Berlin (1950-1963)". In this report I will analyze the situation in Germany before the erection of the Berlin Wall, which became the main symbol of the Cold War. The main aspect

is the relationship between the Soviet Union and the United States, as well as their opinions about the status of West Berlin.

The idea of ultimatum on the issue of West Berlin first appeared in autumn of 1958 and was announced by Khrushchev. The Soviet Government stated that they could no longer postpone the settlement of the West Berlin problem. The elimination of the occupation regime in West Berlin was demanded by the USSR. It was supposed to turn West Berlin into an independent political unit, in a free city, so that any state should not interfere in its life. The official notes were sent to the Governments of East Germany, the United States, Britain, France and West Germany in November 27, 1958. The main requirement of this document was to conclude a peace treaty within six months (until May 27, 1959) between the victorious powers and Germany. Otherwise, the Soviet government intended to sign a separate peace treaty with the GDR and to shift the responsibility of providing the special status of Berlin to the government of the GDR. Threatening the signing of the treaty, the Soviet side gave hope to the GDR and at the same time kept in suspense the Western powers. Unilateral peace treaty with the GDR was one of the main leverages of the USSR on the Western countries. By that time the West did not have diplomatic relations with the GDR. West Berlin, according to the Government of Bonn, was a part of the FRG, this fact was not officially avowed by the Soviet Union. The Western powers also did not avow West Berlin being a part of the Federal Republic. So, the Great Powers had several choices:

– to avow the GDR and to sign an agreement on the access to West Berlin;
– to withdraw from West Berlin, leaving it behind the Iron Curtain;
- to use force, exposing the threat of the nuclear war.

The Soviet Union pursued a dual policy toward the West countries and the GDR. Flirting with the Western powers, the Soviet government, at the same time, promised to sign a unilateral peace treaty with East Germany, although the USSR did not plan such a step in the nearest future.

The terms proposed by the Soviet Union were unacceptable for the Western powers. They stated that it was impossible to conclude a peace treaty while there was no agreement on the reunification of Germany. The negotiations on that issue were possible only after an agreement on disarmament. The West was afraid of losing their influence in Germany.

The Soviet note was seen as a threat to resume the blockade of the city. In terms of Adenauer, the first chancellor of the Federal Republic of Germany, Khrushchev's ultimatum was conceived as a means of isolation of the Federal Republic. Adenauer was against the negotiations on the Soviet Union conditions and objected to giving concessions.

There was opposition in West Germany which did not support Adenauer in this question. Moreover, Adenauer's view was not shared by his Anglo-American allies. The United Kingdom disagreed the most. The Prime Minister Harold McMillan behaived restraint in regard to the possible risk of war because of the capital of the defeated enemy, which,

moreover, was responsible, to a large extent, for the loss of British nation the role of great power. McMillan became a passionate advocate of the negotiations idea, which could improve the procedure of access to Berlin and, as a minimum, would extend the time.

Eisenhower carried the heaviest burden of responsibility. The risk of nuclear war was almost exclusively imposed on his shoulders. At the very beginning of the Berlin crisis Eisenhower decided that the Soviet leaders could not be provoked under any circumstances. «We certainly do not intend to wage a war in Europe», – he said talking about the defense of Berlin.

Despite the different views of the Western powers, Khrushchev was clearly right in one aspect. Nobody wanted to start a war over Berlin (but on the other hand, noone was going to give Berlin up as it was not just about the city, but about international prestige and strategic position in the Cold War). Even the chancellor of West Germany Konrad Adenauer exclaimed: «God forbid, not because of Berlin!" when John Foster Dulles called a nuclear war as one of the possible scenarios. But the Western powers noticed the political duality of Khrushchev. Three days after the ultimatum the U.S. ambassador in Moscow Thompson wrote in his encryption to the U.S. State Department that the purpose of Khrushchev was to force the states to "admit the East German regime." A similar conclusion was contained in a letter from McMillan to Dulles on January 8, 1959. The fears of Eisenhower and his administration remained because they considered West Berlin as a forefront of defense of the Western world. The loss of the city or an assignment on it could undermine the faith of Western Europe in the reliability of the U.S. security guarantees, which could have led to the loss of influence in Europe. The USA could not allow this. The Western powers did not adhere to one opinion while each of them protected its own interests. Khrushchev's ultimatum heated the world to the limit, after which the situation began to develop more intensively.

Dulles's health deteriorated and he died on May 24, 1959. The new U.S. Secretary of State became Christian Herter. The President Eisenhower decided to man up all American units in Europe. This was the message to Moscow about the determination of the U.S. to fulfill its obligations to West Berlin. Military preparations in West Germany increased the tension. On February 2, 1959 the Soviet roadblocks stopped the passage of an American military convoy on the Berlin autobahn Helmshtedt with the intent to inspect the transported goods. Faced with refusal, Soviet soldiers detained the convoy. Moscow immediately received the American note where the Soviet actions were described as "a clear violation of the American right of free access to Berlin." The convoy was released.

After a period of intense correspondence the Foreign Ministers of the four great powers gathered for a meeting in Geneva, Palais des Nations. The meeting was held in two phases, May 10 – June 20 and July 13 – August 5, 1959. This was the first meeting involving governments of the two Germanies,

that was a step towards "cross-recognition" of the GDR and the FRG at least de facto – which, indeed, sought the Soviet Union.

Before the discussion Western powers introduced a so-called "complex plan», later known in the West as a " Herter plan ", which covered a wide range of issues concerning not only the Germanic ones, but also questions of disarmament and European security. Made by the United States on behalf of the Western powers, the plan was aimed to hold the four phases of extensive, but, according to Soviet researchers, absolutely unrealistic measures.

Evaluating the plan, the Soviet Foreign Minister Andrei Gromyko on behalf of the Soviet Government indicated that the plan did not answer the main challenges of the meeting, but only led away from them. Moreover, the Western powers were actually offering the Soviet Union to facilitate an entry of the GDR into the Federal Republic and the spread of the occupation regime on the whole Berlin.

After all the proposals were rejected by both sides, the conference focused on discussing the issue of achieving a temporary solution. But there was no advance achieved. The British delegation, which considered the decision of the West Berlin issue to pave the way for convening the summit, made efforts to conclude the work of the meeting with some results. In general, a possible agreement was quite visible. But it was unreal to achieve the unity of views on the legal basis of the Western powers' stay in West Berlin.

Geneva Conference of Foreign Ministers ended on August 5, 1959 without signing any agreement. But Soviet researchers say that it had a certain positive value. In my opinion, one of the most important points was the participation of GDR and the FRG in the discussion of the complex Germanic issues the first time in the postwar years. The U.S. Secretary of State Herter was forced to declare that «none of the currently existing states on the German ground can claim to represent all Germans and to act on behalf of the whole Germany."

The subsequent period was marked by preparations for the meeting at a summit level. The question of West Berlin remained one of the main. In autumn, 1959 a meeting of heads of governments of the Soviet Union and the United States was held, there was an exchange of views on important international issues. The visit of the USSR leader to the United States of America in the period from 15 to 27 September 1959 caused a public euphoria. Eisenhower managed to convince Khrushchev at Camp-David that the Berlin question should be discussed further and not restricted by the ultimatum of Moscow. After the meeting the two leaders' differences over Berlin lost "features of acute crisis". Moscow informally rejected the ultimatum, but actually continued to adhere to their requirements, although failed to get them.

At the end of 1959 the four great powers agreed through diplomatic channels to hold a meeting of Heads of State and Government in mid-May 1960. But the conference was not held. Meeting in Paris was disrupted due to U.S. provocation. On May 1, 1960 the Soviet missile shot down the plane-type unit of the Lockheed U-2 over the Soviet territory in an area of Sverdlovsk,

which was by manned F. Powers. Khrushchev said that he would not deal with the current U.S. administration. The Soviet side could not find common language with the U.S. government.

After the failure of the Paris Summit in May 1960 the U.S. administration made no major foreign policy initiatives. In November 1960 the Republicans lost the presidential election and the new U.S. president was the Democratic candidate, John Fitzgerald Kennedy, who represented the new, postwar generation of American politicians. Khrushchev had information that Kennedy's surrounding team had no clear position on a German issue. Certain statements in the U.S. administration could be interpreted as the search for compromise solutions to the problem. The Soviet Union proposed the new leadership of the U.S. to return to the German issue. The Soviet side was particularly worried about the recognition of Germany's eastern borders and preventing the establishment of nuclear weapons in West Germany. On 3 – 5 June, 1961 a meeting of leaders of the two superpowers was held in Vienna.

In the Soviet and Western literature it is assumed that during the talks in Vienna Khrushchev underestimated the American partner, finding him as "soft» and «weak». Khrushchev mentioned in his own memoirs that he decided to «put the young president in a desperate situation» and "to push him for compromise with the threats". However, in terms of personal contact he liked Kennedy. Khrushchev noted that the new president was favorably different from Eisenhower because of his liveliness and competent judgments. The leader of the USSR firmly placed the question of signing a peace treaty with Germany once again, with the inclusion of a clause prohibiting the establishment of nuclear weapons in both parts of the country. It was stated that the USSR considered Berlin as a territory of the GDR and saw no reason to preserve a special status for the western part of the city. Kennedy agreed with the need to limit the military power of Germany. But he believed that the best remedy for this would be to preserve the U.S. military presence in Germany. The U.S. President favored the status quo in West Berlin.

Moscow's position rather reflected the new mood in Washington than contradicted it, except the problem of the status of West Berlin. The question of the status of West Berlin was principled because it was one of the key points of the confrontation of superpowers. In addition, the tone of Khrushchev seemed defiant to the U.S. side. The Soviet leader argued that if the Western powers were to delay the adoption of the proposals, they would loose the guarantees of the access to West Berlin. The Khrushchev's intransigence «absolutely shocked» Kennedy, who, according to his old friend L. Billings, «had never come face to face with this kind of evil in his life before." For the first time John F. Kennedy, according to the Attorney General and his brother Robert Kennedy, "greeted the man with whom it was impossible to find a reasonable solution in the negotiations." Kennedy decided to stand firm and said that the United States would fight over West Berlin if necessary. Such a direct exchange

of hidden threats and such a sharp conversation between the leaders of the two countries had never happened before.

On June 15, 1961 Khrushchev, according to Kissinger, started one of the most intense periods of confrontation of the Cold War for all time. He first said that at the end of that year ended the deadline for signing a peace treaty with the GDR. At the same time, Walter Ulbricht during the press conference in June 15, 1961 said almost openly about the possibility of building the wall to isolate West Berlin. Previously such statements were not made, but the idea of building such structures appeared by Walter Ulbricht in 1958. First the statement was unnoticed. But according to American scholar H. Harrison, later it became the statement that caused panic in East Germany and led Khrushchev to agree in March, 1961 with the Ulbricht's plan for a barrier around West Berlin. According to some modern scholars, Ulbricht's influence on Soviet policy in German issue increased after Stalin's death and remained significant until the erection of the Berlin Wall. This is still a controversial issue.

In August, 1961 Khrushchev got the information provided by the Soviet military intelligence on the outcome of the Conference of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the four Western powers in Paris on 5 – 7 August 1961. In the case of signing a separate treaty between the USSR and the GDR, the West would make a united front. The application of economic sanctions was possible, designed to undermine the Eastern European economies and the initiation of mass discontent in Poland and Czechoslovakia. The nuclear armament of Germany was possible as well. All these factors together made the Khrushchev to support the Ulbricht plan proposed to the Soviet Union before. Thus, the GDR adopted a decision to strengthen its border with West Berlin.

At night between 12 and 13 August 1961 the GDR troops blocked the border. There was established a normal border regime. Access to the capital of the Republic was then carried out through several checkpoints, according to the rules established by the authorities of the GDR. Erection of the Berlin Wall at that time was unexpected to the West. But it turned out that there was no the direct violation of the agreement on Berlin. So the U.S. leaders admitted that there were no grounds for military action. The official response from the three Western powers was restrained. On Aug. 16 the NATO Council stated that it was not competent in this matter, because Berlin was not included in the scope of NATO. " The Western powers in those days showed not only "reasonable realism», but in fact recognized the right of the GDR to determine the order on its borders. When it became clear that America would not resist the construction of the wall, West Berlin and West Germany experienced a kind of shock.

The XXII Congress of the CPSU, held in October 1961, called for continued search for solutions of the Germanic problem. In 1962 the view exchanges between the governments of the USSR and the USA were made in Moscow, Geneva and Washington. On April 21 the American plan was announced calling for the establishment of the International Council on access to Berlin, which would regulate the entry into the city and out of it. Adenauer was opposed to the

establishment of this council and did not agree with the equal status of East and West Germany. These differences were not solved in 1962.

In January, 1963 Khrushchev announced that the «success» associated with the construction of the Berlin Wall made a separate peace treaty unnecessary. The Berlin crisis, according to Kissinger, finally ended. It lasted five years. The Allies maintained their positions on most issues. Khrushchev had just built a wall, which eventually became the symbol of the failure of Soviet policy in Berlin. In his memoirs Khrushchev said that the wall helped him to restore the status quo in Germany and that Kennedy was «defeated» in Berlin. But no one in the Soviet leadership considered the outcome of the Berlin crisis as a victory. Deep disappointment was in the leadership of the GDR as well. Despite three years of Soviet power diplomacy, the United States, its NATO allies and the FRG did not recognize the GDR and a compromise solution of the Germanic issue was not found. Normalization of the situation in Berlin dragged on for almost three decades. The main cause of tension remained diplomatic and psychological warfare between the USSR and the West on the status of West Berlin.

THE CATEGORIES OF TIME AND SPACE
IN NIKOLAI ZABOLOTSKY'S "GORODSKIJE STOLBTSY"

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Zabolotsky, stolbcy, philology, time, space, chronotope

Scientific discoveries of the beginning of the 20th century which crown was the general theory of relativity placed mankind into a new coordinate system that was not notable before. The three-dimensional space as the habitual environment was replaced by the four-dimensional, where time became the fourth measurement. The revolution in consciousness of a human, who had become a variable from a constant and who had renounced the constant of Divine Absolute, generated requirement to define a place of an individual in the resulting world chaos and finally determined the vector of academic researches. The categories of time and space in literature were perceived as existential dominants of an art reality that reflected author's outlook. Great researches into these categories were done by Russian philologists V. Propp, D. Likhachyov, Y. Lotman, A. Gurevich, V. Toporov, M. Bakhtin, who added the concept of 'chronotope' to philological terminology, and others.

Our study focuses on the categories of time and space in "Gorodskije stolbtsy" ("The City columns") by Nikolai Zabolotsky. We use the texts included by the author in his last code or the so-called "Svod-58". The poems

in the cycle "City columns" are united by themes and motifs, that's why we consider this cycles a single metatext.

Till the beginning of the 20th century Isaac Newton's conception represented time as absolute duration which was uniform and synchronous in all points of space. In the 20th century time acquired at once several vectors. The first is so-called entropic "time arrow" which direction is defined by internal disorder of system. This vector correlates with the second law of thermodynamics which was worked out by Arthur Eddington. Entropic time is irreversible and has its analogue in human history, leading its countdown from the Fall of Adam and Eve. The second arrow is eschatological time which concept is represented in "Confessions" and "On the City of God" by Saint Augustin. Eschatological time is counted from the birth of Jesus Christ who expiated the Fall of Man. Individual's submission to a particular time vector became equivalent to a moral choice. There are two ways: "for the righteous person imitating Christ – to the celebration of the City of God, paradise, heaven; for sinners, the companions of devil – towards the destructible City of Earth, which should become hell, the triumph of entropy in the epilogue of historical drama (The Second Coming and The Last Judgment)". (Rudnev V., 1997)[1].

"The City columns" illustrate the first stage of spiritual evolution of the lyrical subject facing the necessity of choice.

"The City columns" are based on the chronotope of the City of Earth. Here time is the New Life, history, being created by man. Carefully registered daily cycles intend to foster an illusion of order because the change of day and night here is determined not by a divine set but by the intersystem metamorphoses, entropy. Such personifications as "night fell along the grass", "night is thickening", "day is pulling its fingers through a lattice" or "morning has floated in a corner" illustrate the material nature of time. The central 13th column "The foxtrot" reveals the essence of the entropic model of chronotope:

The hero soars in the air
Through the smoke of Hawaiian jazz band.
Below – there are grumbling glasses,
Below – it is neither night nor day,
Below – on the ledge of the orchestra
Maestro is swinging like a priest.
He strikes his stomach with his hand,
He waves his stick into the void.[2]
(Zabolotsky, 2004, p. 55)

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[1] The translations of poetic and prosaic passages cited here were made by me – Zamataeva E. Original text*: «...для праведников, подражающих Христу, – в сторону торжества града Божьего, рая; для грешников, сподвижников дьявола – в сторону разрушимого града земного, который после развязки исторической драмы (Второго Пришествия и Страшного Суда), должен был превратиться в ад, торжество энтропии».*

[2] Original text: *Парит по воздуху герой / В дыму гавайского джаз-банда. / Внизу – бокалов воркотня, / Внизу – ни ночи нет, ни дня, / Внизу – на выступе оркестра, / Как жрец, качается маэстро. / Он бьёт рукой по животу, / Он машет палкой в пустоту...*

In the column "The foxtrot" the birth of the phenomenal world from the void is shown as the objectification of the creative act. Space here is subordinated to the maestro's movements, and the category of time is not revealed. A similar pattern is represented in the column "The bypass canal" and "The vagrant musicians". In "The bypass canal" the main role is assigned to the image of the jobber:

The jobber is the lord of all pants,
The course of the world is subservient to him,
The crowd's movement is subservient to him.
The crowd is tormented by the pants' whirling –
And there it stands forgetting its honor,
Unable to take its eyes off him,
All turned into charm and helplessness[3].
(Zabolotsky, 2004, p. 60)

The maestro is compared to a priest, the jobber is metaphorically called "the lord of all pants" and the singer from "The vagrant musicians" is called "the master and the fighter", "the champion of guitar" and theologian of everyday passion which is acting a role of an axis of life:

Around him the system of cats,
The system of windows, buckets, fire wood
Hang, multiplicating the dark world
With narrow kingdoms of courtyards[4].
(Zabolotsky, 2004, p. 63)

The images of the maestro, the jobber and the singer together form the image of the man who rules over time and space in the City of Earth: the first creates the world of phenomena, the second directs "the course of the worlds" and the third supports the constancy of the so-called system of "signs of fiction".

Chronotope of the City of Earth pushes together the world of phenomena with human subconsciousness, therefore "mad delirium is everywhere" here and "nights are coming in disorder". The only entrance to this space are the so-called altered states of consciousness such as sleep, painful delirium, hallucination or hypnotic sleep which is similar to the state of the crowd leaded by the jobber's pants. The motif of painful delirium appears in the column "The white night" and then this motif amplifies gradually and reaches apogee in the column "The fish market":

The fishpond is burning with underwater light
Where behind the glass wall
Breams are floating seized with delirium,

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3 Original text: *Маклак – владыка всех штанов, / Ему подвластен ход миров, / Ему подвластно толп движенье, / Толпу томит штанов круженье, / И вот она, забывши честь, / Стоит, не в силах глаз отвесть, / Вся прелесть и изнеможенье.*

4 Original text: *Вокруг него система кошек, / Система окон, вёдер, дров / Висела, тёмный мир размножив / На царства узкие дворов.*

Hallucination, melancholy,
Misgivings, jealousy, anxiety…
And Death like a tradesman
Moves its bronze spear over them[5].
(Zabolotsky, 2004, p. 59)

"The fish market" illustrates the relationship between mental and phenomenal worlds. In "The fish market" there is no system "of signs of fiction" because this system is the projection of human unconsciousness. In this column human images are replaced by images of various fish, and time is measured not by an anthropomorphic demiurge, but by the passionless scales symbolizing The Last Court:

The scales are reading "Paternoster".
Two little weights measures life
Standing peacefully on a saucer
And the door is clanking, and the fish is thrashing,
And the gills are breathing inside out[6].
(Zabolotsky, 2004, p. 59)

The last time the motif of sleep occurs in "The bypass canal": here this motif connects the images of breams "seized with delirium" with the image of the crowd which is "going like a sleepwalker" and the images of cripples who sleep over the canal "leaning against the empty bottles". In chronotope of "City columns" the motif of sleep and delirium plays the role of link between mental and physical space.

Chronotope of each column of the cycle may be analyzed separately, but all the columns are connected by existential time of the lyrical subject. Therefore it is important to mention the last conception of time which occurred again in the 20th century together with the neomythological type of thinking. This is the so-called cyclic time that correlates with the motives of infinite dying and revival. We connect the chronotope of "City columns" with the time and space of a magic fairy-tale, which focuses on the initiation rite associated with the abrupt change of space, leaving the house and passing through various tournaments and trials up to a symbolic death of the previous material form. The hero is often sewn into the narrow space of a totem animal's skin (Propp, 1946). In "City columns" this motif is represented in the column "The etching": here the "lodgers" conduct the lyrical hero "by the bridle" and that is how he appears inside the skin of animal-totem and gets into the space of a "coaching inn" following the "lodgers":

The dead man is walking proudly in the street,
The lodgers conduct him by the bridle.
He is singing a prayer, sounding like the crack of doom,

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5 Original text*: Горит садок подводным светом, / Где за стеклянною стеной / Плывут лещи, объяты бредом, / Галлюцинацией, тоской, / Сомненьем, ревностью, тревогой… / И смерть над ними, как торгаш, / Поводит бронзовой острогой.*

6 Original text: *Весы читают "Отче наш", / Две гирьки, мирно встав на блюдце, / Определяют жизни ход, / И дверь звенит, и рыбы бьются, / И жабры дышат наоборот.*

And lifts his hands up[7].
(Zabolotsky, 2004, p. 43)

The symbolic death makes the lyrical subject see the familiar world as infernal space. He has entered "the box with an unbuttoned door" which symbolizes a coffin or a crypt with a special sign – the memorial sprig of rosemary. The spiritual initiation proceeds further: after the symbolic death follows the meeting with the Ivanovs – the eternal fortune catchers, who are the successors of Ivan the Fool from Russian fairy-tales. The column "The Ivanovs" represents an interesting model of spatial symbolism. Here the Ivanovs are traveling on a circular tram route in the closed space of the city, where

The crowded parkways rustle
Pressed in closely by houses[8].
(Zabolotsky, 2004, p. 51)

In the centre of the column there is an image of the rotating crossroads which is turning a person (in this case – "the wench") from natural position to the position upside down. If the Ivanovs are fortune-catchers then in the centre of this column appears the image of Wheel of Fortune, symbolizing changeability of life. After meeting with the Ivanovs follows another trials connected with motifs of a magic fairy-tale: the motif of wedding (column "The wedding"), the images of the Oven (column "The bakery") and the image of the River as the defender of spirit, washing all the sins (column "The bathers").

The lyrical subject enters infernal space in the column "The etching" and then he leaves it in the column "The public house" which is metaphorically called "the hen coop of pleasure" and appears an analogy of a "hut on chicken legs". Here happens one more important metamorphosis: a new "wench" rejects "the magnificent man, the orange-seller" and searches for the other man – "the good one". In the context of the false world of "City columns" "good" means "real", the one who has passed through all the trials and tournaments of spiritual initiation. What is this "the other one"

The other one stood like a thug defamed
Seeing his face refracted
In the distorted mirror.
He wished to laugh, but he could not.
Wishing to know the reason of curvature
He looked as if he had become a child
And went home on all fours
Having become four-legged by forty years[9].
(Zabolotsky, 2004, p. 69-70)

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[7] Original text: *Покойник по улицам гордо идёт, / Его постояльцы ведут под уздцы, / Он голосом трубным молитву поёт / И руки вздымает наверх.*

[8] Original text: *Шумит бульваров теснота, / Домами плотно заперта.*

[9] Original text: *Другой же, видя преломлённое / Своё лицо в горбатом зеркале, / Стоял молодчиком оплёванным, / Хотел смеяться, но не мог. / Желая знать причину искривления, / Он как бы делался ребёнком / И шёл назад на четвереньках, / Под сорок лет – четвероног.*

The column "The public house" is also one of the most striking manifestations of difference between two vectors of time, mentioned before. The lyrical subject who has passed through all the ceremonies of spiritual initiation watches himself in the meditative space of a mirror and suddenly sees himself old. This is the imaginary old age, because the lyrical subject becomes a child and is ready to be born again. The new birth is shown in the column "At the dacha".

The 24th column "The beginning of the autumn" marks the turn to the eschatological time. Here man first appears as the bearer of mind and "rudiments of knowledge". He becomes a part of the world and his mind decreases the influence of entropy. Wind can't make him soar in the air like in the column "The foxtrot":

Here, being in a hurry,
A proletarian went to the factory by the lane.
Being not touched by the centre O
He went fastened the periphery with himself,
And wind was breaking its way around him[10].
(Zabolotsky, 2004, p. 73)

Thus time and space fall outside the limits of human subconsciousness in the area of mind:

The maple shook, and the Universe itself
Seemed to us the report of mind[11].
(Zabolotsky, 2004, p. 73)

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[10] Original text: *Тут, торопяся на завод, / Шёл переулком пролетарий. / Не быв задетым центром О, / Он шёл, скрепив периферию, / И ветр ломался вкруг него.*

[11] Original text: *Качался клён , выстрелом ума / Казалась нам вселенная сама.*

THE NEW KNOWLEDGE ECONOMY: THE IMPACTS ON BUSINESS

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Today is the time for the economy to face such tendencies as total commoditization, a fast deterioration of information and technologies, emergence of fresh marketing ideas and constant change. Globalization is not new, but today it is more rapid and pervasive. Markets are globalizing rapidly, as are the companies that compete in them. Geographic proximity is no longer essential for people to work together. World trade economy is growing by more than five times faster than the rate of world gross domestic product is. Information is becoming available around the globe at an unprecedented pace. Customers, competitors, and innovators have instant access to each other. The communication technologies create the global competition not only for the production of shoes and computers but for such services as bank lending or audit. becomes much more important than the production of consumer goods. This is what the New Knowledge Economy means.

Knowledge is an intellectual capital and also a strategic factor. Knowledge and continuous learning are now critical elements of success. In the new economy, the knowledge component of products and services has increased dramatically in importance and has become the dominant component of customer value. The shift to knowledge as the primary source of value makes the new economy led by those who manage knowledge effectively – who create, find, and combine knowledge into new products and services faster than their competitors. Ever increasing emphasis on knowledge and capabilities means that people become more important. This has already changed the relationship between the company and its people. In the rapidly changing business environment, companies cannot promise long-term employment any more. At the same time, knowledge workers have also become more mobile in the marketplace – the old-style employee loyalty has died out. Due to evolving demographics family values and personal time are at premium.

Together with human capital and knowhow, knowledge is a part of a big tendency called intangible assets. Intangible assets are defined as identifiable non-monetary assets that cannot be seen, touched or physically measured, which are created through time and effort and that are identifiable as a separate asset. There are two primary forms of intangibles – legal intangibles (such as trade secrets) and competitive intangibles (such as knowledge activities (know-how, knowledge), collaboration activities, leverage activities, and structural activities). Human capital is the primary source of competitive intangibles for organizations today.

Table 1

The importance of intangibles assets [1]
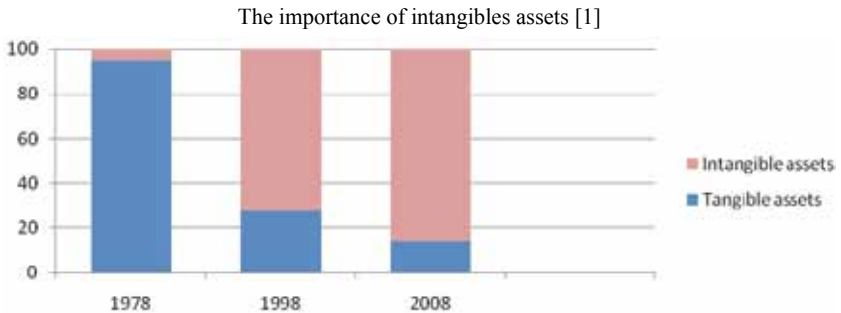
Nowadays the importance of intangible assets is rising very fast. In their book 'Blur', Christopher Meyer and Stan Davis describe the shape of a world in which intangibles, speed and connectivity dominate the social and economic landscape [2].

It is not right to underestimate the greatest impact of the Internet on the New Economy. One of the most important things to understand about the internet, internet use and internet marketing is the speed with which things change. Some simple facts will explain this progression.

Table 2

The number of internet devices in the world [3]

Year	The number of internet devices
1984	1,000
1992	1,000,000
2008	1,000,000,000

It means whatever product or service you are thinking about selling now the number of potential customers cannot even be calculated in advance. The growth of users is increasing too fast that it is literally impossible to imagine. In 2008 there were already 1 billion internet devices in the world.

The Internet changes the fundamental nature of doing business and competition. As new ways of building and delivering products and services online emerge, your competition goes beyond established competitors to include new companies, in addition to new innovations, ideas or ways of improving existing processes or products. The ability to access vast information resources within a matter of minutes and to communicate across huge distances at ever lower costs and improving quality and convenience is transforming the way people and companies interact. Bill Gates, the Founder of Microsoft, describes the new Internet era as an environment of constant

change, or «punctuated chaos." As all financial players are digitally connected, "any downturn or upturn in a major market creates overnight reverberations in other markets. The digital world is both forcing companies to react to change and giving them the tools by which to stay ahead of it». IT helps you connect your business strategy with organizational response. Without IT there will be no fast response – and according to a popular saying «it's not the big that eat the small… it's the fast that eat the slow» [4].

Customer power surged as a result of the convergence of several long-developing trends. First, product and service scarcity gave way to abundance. A key reason for this is that advancing technology has dramatically increased manufacturing productivity and thereby reduced costs of entry to and expansion of many industries. Globalization led to more companies pursuing the same customers. At the same time, customers have become more sophisticated and informed buyers. Information technology enabled them to find and analyze competing products and to make intelligent choices. Customers discovered they had options and the power to exploit them. Customers now aggressively seek alternatives, compare offers, and hold out for the best option. Further, many products became virtual commodities and rapid changes in technology have dramatically shortened product life cycles. The result is a lot of similar offerings that make it very difficult for a firm or a company to differentiate themselves from their competitors; this further empowers your customers. In combination, these phenomena transformed supplier-dominated economies into ones ruled by customers.

B2C (Business-to-Consumer) is basically a concept of online marketing and distributing of products and services over the Internet. It is a natural progression for many retailers or marketers who sell directly to the consumer. The general idea is, if you could reach more customers, service them better, and make more sales while spending less to do it that would be the formula of success for implementing a B2C e-commerce infrastructure. For the consumer, it is relatively easy to appreciate the importance of e-commerce. Why waste time fighting crowds in supermarkets, when one can shop on-line at any time in virtual Internet shopping malls, and have the goods delivered home directly.

The world leader in B2C e-commerce is German. In 2008 German B2C e-commerce sales calculated as $ 101 billion, on behalf of a market share of 31 percent in Western Europe. On a global scale, this amount stands for approximately 10% of all B2C online sales. This makes Germany the world leader in per-capita B2C turnover with $ 1,232, accordingly higher than in the United States ($ 1,223), UK ($ 995) and Japan ($ 919). The best example of extremely successful e-commerce business is Amazon.com. It is an American-based multinational electronic commerce company selling books, music and video. Jeff Bezos founded Amazon.com Inc. in 1994 and launched it online in 1995. The company remains profitable: net income was $35.3 million in 2003, $902 million in 2009. Revenues increased thanks to product diversification and an international presence: $3.9 billion in 2002, $5.3 billion in 2003, $8.5 billion in 2005, and $ 24.509 billion in 2009 [5].

Changes today are continuous, rapid and complex. They generate uncertainty and reduce predictability. Dramatic changes in competition, technology, and workforce values are causing organizations to search for new and more human ways of increasing productivity and competitiveness. Business Space, technologies, processes, and business models become more complex. That is because new characteristics are added frequently, but subtracted infrequently. The dimensions of business space keep increasing, adding complexity and furnishing attractive new opportunities for those who can successfully navigate in the new environment. This complexity also inhibits greater size and greater value creation.

Table 3

Industrial Economy vs. New Knowledge Economy [6]

Issue	Industrial Economy	New knowledge Economy
Markets		
Market changes	Slow and linear	Fast and unpredictable
Economy	Supplier-driven	Customer-driven
Lifecycle of Products and Technologies	Long	Short
Key Economy Drivers	Large industrial firms	Innovative entrepreneurial knowledge-based firms
Scope of Competition	Local	Global hypercompetition
Competition: Name of the Game	Size: The big eats the small	Speed: The fast eats the slow
Marketing: Name of the Game	Mass marketing	Differentiation
Enterprise		
Pace of business	Slow	Appreciably faster with ever-rising customer expectations
Emphasis on	Stability	Change management
Business Development Approach	Strategy pyramid: vision, mission, goals, action plans	Opportunity-driven, dynamic strategy
Organization of Production	Mass production	Flexible and lean production
Key Drivers to Growth	Capital	People, knowledge, capabilities

Issue	Industrial Economy	New knowledge Economy
Key Technology Drivers	Automation and mechanization	Information and communication technology, e-business, computerized design and manufacturing
Scarce Resource	Financial capital	Human capital
Business Model	Traditional: command-and-control	New: refocused on people, knowledge, and coherence
Work Force		
Leadership	Vertical	Shared: employee empowerment & self-leadership
Education Requirements	A skill or a degree	Continuous learning: It's not what you know, it's how fast you can learn
Management-Employee Relations	Confrontation	Cooperation, teamwork

This table draws the conclusion of the article. It shows all issues that were discussed. In a few words, the new economy is as different as form the old one as the industrial age differs from the agricultural one. Technological change, especially change in information and communication technology, brought about the Information Age and converted it to the Knowledge Age.

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