

Представлено дослідження актуальних проблем економічної теорії, страхування, управління ризиками, перестрахування, державного управління, міжнародної економіки, економіки підприємства, менеджменту, маркетингу, управління інвестиціями, теорії фінансів, банківської справи, статистики та шляхи й засоби розв'язання зазначених проблем.

Для наукових працівників, практиків, викладачів, аспірантів, студентів.

Представлены исследования актуальных проблем экономической теории, страхования, управления рисками, перестрахования, государственного управления, международной экономики, экономики предприятия, менеджмента, маркетинга, управления инвестициями, теории финансов, банковского дела, статистики, а также пути и средства решения этих проблем.

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The research results on current problems of economic theory, insurance, risk management, reinsurance, public administration, international economics, business economics, management, marketing, investment management, theory of finance, banking, statistics, the ways and means of solving these problems are released in the issue.

For researchers, practitioners, teachers and students.

<b>ВІДПОВІДАЛЬНИЙ РЕДАКТОР</b>	В. Д. Базилевич, д-р екон. наук, проф., чл.-кор. НАН України
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<b>Адреса редколегії</b>	03022, Київ-22, вул. Васильківська, 90-а, економічний факультет ☎ (38044) 259 71 82; <a href="http://bulletin-econom.univ.kiev.ua">http://bulletin-econom.univ.kiev.ua</a>
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**INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY RIGHTS AND COMPETITION POLICY**

*The article reveals special features of interrelation between intellectual property law and competition policy. The author proves that IPR can create significant entry barriers and restrict competition on goods and services markets. Recommendations towards harmonization of intellectual property law and competition policy in transition economies are given.*

**Key words:** *intellectual property rights; competition; entry barriers; competition policy.*

**Introduction.** Transition of developed countries into the knowledge-based economy, the fourth industrial revolution (industry 4.0) and strong competition at both national and global levels, actualize issues of protection of intellectual property rights and create conditions for fair economic competition between business entities. In developing countries these goals often contradict. Intellectual property rights can create significant entry barriers for new enterprises and restrict competition on goods and services market. That is why the problem of balancing competition, innovation and levels of market power, connected with objects of intellectual property (OIP), is extremely relevant.

**Analysis of previous researches and publications.**

Problems of competition policy and protection of intellectual property rights are widely covered both in foreign and domestic literature. In particular, competition policy and peculiarities of its implementation in countries with transition economies can be found in the works of A. Ignatyuk, A. Kurdin, G. Filyuk, A. Shastitko, etc. Intellectual property rights (IPR) were studied by V. Bazilevich, V. Virchenko etc. However, it should be noted that domestic economists did not pay enough attention to their interconnection and mutual influence. Foreign authors (K. Correa, J. Oliveira, M. Scantlbery, P. Trivelli, T. Fujiara) study this problem, but their works are usually descriptive and describe the situation mostly in developed countries. At the same time, harmonization of intellectual property law and competition policy in transition economies, especially in post-Soviet countries are usually ignored by scientists and require more careful research.

**Methodology.** Several scientific methods were used in the process of studying the problem. In particular, the method of comparison allowed us to reveal the best practices in harmonization of intellectual property law and competition policy in transition economy of Ukraine. Methods of scientific abstraction, analysis and synthesis were used to study the peculiarities of the interconnection of competition policy and protection of intellectual property rights.

**Purpose of the article.** The article reveals special features of interrelation between intellectual property law and competition policy and their harmonization in transition economies.

**Results.** Competition that is a rivalry for the fullest satisfaction of customers' needs and increasing of the market share is closely related to innovation activity. Business practice shows that only companies which regularly use results of R&D increase sales volumes and profits and win customers' loyalty. So in the rating of the most expensive brands in 2017 Brandz first five positions are occupied by companies related to high-tech sector (Google, Apple, Microsoft, Amazon, Facebook), 6th – telecommunications (AT&T), 7th – financial services (Visa) [1]. We can come to the same conclusions analyzing rating

of top 500 global companies published by Financial Times. For example, in 2015 30 companies from this rating acted at pharmaceuticals & biotechnology, 19 – at technology hardware & equipment, 16 – at software & computer services, 15 – at mobile telecommunications. That means that 16% of the biggest global companies belong to the markets which are directly related with production of the objects of intellectual property and nearly 20% of companies act at the markets whose entities consume results of intellectual activity (banking and financial services) [2]. Thus we can conclude that the most successful global companies won competition because of implementation of new ideas which are not related to the physical capital. They are the results of intellectual activity.

In order to increase the incentives for enterprises to implement such innovations, some countries protect their exclusive rights – intellectual property rights that enable the developer to restrict the use of the latest products or technologies by third parties. According to the economic-legal approach, intellectual property is defined as a set of legislative norms that regulate and consolidate property and personal non-property rights to the results of intellectual activity in order to attract them into economic circulation and transform them into economic benefits [3, p. 6].

In this context, it should be noted that it relates to the results of intellectual activity or objects of intellectual property (OIP). According to article 2 of the Convention on creation of the World organization of intellectual property signed in 1967, objects of intellectual property embrace: literary, artistic and scientific works; performances of performing artists, phonograms and broadcasts; inventions in all fields of human endeavor; scientific discoveries; industrial designs; trademarks, service marks and commercial names and designations; protection against unfair competition; all other rights resulting from intellectual activity in the industrial, scientific, literary or artistic fields [4]. In our article, the focus will be on OIP, which can affect the efficiency of production activities of the enterprise in particular and the market as a whole. Thus, the object of our analysis will be objects of industrial property (inventions, industrial designs, utility models, rationalization proposals), non-traditional OIP (breeding achievements, integrated circuit layouts, know-how, commercial secrets), and means of individualization of participants in the circulation of goods and services (service marks, trademarks and commercial names) [5, p. 6].

The policy in the field of protecting intellectual property rights is closely linked to the competition policy with government and supranational activity aimed to prevent and stop direct violations of antitrust legislation, to create and protect competitive environment at the national and global markets, to promote development of competitive relations and fair competition, to increase competitive

culture in the society [6, p. 232]. Though at the most of countries they are used as separate regulatory regimes they have common goal – to promote efficiency at goods and services markets. We even can conclude that they both aimed to strengthen competition, but if protection of IPRs promotes competition before company occupies certain market niche as a result of using innovations, then competition policy helps to reach this aim in the case of formed market structure [7, p. 116]. Nevertheless, historically policies in these fields developed separately. This resulted in separate establishment of institutions, drafting legislation and scientific researches in these fields. The situation has recently changed, which can be explained by the active development of global trade, requiring harmonization of legislation.

The system of intellectual property rights protection is more standardized at regulatory level because lots of international agreements were signed in this field. At the same time, it is supposed that national regulators are very flexible when this legislation is adapted according to the national reality. Concerning competitive policy, we can conclude that each government uses its own approach to implementation of this policy and it isn't internationally standardized.

Concerning special features of interrelation between competition policy and policy in the field of IPRs protection we should admit that competition regulators consider IPRs not only as a way of innovation activity incitement, but also as a tool of gaining market power or dominant (or even monopoly) position by setting up barriers to enter goods and services markets. This could be explained by that fact that IPRs give their holders exclusive access to the results of intellectual activity. The government considers that objects of intellectual property should satisfy needs of the whole society. In this context we can conclude that there are some contradictions between competition policy and policy in the field of IPRs protection.

The existence of contradictions and goals priority depend on the purpose of competition policy of a certain country. For example, such purpose can be market efficiency, ensuring maximal economic freedom, increasing customers' welfare or reaching high rates of economic growth. Business practice shows that in first two cases the priority is to ensure high level of competition, and in the last two cases – to create incentives for innovation, intellectual activity of companies would be more important even if it results in competition weakening at the market. For instance, in South Africa the purpose of competition policy is "promotion and supporting of competition" achieving a whole range of goals, including "efficiency, flexibility and economic development" and increasing social and economic welfare of population [8, p. 2]. According to the Law of Ukraine "On Protection of Economic Competition", the goal of domestic competition policy is "ensuring the effective functioning of the Ukrainian economy on the basis of the development of competitive relations" [9].

As it was already noted, this provides a significant advantage for the holder of the rights and in case of zero competition, it may even take the monopoly position. The situation is possible when the result of intellectual activity is unique or when the OIP is so wide that it is impossible to

enter the market without violating them. In this case, the task of competition policy is to harmonize possible anti-competitive effects.

At the same time, some Western economists point out that this situation is more an exception than a rule, because quite often there are numerous substitute goods. This means that it can provide the owner control only over a particular market segment, rather than over the entire commodity market [10, p. 6]. In our opinion, this conclusion is valid only for developed countries, as developing countries are usually characterized by a low level of technological development, and therefore, substitutes for legally protected OIP may either be insufficient or absent.

In this context, there is another question: what can be considered a substitute product for OIP? This issue is critical because the volume of counterfeit ("pirate") products is increasing (according to the OECD's studies on global counterfeiting global trade of counterfeit goods has grown from 250 billion USD (or 1.9% of world GDP) in 2007 to 461 billion USD (or 2.5 % of world GDP) in 2013) [11, p. 11]. This is possible because of the very nature of the product of intellectual activity, protected by the corresponding exclusive rights: high cost of obtaining permission for its use, high constant costs and low variable costs, which are usually reduced to the cost of replication. The use of counterfeit products allows competitors to obtain a resource that does not have close substitutes, and sometimes just exclusive with minimal cost.

From the consumer's point of view, counterfeit products are the substitutes of the original OIP, since they have approximately the same utility (technical characteristics, physical parameters, functional purpose, etc.) [12, p. 55]. At the same time, counterfeit products are usually characterized by low quality, and consequently a low price. At the same time, competition authorities usually do not consider counterfeiters as competitors for producers of original OIP because their activities are illegal. We consider such approach to be incorrect, since activities of these enterprises significantly undermine market positions of the companies engaged in intellectual, innovative activity due to the use of non-trivial competition, and consequently also affect the market structure. Therefore, the regulatory competition authorities face a non-trivial task of assessing the competitive position and behavior of producers of "pirate" products, analyze their influence on the level of competition and other parameters of the market structure and, on the basis of this, draw conclusions about the positive or negative impact of IPR protection on the level of competition.

Various intellectual property rights (licensing, trademarks) may have different effects on the level of competition in the industry markets (Table 1). In particular, dominant firms may use licensing as a way to prevent competitors from gaining important technical information or technology in general.

Table 1. Impact of different intellectual property rights on market structure and competition

Intellectual property right	Positive impact	Negative impact
Patent	Promotes fair market behavior through prevention copying or imitation patented goods	May lead to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– price coordination;</li> <li>– restrictive selling practices;</li> <li>– abuse of dominant position;</li> <li>– increase of entry barriers.</li> </ul>
Patent pools	Promotes competition and increases customers' welfare through: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– integration of complementary technologies;</li> <li>– reduction of transaction costs;</li> <li>– clearing blocking positions;</li> <li>– avoidance of costly infringement litigation;</li> <li>– promotion the dissemination of technology.</li> </ul>	Facilitate tacit collusion in a multiplicity of markets. Allows to impose abusive terms on nonmembers wishing to get access to technologies.
Intellectual property licensing	Promotes innovative competition	Extends patentee's market power
Copyright	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Increases returns on scale</li> <li>✓ Increases global welfare through usage of international price discrimination</li> </ul>	Blocks development of secondary markets by denying access to essential facilities necessary for undistorted competition
Trademark	Promotes competition through company's product differentiation	Leads to usage unfair competition by misuse of another's trademark Blocks parallel import and thus leads to setting higher prices at some markets

Source: systematized by author.

Article 102 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (TFEU) prohibits abusive conduct by companies that have a dominant position on a particular market. Very often this article is used for establishing "special" responsibility according to which dominant firm is obliged to give an access to its IPRs to its competitors under certain conditions if it does not restrict or eliminates competition. Refusal to give a license is an evident of abusing of dominant position if: 1) an object of intellectual property towards which company gives a license is necessary to compete; 2) firm that wants to gain a license is going to supply goods and services which are not supplied by owner of IPRs and which have potential customers demand; 3) refusal reserves secondary market for IPRs owner by elimination of competition at that market; 4) refusal is not proved by objective circumstances. Examples of such situations are cases *Radio Telefis Eireann & Independent Television Publications Ltd. vs. Magill*, *IMS Health GmbH & Co. OHG vs. NDC Health GmbH & Co. KG*, *Microsoft Corp. vs. Commission*. At the last case European Commission concluded that Microsoft abuses its dominant position at the market of operating systems for PCs because it refused to give certain information about interface of group its working servers to its competitor Sun Microsystems. Based on this decision Court of first instance ordered that Microsoft abuses its dominant position and thus restricts technological development as a whole.

In order to avoid such cases compulsory licensing can be used. Especially it concerns the cases when negative impact of licensing on incentives of a dominant firm to innovate is less than its positive impact on innovative climate at the whole market. For example, in Australia compulsory licensing is used in case when patent owner cannot prove that license was refused even in the case when tough competition existed at the market.

The other approach is used in the USA. In particular, according to the essential facilities doctrine firms are not obliged to deal with their competitors because it contradicts the antitrust law aimed to prevent agreements between competitors because it may have negative impact on economic competition. The right of patent holder to refuse licensing on using its intellectual property may be restricted

only under certain conditions: 1) if patent was obtained with using fraud; 2) if litigation about using patent was fraud or 3) if patent owner uses its right to refuse sale patented parts to obtain monopoly position at the market that goes beyond of the patent scope. In order to define a necessity to give an access to third parties to the object of intellectual property the four-step model was designed which estimates the level of monopolist's control over fixed assets, competitors' inability to design the same object, refusal to give an access to the object for competitors and possibility to give an access to certain object.

Competition policy and the policy in the field of IPRs protection are not harmonized in transition economies (including Ukraine) that is why the refusal to license competitors is considered to be a legal and rational decision of IPRs owner to limit access to results of its intellectual activity for other entities [13].

We also should admit that the impact of IPRs and their protection on level of competition and market structure is not unilateral. Very often there is a need in significant financial expenditures to produce an object of intellectual activity and to transform it into innovation and a lot of firm could not allow themselves to make them. J. Schumpeter set up the next hypothesis: monopoly position is a main precondition of successful innovation [12, c. 253]. The same conclusions were made by J. Galbraith who considered monopoly profit as a main source of funds for R&D. At the same time, we should admit that further theoretical and empirical researches of this problem gave contradictive results that's why effectiveness of monopolistic market structure in stimulation of companies' innovation activity is still not proved.

Despite diversity of interrelation and interplay between market structure and intellectual, innovation activity of companies we can conclude that existence of contradictions between government policies in these fields depend on social and economic conditions. In order to alleviate or eliminate these contradictions governments of developed economies try to harmonize legislation related to competition policy and IPRs protection (Table 2). For instance, in 1995 Federal Trade Commission (FTC) and Department of Justice published Antitrust Guidelines for the Licensing of Intellectual Property – new prescriptions towards interplay policy in the field of intellectual property



and competition policy, which became fundamental for government regulation in these fields. This document determines main principles which competition regulators have to stick to in regulation of the markets related to the objects of intellectual property. First of all, intellectual property is regarded as being essentially comparable to any other form of property with a purpose of antitrust analysis thus antitrust regulation at the appropriate markets

is applied based on general principles. Secondly, antitrust regulators suppose that intellectual property directly is not a source of company's market power in the context of antitrust law. Thirdly, antitrust regulators recognize that licensing of intellectual property allows firms to combine complementary resources and has positive impact on competition that's why it shouldn't be prohibited [14, p. 2].

**Table 2. Legal acts aimed to harmonize policy in the field of IPRs protection and competition**

Year	Country/Institution	Legal Act	Main points of the Act
1989	Japan	Guidelines for the Regulation of Unfair Trade Practices with Respect to Patent and Know-How Licensing Agreements	Creates a legal framework which assures that protection of intellectual property rights has a procompetitive effect, stimulates companies' R&Ds and introduces new markets or new technologies
1994	WTO	Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of The Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS, Article 40)	Defines as illegal those "licensing practices or conditions pertaining to IPRs which restrain competition", because they have negative impact on trade, deter transfer and diffusion of technologies
1995	USA	Antitrust Guidelines for the Licensing of Intellectual Property	States antitrust enforcement policy with respect to the licensing of intellectual property protected by patent, copyright and trade secret law and of know how.
2003	USA	To Promote Innovations: The Proper Balance of Competition and Patent Law and Policy	Makes recommendation to the patent system to maintain proper balance with competition law and policy
2004	EU	The European Commission's Technology Transfer Block Exemption Regulation	Creates of so called "safe harbor" for procompetitive IP licensing agreements.
2005	Japan	Guidelines on Standardization and Patent Arrangements	Clarifies competition policy issues related to patent pools affecting technology standards
2007	USA	Antitrust Enforcement and Intellectual Property Rights: Promoting Innovation and Competition	Provides guidance on the agencies' competition views on a variety of IP-related issues (refusals to license patents, collaborative standard setting, patent pooling, IP licensing, tying and bundling of IP rights, and attempts to extend patent life beyond the expiration date)
2007	Japan	Guidelines for the Use of Intellectual Property under the Antimonopoly Act	Facilitates IPR-related transactions by clarifying its enforcement policy

Source: systematized by author based on data of UNCTAD, OECD, FTC and Department of Justice.

In addition, in 2003 FTC published report "To Promote Innovations: The Proper Balance of Competition and Patent Law and Policy" which shows US patent system and the impact of rights guarantee on competition.

Significant success in harmonization of competition policy and policy of IPRs protection was achieved in EU. In 2014 the existing competition regime was revised towards agreements about technology transfer. Its purpose was to stimulate innovations by creation of the so called "safe harbor" for licensing agreements in the field of intellectual property. In this document European Commission determined agreements which do not cause elimination of competition and thus are not regulated by the Article 101 of Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union. For example, competition authorities do not verify licensing agreements which participants do not have market power and whose market share exceeds 20 % (in case if they are competitors) or 30 % (if they are not rivals) [15].

In Canada Article 32 of Competition Act gives power to Federal Court to eliminate trademarks, give patents (including terms and conditions), cancel existing licenses or restrict patent rights and trademarks if they lower competition or prevent trade in other way.

We should admit that precise criteria or guidelines on regulation of negative influence of acquiring or using IPRs on market competition are not established in developing countries. Since strategic priority in such countries is accelerating of economic growth based on the using of innovations and economic policy is aimed at creation incentives for innovation activity, protection of intellectual property rights is priority and its impact on economic rivalry is ignored. According to the Article 9 of The Law of Ukraine "About protection of economic competition", norms of the Article 6, which prohibits anti-competitive coordination

between entities, are not concerned agreements about transfer of intellectual property rights or usage of intellectual property [9].

In this context we should admit that such priorities do not have undeniable scientific justification because economists still discuss the impact of strong IPRs protection on social welfare and economic growth. For example, J. Stiglitz supposed that excessive IPRs protection did not have positive effect on innovation development of developing economies, but also resulted in its inhibition [16]. The same conclusions were made by other western economists. Empirical researches show that patent protection usually did not improve the R&D sector. Especially it concerns software markets where programs which are available for everybody, stimulate innovation process and do not strengthen innovative activity. Moreover, companies – patent owners decrease their expenditures on R&D and set unreasonably high prices on their products. In this case we suppose that priority should be static (not dynamic) efficiency and not to allow monopoly pricing at the markets.

Problem of harmonizing competition policy and IPRs protection in developing countries, including Ukraine, could be explained by immaturity of their legislation in these fields. For example, the first attempts of intellectual property rights protection in Ukraine were made in 1991 with the Law of Ukraine "About property". Special legislation in this field was adopted in 1993. In developed countries this process has started at the end of 19th century. We can say the same about competition legislation. Ukrainian inadequate legislation in these fields results in creating problems. According to the Global Competitiveness Report in 2016-2017 Ukraine was ranked on 125th position according to the indicator "Protection of

intellectual property" (and 131st position according to "Property rights") among 138 countries and 136 th position according to "Efficiency of competition policy" [17, p. 351].

Such poor results are expected because the effectiveness of government regulation in Ukraine is influenced by high level of corruption which leads to selectivity in implementation of legislative norms to certain companies and by absence of public control over the activity of regulatory authorities and non-formal institutes which could support and popularize some regulation norms. In this regard there is an urgent need to find the best option of combination of the instruments of competition policy and policy in the field of intellectual property rights protection, taking into account the national peculiarities. Blind duplication of practices used by developed countries does not allow to achieve desirable static and dynamic efficiency because the efficiency of interplay between policies.

We suppose that the main directions of harmonization of competition policy and IPRs protection which could result in simultaneous strengthening of market rivalry between companies and activation of their innovation activity are:

- development of special regulatory norms in the field of competition for high-tech markets and markets of innovative goods which will take into account peculiarities of their functioning;
- elaboration of procedures related to the review and granting patents by strict criteria for choosing goods which could be regarded as innovation and could be protected by certain IPRs. It will help to prevent spreading of the so called "low quality" patents and gaining invalid competitive advantages;
- development of the mechanism of estimation of IPRs protection impact on the intensity of market competition that allows to compare positive impact of the object of intellectual property protected by certain rights on efficiency of market functioning and social welfare and damage for business competition caused by such protection and based on this comparison to make appropriate decisions;
- usage of compulsory licensing with the clear list of conditions. It will help to counteract the abuse of dominant or monopoly position by patents owner and thus to increase customers' welfare;
- taking into account the activity of counterfeit goods' producers when competitive authorities analyze markets where entities are protected by IPRs. This allows to make adequate conclusions about market structure and to avoid an excessive pressure on producers of original goods;
- attraction of the Antimonopoly Committee of Ukraine to struggle with counterfeit products distribution by adding to the Law of Ukraine "About protection from unfair competition" norms which determine production and distribution of "pirate" goods as ways of unfair competition and set administrative and criminal liability for its implementation;
- creation of independent contract research organizations aimed to create objects of intellectual property, their commercialization and granting equal access for all market entities on a paid basis.

All these measures will promote formation and development of the national innovation system and increase efficiency of market competition.

**Conclusions and discussions.** Intellectual property rights and competition are deeply interrelated. It causes a need to coordinate state policy in these fields. Their optimal

combination will give an opportunity to bring innovation activity to a new level because it will help to create incentives for intellectual activity within companies, to attract investments to finance it, to ensure gaining profits from commercialization of its results and to create favorable competitive environment for its realization.

Implementation of certain instruments of competition policy and level of intellectual property rights protection in each case should be based on results of economic analysis and current legislative ground should meet the requirements of time and take into account national peculiarities of a country where it is implemented.

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В. Колоша, канд. екон. наук, асист.,  
О. Борисенко, канд. філол. наук, доц.  
Київський національний університет імені Тараса Шевченка, Київ, Україна

### ПРАВА ИНТЕЛЛЕКТУАЛЬНОЙ ВЛАСТНОСТИ ТА КОНКУРЕНТНА ПОЛІТИКА

*Розкрито особливості взаємозв'язку між політикою у сфері захисту прав інтелектуальної власності та конкурентною політикою. Виявлено, що за певних умов права інтелектуальної власності можуть виступати бар'єром входу на товарні ринки й обмежувати конкуренцію на них. Розроблено рекомендації щодо гармонізації політики у сфері захисту прав інтелектуальної власності та конкурентної політики у країнах із трансформаційною економікою.*

*Ключові слова:* права інтелектуальної власності; конкуренція; бар'єри входу; конкурентна політика.

В. Колоша, канд. экон. наук, ассист.,  
А. Борисенко, канд. филол. наук, доц.  
Киевский национальный университет имени Тараса Шевченко, Киев, Украина

### ПРАВА ИНТЕЛЛЕКТУАЛЬНОЙ СОБСТВЕННОСТИ И КОНКУРЕНТНАЯ ПОЛИТИКА

*Раскрыты особенности взаимосвязи между политикой в области защиты прав интеллектуальной собственности и конкурентной политикой. Установлено, что в определенных условиях права интеллектуальной собственности могут создавать барьеры входа на товарные рынки и ограничивать конкуренцию на них. Разработаны рекомендации относительно гармонизации политики в области защиты прав интеллектуальной собственности и конкурентной политики в странах с трансформационной экономикой.*

*Ключевые слова:* права интеллектуальной собственности; конкуренция; барьеры входа; конкурентная политика.

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А. Крупский, канд. психол. наук, доц.,  
В. Редько, канд. экон. наук, доц.

Днепропетровский национальный университет имени Олеся Гончара, Днепр, Украина

### ВЛИЯНИЕ КОГНИТИВНОГО СТИЛЯ РАБОТНИКОВ НА РЕЗУЛЬТАТ ЭМОЦИОНАЛЬНОГО ТРУДА ПЕРСОНАЛА ПРЕДПРИЯТИЙ ТУРИСТИЧЕСКОЙ ИНДУСТРИИ

*Рассмотрен эмоциональный труд как процесс, характеризующийся особенностями работы в туристической сфере. Предложено 16 составляющих элементов эмоционального труда на предприятиях индустрии туризма и гостеприимства, проанализировано их влияние на отдельные экономические (благополучие сотрудников, производительность, текучесть кадров) и психологические (уровень стресса, степень приверженности компании и удовлетворения от работы) показатели с точки зрения когнитивных особенностей персонала и выбранных им эмоциональных стратегий поведения. Обосновано влияние когнитивной компоненты личности работника на качество предоставляемого сервиса.*

*Ключевые слова:* туризм и гостеприимство; эмоциональный труд; организационная культура; когнитивный стиль; туристическое предприятие.

**Постановка проблемы.** Глобальное социально-экономическое значение туризма подтверждается ежегодным увеличением количества туристических путешествий. Так, число международных туристических прибытий в мире в 2016 г. увеличилось на 3,9 % (1235 млн чел) по сравнению с 2015 г., а прогнозируемый их рост в 2017 г. составит 4,5 %. Прямой вклад туризма в мировую экономику в 2016 г. достиг 2306 млрд дол. США, что обеспечило 3,1 % от мирового ВВП, а среднегодовой прогнозируемый прирост за 2017–2027 гг. запланирован на уровне 4 % [1, с. 1].

Рост экономических показателей развития мирового туризма свидетельствует о его инвестиционной привлекательности (4,4 % международных инвестиций в 2016 г.) и расширении туристической инфраструктуры, что обеспечивает ежегодный прирост занятости в туризме и сопряженных с ней отраслях. По данным ЮНВТО, в 2016 г. каждое 10 рабочее место в мире было связано с организацией и обслуживанием туристических потоков, а непосредственно в сфере туризме занято 108,7 млн чел. Прогнозируемый прирост этого показателя в 2017 г. составит 2,1 %, а к 2027 г. – 4 % всей мировой занятости [1, с. 1].

Стоит отметить, что устойчивое увеличение численности персонала, занятого в туристической индустрии, не решает проблем, связанных с качеством обслуживания в дестинациях и офисах туристических предприятий. Одной из важных проблем остается

высокая текучесть кадров [2, с. 166], что свидетельствует о неудовлетворенности персонала работой, низкой мотивации, высоком эмоциональном напряжении и постоянных стрессах. Следствием этого являются случаи некорректного поведения персонала, как с клиентами, так и с членами коллектива, увеличение числа конфликтов и формальный подход к обслуживанию клиентов. Эмоциональная неуравновешенность сотрудников становится одной из основных причин некачественного сервиса, о котором так много отзывов на туристических платформах в интернете и социальных сетях. Сложности эмоционального труда (ЭТ), его плюсы и минусы в туристической индустрии, возможности количественного измерения и влияния на результаты работы предприятий привлекают внимание ученых в области экономики, маркетинга и психологии.

**Анализ последних исследований и публикаций.** Несмотря на то, что выражению чувств уделяется значительное внимание в различных областях исследований, до недавнего времени оно (выражение чувств сотрудниками предприятий) практически игнорировалось в литературе по менеджменту, поскольку организации рассматривались как "машины, лишенные эмоций" [3, с. 9–10]. Однако в условиях клиентоориентированной экономики и острой конкуренции в туристической индустрии проблема предоставления качественного сервиса и улучшения обслуживания уделяется достаточно внимания. Многочисленные отзывы туристов в

сети Internet, удовлетворенность сотрудничеством производителей туристических услуг и посредников, привлекают внимание ученых к проблемам зависимости эффективности работы предприятия от когнитивного стиля персонала и проявляемых им на рабочем месте эмоций. Так, Чу К.Х.-Л. и Мурман С.К. [4] сделана попытка количественной оценки восприятия эмоционального труда персоналом на предприятиях гостиничного хозяйства на основе дискриминантной функции, которая учитывает 19 показателей [4]. Халтман Й. и Седерхольм Э.А. [5], абстрагировавшись от экономических мотивов ведения деятельности, сконцентрировали внимание на эмоциональной, пространственной и временной дистанции между принимающей стороной и гостями (так называемой "коммерческой дружбе") и пришли к выводу, что роль последней в научной базе явно недооценена [5].

Тан Ч., Сил К.Р., Науман С.Е., Мигель К. [6] выяснили, что сотрудники, которые реально проникаются позитивным настроением (*deep acting*, "глубокое проникновение", *DA*), а не имитируют его (*surface acting*, "поверхностное действие", *SA*) с большей вероятностью могут склонить потенциального клиента к осуществлению покупки за счет упрощения процесса принятия соответствующего решения последним [6, с. 50–57]. Аналогичные результаты получены Хёр У.-М., Мун Т.У., Юнг Й.С. [7, pp. 71–80], которые показали взаимосвязь между эмоциональными стратегиями и степенью удовлетворенности потребителя (СУП). Теснота такой связи зависит от положительной оценки персоналом своей работы и степени удовлетворенности потребителя, на которую оказывают влияние реальный позитивный настрой или его имитация менеджером [7].

В своей научной работе Чу Кэй [8] пришла к целому ряду интересных выводов. Во-первых, положительная связь *DA* с удовлетворением от работы (УР) и отрицательная – с эмоциональным источником. Во-вторых, обратная зависимость между уровнями позитивного настроения и необходимостью скрывать истинные чувства (эмоциональный диссонанс), а также между производственными результатами и "подлинным действием" (*genuine acting*, *GA*) имеет место при совпадении испытываемых переживаний с выражаемыми и прописанными в кодексе поведения. В-третьих, факт того, что для достижения одной и той же цели "оптимисту" приходится затрачивать гораздо меньше усилий, чем коллеге-"пессимисту". В-четвертых, выявлено, что повышение риска "эмоционального заражения" приводит к интенсификации прилагаемых усилий для выполнения работы, что влечет за собой снижение угрозы выгорания. В-пятых, успешное принятие/воплощение *DA* сопровождается усилением ощущения естественности поведения и принадлежности к команде [8].

Шоброк Дж. и Джонс Дж. [9, pp. 163–183] доказали, что выражение/подавление чувств может иметь определенное негативное влияние на состояние физического здоровья сотрудника. Такое влияние усиливается, когда сотрудники идентифицируют себя как исполнителя определенной роли в организации и/или вынуждены "загонять" свои эмоциональные проявления в социальные рамки [9].

В соответствии с точкой зрения Лу Ч. Дж., Ши Й.-Й. и Чен Й.-Л. [2, pp. 165–176], сотрудники осознают, что должны определенным образом контролировать выплеск своих эмоций и демонстрировать стиль поведения, соответствующий организационной культуре (ОК). Учеными определено, что эмоциональный труд может существенно повысить эффективность деятельности предприятия и уровень удовлетворенности ко-

манды работой, что отодвигает на второй план собственные переживания, помогает сконцентрироваться на позитивной манере общения с клиентом. Тесные парные связи между эмоциональным трудом и удовлетворением от работы, удовлетворением от работы и гражданской позицией в организации, а также между гражданской позицией в организации и эмоциональным трудом определяют реальный интерес сотрудника или отсутствие такового к своей работе [2]. Соглашаясь с авторами, стоит добавить, что положительный эмоциональный настрой персонала, удовлетворенность своей работой создают дополнительные конкурентные преимущества предприятию, что проявляется как в лояльности к самой компании, так и к ее клиентам.

Рассмотрев эмоциональный труд как циклический процесс, в ходе которого сравниваются проявляемые эмоции с установленными правилами, Дифендорф Дж. М. и Госсеранд Р. [10, pp. 945–959] выяснили некоторые особенности. Во-первых, влияние эмоций может оказаться как положительным, так и отрицательным фактором эффективной работы предприятия ("отклонения" в ту или иную сторону служат определению иерархий и ранжированию целей). Во-вторых, по мере укрепления сотрудничества с клиентами увеличивается разрыв между упомянутыми правилами и реальной демонстрацией чувств, что, в конечном итоге, выливается в многочисленные попытки сократить его (разрыв) с помощью стратегий регулирования эмоций. В-третьих, осознание человеком (не)соответствия своего поведения организационной культуре предприятия может стать действенным инструментом мотивации, когда ясны последствия осуществляемых поступков [10].

Поддерживая идею об особой важности эмоционального труда для индустрии гостеприимства и его влиянии на формирование лояльности со стороны потребителей услуг, Чанг Х.-Й. [11] подтвердил, что ожидания сотрудников ресторана касательно частоты, разнообразия, эмоциональной интенсивности взаимодействия с другими людьми на работе оказывают влияние на производительность труда. Чанг Х.-Й. определена необходимость повышения информированности и установления правил регулирования проявлений чувств строго определенным образом с целью повышения качества работы и решения поставленных перед организацией задач [11].

Не смотря на большое количество научных публикаций, связанных с проблемами оценки эмоционального труда, учеными недостаточно изучены факторы влияния на эмоциональный труд в туризме. Примеры фундаментальных исследований темы с точки зрения когнитивных особенностей персонала вообще обнаружены не были.

**Методология.** В исследовании использованы общие и специальные научные методы. Для раскрытия понятия "эмоциональный труд" и выявления особенностей эмоционального труда на предприятиях туризма и гостеприимства были применены общенаучные методы абстракции, сравнения, включенного наблюдения и синтеза. Для изучения связей между составляющими элементами эмоционального труда на туристических предприятиях, а также между эмоциональными стратегиями менеджера и когнитивными стилями были применены экономико-статистический, табличный методы и сравнение.

Информационной базой исследования послужили научные работы зарубежных и украинских ученых в области эмоционального труда, управления персоналом туристических предприятий, особенностей организационной культуры и когнитивных стилей работы менеджеров. Структура диапазона данных: привлечены

были 805 человек (сотрудники предприятий туристической индустрии и студенты специальности "Туризм").

Сбор данных: формализованный опрос (анкетирование) опрос на основе содержания анкеты проведен на предприятиях туризма и гостеприимства Днепропетровской и Запорожской областей. Статистическая обработка полученных результатов проведена с использованием общепринятых методов.

**Цель статьи** – определение влияния когнитивного стиля работников на результаты эмоционального труда персонала предприятий туристической индустрии как составляющей их эффективности.

**Результаты.** Хохшильд Арли Р. [3, pp. IX–XII], по праву считающаяся основоположником теории эмоционального труда, определила его как "управление чувствами с целью создать наблюдаемые окружением мимики лица и движения тела для получения заработной платы" [12, с. 7]. Чу Кэй [8] считает, что эмоциональный труд – это степень манипуляции внутренними чувствами того или иного субъекта, а также его поведением, направленным во внешнюю среду, ради выработки эмоций, соответствующих требуемым правилам и профессиональным нормам [8].

Совершенно очевидно, что умение индивида осознавать и контролировать свои переживания (эмоциональная компетентность) зависит от личности. Потому в туристическом бизнесе к персоналу (кроме образования, профессиональных умений и навыков) выдвигаются требования личностного характера, которые включают и самоконтроль. Высокий уровень контроля эмоций помогает работнику противостоять трудностям, быстро и аргументировано (часто в невербальной форме) реагировать на возникающие проблемы, а низкий – чреват неадекватностью применяемых мер и возникновением препятствий во взаимодействии [13, с. 17–18]. При этом личность рассматривается как одна из наиболее важных индивидуальных особенностей, влияющих на качество выполнения человеком эмоционального труда [14, 15]. Соглашаясь с автором [16], невозможно успешно работать в туристической сфере без наличия определенных черт характера, поскольку

"клиент всегда прав", а отсюда – необходимость предугадывания ожиданий туриста и поиск путей их реализации, предотвращения конфликтов, устранения проблем и реагирования на жалобы, координации взаимодействия со смежными отраслями, проведения тренингов, четкого установления правил относительно того, какие эмоции могут быть выражены и при каких обстоятельствах. Исходя из вышеизложенного, под эмоциональным трудом, на наш взгляд, следует понимать комплекс мероприятий, направленных на повышение эффективности взаимодействия конкретного индивида с представителями внутренней и внешней среды, которые влияют на него, на основе использования эмоциональных компетенций, разработанных и развитых в соответствии с требованиями организационной культуры, профессиональной культуры и профессиональной этики.

Некоторым образом тему личностных особенностей затронули в своих изысканиях Шани А., Уриели Н., Райхель А. И. и Гинзбург Л. [17, pp. 150–158]. Они, например, заметили, что "бесчувственный" менеджер в состоянии добиться от своих подчиненных лишь поверхностного действия; помимо этого, пришли к заключению: а) рост частоты (повторяемость) обслуживания одного и того же клиента вызывает ощущения душевного комфорта у персонала, независимо от того, имеет ли "столкновение" место в гостинице, ресторане или отделении для пассажиров бизнес-класса в самолете; б) физический труд связан преимущественно с SA (знание факта является немаловажным, в том числе во время планирования рабочих мест) [17].

Для более полного понимания степени эмоционального труда в туристической индустрии, а также определения зависимости его эффективности от личностных особенностей сотрудников, было проведено анкетирование среди сотрудников 69 субъектов туристической индустрии, в том числе 27 гостиниц. На основе составляющих понятия "эмоциональный труд", выделенных Ньюманом М. А., Гайем М. Е. и Матрасси Ш. Х. [13, pp. 6–20], а также ответов респондентов, определены особенности эмоционального труда и возможное их использование в сфере туризма и гостеприимства (табл. 1).

Таблица 1. Особенности составляющих эмоционального труда в туризме

Составляющая эмоционального труда (СЭТ)	Возможное применение в сфере туризма и гостеприимства	Психотип*
Вербальное дзюдо (ВД)	"Жесткий разговор" с клиентом, который "не понимает другого языка"	ENTJ, ESTJ, INFP, INTJ
Каритас (КР)	Внимательное отношение к потребностям клиента (в первую очередь, пожилые люди, дети, лица, имеющие проблемы с передвижением)	ENFJ, ESFJ, ISFP, INFP, ESFP, ISFJ
Игра лицом (ИЛ)	Маска, говорящая о необходимости предпринять определенные шаги; чаще применяется по отношению к подчиненным, не справляющимися с обязанностями или допустившими серьезные нарушения в общении с туристами	ENTJ, ESTJ, INTJ, ISTJ
Усталость от сострадания (УС)	Может наблюдаться у сотрудников в результате чрезмерного "увлечения" "Каритас" (в частности, у обслуживающего персонала специализированных отелей)	ESFJ, ESTP, ISFP
Управление чувствами (УЧ)	Подразумевает, что профессионализм работника является инструментом получения желаемого эмоционального отклика со стороны аутсайдера (поставщика, потребителя, контролирующего органа)	ENTP, ESTJ, INTJ
Профессиональное лицо (ПЛ)	Маска-статусный щит, надеваемая работниками, дабы дистанцировать себя от общения; фактически, это ролевая функция субъекта (возникает как в случае подачи жалобы неудовлетворенным потребителем, так и при возникновении внутрифирменного конфликта)	ENTJ, ESTP, INFP, INTP, ISTJ
Эмоциональный хамелеон (ЭХ)	Способность "включения" и "выключения" проявлений чувств. В сфере услуг может служить надежным подспорьем в построении успешной карьеры	ESFJ, ESTP, ISFP, ISTP
Паучье (шестое) чувство (ШС)	Дар (навык) интуитивно улавливать состояние (настроение) другого. Может играть хорошую службу при условии, что человек доверяет внутреннему голосу и использует предчувствия во благо компании	ENFP, ENTJ, INFJ, INTJ
Раппорт (РП)	Умение установить глубокую связь и наладить взаимопонимание с окружающими; необходимое качество для расширения базы постоянных клиентов и эффективной работы "сарафанного радио"	ENFJ, ENFP, INFP, ISFP

Закінчення табл. 1

Составляющая эмоционального труда (СЭТ)	Возможное применение в сфере туризма и гостеприимства	Психотип*
Эмоциональное подавление (ЭП)	Необходимо для подавления собственных чувств; может возникать при предъявлении заведомо несправедливых претензий, необоснованных исков	ESFP, INFJ, ISTP
Эмоциональное зеркало (ЭЗ)	Способность отразить и/или принять чужие эмоции; результат существенно зависит от конкретной ситуации и личности сотрудника, "принявшего оборону"; умение необходимо, прежде всего, персоналу, который сталкивается с приезжающими первым (администратор, девушка на ресепшн, менеджер по продажам и т. д.)	ENTP, ESFP, INTJ, ISTJ
Эмоциональная броня (ЭБ)	Готовность посмеяться над собственной реакцией. Как оказалось, на изучаемых предприятиях не всегда уместна в общении с покупателем. Но между сотрудниками может быть действенным средством улаживания недопонимания	ENFJ, ENFP, ISFJ, ISTP
Эмоциональное равновесие (ЭР)	Поддержание баланса между противоположными по характеру проявлениями; вышший пилотаж владения собой. Возникает чаще в парах "подчиненный – начальник" и "поставщик услуги – клиент" (порядок слов имеет значение)	ENTP, ESFP, ISFJ
Эмоциональная анестезия (ЭА)	Отсутствие каких-либо переживаний; может возникать после длительного воздействия экстремальных эмоциональных стимулов; чревата взрывом эмоций со стороны контрагента	ESFP, INFJ, INTP
Эмоциональное взаимодействие (ЭВ)	Возможность взаимодействия и эмпатии; прекрасный вариант для общения внутри команды и вне ее	ENFJ, ESFJ, ISFJ
Эмоциональная маска (ЭМ)	Последствия постоянного подавления персоналом своих эмоций (визуальная замена их на противоположные или отсутствующие как таковые); в случае негатива приводит либо к проблемам с состоянием здоровья штата, либо к разрыву моральных и физических связей с организацией	ENFJ, ENTJ, ENFP, INFJ, INFP

\*Психотип по Майерс-Бриггс: Экстраверсия (**E**xtraversion) / Интроверсия (**I**ntroversion); Ощущение (**S**ensing) / Интуиция (**i**ntuition); Мышление (**T**hinking) / Чувства (**F**eeling); Суждение (**J**udging) / Восприятие (**P**erception).

Источник: переработано и дополнено авторами на основе [12, с. 7].

Результаты анкетирования позволили выделить и сопоставить составляющие эмоционального труда в сфере туризма и гостеприимства, присущие каждому психотипу на основе типологии личностей по Майерс-Бриггс, рассмотренные нами более детально в [18, с. 142–143]. Результаты анализа показали, что более 50 % представителей того или иного "класса" отметили "до некоторой степени согласен", "согласен", "абсолютно согласен" во время анкетирования в соответствии с семибальной шкалой Лайкерта. При этом, как выяснилось, тип личности определяет не только способность ее носителя демонстрировать (отражать, подавлять, использовать в определенных целях) эмоции, но

и влияет на их множественное взаимодействие друг с другом (табл. 2). Это формирует степень устойчивости персонала к различным факторам влияния в зависимости от занимаемой должности.

В работах Кулаичева А. П. [19, с. 222–230], Светунова И. С. и Светунова С. Г. [20], Подобника Б. и Стенли Х. Е. [21] доказана целесообразность использования корреляционного анализа для нестационарных процессов и предложен алгоритм реализации подобного анализа, что позволяет его применить для оценки корреляционной зависимости между составляющими элементами эмоционального труда на предприятиях сферы туризма.

Таблица 2. Результаты корреляционной зависимости между составляющими элементами эмоционального труда на предприятиях сферы туризма

СЭТ \ R	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
ВД															
КР	-0,05**														
ИЛ	0,71	-0,31													
УС	0,11	0,58	0,13***												
УЧ	0,27	0,31	0,42	0,15											
ПЛ	0,48	0,14	0,71**	0,26	0,59										
ЭХ	0,36***	0,22	0,63	-0,09	0,64	0,81									
ШС	0,09	0,37	0,28	0,34	0,48***	0,37	0,31***								
РП	-0,12	0,62	0,39	0,47	0,53	0,1	0,45	0,74							
ЭП	0,18	0,43	0,65	0,51	0,39	0,52	0,16	0,38***	0,56						
ЭЗ	0,26	0,49	0,57	0,19	0,46**	0,64***	0,52	0,61	0,63	-0,22					
ЭБ	-0,3	0,25	0,18***	-0,02	0,21	0,23	0,34	0,23	0,02	0,18	0,35**				
ЭР	0,24**	0,3	0,32	0,13	0,67	0,48	0,56	0,29	0,36***	0,26	0,48	0,6***			
ЭА	0,37	0,42	0,39	0,66	0,14	0,29**	-0,1**	0,48***	0,49	0,42	0,53	-0,15	-0,31		
ЭВ	0,2	0,67	-0,01	0,41	0,31***	0,13	0,62	0,55	0,63	0,31***	0,58	0,54	0,49	-0,17	
ЭМ	-0,03	0,46	0,44**	0,49	0,08***	0,33	0,29	0,17	0,28	0,36	0,41	-0,05	-0,21	0,07	0,14***

\*\*\* $p < 0,001$  \*\* $p < 0,01$ ;  $p < 0,05$

Полученные результаты показали отсутствие зависимости между умением быть "плохим полицейским" и желанием "спасти мир" (КР), что обусловлено  $R = -0,05$ . Однако, в случае резкой критики, попытки втянуть в конфликт или склоки, ограничить поведение социальными рамками представителю психотипа

**ENFJ**, занимающего руководящую должность, коэффициент увеличивается до 0,33, а между персоналом одного иерархического уровня составляет 0,21. Подобная нестабильность имеет место и для других элементов табл. 2. Так, например, **ISFP** более склонен к "взрыву", чем **ESFJ** ( $R = 0,65$  и  $0,47$  соответственно). При этом в

обеих группах начальство оказалось менее сдержанным, чем подчиненные – 0,67 и 0,51, что свидетельствует о формальной социальной ответственности менеджмента по отношению к персоналу. А вот в случае с эмоциональным подавлением (ЭМ) топ-менеджмент оказался менее впечатлительным ( $R = 0,19$ ), что проявилось в менее разрушительных последствиях для состояния здоровья против  $R = 0,36$  у подчиненных. Стоит отметить, что наиболее подверженными стрессу оказывались интроверты – 0,24 и 0,39. Таким образом, методика анализа и его результаты могут использоваться HR-менеджерами предприятий сферы туризма и гостеприимства в качестве рекомендаций при распределении заданий, работ и обязанностей сотрудников, что в свою очередь положительно отразится на экономических показателях деятельности предприятия и повысит лояльность персонала к компании.

Как уже отмечалось, эмоциональность труда в туристическом бизнесе требует от контактного персонала постоянного использования эмоциональных стратегий, которые явно не видны руководству, но отражаются на качестве предоставляемого туристического сервиса. Выбор типа такой стратегии (глубокое погружение, подлинное или поверхностное действия) прямо пропорционально зависит от типа личности, условий труда, соответствия занимай должности, культурных традиций предприятия. От успешности ее реализации, которая базируется, в первую очередь, на правильности выбора стратегии, зависят не только финансовые показатели деятельности, но и благосостояние сотрудников, степень их приверженности компании, состояние физического и психологического здоровья, их желание выполнять обязанности наилучшим образом с целью максимального удовлетворения потребностей имеющихся и привлечения новых клиентов. Поэтому особенности когнитивного стиля поведения персонала предприятий туристической индустрии были определены на основе используемых ими эмоциональных стратегий в зависимости от психотипа личности и влияния экономических и психологических факторов (табл. 3). Экономические последствия эмоционального труда сказываются на благосостоянии, производительности труда и текучести кадров, а психологические последствия определяют уровень стресса, удовлетворение от результатов работы, приверженность компании, влияют на общее состояние здоровья сотрудника. Взаимовыгодное сотрудничество топ-менеджмента с персоналом позволит не только снизить психологическую нагрузку, но и создать более высокую ценность предоставляемых услуг за счет увеличения этического качества [22, с. 333].

Корреляционная зависимость между эмоциональными стратегиями поведения персонала предприятий сферы туризма и гостеприимства, психотипами сотрудников и факторами влияния (табл. 3) показала, что для туристической сферы характерны такие закономерности:

1. "Глубокое погружение" оказывает более существенное влияние на благосостояние и производительность труда, чем "поверхностное" и "подлинное". При этом последнее "приобретает преимущество" при оценке психологического комфорта, общего состояния здоровья и решении сменить место работы. Стоит заметить, что данные по отдельным когнитивным типам практически по всем показателям существенно разнятся. Поэтому их влияние на экономические последствия требует более детальных исследований.

2. Занимаемая должность влияет на выбор эмоциональной стратегии. В случае с топ-менеджментом, в частности, практически для всех психотипов коэффициент детерминации оказался незначительно ниже приведенного в табл. 3 в строках "благосостояние" и "производительность труда" (лидером по сокращению оба раза оказались **ESFJ** (0,5 и 0,61 соответственно) и **ENTP** (0,66 и 0,69 соответственно);

3. Для контактного персонала наблюдалось более существенное увеличение коэффициента детерминации: от 0,17 у **ESTJ** до 0,24 – **INTJ**. С поверхностным действием ситуация менялась на противоположную: руководство могло получать от него определенную выгоду. Среди персонала, находящегося на одном иерархическом уровне управления, роста эмоциональной связи не наблюдалось ни для одной из категорий.

4. Что касается **SA** и психологических индексов, можно сделать заключение либо об отсутствии связи как таковой, либо о ее несущественности по сравнению с **DA** и **GA**. Другими словами, необходимость притворяться тем, кем не являешься, придерживаться правил, которые не осознаются и/или не принимаются, становится причиной дискомфорта разной степени для людей с отличающимися характерами и положением в компании.

**Выводы и дискуссия.** Сформулировано понятие "эмоциональный труд", под которым следует понимать комплекс мероприятий, направленных на повышение эффективности взаимодействия конкретного индивида с представителями внутренней и внешней среды, которые влияют на него, на основе использования эмоциональных компетенций, разработанных и развитых в соответствии с требованиями организационной культуры, профессиональной культуры и профессиональной этики.

Научная новизна исследования проявляется в определении особенностей эмоционального труда в сфере туризма и гостеприимства, которые проявляются во влиянии когнитивной компоненты личности сотрудника на качество предоставляемого сервиса. Такие особенности должны учитывать сложность эмоционального труда, что находит отражение в выбранной персоналом эмоциональной стратегии, и требует от топ-менеджмента постоянного отслеживания и реагирования на изменения в поведении, реакции и выполнении должностных обязанностей каждым сотрудником. Полное и всестороннее понимание факторов ЭТ в их совокупности может стать и становится надежным инструментом повышения мотивации сотрудников, снижения текучести кадров, укрепления связей с потребителем и возрастания конкурентоспособности компании как на внутреннем, так и на международном рынках.

Зависимость между эмоциональной стратегией поведения и когнитивным стилем персонала позволила определить степень влияния эмоционального труда как на деятельность предприятия, так и на психологические последствия работы на предприятии для сотрудников. Однако для более детального измерения силы зависимости между когнитивным стилем работников и результатами эмоционального труда персонала предприятий туристической индустрии целесообразным является использование большего количества статистических наблюдений и факторов влияния на эмоциональную стратегию поведения личности.

Таблица 3. Результаты корреляции между изучаемыми переменными (эмоциональные стратегии и когнитивный стиль)

Психотип Стратегия	ISFJ	INFP	ENFP	ISTJ	ESFJ	ESTJ	ISFP	INFJ	ESFP	ENFJ	INTP	ENTP	ISTP	INTJ	ESTP	ENTJ
<i>Экономические последствия</i>																
Благосостояние																
Deep acting	0,46	0,34	0,43	0,78	0,54	0,43**	0,37	0,59	0,61	0,67	0,28	0,72***	0,51	0,48	0,69	0,58
Genuine acting	0,42	0,41***	0,4	0,65	0,51	0,49	0,32	0,32	0,65	0,51	0,21	0,64	0,46	0,41	0,56	0,33
Surface acting	0,35	-0,15	0,22	0,42	0,36	0,19	0,12	0,12	0,28	0,36	0,09	0,33	0,09	0,34	0,29	0,37
Производительность труда																
Deep acting	0,53	0,31	0,39	0,69	0,7	0,53	0,43	0,48	0,69	0,71	0,33	0,76***	0,61	0,53	0,76	0,49**
Genuine acting	0,42	0,29	0,42	0,63***	0,59	0,57	0,38	0,51	0,72	0,48	0,37	0,57	0,53	0,46**	0,62	0,56
Surface acting	0,26	0,01	0,15	0,19	0,33	0,28	0,26	0,31	0,22	0,27	-0,25	0,41	0,14	0,24	0,34	0,41
Текучесть кадров																
Deep acting	0,31	0,28**	0,63	0,29	0,38	0,55	0,25	0,36	0,28	0,35	0,54	0,45	0,38	0,5	0,29	0,35
Genuine acting	0,26	0,33	0,56***	0,24	0,23	0,47	0,19	0,22	0,12	0,44	0,48**	0,37	0,2	0,42	0,33***	0,48
Surface acting	0,35	0,2	0,29	0,31	0,42	0,62	0,34	0,49	0,36	0,5	0,63	0,39	0,44	0,61	0,46	0,51
<i>Психологические последствия</i>																
Уровень стресса																
Deep acting	0,34**	0,31	0,47	0,44	0,16	0,39	0,61	0,51	0,36	0,41	0,34	0,66	0,32	0,48	0,51	0,23
Genuine acting	0,34	0,29***	0,25	0,28	0,06	0,34	0,52	0,45	0,25	0,53***	0,26	0,59	0,23	0,29	0,34	0,17**
Surface acting	0,51	0,44	0,13	0,56	0,35	0,45	0,68**	0,66	0,41	0,21	0,44	0,41***	0,15	0,54	0,48	0,34
Удовлетворение от результатов																
Deep acting	0,67	0,43	0,36	0,63	0,67	0,49	0,46	0,62	0,59	0,74	0,39	0,69	0,49	0,32	0,7	0,48
Genuine acting	0,72	0,56**	0,48	0,7	0,73	0,53	0,66	0,7	0,57	0,6	0,54	0,54	0,57	0,46	0,74	0,64
Surface acting	0,53**	-0,11	0,04	0,34	0,03	0,18	0,31	0,23	0,24	0,21	0,25	0,24	0,3	0,08***	0,31	-0,09
Степень приверженности компании																
Deep acting	0,59	0,55***	0,29	0,59	0,31	0,43	0,67	0,58	0,32	0,63	0,31	0,39	0,42	0,39	0,52**	0,27
Genuine acting	0,68	0,61	0,38	0,65	0,45	0,51	0,72**	0,65	0,41	0,61	0,45	0,35	0,46	0,43	0,6	0,33
Surface acting	0,36	0,34	0,23	0,2	-0,14	0,1	0,24	0,31	0,06	0,18	-0,19	0,25	0,27	-0,01	0,02	0,05
Общее состояние здоровья																
Deep acting	0,45	0,22	0,51	0,33	0,34***	0,28	0,41	0,42	0,15	0,38	0,24	0,42	0,25	0,28	0,43	0,18
Genuine acting	0,49	0,31**	0,66	0,46	0,4	0,32	0,42	0,47	0,29	0,43	0,31	0,56	0,34	0,35	0,6	0,26**
Surface acting	0,23	-0,16	0,09***	0,16	-0,21	0,05	-0,22	0,25	0,3	-0,11	-0,08	0,08	0,2	0,15	0,14	-0,2

\*\*\* $p < 0,001$  \*\* $p < 0,01$ ;  $p < 0,05$



Влияние эмоционального труда проявляется в большей или меньшей степени на всех иерархических уровнях организационной структуры предприятия, и поэтому должно учитываться при формировании внутренних стандартов и стратегии социальной ответственности предприятия индустрии туризма и гостеприимства, что, несомненно, отразится на социально-экономических результатах его работы. Использование зависимости психотипа сотрудника и его стратегии поведения на рабочем месте может быть использовано предприятиями сферы услуг для предупреждения экономических и психологических последствий в организации.

Дальнейшие работы авторов будут посвящены особенностям управления эмоциональным трудом персонала предприятий туристического бизнеса для формирования эффективной клиентоориентированной организационной культуры.

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O. Крупський, канд. психол. наук, доц.,

В. Редько, канд. екон. наук, доц.

Дніпровський національний університет імені Олеся Гончара, Дніпро, Україна

### ВПЛИВ КОГНІТИВНОГО СТИЛЮ ПРАЦІВНИКІВ НА РЕЗУЛЬТАТ ЕМОЦІЙНОЇ ПРАЦІ ПЕРСОНАЛУ ПІДПРИЄМСТВ ТУРИСТИЧНОЇ ІНДУСТРІЇ

Розглянуто емоційну працю як процес, що визначається особливостями роботи в туристичній сфері. Запропоновано 16 складників емоційної праці на підприємствах індустрії туризму й гостинності, проаналізовано її вплив на окремі економічні (добробут співробітників, продуктивність, плинність кадрів) і психологічні (рівень стресу, ступінь прихильності компанії й задоволення від роботи) показники з погляду когнітивних особливостей персоналу та обраних ним емоційних стратегій поведінки. Обґрунтовано вплив когнітивної компоненти особистості працівника на якість сервісу, що надається.

**Ключові слова:** туризм і гостинність; емоційна праця; організаційна культура; когнітивний стиль; туристичне підприємство.

O. Krupskiy, PhD in Psychology, Associate Professor,

V. Redko, PhD in Economics, Associate Professor

Oles Honchar Dnipro National University, Dnipro, Ukraine

### THE INFLUENCE OF THE EMPLOYEE' COGNITIVE WORKING STYLE ON THE EMOTIONAL LABOR OUTCOMES IN TOURISM FIRMS

In the article the emotional labor is considered as a process that is determined by peculiarities of work in the tourist sphere. It was suggested 16 components of emotional labour on tourism and hospitality enterprises, their influence on some economic (employee welfare, productivity, employee turnover) and psychological (level of stress, degree of commitment and job satisfaction) indicators is analyzed in terms of staff's cognitive characteristics and chosen by them emotional strategies of it behavior. The influence of the cognition of an individual on the quality of provided services was substantiated.

**Key words.** Tourism and hospitality, emotional labour, organizational culture, cognitive style, tourism enterprise.

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I. Moyseyenko, Doctor of Sciences (Economics), Professor  
Lviv State University of Internal Affairs, Lviv, Ukraine,  
L. Halkiv, Doctor of Sciences (Economics), Professor  
National University "Lviv Polytechnic", Lviv, Ukraine,  
M. Demchyshyn, PhD in Economics, Associate Professor  
Lviv University of Trade and Economics, Lviv, Ukraine

## ANALYSIS OF TAX BURDEN PARAMETERS OF UKRAINE'S ECONOMY

*The need to solve the problems of macro-economic stabilization of the country's economy on the basis of determining the tax system efficiency led to the actuality and importance of developing methodological issues of macro-economic tax regulation. In terms of macro-financial stability for the purpose of strategic analysis, the macroeconomic category of tax burden and its fiscal efficiency in terms of direct and indirect taxation is considered.*

*Tax burden indicators at a macro-level quantitatively measure the total level of tax payment and pumping up the budget. Based on the analysis of tax burden it is found that in Ukraine the major fiscal function is performed by consumption taxes (indirect taxes).*

*The methodological principles of the diagnostics of tax burden influence on macro-indices of economic stabilization are as follows: selecting parameters of monitoring tax burden state and fiscal burden efficiency; the assessment of an impact on fiscal efficiency on macro-indices. To prognosticate the efficiency of fiscal burden performance in terms of indirect taxes linear and exponential trend equations are calculated. In terms of the analysis of macro-financial stability the usage of tax rates of indirect taxes as indicators of fiscal efficiency provides sufficient reasons for the conclusions regarding long-term trends of pumping the budget.*

**Key words:** fiscal regulation, stabilization indicators, tax rate, tax burden, trend models, macro-economic indicators.

**Introduction.** The achievements of economic growth on long-term time horizons are the result of a balanced combination of economic, social, demographic, financial, investment and other components of a state policy. One of

the main preconditions for their implementation is clearly defined intermediate and final policy objectives measured by using individual indicators and their complexes, systematically justified.

The implementation of a tax regulation mechanism depends on a significant number of interests and factors and is determined primarily by using appropriate macro-financial indicators that are necessary to ensure adequate comprehensive assessment of the conditions of making managerial decisions, to carry out preliminary analysis of their consequences and to select optimal scenarios of achieving strategic goals. The choice of macro-financial indicators provides the efficiency of government regulation and managing the potential risks of macro-economic stability and security.

The aim of this study is to determine methodological foundations of the choice of parameters of macro-financial stability diagnostics and identify relationships between macro-economic and macro-financial processes by means of tools of econometric modeling.

**Literature review.** The issues of identifying macro-financial indicators in the sphere of public finance management are covered in the works of such domestic scientists: O. V. Boher [2], I. O. Tsybaliuk, N. V. Vyshnevskaya [6], O. Hodovanets, T. Marshaliuk [7], Yu. Petlenko [10] and others.

The distinction of macro-economic and macro-financial spheres is important to research the economy's stabilization at the macro-level. The economic sphere analysis covers the following concepts: national production, national income, domestic demand, savings, investment and others. The indicators of a macro-financial sphere are revenues and expenditures of the consolidated budget, public debt, and indicators of credit and monetary field [1].

The need for indices-indicators occurs at the time of assessment of the current state and identification of economy's trends. Since management is a continuous cyclic process virtually in a single cycle indicators are used twice: in the process of assessing the situation to create an action plan and forecasting and evaluating the effects of these measures introduction.

The combination of indicators with control process is achieved by presenting it as a classical model of the management cycle – forecasting – planning – organization – implementation – control. As for the choice of the parameters of macro-level stabilization to determine an index of the gross domestic product (GDP), depending on the method individual components of the macro-economic indicator itself (aggregate demand, government procurements, gross investment, net exports) or regional

indicators of the gross regional product (GRP), depending on analysis purposes are determined.

It should be noted that at the macro-level the division of financial indicators by analysis trends into efficiency, security and stability indicators is quite rare. Because of this issue the availability of different views on referring a certain indicator to a particular classification group and ways of their use for macro-analysis is a common problem.

The preservation of the base of forming public finance funds and relative sustainability of costs are necessary conditions for stable obligation performance at the macro-level. The realization of these tasks is provided by the indicators of the first condition – fiscal sustainability and the second one – monetary. Herein, tax field indicators are also included in the macro-security group as a part of the revenue structure. In terms of macro-financial stability for the purpose of strategic analysis the macro-economic category of tax burden and also its fiscal efficiency in terms of direct and indirect taxation is considered.

In economics there are several approaches to tax burden evaluation, namely:

- as the ratio of tax revenue to the budget to the value of total income of the private sector;
- as the difference between total revenues and expenditures and transfers from the budget for the private sector maintenance;
- as the share of tax revenue to the gross domestic product [5, 7–9].

The tax rate is often used as an indicator of tax burden efficiency. The indicator reflects the ratio of the sum of all received taxes to the gross domestic product. The tax rate is the simplest index of those commonly used in characterizing tax burden. The advantage of this indicator is its prevalence in foreign countries [1, 6].

**Research methodology.** In general, tax burden shows the income that residents pay to the budget in taxes and non-tax payments. There are several methods for calculating this indicator, depending on the analysis task and available resources. The most accurate method of calculating tax burden is to analyze the cost of each economy entity in terms of paying taxes and non-tax payments. For the purposes of fiscal regulation of supply and demand it is advisable to analyze tax burden in terms of direct and indirect taxes.

The revenue dynamics in terms of tax division by functional features – income taxes (direct taxes) and consumption taxes (indirect taxes) are shown in Fig. 1.

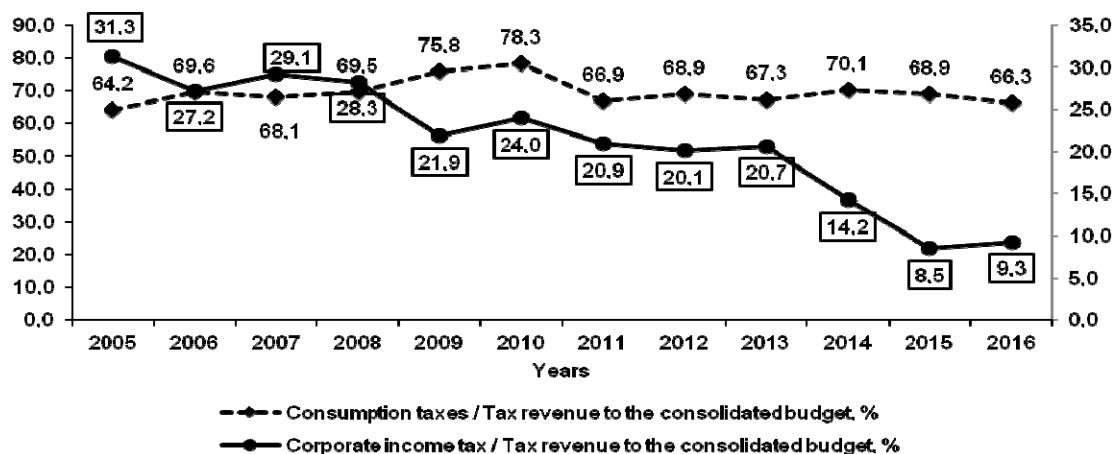


Fig. 1. Dynamics of the tax burden formation in Ukraine

Source: built by the authors based on [11–14].

The indicators of tax burden at the macro-level reflect the fiscal policy efficiency that is quantitatively measure the cumulative level of their payments and pumping up the budget.

Fig. 2 and Fig. 3 show the tax rate dynamics in terms of direct and indirect taxes. It can be noted that there is a

different dynamics character for tax rates by indirect and direct taxes: to decrease – by direct taxes, to increase – by indirect ones.

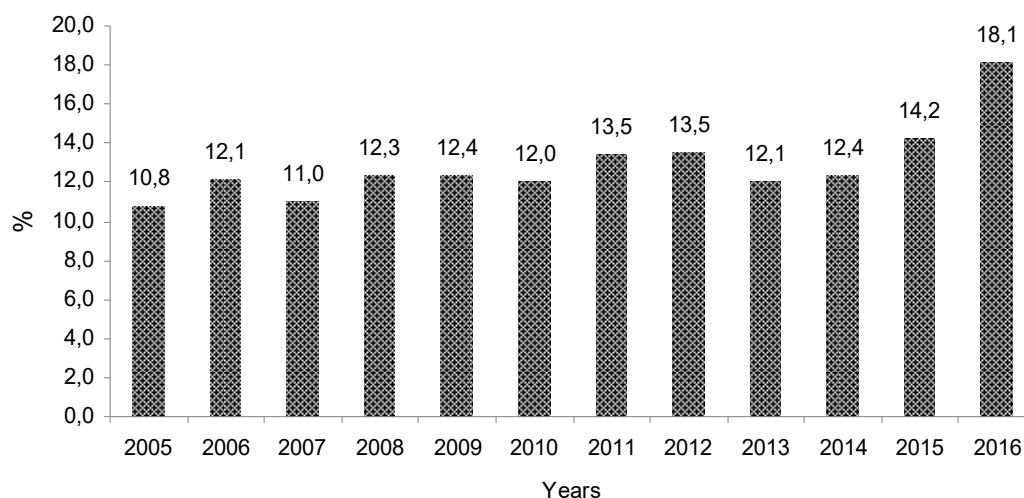


Fig. 2. Tax rate by direct taxes

Source: built by the authors based on [11–14].

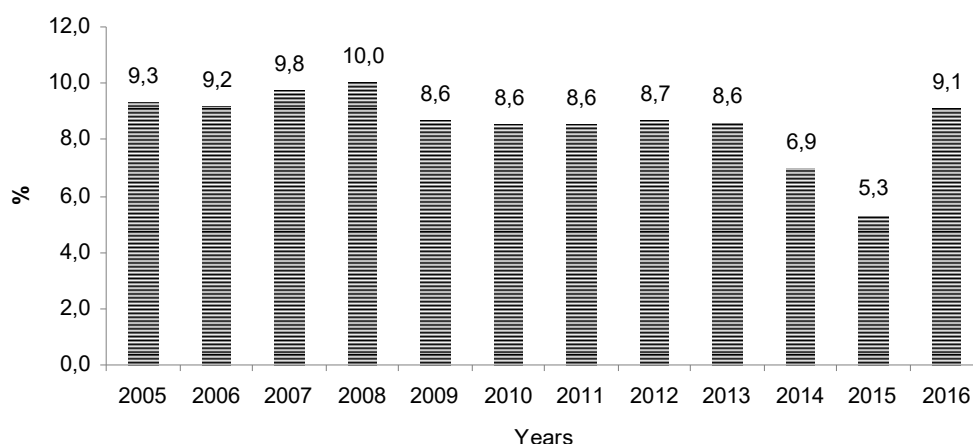


Fig. 3. Tax rate by indirect taxes (by consumption taxes)

Source: built by the authors based on [11–14].

In 2015 there was the highest ratio of tax revenue of indirect taxes and the lowest by direct ones to the GDP for the period. The calculation of the tax rate level in terms of direct and indirect taxes determines tax regulation directions to stimulate demand or supply of financial resources.

It should be noted that unlike the national practice, the ratio of tax revenue to the gross domestic product is often used abroad, including the value of goods and services produced by residents outside the country [1].

In terms of the analysis of macro-financial stability, the ratio of tax revenue to the GDP gives sufficient grounds to draw the conclusions on long-term trends of pumping up the budget and identifying potential risks. However, tax revenue is not an indicator associated with the level of

economic development. The level of non-payment of tax liabilities, the level of the shadow economy, sustainable development indices, financial security parameters are the reflection of the economic situation in the country and real macro-financial stability.

The methodological basis of the selection of macroeconomic stability and financial security parameters can be defined as follows: selecting monitoring parameters of the tax burden state and fiscal burden efficiency; the diagnostics of tax burden impact on macro-economic stabilization.

In general, the indicators can be classified according to certain characteristics that meet the study objectives. The index classification of the identification of economic development stabilization can be presented in Table 1.

**Table 1. Classification of economic stabilization indicators**

Classification	Types of indicators
By way of development process evaluation	<i>direct</i> – directly related to the review subject <i>indirect</i> indicators – indirectly reflect the characteristics of the object
By time basis of indicator comparison	<i>basic</i> – cover a period to be taken into comparison, <i>actual</i> – meet existing state <i>planned</i>
By time direction of development process evaluation	<i>retrospective</i> (bygone periods) <i>current</i> (interim, final) <i>prognostic</i> (forward periods)
By level of detailing the structure of the indicator study object	<i>holistic or integrated</i> (state budget revenues to the GDP) <i>element by element</i>
By level of aggregation in the process of analyzing and evaluating	<i>isolated</i> <i>group</i> <i>integrated</i>
In terms of uniqueness	<i>universal</i> indicators that can be used to analyze all types of enterprises <i>special</i> formed taking into account the features and characteristics of the study object
According to measurement units	<i>quantitative (numerical)</i> and <i>qualitative</i> . Among quantitative indicators there are groups of <i>absolute</i> (GDP, tax revenue, added value, etc.) and <i>relative (conditional)</i> indicators (fiscal efficiency, tax burden)
By way of values presentation	<i>point</i> and <i>interval</i> indicators. Interval indicators reflect a period of admissible values, point ones are limited with accurate values of the indicator.

Source: Authors' development.

This distinction is caused by the need to combine absolute and relative indicators in the process of macro-financial analysis and an increasing tendency to use qualitative characteristics of economic phenomena.

Each classification of the study complex object is not exhaustive and may be supplemented with additional

classification features in accordance with research goals in the process of socio-economic phenomena and processes research.

The selected parameters of macro-analysis must meet certain specifications as described in Table 2.

**Table 2. Main characteristics of economic stabilization indicators**

Specification	Meaning	How to use
<i>Certainty</i>	information property, which determines the degree of objective, accurate reflection of events and facts that occurred	As a means of ensuring transparency
<i>Timeliness</i>	as a time interval between the moment (period) in which there was a phenomenon or process, described by the statistical data and the date of readiness (provision) of these data	As a means of operational governance
<i>Reality</i>	means matching the level of technical and methodological support not only the method of indicator measuring, but its grounding and understanding.	As a means of government regulation

Source: Authors' development.

**Main results.** To determine the level of tax burden the calculations were carried out by the tax rate, the other indicators are determined as shown in Table 3.

**Table 3. Indicators of tax regulation efficiency**

Indices	Method of calculation
Budget tax burden	Tax revenue to the consolidated budget / GDP * 100
Share of GDP centralization in the budget	Revenue to the consolidated budget / GDP * 100
Tax burden on labor	Single Social Tax / GDP * 100
Crude rate of tax burden	Budget tax burden + Tax burden on labor / GDP*100

Source: Survey [6].

The dynamics of the tax burden formation in Ukraine is presented in Table 4.

**Table 4. Dynamics of the tax burden in Ukraine in 2005-2016 due to different types of tax payments, %**

Indicator	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	Average level
1. Income tax	3.73	4.19	4.83	4.84	4.87	4.73	4.16	4.35	4.41	3.94	2.77	5.82	4.39
2. Corporate income tax	5.28	4.74	4.72	5.01	3.57	3.71	4.21	3.94	3.71	2.51	1.76	2.53	3.81
3. VAT	7.67	9.26	8.25	9.71	9.27	8.89	10.01	9.88	8.76	8.76	9.02	13.84	9.44
4. Budget tax burden	22.22	23.11	22.36	23.98	22.78	21.60	25.74	26.29	24.15	23.16	25.63	27.31	24.04
5. Share of GDP centralization in the budget	30.40	31.57	30.51	31.42	31.60	28.95	30.64	31.72	30.22	28.73	32.94	32.84	30.98
6. Tax burden on labor	9.41	9.98	10.48	10.75	10.93	11.03	10.70	11.25	11.39	10.46	8.58	4.69	9.97
7. Crude rate of tax burden	31.63	33.09	32.84	34.73	33.71	32.63	36.43	37.54	35.54	33.61	34.21	32.00	34.01

Source: compiled by the authors based on [11–14].

According to the data of Table 4 the average level of the tax burden in Ukraine does not differ significantly from the average indicator for EU countries. The main difference is tax revenue structure. In Ukraine, the share of indirect taxes prevails over direct ones, while in developed countries there is an opposite trend [2].

A clear development trend for the tax rate growth by indirect taxes in general and by excise duties is confirmed by the results of econometric analysis (Table 5). The linear equation coefficient of trend  $\hat{y} = 11.05 + 0.22t$  shows that from 2005 to 2016 the tax rate by indirect taxes grew

annually on average by 0.22 %. If such a trend continues in the coming years, this tax rate will continue to grow. The excise duty over the period grew by 0.16 % annually, as the linear model coefficient of the main trend of development for this indicator shows ( $\hat{y} = 1.26 + 0.16t$ ). Analyzing the trend of this indicator change by individual components, we can state the tax rate growth by excise duty on imported goods. The rate value of trend equation  $\hat{y} = -0.08 + 0.10t$  shows that the tax rate by excise duty on imported goods for 2005–2016 increased by 0.10 %.

**Table 5.** Linear equations of tax rates trend by indirect taxes in Ukraine according to the data of 2005-2016

Indicator	Trend equation and the value of Student's <i>t</i> -test	Determination coefficient <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	Fisher's <i>F</i> -test	DW-criterion of Durbin-Watson
Consumption taxes / GDP, %	$\hat{y} = 11.05 + 0.22t$ 23.53* 3.24*	0.538	10.5*	2.28*
VAT / GDP, %	$\hat{y} = 8.64 + 0.07t$ 19.14* 1.00	0.100	1.0	1.94*
Taxes on international trade and external transactions / GDP, %	$\hat{y} = 1.15 - 0.001t$ 4.47* 0.08	0.001	0.0	1.29**
Excise tax / GDP, %	$\hat{y} = 1.26 + 0.16t$ 6.66* 5.74*	0.786	33.0*	1.62*
Excise duty on domestic goods / GDP, %	$\hat{y} = 1.34 + 0.06t$ 7.78* 2.34**	0.377	5.5**	1.39**
Excise duty on imported goods / GDP, %	$\hat{y} = -0.08 + 0.10t$ 0.93 8.36*	0.886	69.9*	1.39**

Note: \* – statistical certainty with probability  $p = 0.99$  (significance level  $\alpha = 0.01$ );

\*\* – statistical certainty with probability  $p = 0.95$  (significance level  $\alpha = 0.05$ ).

Source: compiled by the authors based on [11–14].

From 2005 to 2016 the tax rate by direct taxes decreased annually on average by 0.32 %, as is indicated by the coefficient of linear equation trend  $\hat{y} = 10.43 - 0.32t$  (Table 6). A tendency to decrease is characteristic for the

tax rate by an income tax. Of all the components of direct taxes there is growing dynamics only for the tax rate by the single tax for private individuals.

**Table 6.** Trend linear equations of tax rates by direct taxes in Ukraine according to the data of 2005-2016

Indicator	Trend equation and the value of Student's <i>t</i> -test	Determination coefficient <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	Fisher's <i>F</i> -test	DW-criterion of Durbin-Watson
Direct taxes / GDP, %	$\hat{y} = 10.43 - 0.32t$ 19.03* 3.97*	0.637	15.8*	0.99**
Corporate income tax / GDP, %	$\hat{y} = 5.57 - 0.27t$ 16.83* 5.52*	0.772	30.5*	1.54*
Income tax / GDP, %	$\hat{y} = 4.73 - 0.08t$ 12.35* 1.41	0.180	2.0	0.78
Single tax for small businesses / GDP, %	$\hat{y} = 0.14 + 0.03t$ 1.96 2.73**	0.452	7.4**	0.55
Single tax on legal persons / GDP, %	$\hat{y} = 0.11 - 0.001t$ 5.73* 0.44	0.021	0.2	0.45
Single tax on individuals / GDP, %	$\hat{y} = 0.05 + 0.02t$ 1.00 3.62**	0.593	13.1*	0.77

Note: \* – statistical certainty with probability  $p = 0.99$  (significance level  $\alpha = 0.01$ );

\*\* – statistical certainty with probability  $p = 0.95$  (significance level  $\alpha = 0.05$ ).

Source: compiled by the authors based on [11–14].

Based on the statistical evaluation of the certainty of exponential and linear models it is revealed that for the forecast calculation of the tax burden in Ukraine by indirect taxes exactly trend linear equations can be recommended.

**Conclusions.** The need to solve the problems of macro-economic stabilization of the country's economy on the basis of determining the tax system efficiency led to the actuality and importance of developing methodological issues of macro-fiscal tax regulation of the economy.

The methodical fundamentals of a choice of macro-economic and macro-financial parameters and usage of the offered analytical tools of tax regulation at the macro-

economic level through the application of defined parameters of the tax burden diagnostics are developed.

The relationship between the taxation level and macro-parameters of economic stabilization depends on assessing tax burden efficiency, which suggests asserting about the impact in the short term – of a tax rate, but in the long term – of tax burden.

Based on the analysis of tax burden it is found that the average tax burden in Ukraine is not significantly different from the average indicator for EU countries. The main difference of the tax burden in Ukraine from the European Union is not its level but the tax revenue structure. In

Ukraine, the share of indirect taxes prevails over the direct ones, while in developed countries there is an opposite trend. That is, in Ukraine the main fiscal function is performed by consumption taxes (indirect taxes). To prognosticate the efficiency of fiscal burden performance in terms of indirect taxes trend linear and exponential equations are calculated.

Tax rates are selected to be the indicators of evaluating tax regulation efficiency. On the basis of trend analysis of tax rates it is established that tax rates by indirect taxes, revenue forecasting by which is fulfilled by means of trend linear equations, can be selected to stimulate the demand for financial resources.

**Discussion.** The analysis of the relationships between the indices of sustainable development, financial security parameters and indirect taxes was introduced by the authors in the previous studies [3, 4]. The direction of future research of tax regulation at the micro-level provides the definition of direct taxes impact on financial and macro-indicators and the determination of their structure for development stimulation.

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І. Мойсеєнко, д-р екон. наук, проф.

Львівський державний університет внутрішніх справ, Львів, Україна,

Л. Гальків, д-р екон. наук, проф.

Національний університет "Львівська політехніка", Львів, Україна,

М. Демчишин, канд. екон. наук, доц.

Львівський торговельно-економічний університет, Львів, Україна

### АНАЛІЗ ПАРАМЕТРІВ ПОДАТКОВОГО НАВАНТАЖЕННЯ ЕКОНОМІКИ УКРАЇНИ

*Визначено методичні основи вибору параметрів діагностики стану макрофінансової стабілізації. Описано класифікацію та основні характеристики індикаторів стабілізації економіки. Для цілей фіскального регулювання попиту та пропозиції запропоновано проаналізувати податкове навантаження та його ефективність у розрізі прямих та непрямих податків. Розроблено методичні основи діагностики впливу податкового навантаження на макропоказники стабілізації економіки: вибір параметрів моніторингу стану податкового навантаження та ефективності фіскального навантаження; виявлення взаємозв'язків між макроекономічними й макрофінансовими процесами за допомогою інструментів економетричного моделювання. Описано моделі тренда є основою аналітичного інструментарію податкового регулювання на макроекономічному рівні.*

**Ключові слова:** фіскальне регулювання, індикатори стабілізації, податковий коефіцієнт, податкове навантаження, моделі тренду, макропоказники.

І. Мойсеєнко, д-р екон. наук, проф.

Львовский государственный университет внутренних дел, Львов, Украина,

Л. Гальков, д-р екон. наук, проф.

Национальный университет "Львовская политехника", Львов, Украина,

М. Демчишин, канд. екон. наук, доц.

Львовский торгово-экономический университет, Львов, Украина

### АНАЛИЗ ПАРАМЕТРОВ НАЛОГОВОЙ НАГРУЗКИ ЭКОНОМИКИ УКРАИНЫ

*Определены методические основы выбора параметров диагностики состояния макрофинансовой стабилизации. Описана классификация и основные характеристики индикаторов стабилизации экономики. Для целей фискального регулирования спроса и предложения предложено проанализировать налоговую нагрузку и ее эффективность в разрезе прямых и косвенных налогов. Разработаны методические основы диагностики влияния налоговой нагрузки на макропоказатели стабилизации экономики: выбор параметров мониторинга состояния налоговой нагрузки и эффективности фискальной нагрузки; выявление взаимосвязей между макроэкономическими и макрофинансовыми процессами с помощью инструментов эконометрического моделирования. Описанные модели тренда являются основой аналитического инструментария налогового регулирования на макроэкономическом уровне.*

**Ключевые слова:** фискальное регулирование, индикаторы стабилизации, налоговый коэффициент, налоговая нагрузка, модели тренда, макропоказатели.

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G. Rimbu, PhD student

'Lucian Blaga' University of Sibiu, Sibiu, Romania,

L. A. Constantinescu, PhD, Associate Professor

'Dimitrie Cantemir' Christian University of Bucharest, Bucharest, Romania

## IMPROVING YOUTHS' SOCIAL SITUATION IN THE EUROPEAN UNION

*The European Union's social policies of the last years aimed at improving the social conditions of youths across Europe. The goal of this paper is to comparatively analyse the characteristics of youths and their social conditions in the EU-27, during 2006-2016, using the following indicators associated to the young population: youth education and training, employment and unemployment rates, health, social inclusion, culture and creativity, participation and youth in the digital world. The paper also reviews the impact and efficiency of the EU's social policies in the current economic background, trying to catch the improvements in young people's social conditions. For this purpose, there were used Employment and Social Conditions Indicators and "Europe 2020" Strategy Indicators.*

*Our analysis reveals that over time the youths' aspirations and needs have changed along with their social conditions. The EU is obviously making progress in improving the social policies addressed to young people, but there are still visible differences between the member states and new, innovative approaches are required to respond to youths' needs in the fast-changing economic and political context of Europe.*

**Key words:** youth, social policy, social conditions, EU-27.

**Introduction.** Nowadays, the European Commission and the Government of each member state of the EU are getting more and more involved in the economy. They are also focusing on improving the social conditions and the educational level of young people in the EU, but also on tackling unemployment.

Among the EU's biggest concerns are the high youth unemployment rate and the differences between member states regarding this rate. For example, between Germany, which has the lowest youth unemployment rate, at 7% and Greece or Spain, the countries with the highest unemployment rate, approximately 50%, there is a difference of 40 percentage points [6].

The government's implication, through each national social policy and low, including unemployment benefits and support programmes, changed the behaviour of people during time, from people that were scared to reject a job during the Industrialisation period to people that are searching and accepting a job based on their motivation, minimum wage, health insurance or other benefits.

Although this is the tendency, the fast-changing economic and political context of Europe, along with the changes in different branches of industry, forced young people to work

part-time, or to be underpaid, or even to accept jobs that do not match their educational background or professional experience. The social policy of each state gave young people more options and integrated them to the labour market.

The fast-changing economic and political context of Europe influences young people's decisions, especially regarding their mobility in the labour market. As an EU citizen, a youth can choose to immigrate to another member state, to acquire better social conditions and to be integrated into the labour market. To immigrate to another country to find a new job, as a citizen of the EU, can be perceived as an opportunity, but also as an unwanted decision that a citizen can make for better social conditions and wage. After 2007, when 12 new states became member states of the EU, countries that were already members, restricted the access of the citizens coming from the new states, to avoid massive migration [14, p. 1-11].

**Young people and the social policy in the European Union.** The welfare system is different in every country and the expenses of each country on social policies are different. To associate the EU with a single welfare regime cannot be possible because each member state follows different welfare regimes [5].



Young people's employment and social conditions have always been a priority for the EU. The European Union Treaty from 1992 includes the "European Strategy for Employment", the starting point of the EU policy regarding employment and labour market.

The EU strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth, "Europa 2020", aims at reducing early school leaving, increasing the attainment of people in the tertiary educational level, reducing the risk of poverty and increasing the number of employed people. These aims also target the young population [13, p. 394/6].

In order to respond to young people's challenges and help them to succeed, the EU launched the "Youth on the Move" initiative, which focuses on key competences and quality learning outcomes linked with the labour market needs, seeks to improve the quality, attractiveness and responsiveness of higher education and promote more and better mobility and employability, to support the youth mobility for education, including workplace-based training. "Youth on the Move" also focuses on reducing unemployment and within the initiative, a framework of policy priorities for action at national and EU level was developed [8, p. 3-4].

The "New Skills Agenda for Europe" is the EU's initiative created to deal with the skills challenges across Europe, focusing on improving the quality and relevance of the skills formation, to increase the visibility and comparability of the skills and qualifications and to improve skills intelligence and information for better career choices [9, p. 3].

The "European Platform against Poverty and Social Exclusion" is another flagship initiative that will establish new actions to address poverty, develop prevention policies and ensure the social cohesion across the EU [10, p. 3].

In 2009, the "European Union Youth Strategy for 2010-2018" was adopted by the EU's Council. The Council recognises that there is a need to create youth policies in order to improve the youths' well-being, along with other measures that empower young people to contribute to the sustainable development of society. The Council also highlights the need to establish cooperation between youth policies and other policies regarding employment, social inclusion, education, culture and health. Through this resolution, the EU's Council invites the member states to work together, to enhance European cooperation in the youth field and to adopt measures at national level, in line with national priorities which support the achievement of the "European Union Youth Strategy for 2010-2018" [3, p. 311/2-311/4].

Even if the "Resolution on a Renewed Framework for European cooperation in the Youth field 2010-2018" was adopted in order to respond to youth challenges, there are still important aspects that the resolution can't control. The economic crisis affects differently young people

across Europe, and has an impact on their independent life to adulthood. Dealing with the challenges that the youths are facing and trying to improve their own well-being requires cross-sectoral cooperation in the youth field at EU level [4, p. 417/1].

The mid-term evaluation of the EU's Youth Strategy, which covered 2010-2015 data, reveals some differences between member states. During its implementation, member states approached different issues from the strategy, and none of the countries worked on all actions covered by it. There were differences in approaching the EU's Youth Strategy, considering that there are member states where the youth policy is decentralised and where the countries make efforts to create connections between the regional and local topics and the EU youth cooperation framework.

Across the EU, the Youth Strategy's priorities and activities have different levels of relevance for each member state. There are differences between the states in approaching the strategy's eight fields of action at policy level, some of the countries had focused on employment, education and training and other countries gave more attention to youth work, volunteering and participation [7, p. 1-5].

Before the Industrial Revolution, the unemployment was not a problem, and the government did not intervene through measures to solve the lack of job opportunities in the labour market. The capitalism during the Industrial Revolution created a new understanding of unemployment, where an individual got hired by another individual, and when the economy was in recession, the employers were forced to fire or lay off personnel, without taking responsibility for their employees. In the beginning of capitalism, the idea that the unemployment was not a problem rises and the individuals were responsible for integrating themselves into the labour market. The basic needs of an individual, poverty and hunger were the most relevant solutions to tackle unemployment. As the society evolved the unemployment became an issue of the entire society and social assistance programmes have been developed, with government implication being necessary [2, p. 157-172].

**Characteristics of youths and their social conditions in the EU-27 countries.** Over time, youths' aspirations and needs have changed along with their social conditions. The level of education and training, health, social inclusion, job security and youth participation in the community have always been important for the welfare of young people.

The young population, aged between 16-29 years old, in the EU-27 countries, decreased from 2006 to 2016 because of their aging and declining birth rates (Figure 1). The number of young people decreased from 95,794,382 in 2006 to 87,915,034 in 2016, with more than 7 million individuals.

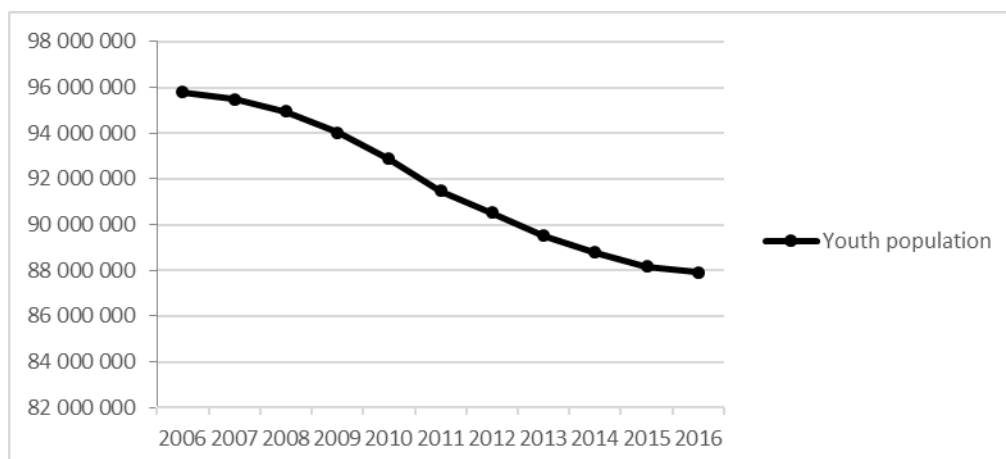


Fig. 1. Evolution of young population aged between 16-29 years old in the EU-27, on 1 January (number)

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

The more a youth is financially independent, the more he or she wishes to leave the parental household. Figure 21 illustrates the evolution of the average age at which young people leave the household. In the EU-27, during 2006-2015, the average age has been maintained

constant, at 26. The average age of men who chose to leave is with about 2 years higher than that of women, so the average age of men leaving their parents households is 27 and the average age for women is 25.

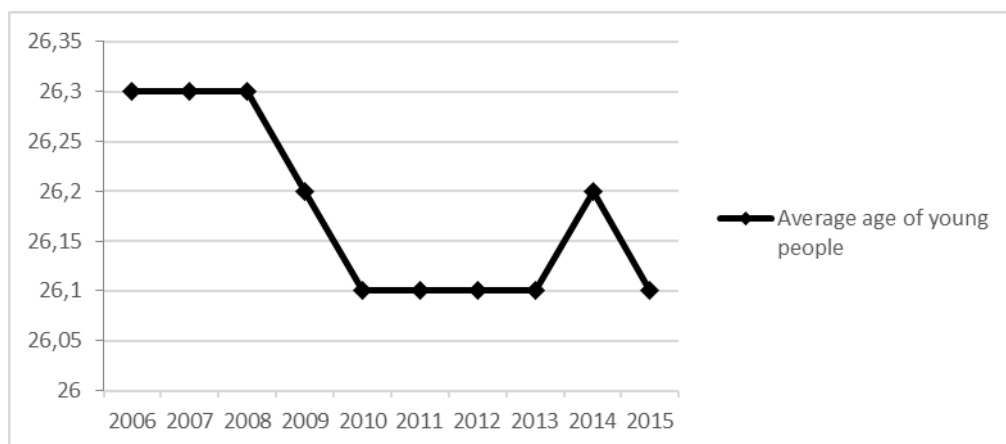


Fig. 2. Evolution of estimated average age of young people leaving the parental household in EU-27

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

Over half of young people aged between 15-29 years old are living with their parents (Figure 3). During 2006-2014, the share of young people living with their parents was higher than the share of youths who does not, as percentage of total population.

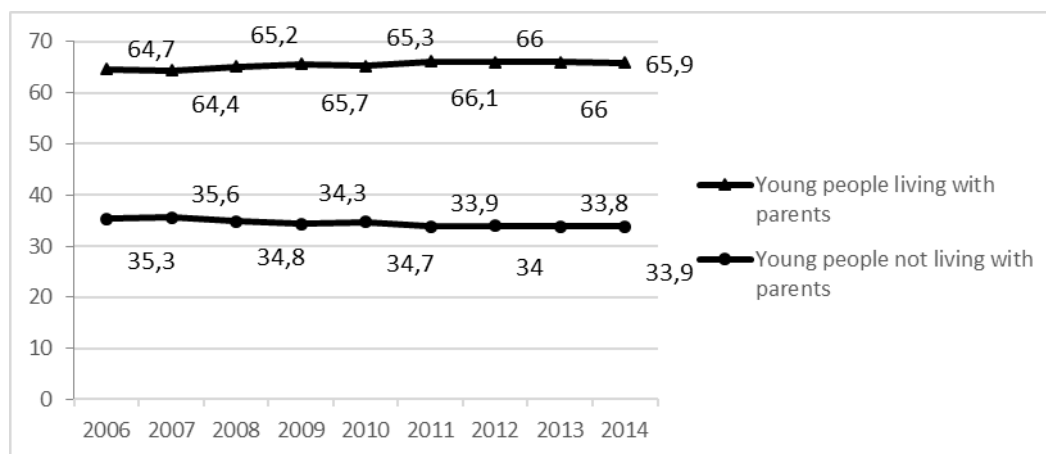
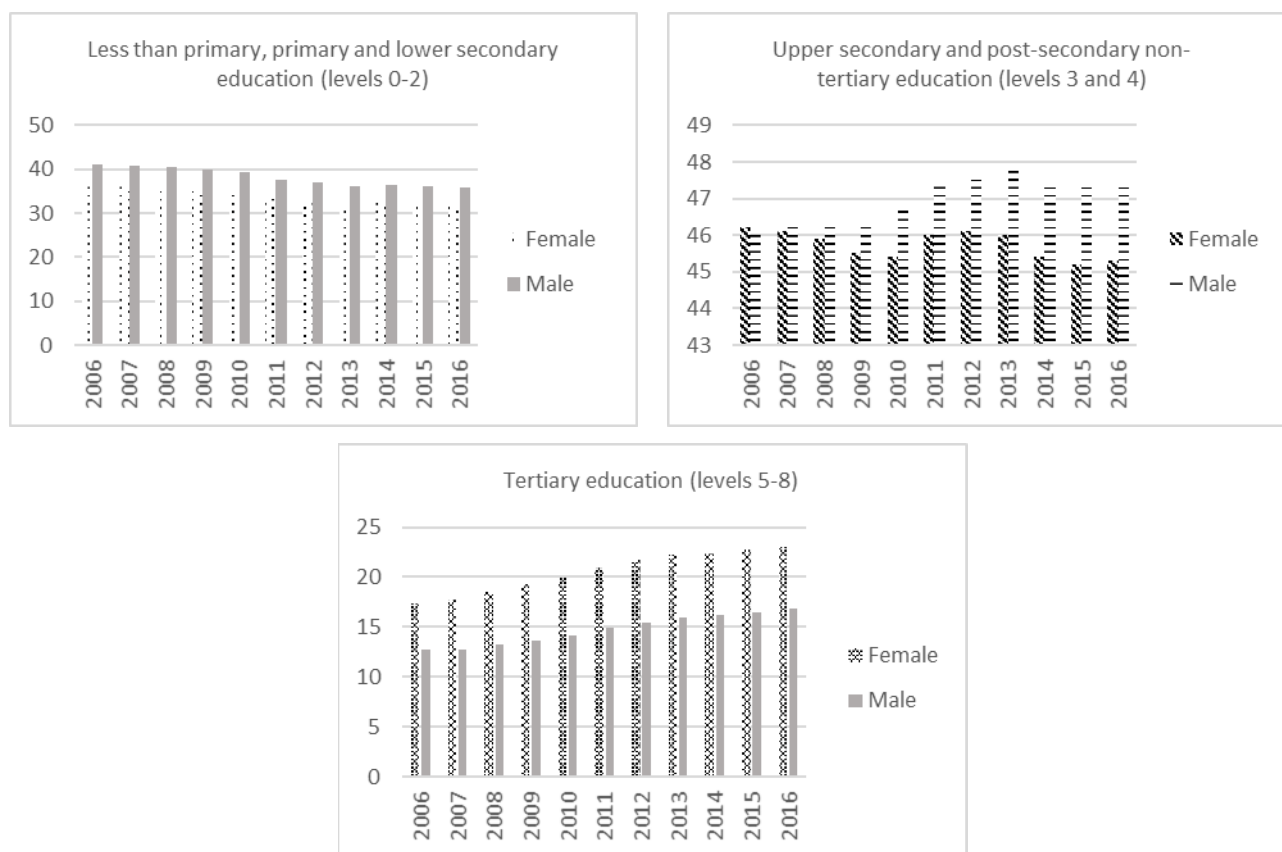


Fig. 3. Evolution of share of young people aged between 16-29 years old living with their parents in the EU-27 (percentage of total population)

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

During 2006-2016, there were more young men aged between 15 and 29, than young woman with the same age, to have less than primary, primary or lower secondary education (level 0-2) and upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education (levels 3 and 4). The situation is the opposite for the tertiary education (level 5-8). The rate of young people with less than primary, primary or lower secondary education decreased from 2006 to 2016, for both men and women. The rate of the

young men with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education increased from 46 % in 2006 to 47.3 % in 2016, and in the same period, the young women with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education decreased from 46.2 % to 45.3 %. During 2006-2016, the young people's rate with tertiary education grew, in the case of young women from 17.4 % to 23 %, and in the case of young men from 12.8 % to 16.8 %.

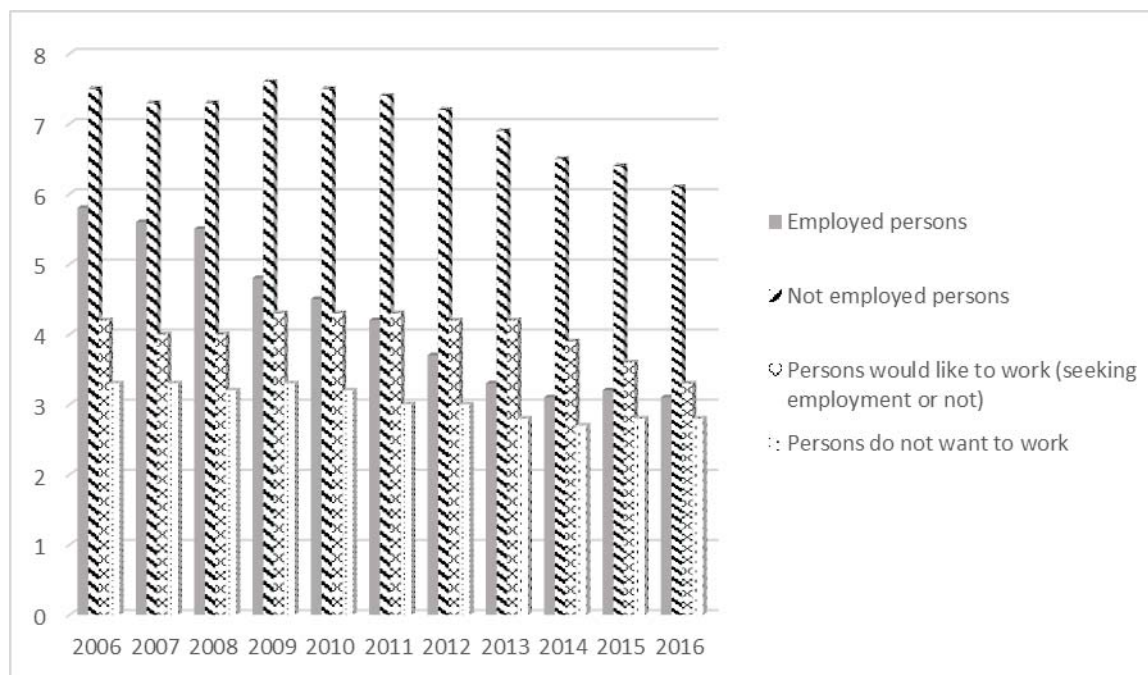


**Fig. 4. Evolution of young people (15-29 years old) by educational attainment level and sex in the EU-27 (percentage)**

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

Early school leaving affects the individual, at both professional and personal level. At the professional level, the major negative impact is on the insertion into the labour market. Figure 5 shows the evolution of female early leavers, aged between 18-24 years old, from education and training, by labour status, in the EU-27. Most of the female early leavers are not employed persons. The female early leavers not employed decreased from 7.5 % in 2006 to 6.1 % in 2016, registering the highest value in

2009 and 2010, 7.6 % and 7.5 %. The labour market demands have changed over the time, requiring more skilled and qualified labour force, and this aspect can be noticed in the case of the female early leavers as employed persons, where the rate decreased from 5.8 % in 2006 to 3.1 % in 2016. The female leavers who would have liked to work and the ones who did not want to work decreased as well in the 2006-2016 period.



**Fig. 5. Evolution of female early leavers aged between 18-24 years old, from education and training by labour status in the EU-27 (percentage)**

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

Most of the male early leavers where employed persons from 2006 to 2011, and from 2012 to 2016 most of the male early leavers where not employed people (Figure 6). Basically, it was easier for men to find jobs then for women. The highest value of employed male early leavers was in 2006, 11 %, and decreased until 2016 at 5.9 %. The male early leavers not employed maintained the value broadly at 6 % in 2006-2008, broadly at 7 % in 2009-2013, and again

broadly at 6 % during 2014-2016, reaching the same value in 2016 as in 2006, of 6.4 %. The attitude of the male early leavers regarding the desire to work or not, fluctuated during the analysed period. Compared to 2006, in 2016 there were more male early leavers who did not want to work, and fewer male early leavers who would have liked to work. This changing attitude can be related to the social protection programmes of each country.

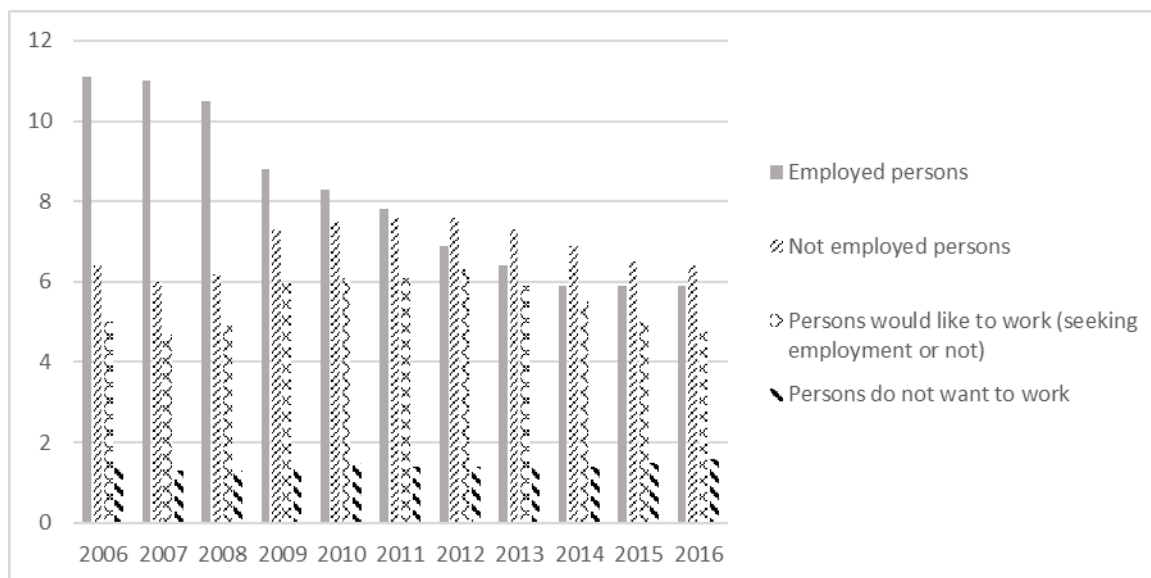


Fig. 6. Evolution of male early leavers, aged between 18-24 years old, from education and training by labour status

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

During last years, the non-formal education and training has become an alternative way for the young people to develop their professional and personal competences. From 2006 until 2016, the participation rate in non-formal education and training (last 4 weeks) of the young people aged between 15-29 years old increased. The female

participation rate is higher than the male participation rate, reaching the highest values in 2015 and 2016 with 11.7 %, and the lowest values in 2011 and 2012 with 9.4 %. The male participation rate reached the highest value in 2016, 11.2 % and the lowest value in 2011, 8.4 %.

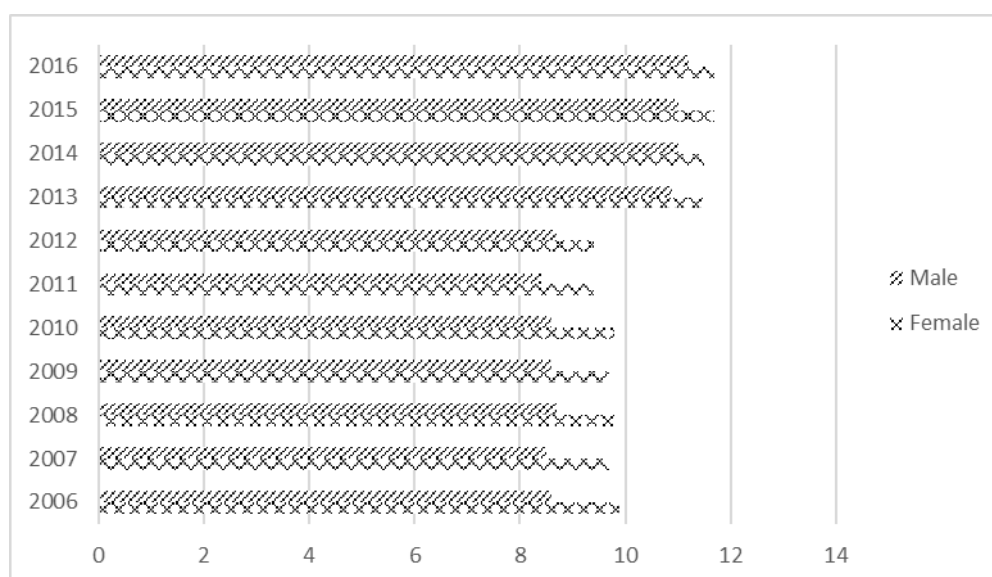


Fig. 7. Evolution of the participation rate in non-formal education and training of the young people aged between 15-29 years old by sex (percentage)

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

The economic expansion has put its mark on the whole economy, favouring the improvement of many economic indicators during this period. The same happened in the EU-27 countries, where the youth employment rate for young people aged between 15-29 years old grew from 2006 to 2008, reaching a female youth employment rate of 47 % and a male youth employment rate of 54.9 % in all ISCED 2011 levels. The 2006-2008 period was a favourable one for the young people's integration into the

labour market, followed by 5 years of decline until 2013, and starting to grow since 2014 until 2016. In a period of 11 years, from 2006 to 2016, the males aged between 15-29 years old had a higher employment rate than woman with the same age in all ISCED 2011 levels (Table 1). Both female and male youth employment rate had the highest values in the studied period. The youth employment rate decreased during 2006-2016 in all ISCED 2011 levels.

**Table 1. Youth employment (15-29 years old) by sex, and educational attainment level in the EU-27 (percentage)**

	All ISCED 2011 levels		Less than primary, primary and lower secondary education (levels 0-2)		Upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education (levels 3 and 4)		Tertiary education (levels 5-8)		No response	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
2006	45.8	54.1	24.5	37.6	52.8	63.8	74.9	78.2	7.2	10
2007	46.6	54.9	25	38.1	53.5	64.7	75.8	79.1	8.1	10.8
2008	47	54.9	24.8	37.1	53.7	65.1	76.3	79.2	8.4	10.8
2009	45.6	51.5	23.4	33.6	51.7	61.2	74.4	76	9.7	10.3
2010	44.6	50.7	22.3	32.1	50.5	60.4	72.9	74.7	9.5	10.3
2011	44.2	50.3	22.5	32.4	50	59.9	71.6	74.5	7.6	9.1
2012	43.5	49.3	21.3	30.8	49.1	58.9	70.4	73.5	7.7	8.9
2013	43.2	48.7	20.5	30	48.6	57.9	70	73.1	8.3	9.3
2014	43.7	49.3	19.4 (b)	28.3 (b)	49.2 (b)	58.5 (b)	70.3 (b)	73.7 (b)	10.6 (b)	12.8 (b)
2015	44.6	50	19.3	28.3	50	59.4	72	74.7	10.5	14.7
2016	45.3	51.1	19.6	28.9	50.8	60.6	72.8	76	7.2	8.2

(b) – break in time series

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

There are differences among the member states of the EU, where the youth employment rates, of people aged between 15-29 years old, were the lowest in 2016 and were recorded in Greece (28.6 %), Italy (29.7 %) and (Spain 34.6 %). The highest rates were observed in Netherlands (68.3 %), Denmark (63.6 %) and United Kingdom (62.2 %).

For many young people, the idea to be self-employed is a way to integrate into the labour market without relying on employers. There are significant differences between the young female self-employed and young male self-

employed aged between 15 and 29, in all ISCED 2011 levels, the last one being higher than the first one (Table 2). During 2006-2016 the number of young male self-employed with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education (levels 3 and 4) was more than double than the number of young female self-employed with the same educational level. The smallest differences between the young men and women's self-employed activities, is between the young people which have attended tertiary education.

**Table 2. Youth self-employment (15-29 years old) by sex and educational attainment level in the EU-27 (thousand)**

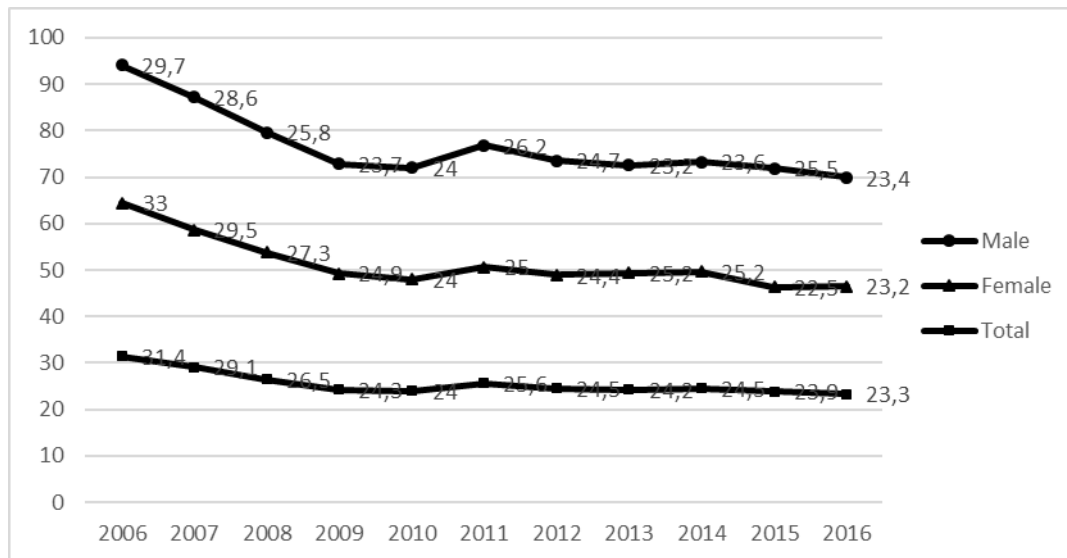
	All ISCED 2011 levels		Less than primary, primary and lower secondary education (levels 0-2)		Upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education (levels 3 and 4)		Tertiary education (levels 5-8)	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
2006	959	2,095.90	166.8	574.5	500.2	1,147.60	290.8	368.9
2007	983.5	2,074.80	170.8	578.3	504.1	1,106.80	306.9	384.1
2008	943.3	2,049.20	154.6	552.2	470.6	1,121.20	316.5	369.9
2009	920.9	1,907.30	149.1	471.5	452.8	1,061.40	317.3	368.5
2010	905.1	1,850.00	134.8	444.6	437.9	1,027.30	330.4	374.5
2011	883	1,795.60	115.9	391.2	435.9	1,002.60	329.4	392.6
2012	868.1	1,799.60	118.4	368.8	408.1	988.5	337.9	431.1
2013	870.9	1,718.20	104.8	357.5	396.4	933.2	366.3	416.3
2014	866.3	1,732.50	105.4 (b)	360.2 (b)	393.7 (b)	937.9 (b)	364.4 (b)	427.4 (b)
2015	895.8	1,725.00	111.4	355.8	394.7	928.1	387	431.3
2016	892.8	1,722.10	101.6	346.8	396.4	907	394	463.6

(b) – break in time series

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

Some employers can decide to temporary hire personnel in projects, for trial periods, in line with the strategic development of the entity. The employers can choose to use this form of employment also because of the instability of the national economy or the level of profitability of the firm. Figure 8 shows the evolution of the young temporary employees as a percentage of the total

number of employees in the EU-27. From 2006 until 2010, the rate of young temporary employees decreased, from 2011 to 2014 this percentage fluctuated, and from 2015 it began to decrease until it reached 23.3 %. The value of young male temporary employees' rate was smaller than of young females, from 2006-2009, 2013-2014, and higher in 2011-2012, 2015-2016.

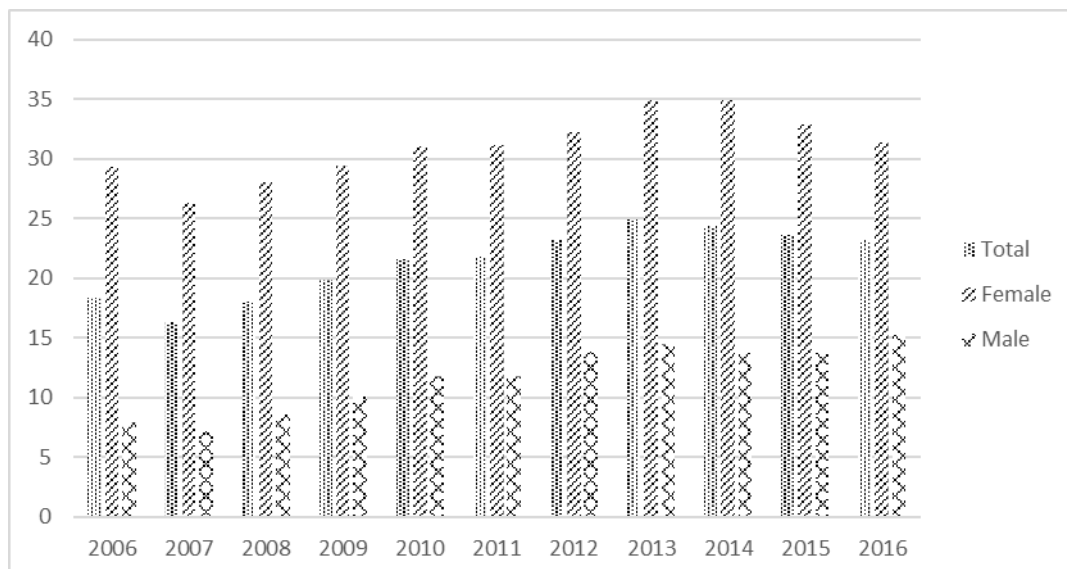


**Fig. 8. Young temporary employees as percentage of the total number of employees, by sex, age, 15-29 years old, and country of birth, EU27-except reporting country (percentage)**

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

Young people can be integrated into the labour market also through part-time jobs. They can occupy a part-time job voluntarily, because they are looking for such a job, or involuntarily, because of the circumstances in which they are. From 2006 to 2016 the part-time employment, as percentage of the total employment for young people in the EU27 – except the reporting country, increased from 18.4 % to

23.3 %, registering in 2013 the highest value, when 24.9 % of the employed young people worked part-time (Figure 9). There are significant differences between men and women working part-time, and during 2006-2016, the part-time employment of women, as percentage of the total employment for young people aged between 15 and 29 years old, was higher than the part-time employment of men.



**Fig. 9. Evolution of part-time employment as percentage of the total employment for young people (15-29 years old) by sex and country of birth, EU27-except reporting country**

Source: Elaborated by the authors

During 2006-2016, young people's main reason for working part-time was that they were following a form of education or training. Even if the men and women had the same reason, there were more young men than young women that were working part-time (Table 3). The second reason was that they could not find a full-time job. For young women, looking after children or incapacitated adults

was the next reason for working part-time, followed by other reasons, like family or personal responsibilities and at the end because of their own illness or disability. For young men, looking after children or incapacitated adults, was the last reason for working part-time, having the lowest values during 2006-2016.

**Table 3.** Main reasons for part-time employment of young people (15-29 years old) in EU27 by sex (percentage)

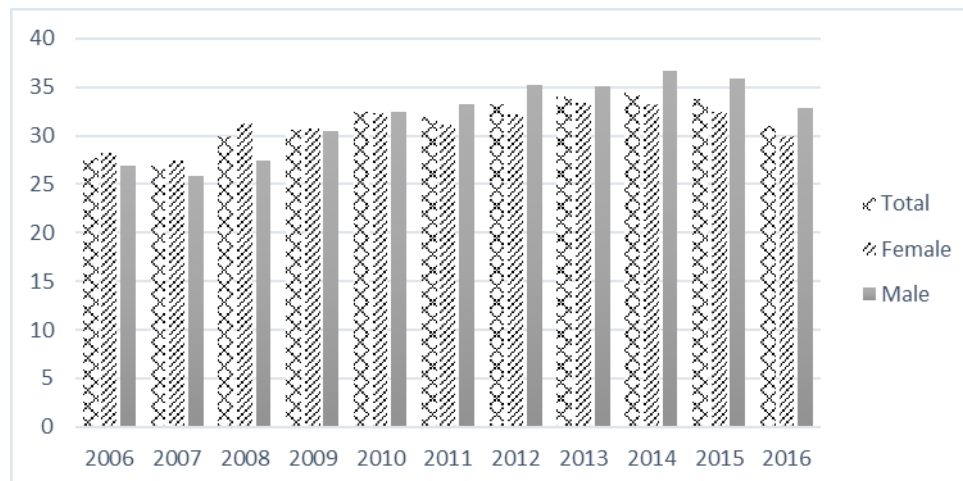
	Could not find a full-time job		Own illness or disability		Other family or personal responsibilities		Looking after children or incapacitated adults		In education or training		Other	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
2006	28.2	26.9	1.0	1.4	5.7	2.0	14.5	0.5(u)	37.0	56.6	13.7	12.6
2007	27.5	25.8	1.0	1.6	5.1	2.3	14.7	0.5(u)	38.4	56.8	13.3	13.0
2008	31.3(u)	27.4(u)	1.0(u)	1.7(u)	5.4(u)	2.8(u)	13.0(u)	0.6(u)	35.0(u)	53.7(u)	14.2(u)	13.9(u)
2009	30.7(u)	30.5(u)	0.8(u)	1.2(u)	5.1(u)	2.4(u)	14.4(u)	0.6(u)	35.7(u)	51.9(u)	13.3(u)	13.3(u)
2010	32.3(u)	32.5(u)	0.7(u)	1.1(u)	4.7(u)	2.1(u)	14.0(u)	0.8(u)	35.1(u)	49.7(u)	13.2(u)	13.8(u)
2011	31.1	33.3	1.0	1.2	4.8	1.8	15.2	0.6	34.9	49.6	12.9	13.5
2012	32.2	35.2	1.0	1.3	4.4	1.9	14.8	0.7	34.7	48.0	12.9	13.0
2013	33.4	35.1	0.8	1.2	4.4	2.0	14.3	0.7	36.3	49.8	10.8	11.2
2014	33.2	36.7	0.8	1.5	4.2	1.7	13.8	0.6	37.1	48.1	10.8	11.4
2015	32.4	35.9	0.9	1.2	4.4	1.7	13.6	0.7	36.7	49.6	12.0	10.8
2016	29.	32.8	1.1	1.3	5.3	2.2	13.7	0.5	37.6	50.4	12.4	12.8

(u) – low reliability

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

Between 2007 and 2014, the share of involuntary part-time employment, as percentage of the total part-time employment for young people aged between 15-29 years old in the EU-27, increased from 27.7% to 34.5 %, and decreased

until 2016 to 31 % (Figure 10). Until 2010 the share of involuntary part-time employment, as percentage of the total part-time employment for young women, was higher than of young men, and since then the situation has reversed.

**Fig. 10.** Involuntary part-time employment as percentage of the total part-time employment for young people (15-29 years old) by sex in EU-27 (percentage)

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

There are significant differences between the rate of involuntary part-time employment, as percentage of the total part-time employment for young people (15-29 years old), among the member states of the EU; according to the Eurostat database, in 2016, most of the Italian young citizens were occupying involuntary part-time jobs, recording a rate of 80.4 %, followed by Cyprus, 74.1 % and Greece, 73.9 %.

The lowest rate was observed in Estonia, 6.0 % (low-reliability), Denmark, 10.6 % and Germany, 11.7 %.

The economists who support Keynes's vision felt that everyone must have a job that matched the education received, the work experience and some facilities to work near home. On the opposite pole, classic economists thought it was the choice of an individual not to have a job and if he or she was looking well enough, a job would have been found regardless of the job specifications or the salary offered [2, p. 157-172]. They have also

considered that the labour market is in constant balance and even if the number of job vacancies is higher than the job demands, they admit that there are always a few unemployed [1].

Over the years, various solutions have been identified to reduce the unemployment rate. And for this, most of the times, the attention was directed to the governments of each state, as they must have solutions and apply measures in order to increase employment [12, p. 98-101, 157-167].

Since 2007 and until 2013, the youth unemployment rate, for youths aged between 15-29 years old from the EU-27 countries, except the reporting country, increased from 9.7 % to 19.2 %, and decreased until 2016 at 13.6 %. The youth unemployment rate among women during the 2006-2016 period, was higher than the youth unemployment rate among men, except in 2009, where the rate was lower, but only with 0.1 %.

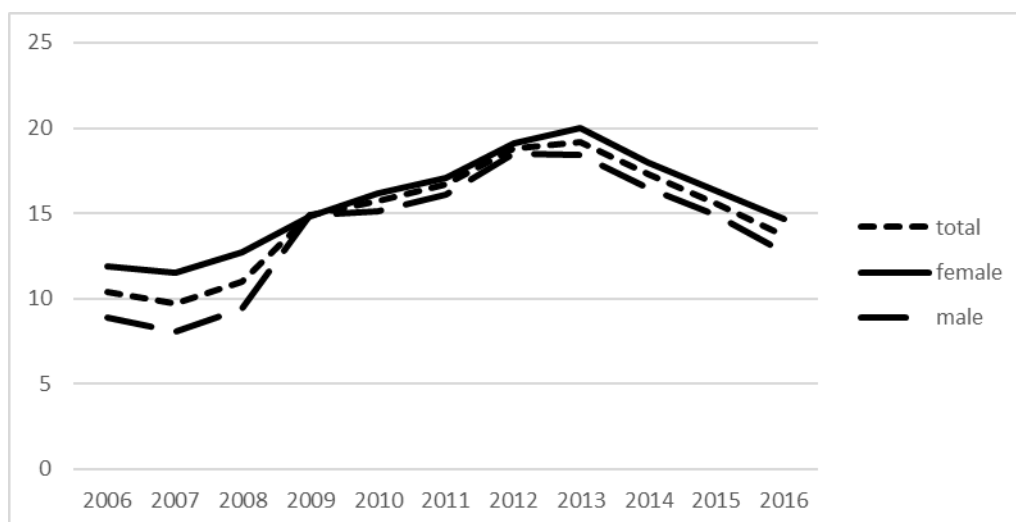


Fig. 11. Youth unemployment rate (15-29 years old) by sex and country of birth – EU-27 countries except reporting country (percentage)

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

According to the Eurostat database, among the member states, the lowest youth unemployment rates in 2016 were recorded in the Germany (6.1 %), Malta (7.3 %) and Czech Republic (7.4 %). The highest rates were observed in Greece (38.4 %) and Spain (33.3 %).

The long-term employment affects more young men than young women, and starting 2007 until 2016, the youth long –

term unemployment rate among men, in the 15-29 years old category, was higher than the youth long – term unemployment rate among women (Figure 12). The youth long – term unemployment rate decreased from 4.5 % in 2006 to 3 % in 2008, and increased until 2013, recording the highest rate in the analysed period of 7 %. Since 2013 the youth long-term unemployment rate decreased to 4.9 %.

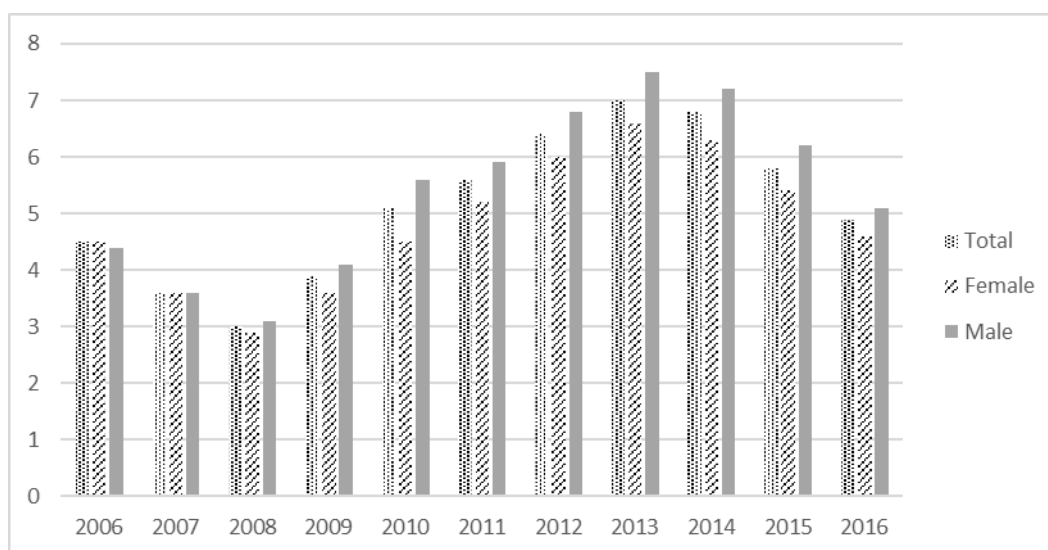


Fig. 12. Youth long-term unemployment rate (15-29 years old) by sex in EU-27 (percentage)

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

Based on the available data from the Eurostat database, there is a difference of 22,5 percentage points between Sweden, the country with the lowest youth long – term unemployment rate (1 %) and Greece, the country with the highest rate (23.5 %) in 2016. The lowest youth long – term unemployment rates in 2016 were recorded in Sweden (1 %), Germany (1.5 %), Netherlands and Luxembourg (both with 1.6 %). At the

opposite pole, the highest youth long – term unemployment rates were recorded in Greece (23.5 %), Italy (14.8 %) and Spain (11.0 %).

From 2006 to 2016, in the EU-27 countries, there were more inactive young women than men, aged between 15-29 years old, and they were neither employed nor pursuing education or training.



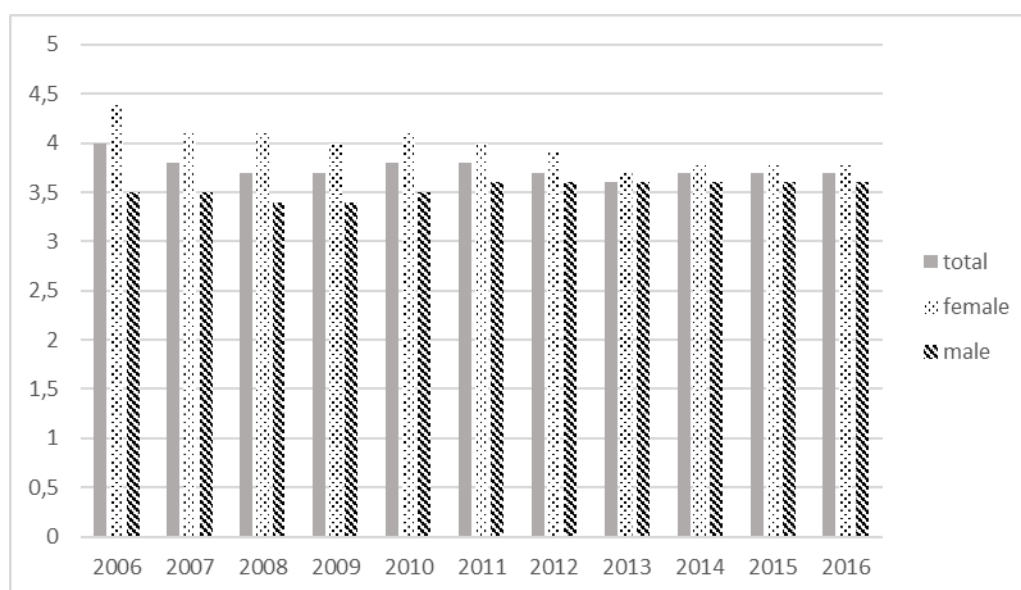


Fig. 13. Young people (15-29 years old) neither in employment nor in education and training by sex, age and labour status (NEET rates) in EU-27 (percentage, inactive persons)

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

From 2005 until 2013, the share of women aged between 15-29 years old at risk of poverty in the EU-27's total population was higher than the share of man of the same age at risk of poverty (Figure 15).

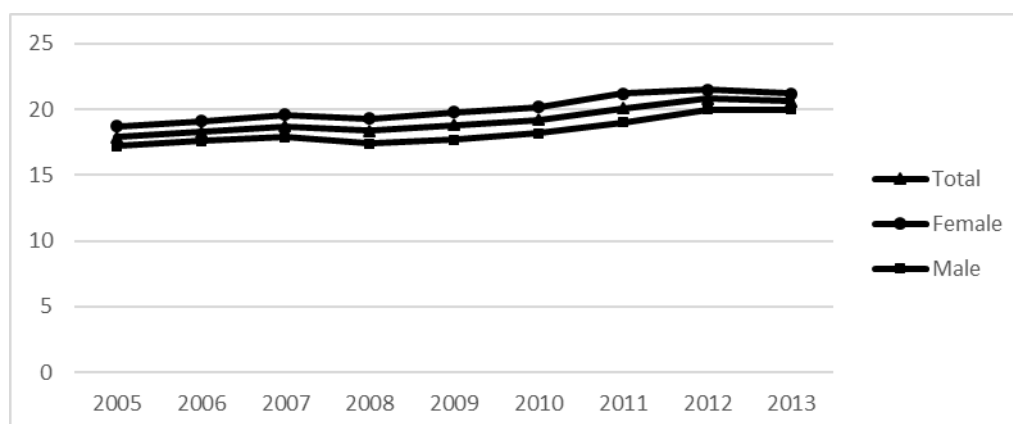


Fig. 15. Young people (15-29 years old) at risk of poverty by sex in EU-27 (percentage of total population)

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

The young people's at-risk-of-poverty rate is higher in the cases where the youths are not living with the parents, than in the case when the young people are living with them. Compared to 2006, in 2015, young people's at-risk-of-poverty rate, for people that are living with their parents,

raised from an estimated value of 15.9 % to 18.9 %. The same happened with the young people's at-risk-of-poverty rate, for those that are not living with the parents, which increased from 21.9 % in 2006 to 26 % in 2015.

Table 4. Young people's at-risk-of-poverty rate (16-29 years old) by sex and living/not living with parents (percentage of total population)

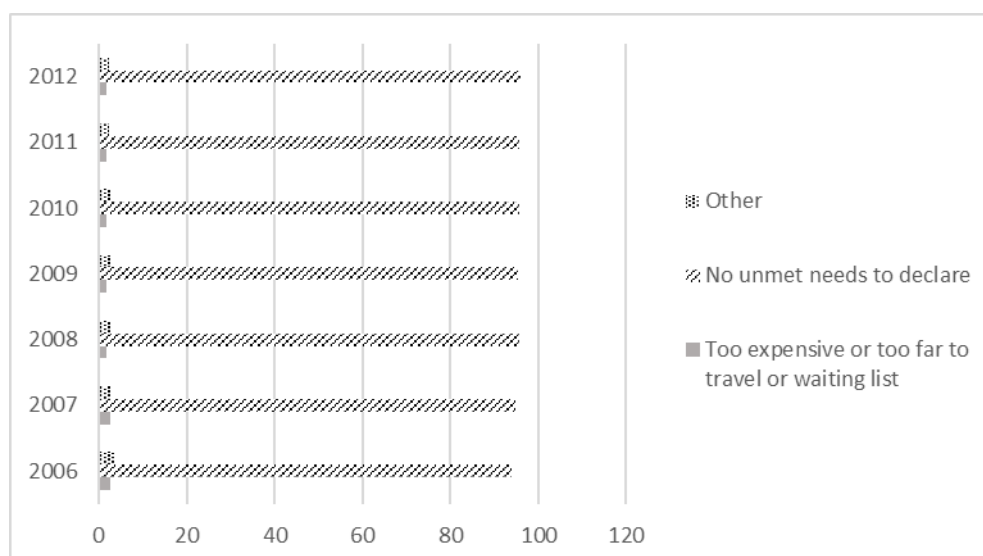
	Living with parents			Not living with parents		
	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male
2006						
2007	15.9(e)	16.6(e)	15.4(e)	21.9(e)	21.9(e)	21.7(e)
2008	16.2	16.7	15.7	22.2	22.8	21.4
2009	15.2	15.6	14.9	22.9	23.5	22.0
2010	15.5	15.9	15.1	23.6	24.3	22.6
2011	16.0	16.6	15.5	24.2	24.8	23.5
2012	16.9	17.8	16.2	25.4	25.8	24.8
2013	17.9	18.7	17.3	25.1	24.7	25.8
2014	18.1	18.5	17.7	24.4	24.5	24.2
2015	18.9	19.2	18.7	25.6	26	25.1

(e) – estimated

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

From 2006 until 2012, the young people aged between 16-29 years old with an income situation in relation to the risk of poverty threshold, have self-reported unmet needs for medical examination because were too expensive, were

too far from travel, they were on a waiting list or other reasons. However, in the same period more than 90 % of the young people had no unmet needs to declare.



**Fig. 14. Self-reported unmet needs of young people (16-29 years old) for medical examination for reasons of barriers of access (percentage)**

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

Young people's opportunities to participate in cultural and leisure activities increased. In 2006, Eurostat has estimated the young people's frequency of going to cinema, live performances, cultural sites or attending live sport events, so 31,1 % of the youths have been to cinema, 34,4 % have been to theatre and concert, 31,2 % have visited cultural sites (historical monuments, museums, art galleries or archaeological sites) and 22,4 % have participated in sports events.

In 2006, Eurostat has estimated participation rate of the young people aged between 16-29 years old in the EU-27 countries. Moreover, young people are getting together with relatives and friends, more frequently every week, with an estimated rate of 35.1 %, followed by several times a month, 12.9 %, every day with 17.6 %, at least once a year, 12.9 %, once a month, 12.7 % and never 1.8 %. Eurostat also estimated the frequency of contacts with relatives or friends, 39.3 % of the young people getting in contact with their relatives and friends every week, 22.6 % every day, 17.2 percent several times a month, 9.7 % once a month, 6.4 % at least once a year and 4.3 % never.

During the last decades, volunteering has become an opportunity for the young people to get involved in the community and to develop their professional and personal competences. Eurostat has estimated in 2016 that 31.7 % of the young people, aged between 16-29 years old, in the EU-27 countries, have participated in informal voluntary activities.

In the EU, more than 80% of persons aged from 16 to 74 used the internet in 2016. The persons used different devices to surf the internet, 70 % of individuals used mobile phones or smart phones, 64 % of individuals used laptops or netbooks, 54 % have used desktop computers and 44 % of the internet users used tablet computers to surf the internet [11, p. 1].

In EU-27, the daily frequency of internet access by the young people, aged between 16-29 years old, has raised from 86 % in 2011 to 95 % in 2016, calculated as percentage of individuals who used internet in the last 3 months. Although the frequency of the internet use grew, the frequency of computer used daily decreased from 86 % in 2011 to 85 % in 2015, percentage of individuals who used internet in the last 3 months. The use of smartphone can be a cause why the computer is not used daily by the young people.

The use of internet has increased and long with this increment, the individuals have formed digital skills. In 2013, only 4 % of the individuals have never used the internet or have not done any of the listed internet activities from the Table number 5, 94 % of individuals have used a search engine to find information and 18 % have created a Web page.

**Table 5. Individuals' level of internet skills (15-29 years old) in EU-27, 2013 (percentage of individuals)**

Individuals' level of internet skills	Percentage of individuals
Individuals who have used a search engine to find information	94
Individuals who have sent an email with attached files	87
Individuals who have posted messages to chat rooms, newsgroups or an online discussion forum	72
Individuals who have used the internet to make phone calls	53
Individuals who have used peer-to-peer file sharing for exchanging movies, music, etc.	31
Individuals who have created a Web page	18
Individuals who have not done any of the listed internet activities	1
Individuals who have carried out 1 or 2 of the 6 internet related activities	17

Table 5 (continued)

Individuals' level of internet skills	Percentage of individuals
Individuals who have carried out 3 or 4 of the 6 internet related activities	51
Individuals who have carried out 5 or 6 of the 6 internet related activities	27
Individuals who have uploaded text, games, images, films or music to websites (e.g. to websites for social networking)	59
Individuals who have modified the security settings of internet browsers	39
Individuals who have done at least one internet activity	96
Individuals who have never used the internet or have not done any of the listed internet activities	4

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

Over the years, the individuals changed their behaviour and changed their internet activities. Based on the data from the Eurostat database, compared to 2011, in 2016 the percentage of young people aged between 15-29 years old that are using internet for telephoning or video calls increased from 34 % to 50 % (Table 6). The percentage of young individuals that are using internet to find information about goods and services increased from 69 % in 2011 to

75 % in 2016. In 2016, a percentage of 51 % of the young people are using the internet banking and 42 % of individuals are using internet to search for accommodation services and travel. The interest of young people in selling goods or offering services on the internet in 2016 slightly decreased compared to 2011, where 20 % of the individuals were using internet with this purpose.

Table 6. Individuals – internet activities (15-29 years old) in EU-27 (percentage of individuals)

Year	Internet use: telephoning or video calls	Internet use: finding information about goods and services	Internet use: Internet banking	Internet use: travel and accommodation services	Internet use: selling goods or services
2011	34	69	40	44	21
2012	42	76	43	40	20
2013	41	71	47	43	24
2014	46	76	48	42	23
2015	45	71	49	43	22
2016	50	75	51	42	20

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

**Conclusions and discussions.** The youths' aspirations and needs have changed along with their social conditions. The EU is obviously making progress in improving the social policies addressed to young people, and new, innovative approaches are required to respond to the youths' needs in the fast-changing economic and political context of Europe.

Nevertheless, the government's implication to improve the social conditions, especially the youth employment rate, through social protection programmes, can change the attitude of youths regarding the desire to work, as we saw in the case of male early leavers' attitude regarding the desire to work or not; when compared to 2006, in 2016 there were more male early leavers who did not want to work, and fewer male early leavers who would have liked to work.

In the EU-27, the young population aged between 16-29 years old, decreased during 2006-2016. The youth employment for the same category, decreased also from 2008 to 2015 for all the ISCED 2011 levels. There are significant differences between the young female self-employed and young male self-employed in all ISCED 2011 levels. From 2006 until 2016, the part-time employment, as percentage of the total employment for young people in the EU27 – except the reporting country increased, and the main reasons were because they were following a form of education or training or because they could not find a full-time job.

From 2007 to 2013, the youth unemployment rate, for youths aged between 15-29 years old, in the EU-27 countries, except the reporting country, increased from 9.7 % to 19.2 %, and decreased until 2016 to 13.6 %.

The long-term employment affects more young men than young women. The level of education can help young people to adapt to labour market changes. Compared to 2006, in 2017 there are more young people who attend tertiary education but the early school leavers have a

negative impact on the insertion into the labour market of individuals. The participation rate in non-formal education and training of the young people, increased. Eurostat has estimated in 2016 that 31.7 % of them have participated in informal voluntary activities.

Youths from the EU-27 countries, aged between 15 and 29 years old, chose to leave their parents at the average age of 26, and over half of them are still living in the parental households. The at-risk-of-poverty rate is higher for those who are not living with the parents, than for those who do.

Young people's opportunities to participate in cultural and leisure activities have increased. They are getting together with relatives and friends more frequently every week, with an estimated rate of 35.1 %. The individuals' level of internet skills is registering high values.

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Г. Рімбу, асп.

Університет імені Лучіана Блага, Сібіу, Румунія,

Л. А. Константінеску, канд. екон. наук, доц.

Бухарестський Християнський університет "Дімітрі Кантемір", Бухарест, Румунія

### УДОСКОНАЛЕННЯ МОЛОДІЖНОЇ СОЦІАЛЬНОЇ СИТУАЦІЇ В ЄВРОПЕЙСЬКОМУ СОЮЗІ

Соціальна політика Європейського Союзу останніх років спрямована на покращення соціальних умов молоді у Європі. Метою даного дослідження є порівняльний аналіз характеристик молоді та їх соціальних умов у країнах ЄС-27 протягом 2006–2016 рр. Із використанням таких показників, пов'язаних із молоддю, як-то освіта й навчання молоді, рівень зайнятості та безробіття, здоров'я, соціальна інтеграція, культура і творчість, а також участь молоді в цифровому світі. Також розглядається вплив та ефективність соціальної політики ЄС у сучасних економічних умовах, яка намагається покращити соціальні умови молоді. Із цією метою було використано показники зайнятості й соціальних умов разом із показниками стратегії "Європа 2020".

Наш аналіз показує, що із часом змінюються прагнення та потреби молоді разом з їх соціальними умовами. ЄС, очевидно, робить прогрес у удосконаленні соціальної політики, адресованої молодим людям, але між країнами-членами все ще є помітні відмінності. Необхідні нові інноваційні підходи для реагування на потреби молоді в умовах швидкого мінливого економічного та політичного контексту в Європі.

**Ключові слова:** молодь, соціальна політика, соціальні умови, ЄС-27.

Г. Римбу, асп.

Університет имени Лучиана Блага, Сибиу, Румыния,

Л. А. Константиnescу, канд. экон. наук, доц.

"Димитрий Кантемир", Бухарестский Христианский университет, Бухарест, Румыния

### СОВЕРШЕНСТВОВАНИЕ МОЛОДЕЖНОЙ СОЦИАЛЬНОЙ СИТУАЦИИ В ЕВРОПЕЙСКОМ СОЮЗЕ

Социальная политика Европейского Союза последних лет направлена на улучшение социальных условий молодежи в Европе. Целью данного исследования является сравнительный анализ характеристик молодежи и их социальных условий в странах ЕС-27 в течение 2006-2016 гг. С использованием таких показателей, связанных с молодежью, как образование и обучение молодежи, уровень занятости и безработицы, здоровья, социальная интеграция, культура и творчество, а также участие молодежи в цифровом мире. Также рассматривается влияние и эффективность социальной политики ЕС в современных экономических условиях, которая пытается улучшить социальные условия молодежи. С этой целью были использованы показатели занятости и социальных условий вместе с показателями стратегии "Европа 2020". Наш анализ показывает, что со временем меняются стремления и потребности молодежи вместе с их социальными условиями. ЕС, очевидно, делает прогресс в совершенствовании социальной политики, адресованной молодым людям, но между странами-членами все еще заметные отличия. Необходимы новые инновационные подходы для реагирования на потребности молодежи в условиях быстрого меняющегося экономического и политического контекста в Европе.

**Ключевые слова:** молодежь, социальная политика, социальные условия, ЕС-27.

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L. Shynkaruk, Doctor of Sciences (Economics), Professor,

I. Baranovska, PhD in Economics,

L. Milman, Degree seekers

The National University of Life and Environmental Sciences of Ukraine, Kyiv, Ukraine

### KEY APPROACHES TO THE DOCTRINE OF LONG-TERM DEVELOPMENT OF UKRAINE

*The approaches to the doctrine of long-term development of Ukraine, considering realities of functioning national economy, are substantiated. It is proposed diversification of Ukraine's economy to realize by two directions: through the modernization of traditional sectors and infrastructure and active transition to knowledge-intensive non-raw sectors of production and services. Directions institutional reforms with orientation on rapid improvement of the business environment and attract investment are determined. The basic directions of industrial policy, framework conditions of stimulation industry restructuring and priorities for SME development in Ukraine are defined.*

**Key words:** long-term development of Ukraine; accelerated economic growth; diversification of economy; institutional reforms; priorities for SME development.

**Introduction.** At present, Ukraine are facing especially difficult consequences of non-systemic reforms, low technological development of national economy, political populism and legal nihilism, but she constantly postpones

the realization of the strategic objectives of the state. This generates new challenges for Ukraine in condition of changes system of global economic and political relations. At the same time, new opportunities for changing the

model of economic development of the country reveal for Ukraine. For transformation into highly organized country there is necessary to determine new strategic economic priorities and to create condition for sustainable development and expansion of opportunities for individual development, strengthening social solidarity and increasing public confidence.

The aim of long-term development should be to improve the quality of life and to expand human opportunities for forming their future. This requires economic growth on a qualitative basis, that answer to the question: "Which structural changes will lay the basis for economic development of Ukraine?" The impact of the existing economic structure on economic development, which essentially depends on the achieved level of development is unconditional, but equally the structure of institutions, their degree of maturity and quality of functioning is also important. Researches of many foreign and domestic scientists dedicated to the study of this impact. In recent years attention of scientists accented on research of: cyclicity development of national economic systems in conditions of globalization [7]; transformation processes in Ukraine in the context of the global financial crisis [4]; principally important political, economic and institutional sense problems on providing of sustainable economic growth in Ukraine [5]; factors of macroeconomic instability in the system of economic development models and evaluation of their impact on the economic dynamics of Ukraine under the modern unstable conditions of the global and domestic economy [10]; qualitative parameters of national macroeconomic system [8]; social problems of economic development [6] and others.

During the next 10 years Ukraine should implement economic reforms for increasing welfare of all its citizens, providing protection of their fundamental rights and freedoms, forming of powerful middle class. Therefore, in condition of global trends and the current realities of Ukraine's economy, research should be deepen and directed to determination of the ways of qualitative change for long-term economic growth.

The research objective is to substantiate approaches to the doctrine of long-term development of Ukraine taking into account modern realities of the functioning national economy and the need of it's diversification based on

stimulation of industry restructuring and institutional reforms with orientation on accelerated improvement of the business environment and attract investment.

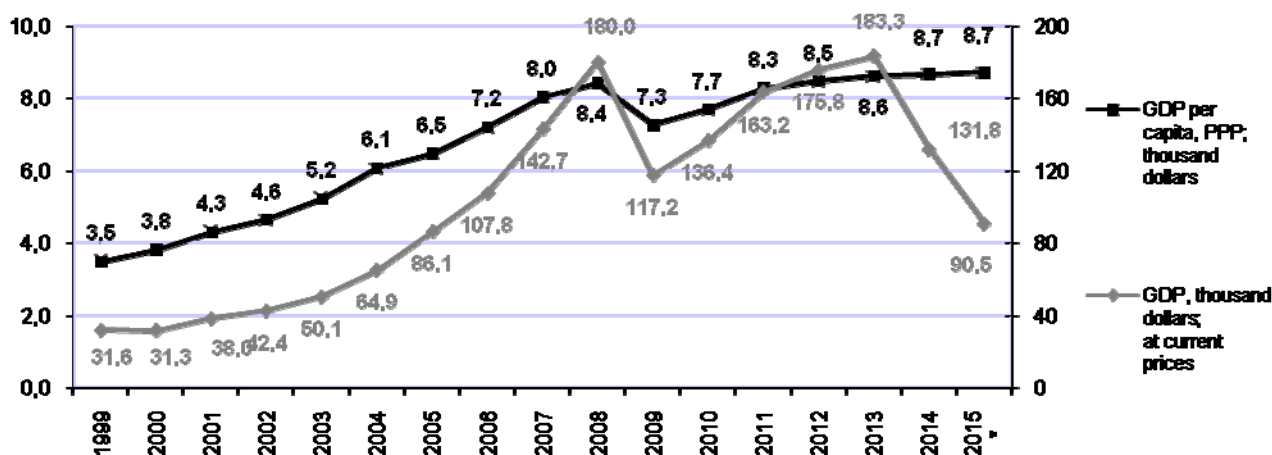
**Methodology.** The dynamics of macroeconomic indicators of Ukraine during 2000-2015 are determined by analysis statistical data. Results of forecast calculations, presented in the article, are based on simulation and input-output models. Logical analysis and system approach are applied for forming key approaches to the doctrine of the long-term development of Ukraine. Source base of study consists of scientific works of Ukrainian and foreign researchers, official documents of International Organizations, Databases of United Nations Industrial Development Organization UNIDO, International Energy Agency, National Bank of Ukraine State Statistics Service of Ukraine and etc.

**Results.** Growth of GDP was achieved by increasing of world prices of export raw materials (metals, grains, sunflower oil, nitrogen fertilizers) in 2003-2008. GDP grew on the average of 7%, international reserves increased from 0 to 38 billion dollars, quarterly budget revenues increased from 20 to 60 % [12]. Due to low investment technologies, the dominance of the banking system and trade rather than production, increasing imports rather than domestic production and a preference for current consumption, rather than investment in development, the global crisis has brought to Ukraine deficit of foreign credits and escape of domestic and foreign investors.

After positive changes in raw markets due to implementation anti-crisis programs of the US, Europe and Japan, growth has been restored in Ukraine during 2010-2011. Raw recession was recovering in 2012.

In 2014–2015 macroeconomic indicators in Ukraine have reached critical level:

- GDP of Ukraine decreased by 17 %. GDP decreased to 90.5 billion dollars in 2015 compare to 130 billion dollars in 2014 and 180 in 2013;
- GDP per capita was below 2000 dollars as in the poorest countries of Africa;
- real income of the population decreased on 35 %;
- total inflation rate increased to 79 %;
- hryvnia decreased to third of its dollar value;
- external debt reached to 130 % of GDP.



\* – calculated by the authors based on the data of International Monetary Fund

Fig. 1. Main macroeconomic indicators of Ukraine

Source: constructed by the authors based on the data of World Bank.

Thereby, at present, Ukraine reaps the consequences of meaningless "debt-dependent model" oriented on consumption – Ukraine became a "leader" among European countries not only in terms of the depth of economic decline but also in terms of building debts.

In 2015, the greatest banking crisis in Ukraine has resulted to output of the third of financial institutions from the market, 30 % of deposits in the national currency and more than 40 % of deposits in dollars were lost [11].

In addition, since 2012 there was a decreasing of Ukraine's foreign trade (Figure 2) [12], particular:

- recovering of raw recession in 2012 led the next lower prices for Ukrainian exports, in 2015 Ukraine lost a fifth of export earnings;
- exports and imports in 2016 amounted to 50% compared to 2013;
- in 2015 – exports to the EU decreased on 4 billion dollars to 13 billion dollars. Share export decreased in 24 of the 28 EU countries;
- in total exports share of Asian countries and EU grew and share of CIS countries reduced;
- top 10 export products are products with low added value.

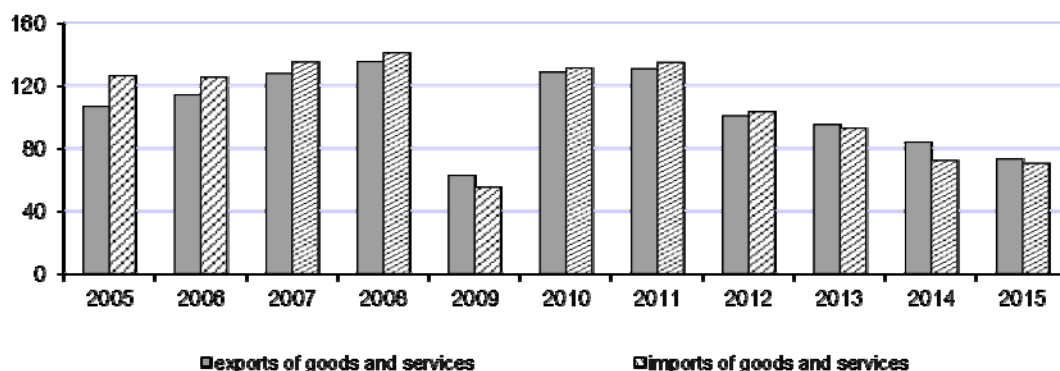


Fig. 2. Growth rates of exports and imports of Ukraine, % to previous year

Source: calculated by the authors based on the data of State Statistics Service of Ukraine.

In January-April 2016 negative balance was 880.7 million dollars (January-April 2015 – positive balance – 42.4 million dollars).

In 2015 share of exports goods of Donetsk and Lugansk regions in total Ukrainian exports decreased to 0.8 % from 4.9 % in 2013, share of imports – to 0.9 % from 2.4 % in 2013.

According to UNIDO value added of manufacturing per capita in Ukraine in 2012 was 387 dollars, which is 27 times less than in Switzerland, 23 – in Singapore, 20 – in Finland, 19 – Germany, 10 – in UK and Czech Republic, 4 – in Belarus (Figure 3).

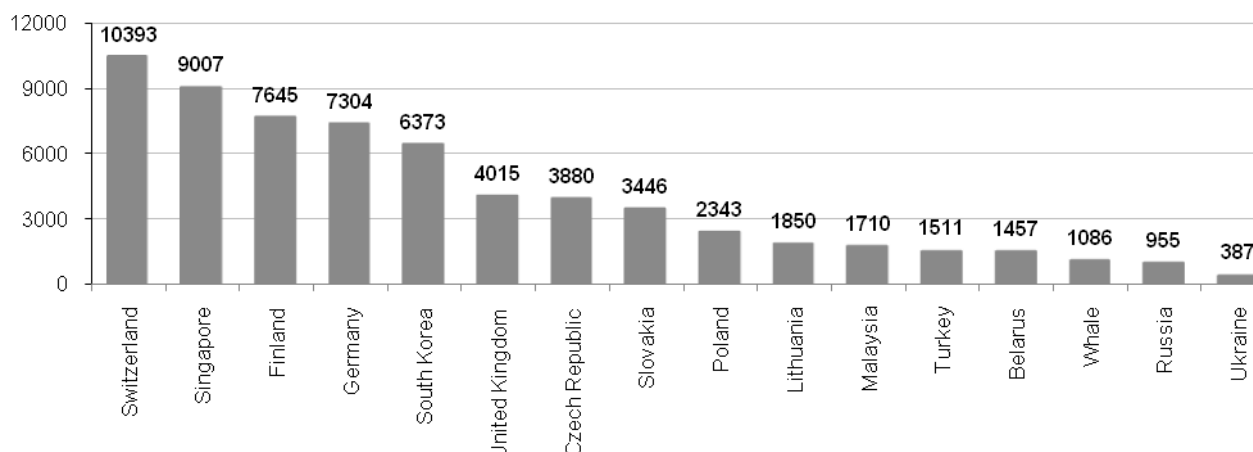


Fig. 3. Value added of manufacturing per capita in 2012, dollars (at constant 2005 prices)

Source: calculated by the authors based on the data of State Statistics Service of Ukraine and UNIDO Statistics Data Portal.

In our opinion, Ukrainian industry is inefficient due to the following factors:

- non-transparent investment and competitive environment, low level of infrastructure development;
- absence of complete value chain – from access to energy and raw materials to after-sale service and reusing of materials;

- high level of wear of fixed assets in industry (60 % at the end of 2014), which indicates limit in the future development of the sector and significant need for investment;
- low level of using energy-efficient, resource-saving and environmentally safe technologies. Despite decoupling, that occurs during the last decades in all countries, carbon



capacity of Ukraine's GDP in comparison with some countries stays very high.

However, Ukrainian industry has significant competitive advantages – it is equipped with many mineral resources (coal, iron ore, peat, shale gas, uranium), land resources, convenient geographical location and prospective consumer market.

Using level of modern information technology in Ukraine is low. According to studies of Ukrainian scientists 83.3 % of small enterprises have access to Internet and 29.2 % have web-sites, but only 36.2 % of staff in small enterprises use computers regularly (compared to 50% in Slovakia and 40% in Czech Republic and Lithuania) and 31.4 % regularly use Internet in their work (compared to 80-90 % in other Eastern European countries). Despite the fact that 99 % of large enterprises have access to Internet and 65.8 % have web-sites, only 27.1 % of staff use computers regularly (compared to almost 50 % in Slovakia and 40 % in Czech Republic, Hungary, Lithuania and Poland) and only 17.4 % regularly use Internet in their work (compared to almost 100 % in other countries of Eastern Europe) [1].

At present Ukraine is using debt funding for macroeconomic stabilization and activity of financial structures. While for development it is necessary to use internal sources of entrepreneurship and realization of innovations.

The starting conditions for the development and realization of national interests are changing of the Ukraine development vision according with international strategic programs, taking into account the current state of economy.

Primarily, it is necessary essential changes of the tax system to stimulate investment and realization of innovation, decentralization of public funding, and decrease of external debt level. Along with it, reforms should provide the development of sectors of the economy, which capable to produce goods with high value-added and access to most perspective external markets.

This will solve the problem of external debt, transforming it into a tool for stimulating development. It is require an open dialogue on the directions of strategic development policy between public authorities, leading business associations and civil society.

On the whole the problem of external debt of Ukraine is not the result of foreign economic policy, structural imbalances in the Ukrainian economy were formed earlier as a result of irrational ways of reforming.

Despite measures to improve the business climate, deregulation the economy, state enterprises management and supporting exports, in 2015 the pressure of fiscal authorities on business has led to a deterioration of the investment climate in Ukraine.

Expert community is increasingly indicating that in 2015 the economy stopped falling. Now, following tangible stabilization it is necessary to restore economic growth in order to go out of stagnation and encourage transition to accelerated economic growth.

World Bank forecasted growth of Ukraine's GDP in 2016 by 1 % and by 2 % in 2017 [14]. However, according to the State Statistics Service, GDP of Ukraine has increased by 2.3% already in 2016.

This level of GDP growth increases the gap with the leading countries, as the global economy is growing at a faster pace.

Ukraine has every opportunity to show bigger growth, minimum of 7 % per year [13]. The sources of this growth can be institutional reforms that will lead to legalization of the economy. Another source of growth can be inflow of investments and stimulating monetary and fiscal policies.

The main reason of low incomes and living conditions in Ukraine is the low productivity of production factors. This leads to a significant technological gap between the production structure in Ukraine and the EU. Opportunities for technological approximation of Ukraine to the EU countries can be created by a harmonization of business environment. However, such an approximation requires significant investments in Ukraine for the implementation of leading technological solutions and the providing of modern ways of doing business.

According to forecast calculations, which was based on simulation model similar to adaptation of Visegrad's economies after the signature of the Association Agreement with EU, it was determined that technological approximation of Ukrainian economy structure to the structure economies of EU's "old" members and changes in the structure of final use of GDP will determine changes in structure of GDP [9]. Major trends of such changes will appear in gradual increasing role of services and trade in forming of value added in economy. Share of mining in GDP will decrease from 3.6 to 1.4 % and manufacturing will decrease from 30.2 to 27.9 %. Shares of agriculture and transport and communication will stay relatively unchanged. If economic situation in Ukraine was not complicated because of military actions in the East of country and annexation of Crimea, Ukraine would achieved in 2027 increasing GDP per capita in 2 times (16.6 thousand dollars).

However, it is only possible to achieve effective quality change in the structure due to accelerated economic growth in Ukraine that should be based on the principles:

- smart growth: developing an economy based on knowledge and innovation;
- sustainable growth: promoting a more resource efficient, greener and more competitive economy;
- inclusive growth: fostering a high-employment economy delivering social and territorial cohesion, combating poverty.

Based on this, reforms must provide:

- rapid transition to high-tech, socially responsible model economy, that will generate high demand for professional staff and structural changes towards knowledge-intensive rather than capital-intensive industries;
- competition for investment due to the high quality of institutions, policy of leveling regional disparities, effective fiscal and monetary policies;
- integration into the world economy, basing on high competitiveness.

At present, only raising of the quality of state and market institutions can create opportunities for accelerated economic growth and economic development. Therefore, their reforming is a necessary and obligatory condition for the beginning of reforms in general. Accelerating the improvement of the investment climate and two levels of state support for investments is among the priorities of institutional reforms.

Institutional reforms of first level are:

- eradication of corruption to protect the business from abuse of power by public officials, and other government persons;
- providing the rule of law by reforming the legal and judicial systems;
- strengthening of macroeconomic stability for reducing of capital and operation expenses, which are a result of significant exchange rate fluctuations and prices;
- improving tax and customs regulations for reducing of the expenses of doing business;
- improving governance to ensure providing of public services by the most effective way and without corruption;

Institutional reforms of second level are:

- deregulation of business for making it possible of free activities to companies on a competitive market and significant reducing of the expenses of doing business;
- development of the financial sector country for facilitating to investment flows and growth;
- acceleration of international trade and free movement of capital to turn Ukraine into an international manufacturing center supplies to the West;
- reducing political risks and improving the image of the state.

Based on the fact that the goal of industrial policy – competitiveness: improving of business climate to support a strong and sustainable industrial base, which is able to compete in global conditions (Figure 4). In this context, diversification of production and exports, increasing of contribution of medium and high-tech sectors in GDP growth and public revenues, sustainable development of production base and productive employment in the regions of Ukraine are the main tasks of industry modernization with clear definition of objectives of horizontal and sectoral industrial policy.

Main framework conditions for stimulation of structural reconstruction industry are:

– setting of target sectors for state support (renewable energy; infrastructure; ICT; life sciences and pharmaceuticals; space and aviation industry; agri-food sector);

– cash grants and incentives (grants for creation of new jobs; reimbursement for the payment of social insurance contributions; professional training for adults. individual training for the unemployed; the grants, which is financed by the European funds);

– territories (zones) with special economic status (exemption from income tax and special supporting of local infrastructure; special conditions for business within special economic zones for investments, creation jobs, using of guaranteed tax benefits (exemption from income tax)).

To create a strong and competitive industry and to restore the growth of jobs, industrial policy should be aimed at:

– increasing of productivity in manufacturing industry and related services;

– promotion creation, growth and internationalization of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) that provide for 2/3 of employment in EU;

– development and active using of technologies, ICT and new skills in international competition with China, Brazil, India and other growing economies on the markets of high-tech products;

– ensuring leading positions during transition to low carbon and resource-efficient economy.

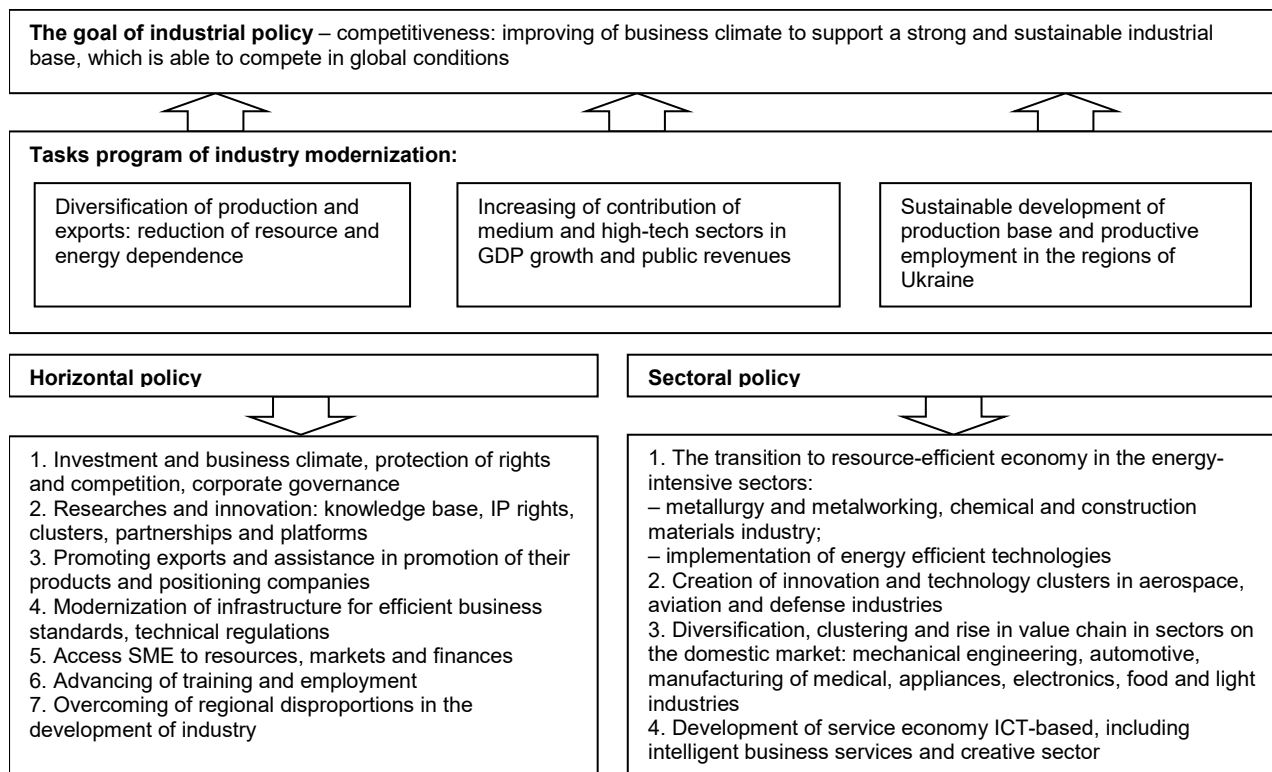


Fig. 4. Program of structural reconstruction industry

Source: constructed by the authors based on the materials of UNIDO and own researches.

The priorities SME development in Ukraine are:

– creating favorable conditions for doing business (Office effective regulation (deregulation, elimination of new barriers));

– creating of effective system of state support with a strict division of functions (Agency Development of Entrepreneurship + regional support centers);

– forming infrastructure of support business (Industrial parks for SMEs, business labs, clusters, Internet resource);

– programs of Support Entrepreneurship: professional consulting, system management quality; access to finance: Credit Guarantee Fund by program SURE; access to foreign markets by EU programs (COSME, EEN), pre-export crediting by export credit agency;

– development of green economy: National Strategy Waste Management, ecologization SMEs, stimulation of eco-innovation.



Reforms in the Ukrainian economy should carry out in two directions: modernization of traditional sectors (metallurgy, chemical industry, construction materials) and infrastructure on the basis of implementation of European resource-saving and environmental standards with adequate funding and staff training, and, thus, consolidating positions on existing ones and access to new promising markets, transition to high-tech industries and services.

Reduction of the ecological "footprint" required to maintain the ecosphere, can only be achieved due to "transformative innovations" in existing patterns of materials cycles, such as the transfer to advanced recycling management concepts or to carbon-neutral economic activities, involve a range of organizational and technical innovations and new ways of linking them [3]. Approaches from sustainability research should be an interdisciplinary, also they should include the results of the research of technical and social sciences in the context of changing development paradigm to an innovative direction.

In perspective non-raw and knowledge-intensive sectors (defense, aviation, space, pharmaceuticals, power engineering and transport manufacture, instrument engineering and manufacture of medical equipment):

- reliance on external sources of knowledge, training and using of European best practices, adaptation and technology transfer through partner search and inclusion into international value chains;
- creating of new perspective industries and related services by development and optimization of own research facilities, cooperation with leading countries, creating of innovation clusters. Increasing and strengthening of

potential knowledge-intensive sector will contribute to change of economic structure towards the high- and medium-tech products.

It should be noted that most of the cumulative new industry capacity for some technologies (in particular, steel, cement and technologies for less energy-intensive industries) will occur in non-OECD countries, which implies that these countries could possibly also take the lead in technological equipment. However, in the field of energy technologies it is necessary focus on: green technologies for energy-intensive industries, in particular iron/steel, cement, pulp and paper, aluminium and selected chemicals; green technologies for less energy-intensive industries, in particular cross-cutting industrial technologies such as electric motors and smart grid technologies for load management in industrial companies. In the field of climate change technologies it is necessary focus on: CCS technologies for the industrial sector; renewable energy sources for the manufacturing sector; specific technologies to reduce industrial gases such as PFs or SF6 [15].

The experts believe that nearly half the emission-reducing technologies 48 % to increase output, more than 20 % of all technologies contribute towards increasing capital and labour productivity, almost all technologies (95 %) improve resource productivity (in addition to energy conservation effects) [2].

While specific investments in energy efficient technologies are in general higher, they not only reduce energy consumption and costs, but at the same time also raise the quality of the technologies and tend to increase the productivity of capital, labour and other resources (Table 1).

**Table 1. Influence of energy efficient technologies on productivity**

Influence on productivity	Output	Capital	Labour	Other resources
<b>Sector-specific technologies</b>				
Increasing	54%	22%	24%	95%
Approx. the same	46%	73%	71%	5%
Decreasing	0%	5%	5%	0%
<b>Cross-cutting technologies</b>				
Increasing	35%	29%	12%	94%
Approx. the same	65%	65%	76%	6%
Decreasing	0%	6%	12%	0%
<b>Integrated technologies</b>				
Increasing	58%	28%	28%	95%
Approx. the same	43%	65%	70%	5%
Decreasing	0%	8%	3%	0%
<b>Add-on technologies</b>				
Increasing	28%	17%	6%	94%
Approx. the same	72%	83%	78%	6%
Decreasing	0%	0%	17%	0%
<b>Integrated sector-specific technologies</b>				
Increasing	63%	25%	31%	97%
Approx. the same	38%	69%	66%	3%
Decreasing	0%	6%	3%	0%

Source: [2].

Development economy of service is based on ICT, intellectual services and creative branches, strengthening relations with real sector enterprises will create a new high-tech economy. The state should stimulate production activities basing on the using of modern databases to provide increasing of productivity and growth GDP. Furthermore, implementation of the monitoring system for the implementation of state support is necessary.

Implementation of a cluster approach with a combination of leading activities, permanent training for

SMEs and realization of innovation, public-private partnerships can accelerate the transition from adoption technologies to an innovative model of economic development.

SMEs are capable to generate significant development potential due to the relatively rapid adaptation of new rules of market, to create jobs, to develop creative industries, which can't be mastered by large enterprises. Therefore, promoting the development of small and medium-sized businesses is a way to reduce unemployment and to increase volumes

production of new types products, and, consequently, an important part of accelerated economic growth.

Reforms will viable and result to fundamental changes of modern state of Ukrainian economy, if they have wide public support and understanding of society.

**Conclusion.** The national economy must be integrated into economies based on knowledge, building with a strong industrial base. The source of growth this base is increasing of productivity and competitiveness.

This model of development will attract most of population into modernization processes and ensure equal access to knowledge that is an important impulse for energizing people including socially excluded layers of society that would reduce the risks of structural unemployment and level of poverty. This would initiate entry into a new economy with the high levels of employment, productivity and social and territorial cohesion.

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Л. Шинкарук, д-р екон. наук, проф.,

І. Барановська, канд. екон. наук,

Л. Мільман, здобувач

Національний університет біоресурсів і природокористування України, Київ, Україна

#### ОСНОВНІ ПІДХОДИ

##### ДО ДОКТРИНИ ДОВГОСТРОКОВОГО РОЗВИТКУ УКРАЇНИ

*Обґрунтовано підходи до доктрини довгострокового розвитку України з урахуванням сучасних реалій функціонування національної економіки. Диверсифікацію економіки України запропоновано здійснювати двома напрямками: через модернізацію традиційних секторів та інфраструктури і активний перехід у наукоємні несилові сектори виробництва та сфери послуг. Визначено напрями інституційних реформ з орієнтацією на прискорене покращення умов ведення бізнесу й залучення інвестицій. Запропоновано основні напрями промислової політики. Сформульовано рамкові умови стимулювання структурної перебудови промисловості та пріоритети розвитку МСП в Україні.*

**Ключові слова:** довгостроковий розвиток України; прискорене економічне зростання; диверсифікація економіки; інституціональні реформи; пріоритети розвитку малого і середнього бізнесу.

Л. Шинкарук, д-р екон. наук, проф.,

І. Барановская, канд. экон. наук,

Л. Мильман, соискатель

Национальный университет биоресурсов и природопользования Украины, Киев, Украина

#### ОСНОВНЫЕ ПОДХОДЫ

##### К ДОКТРИНЕ ДОЛГОСРОЧНОГО РАЗВИТИЯ УКРАИНЫ

*Обоснованы подходы к доктрине долгосрочного развития Украины с учетом современных реалий функционирования национальной экономики. Диверсификацию экономики Украины предложено осуществлять по двум направлениям: путем модернизации традиционных секторов и инфраструктуры, а также активного перехода в наукоёмкие несырьевые сектора производства и сферы услуг. Определены направления институциональных реформ с ориентацией на ускоренное улучшение условий ведения бизнеса и привлечение инвестиций. Предложены основные направления промышленной политики, определены рамочные условия стимулирования структурной перестройки промышленности и приоритеты развития МСП в Украине.*

**Ключевые слова:** долгосрочное развитие Украины; ускоренный экономический рост; диверсификация экономики; институциональные реформы; приоритеты развития малого и среднего бизнеса.

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A. Starostina, Doctor of Sciences (Economics), Professor,  
M. Ustymenko, PhD in Economics, Assistant  
Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv, Kyiv, Ukraine

## ASSESSING PROSPECTS FOR INDUSTRIAL AGGLOMERATION DEVELOPMENT: CASE OF CENTRAL & EAST EUROPE COUNTRIES

*The paper systemizes existing studies devoted to agglomeration formation and functioning and exploring the peculiarities of agglomerations' development in CEE countries. The research is based on a comparison of indicators for industrial agglomeration development in 51 region of CEE countries. The assessing prospects for industrial agglomeration development were conducted using the following groups of indicators: localization level, availability of resources, the demand for the products of the agglomeration area. The study used methods of analysis and synthesis of scientific generalization, comparison, induction and deduction. Results of the research shows that an important feature for agglomeration development in Central and Eastern Europe were foreign investment resources in the region, which is associated with the emergence of clusters in these regions, although this investment was not the only determinant of success. The success of agglomeration origination with foreign investment was driven by the presence of industrial agglomerations in key areas and related supporting industries. It builds up a competitive advantage in the region and specialization in international supply chains, supply of resources (labor, production, logistical), unmet demand in the domestic markets of these countries. As the prerequisite of agglomeration development was availability of resources (natural; capital; technological). Primary lack of capital; technological resources was compensated because of the transfer of activities from abroad due to other competitive advantages of the regions. Availability of market opportunities and demand for agglomerations' products was an important aspect of determining the potential due to unsatisfied demand in national markets of the countries and proximity to customers in West European markets.*

**Key words:** agglomeration; localization; prerequisites of agglomeration development; Central and Eastern Europe countries.

**Introduction.** Main feature of the current stage of world economy development is establishment of a new model of its functioning based on the new stage of the science and technology revolution. Agglomeration forms of economic activity are considered ones of the most successfully in implementation of new technologies. The experience of Central and Eastern Europe (CEE), which in recent decades have made quality and systemic transformation of national economies, prove the effectiveness of such forms in achieving the highest outcomes of economic activity. However, agglomerations are very dynamic and changing. Some of them, disregarding previous success, ceased its functioning, other endured transformations.

This actualizes the need for assessing the development of such structures and determining their further prospects for growth. Exploiting the experience of CEE countries is extremely urgent for economic development of Ukraine due to the need to determine the prospects of Ukraine agglomerations development, exploring successful experiences and determining potential omissions in development strategies to avoid them.

For that reason, the **purpose** of the research is to systemize existing studies into the agglomeration formation and exploring the peculiarities of agglomerations' development in CEE countries.

**Literature review.** Theoretical aspects of the concept of agglomeration itself, its effects and advantages of functioning were discovered in the studies of M. Porter, B. Price, S. Kamath, E. Feser, M. Enright, M. Porter and others. The main principles of innovative structures formation based on practical experience explored in studies of P. Fischer, M. Feldman, Schumpeter and others. There are studies dedicated to the problem of agglomeration development in CEE countries conducted by such authors as: A. Kovalski, P. Zamborski, R. Rebelotti, as well as in the works of Ukrainian authors such as I. Bakushevych, Z. Varnaliy, M. Voinarenko, V. Novytskii.

These studies are devoted to the identification and evaluation of agglomerations. Porter offers a model that takes into account the following elements [1]: inputs, demand conditions, related and supporting industries, firm strategy and competition. notes that M. Porter's model may be incomplete interpretation of the identification and evaluation of agglomerations success; to overcome the limitations of the model he offers its own assessment of the

identification and evaluation of agglomerations formation prospects entitled GEMS (Global Economic Management System – GEMS). This model along with elements of M. Porter diamond offers such elements as [2]: business climate, the anchor effect, industrial networks, the concentration of firms, innovation potential, historical factors. J. Nimen notes that the cluster success of the operation of the effect following elements [3]: general economic conditions, established for this industry; the potential for the development of new productive capacity; availability of qualified experienced entrepreneurs; availability of investors willing to invest in new businesses. S. Sokolenko identified such prerequisites for agglomeration formation as [4]: the existence of competitive enterprises or those with potential opportunities for development; geographical proximity of enterprises, the existence of "critical mass" of companies or potential for its creation; and the links between potential participants of the clusters and the availability of competitive advantages "in general.

Thus, there are several approaches to determining the prerequisites of potential for agglomeration development. However, there are the need for further studies on evaluation stages of agglomerations development, their peculiarities and models of their formation in CEE countries.

**Methodology.** The research is based on a comparison of indicators for industrial agglomeration development in 51 region of CEE countries based on statistical data of Eurostat, observational data of European Cluster Observatory in CEE, and case studies of domestic and foreign experts, materials of World Bank, periodicals. The assessing prospects for industrial agglomeration development were conducted using the following groups of indicators: localization level, availability of resources, the demand for the products of the agglomeration area. The study used methods of analysis and synthesis of scientific generalization, comparison, induction and deduction.

For the purpose of the research, agglomeration is considered as territorial concentration of enterprises and other economic entities, belonging to one industry or related industries with developed system of economic relations between them. Assessment of agglomeration functioning can be divided into general economic conditions and specific microeconomic conditions that reflect the peculiarities of economic entities functioning and development within sectors and regions.

**Main findings.** Agglomerations development can be described using the following components: localization level (volume of employment in the sector and basic industries), availability of resources (volume of investment

resources, human resources, infrastructure, scientific and technical resources), the demand for the products of the agglomeration area (as the actual volume of demand), the level of interactions between the parties (Tab. 1).

**Table 1. Evaluation criteria of agglomeration potential in terms of international business environment**

Group	Criteria	Sufficiency level
Localization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>spatial proximity of enterprises;</li> <li>concentration of enterprises;</li> <li>specialization, complementarity of participants</li> </ul>	the existence of "critical mass" or possibility for its creation; the ability to create "anchor effect" for the formation and attraction of new businesses
Recourses	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>natural</li> <li>employment</li> <li>capital</li> <li>technology and know-how</li> <li>infrastructure</li> <li>intangible non-profit resources</li> </ul>	lack of natural resources can be compensated by international activity development; capital resources can be compensated in case of high yield planned activities; lack of material capital resources and infrastructure also can be compensated in the same case, but it needs time.
Demand	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>domestic demand conditions (volume and dynamics)</li> <li>external demand conditions</li> <li>companies opportunities to meet demand</li> </ul>	The demand conditions for end products with the opportunities to meet demand; or potential for creating demand

Source: developed by author.

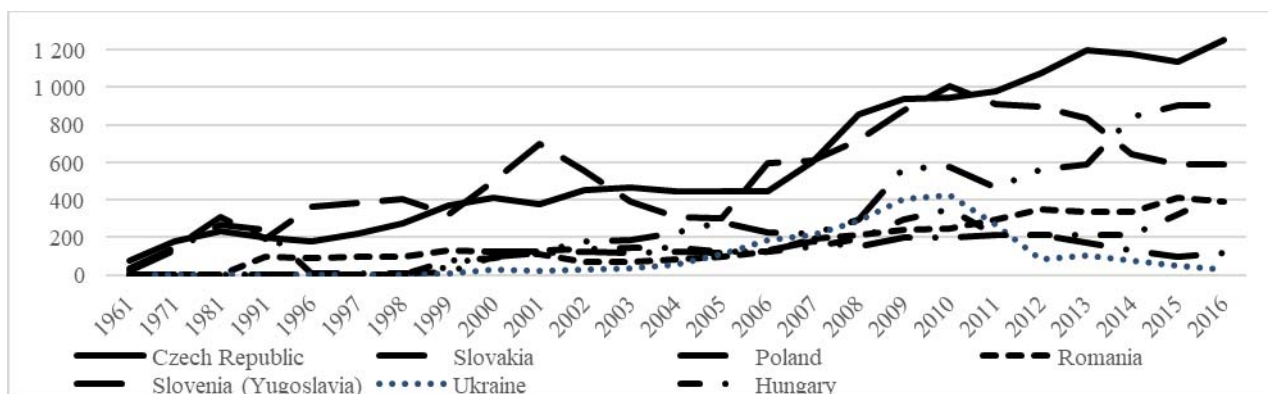
### 1. Localization of economic activity

Localization of economic activity can be characterized using the assessment of the following indicators: spatial concentration of enterprises, specialization and focus activities of participants, the presence of a balanced composition of participants in agglomeration. S.Sokolenko outlines geographic concentration of enterprises as the prerequisites for cluster development. When key participants are in high proximity to each other, it opens the opportunities to activate interaction and increase the number of contacts and relationships among them [4], which generally can be described as spatial proximity.

There is an interconnection between the industry stage and the geographical concentration, as the M. Menzel outlines [5]. For industries that are at maturity stage, an indicator of potential for cluster development is an existence of such a "critical mass", which designates a favorable base for entrepreneurship development in the

region. If the industry is at its maturity, and the concentration of businesses and individual initiatives are low, this designates low region or industry potential for clusterization. For industries at the beginning of the life cycle distinct spatial concentration is observed, except for some small agglomerations. Enterprises begin agglomerate as the industry starts growing.

The first stage motor origin agglomerations in CEE related to the opening of markets in these countries, but it has not led to an entirely new trend in the automotive industry, strengthening the market position of existing capacity, but which were in the stage of decline. Foreign Investment Projects in 1989 strengthened the three former industrial structures that were created in socialist times, the Czech Republic, Poland, Slovakia and led to their development, creating new round of that decade led to the formation of agglomerates.



**Fig. 1. Vehicle production in CEE countries, 1961-2014, units, in thousand**

Source: compiled by author based on [6], [7].

As shown in Fig. 1 production volumes in Romania were small, remaining stable from 1981 to 2002, but automotive sector upgrading caused attraction of foreign manufacturers to Romania, which next led to a new step in the industry development and contributed to the emergence of agglomerations.

Agglomeration, starting from a small number of companies, develops to a large scale, involving a large number of new businesses. Deployment of TNCs automotive production capacity in the CEE region just reflect such trends. The territory of these countries was quite attractive due to the proximity to Western European

countries, the availability of relatively cheap highly qualified labor force, own car industry and unsatisfied domestic demand, which was the impetus for the emergence of automobile agglomerations in these countries.

From a global perspective the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland is part of the Central European automotive agglomeration. Which originated in the Central Bohemia region by German manufacturers investments (since 1991 when Volkswagen gained control of Skoda Auto in Mlada Boleslav). Another foreign manufacturer, that successful entered the territory of Central Bohemia is an Toyota Peugeot Citroën Automobile (TPCA). The company

invested in the construction of car plant in Kolin, which from establishing production of small cars like the Toyota Aygo, Peugeot 107 and Citroen C1 in 2005, the annual capacity

of 300 ths. cars, later becoming one of the biggest exporters in the Czech Republic.

**Table 2. Activities leading automotive multinationals in the region Central and Eastern Europe**

	Region	Trade mark	Year	Results 2016		
				Production volume, in unit	% of the total world production	% of the total production of the EU
Czech Republic	CZ02 – Czech average	PSA	2002	130449	5,17%	8,19%
		TOYOTA	2002	72492	0,82%	15,41%
		VOLKSWAGEN	1991	655748	6,71%	13,93%
	CZ08 – Moravia-Silesia	HYUNDAI	2008	30745	0,40%	48,71%
Hungary	HU22 – Western Transdanubia	AUDI	1997	135232	1,38%	2,87%
		SUZUKI	1992	146365	5,76%	100,00%
	HU21 – Central Transdanubia	FIAT (Suzuki production facilities)	-	2182	0,11%	0,33%
		MERCEDES	2008	15029	0,83%	1,09%
Poland	PL22 – Silesian	FIAT (including Ford-K)	1992	259431	13,62%	39,56%
	PL41 – Wielkopolska	VOLKSWAGEN	1996	154272	1,58%	3,28%
Romania	RO31 – Northwest	DACIA	1999	338882	14,13%	30,40%
	RO41 – Southwest	FORD	2008	52829	1,64%	4,88%
Slovakia	SK01 – Bratislava Region	AUDI	1991	60990	0,62%	1,30%
	SK02 – West	PSA	2003	240019	9,52%	15,07%
		KIA	2004	32372	0,42%	51,29%
	SK03 – Central	VOLKSWAGEN	2000	26234	0,27%	0,56%
Slovenia	SI01 – Eastern Slovenia	RENAULT	1988	118533	4,94%	10,63%
		MERCEDES	-	11998	0,66%	0,87%

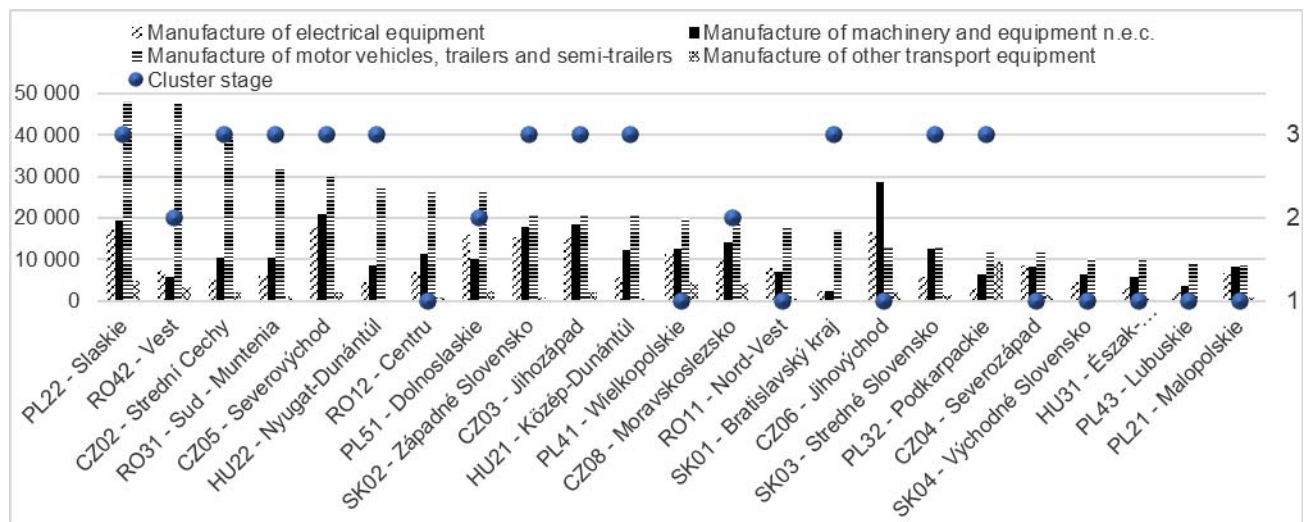
Source: compiled by author based on [6], [7].

Decision of Korean automobile manufacturer Hyundai to invest in the East region of the Czech Republic, increased automotive localization in Central and Eastern Europe and potential for neighboring region of Slovakia agglomeration development. Later the region attracts VW, Kia and Peugeot. Such an anchor effect can also be seen in the automotive industry in Poland, where the inflow of foreign direct investment to the automotive industry caused dynamic development of subcontractors, prompting other participants to enter the country and the deployment of its assembly plants there. These were Toyota, Isuzu, Volkswagen, MAN, Volvo, Michelin and General Motors [8]. Investments in the automotive industry (or reinvestment companies that already operate in Poland) stimulate the development of regular companies and creation of new jobs. There are many sub-suppliers in the automotive industry currently in Poland, and engines production becomes Polish specialty. Its production is concentrated around four agglomerations: Katowice, Wrocław, Poznań and Warsaw.

The emergence of anchor effect in Romania can be observed in the 2000s in the textiles, clothing and footwear industries, when many enterprises of this sector have

started outsourcing its clothing production. For example, cluster Montebelluna in Italy began to move their production facilities to Timisoara in the early 2000s due to the need to develop their own competitive advantages of Italian industry comparing with Chinese competitors. This formed the satellite agglomeration with high concentration of textile industry enterprises that has been developed only due to foreign investment.

We explore the relationship between the localization of business activity in some regions of these countries and the state of cluster development in them to assess the level of agglomerations in CEE. Because cluster can be considered as an advanced form of agglomeration with established economic ties between the parties. Not all regions where there is a presence of a large company's concentration have developed agglomerations. That is became obvious when studying the example of the automotive industry functioning in CEE region given in Fig. 2., which shows the number of employed in the automotive industry, other transport manufacturing and engineering in general and are compared with the state of clusters (Fig. 2).



**Fig. 2. The relationship between the level of employment in the CEE regions and the state of cluster development in 2016**

Source: compiled by author based on [6], [9].



Fig. 2 shows that relation between the amount of employment in the region and the presence of clusters is not always true. For example, the Western Romania region's auto industry employs more than 45 thousand persons has no developed cluster. Although there is cluster under formation in the Central region of Romania, where the level of employment in the industry consists of 25 thousand persons. Thus, the high volume of employment does not always mean cluster existence and does not necessarily lead to its appearance. The high level of employment indicators does not always characterize developed agglomeration.

## 2. Availability of resources.

Availability of natural resources, labor, capital, technology is considered the prerequisite for the development of business activity in the region and attraction of business entities in it. The Central and Eastern Europe region evidence the trend to agglomerate in the sectors of major specialization in the region. However, at the beginning of 1990, by the time of foreign companies' first entry into the region, such industries were not developed, and in fact were more in a stage of the resource base, potentially attractive for the formation of agglomerations. Such resource base was represented by the cheap labor force, natural resources, industrial infrastructure and the presence of specific knowledge, potentially attractive for the formation of industrial regions. For example, Romanian textile industry development started due to specific traditions and technologies in the region. It goes back at least to the 15th century when the first cloth guilds were created and the first textile factory were opened in 1867. But the crucial factor was the foreign direct investment of Italian companies to the regions with

textile industry specialization. Most of the clusters in Romania were developed in Arad, Timisoara and Bucharest areas. The success of the automotive industry cluster development, emerging as a part of international clusters from Western Europe, was also due to similar factors, especially to significant production infrastructure remained after soviet period [10].

Availability of technological resources, as a factor of agglomeration success, includes formal and implied technological resources. Formal technological resources can be evaluated in terms of patents and intellectual property rights, licensing statistics, expenditures on research and development. Implicit technological resources can be characterized as availability of specialized knowledge or traditions in the manufacture of certain products.

The availability of capital resources both in physical and monetary terms is an important prerequisite to for the agglomeration formation. Although their absence can be compensated by involving in international activities. However, as noted by Porter, a source of competitive advantage and thus a prerequisite for the clusters formation is not about the problem to access investment resources, but the ability of companies to use these investments in the most efficient manner [11]. The presence of physical capital is most important from the point of time. Modern production facilities and research laboratories, the availability of infrastructure: physical, logistics, innovation builds up a competitive advantage of a higher level, but require significant time and cost for their creation and development.

An important aspect of agglomerations development process of CEE region was attraction of FDI (Fig. 3).

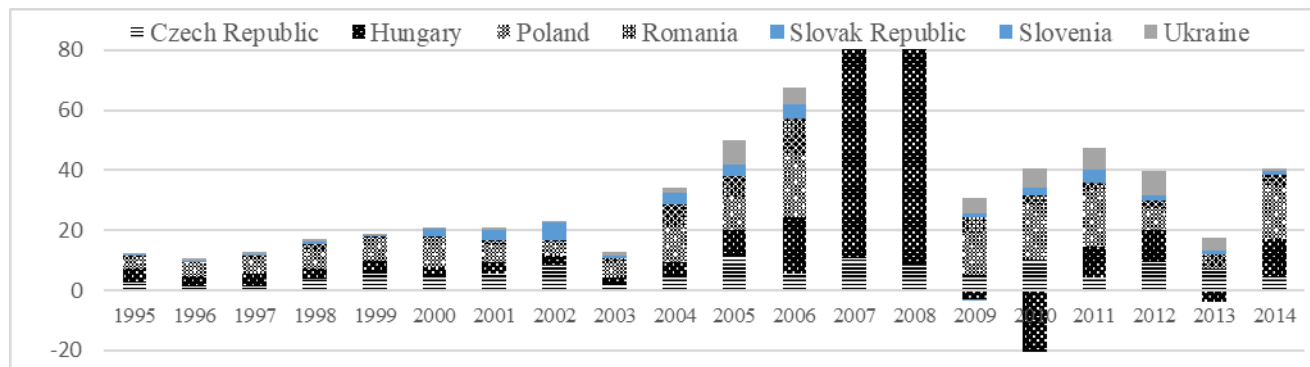


Fig. 3. Net FDI inflows in some CEE countries, 1995-2014, bln. USD

Source: compiled by author based on [13].

Assessment of human resources potential is usually focused on internal human resources in the region. Central European countries has highly skilled workers, engineers and managers. That makes possible not only to create complex industries in the region, but also conduct experimentation with new systems of production (as an example, the development of module production at Skoda) [3].

Natural resources, climate, geographical location, which are the main factors, and those which country receives as an inheritance or with small investments, are the most important in the extractive industries and in industries associated with agriculture. For the development of other sectors, such advantages are not particularly important.

## 3. A demand for products

The first critical factor for agglomeration development is the availability of market opportunities. Sometimes a market niche is already present, sometimes is potential,

attracting the interest of companies in these areas. If there is a sizeable market opportunity, then there are prospects for growth. An important aspect of determining the potential for agglomeration development is to determine the final product demand. Thus, it is necessary to separate domestic demand and demand in foreign markets.

Launching automotive clusters in CEE countries was due to the growing demand in the global market for automotive production, prompting companies from Western Europe to launch production in Eastern Europe to optimize production processes for sales in existing markets. An important role also played a domestic demand in the CEE countries. There was a shortage of passenger cars in 1990. And it was a good opportunity for automotive TNCs to enter these markets. So the leader on the Polish automotive market became the Italian "Fiat" (in 1996 Poles bought 109,000 cars of this group), in the Czech Republic

in terms of sales was leading the German "Volkswagen" and its sister group "Daewoo", in Romania – the South Korean company "Daewoo", in Slovenia – French "Reno" and Hungarian – Japanese "Suzuki". Moreover, the share of Russian "AvtoVAZ", which once held a prominent place in CEE, had less than 1 % of sales. Total sales in CEE in 1996 was about 900 thousand cars (in 1994 the figure was 461,483) [8; 9; 11]. In fact, the largest market share in sales was owned by the companies, which had the largest share in industry production in country. In addition, almost the same trend we can see nowadays (Table 2).

Changing of demand conditions for the final products affects the demand for companies' suppliers and the demand for products throughout the value chain. This

example shows Hungary. Since the early 90's there were many car assembly plants in neighboring countries in Eastern Europe – Slovakia, the Czech Republic and Romania. New markets development was very favorable for Hungarian suppliers. In 1992-2000, production of the automotive industry in Hungary has increased by 810%. This is almost 4 times more than average industry increase [12].

The relationship between the demand for final products and intermediate demand was characteristic not only of inter-firm linkages within the region of Central and Eastern Europe, but also in conjunction with major countries – partners in CEE countries (Germany, France, Italy), who placed production capacity in the CEE countries, but the final assembly and sales remained for them (Fig. 4).

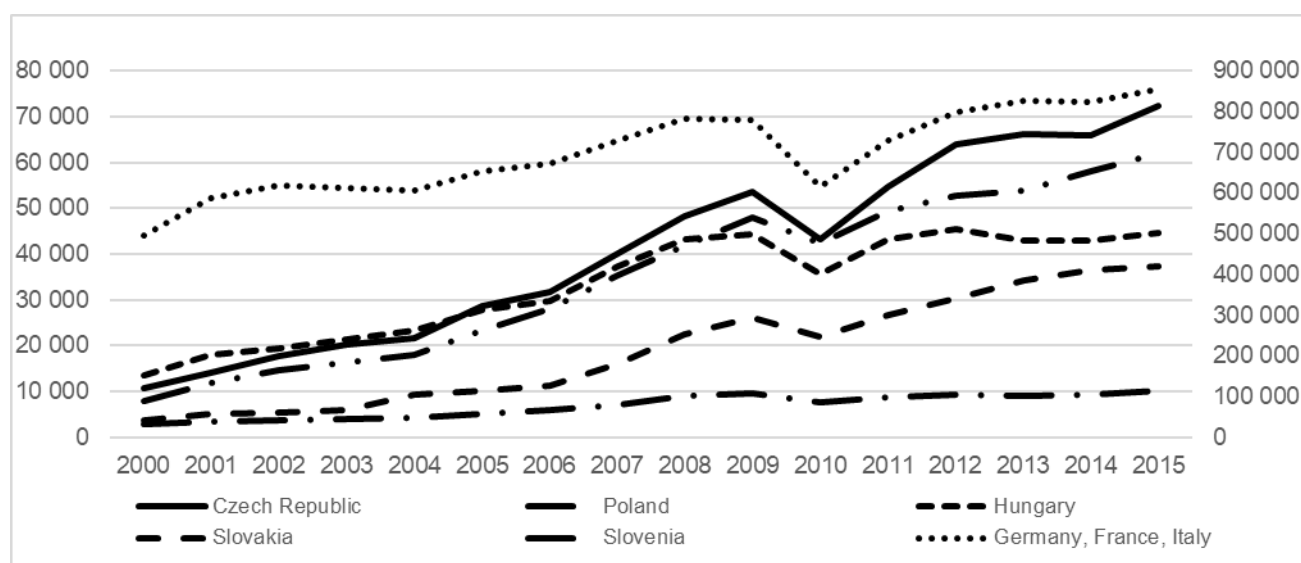


Fig. 4. Exports of automobile industry 1999-2014 year, mln. Euro

Source: compiled by author based on [13].

Fig. 4 shows that export dynamics of CEE is similar to the export dynamics of Germany, France, Italy, which is particularly evident in 2003, 2005, 2008-2010 and 2013 and there is some interconnections. These trends shows drop in CEE export of machinery parts and components due to decreasing need for such products by leading countries in certain periods and respectively the increase of automotive industry products of Germany, France and Italy caused increase in exports of CEE countries. That is why, in the most general terms, we can specify some connection between demand for final products for Western Europe countries and derived demand for CEE countries products.

#### Conclusions.

Results of the research shows that an important feature for agglomeration development in Central and Eastern Europe were foreign investment resources in the region, which is associated with the emergence of clusters in these regions, although this investment was not the only determinant of success. The success of agglomeration origination with foreign investment was driven by the presence of industrial agglomerations in key areas and related supporting industries. It builds up a competitive advantage in the region and specialization in international supply chains, supply of resources (labor, production, logistical), unmet demand in the domestic markets of these countries. As the prerequisite of agglomeration development was availability of resources (natural; capital; technological). Primary lack of capital; technological resources was compensated because of the transfer of

activities from abroad due to other competitive advantages of the regions. Availability of market opportunities and demand for agglomerations' products was an important aspect of determining the potential due to unsatisfied demand in national markets of the countries and proximity to customers in West European markets.

**Discussion.** Further studies should be devoted for modeling and estimation of cluster growth types in CEE region and ascertainment the economic interest of agglomeration participants' and mechanisms of their conciliation in the context of agglomeration growth strategies. The issue of innovation activity growth peculiarities and mechanisms of implementation of CEE regions agglomeration best development practice for Ukraine also should be further explored.

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А. Старостіна, д-р екон. наук, проф.,  
М. Устименко, канд. екон. наук, асист.  
Київський національний університет імені Тараса Шевченка, Київ, Україна

### ОЦІНЮВАННЯ ПЕРСПЕКТИВ РОЗВИТКУ ПРОМИСЛОВИХ АГЛОМЕРАЦІЙ: КРАЇНИ ЦЕНТРАЛЬНОЇ ТА СХІДНОЇ ЄВРОПИ

Розкриваються особливості розвитку агломерацій у країнах ЦСЄ. Дослідження базується на порівнянні показників розвитку промислової агломерації в 51 регіоні країн ЦСЄ. Перспективи оцінки розвитку промислової агломерації були проведені з використанням таких груп показників: рівень локалізації, наявність ресурсів, попит на продукти зони агломерації. У дослідженні використано методи аналізу та синтезу наукового узагальнення, порівняння, індукції й дедукції. Результати дослідження показують, що важливою особливістю розвитку агломерації в Центральній та Східній Європі було залучення іноземного інвестиційного ресурсу в регіони, що пов'язано з появою кластерів у цих регіонах, хоча ця інвестиція не була єдиним визначальним фактором успіху. Успіх виникнення агломерації з іноземними інвестиціями зумовлювався наявністю промислових агломерацій у ключових галузях і суміжних галузях підтримки. Це створює конкурентну перевагу в регіоні та спеціалізацію в міжнародних ланцюжках постачання, постачання ресурсів (робочої сили, виробництва, матеріально-технічного забезпечення), незадоволеного попиту на внутрішніх ринках цих країн. Оскільки передумовою розвитку агломерації було наявність ресурсів (природних, капітальних, технологічних). Первинний брак капіталу; Технологічні ресурси були компенсовані в результаті передачі діяльності з-за кордону через інші конкурентні переваги регіонів. Наявність ринкових можливостей та попиту на продукцію агломерації є важливим аспектом визначення потенціалу через невдоволений попит на національних ринках країн і близькість до споживачів на ринках Західної Європи.

Ключові слова: агломерація; локалізація; передумови розвитку агломерації; країни Центральної та Східної Європи.

А. Старостина, д-р екон. наук, проф.,  
М. Устименко, канд. екон. наук, ассист.  
Киевский национальный университет имени Тараса Шевченко, Киев, Украина

### ОЦЕНКА ПЕРСПЕКТИВЫ РАЗВИТИЯ ПРОМЫШЛЕННЫХ АГЛОМЕРАЦИЙ: СТРАНЫ ЦЕНТРАЛЬНОЙ И ВОСТОЧНОЙ ЕВРОПЫ

Раскрываются особенности развития агломераций в странах ЦВЕ. Исследование базируется на сравнении показателей развития промышленной агломерации в 51 регионе стран ЦВЕ. Оценки перспектив развития промышленной агломерации были проведены с использованием таких групп показателей: уровень локализации, наличие ресурсов, спрос на продукты зоны агломерации. В исследовании использованы методы анализа и синтеза, научного обобщения, сравнения, индукции и дедукции. Результаты исследования показывают, что важной особенностью развития агломерации в Центральной и Восточной Европе было привлечение иностранного инвестиционного ресурса в регионы, что связано с появлением кластеров в этих регионах, хотя инвестиции не являются единственным определяющим фактором успеха. Успех возникновения агломерации с иностранными инвестициями обуславливалось наличием промышленных агломераций в ключевых отраслях и смежных поддерживающих отраслях. Это создает конкурентное преимущество в регионе и специализацию в международных цепочках поставок (поставок ресурсов, рабочей силы, производства, материально-технического обеспечения), неудовлетворенного спроса на внутренних рынках этих стран. Поскольку предпосылкой развития агломерации было наличие ресурсов (природных, капитальных, технологических). Первичный недостаток капитала и технологические ресурсы были компенсированы в результате перенесения деятельности из-за рубежа благодаря другим конкурентным преимуществам регионов. Наличие рыночных возможностей и спроса на продукцию агломераций являлось важным аспектом определения потенциала через неудовлетворенный спрос на национальных рынках этих стран и географическую близость к потребителям на рынках Западной Европы.

Ключевые слова: агломерация; локализация; предпосылки развития агломерации; страны Центральной и Восточной Европы.



**РЕЦЕНЗІЯ**  
**на монографію**  
**"ДОКТРИНА ЗБАЛАНСОВАНОГО РОЗВИТКУ "УКРАЇНА – 2030""**

*Авторський колектив:* Жилінська О. (наук. ред.),  
Мельничук О. (відп. ред.), Антонюк Л., Гуменна О.,  
Радчук А., Столярчук Я., Тарута С., Харламова Г., Чала Н., Шнирков О.

Актуальність представленої для публічного обговорення Доктрини обумовлена тим, що на сьогодні в Україні відсутній цілісний, загальнодержавного рівня документ, який визначав би стратегічні цілі та пріоритети національного розвитку держави з урахуванням, з одного боку, національних ресурсів та інтересів, а із другого, – глобальних трендів і викликів. Тож саме рецензована Доктрина не тільки компенсує дану методологічну прогалину, але й на новій теоретичній парадигмі, ядром якої є Людиноцентризм, формулює стратегічні й тактичні завдання економічного розвитку України та механізми їх досягнення.

Детальне ознайомлення зі змістом і структурою Доктрини збалансованого розвитку "Україна-2030" дає підстави дійти висновку про її якісні відмінності в теоретичному і практичному вимірах порівняно з іншими такими документами.

До них належать:

1. Системний, комплексний характер критичної оцінки діючої моделі економічного розвитку України з чітким виокремленням сильних і слабких сторін національної економіки та визначенням стратегічних цілей виходу держави на принципово нову траєкторію економічного зростання до 2030 р.

2. Глибока і достатньо аргументована наукова обґрунтованість усіх концептуальних положень, тез, висновків і прогностичних очікувань, які представлені в даному документі, що є свідченням ефективного творчого партнерства представників бізнесу, політикуму та наукової спільноти. Фактологічний і статистичний матеріал є достовірним, об'єктивним, ілюструючи провідні тенденції світового й національного економічного розвитку.

3. Опрацьований значний перелік Програм і досліджень провідних міжнародних організацій та інституцій, вітчизняних державних і наукових центрів та структур. Ці дослідження стосуються стратегічних цілей і трансформаційних процесів, що відбуваються у світі й Україні. Це надає Доктрині ще більшої переконливості, суспільної привабливості та мобілізуючого духу.

4. Сформульована економічна парадигма глобального поступу в ХХІ ст., яка спонукає національні держави та їх економіки до інтеграції, взаємодії й конвергенції, при цьому ранжування країн за відповідною системою критеріїв зберігатиметься як об'єктивна реальність, що обумовлена законом асиметричного розвитку суспільств.

5. Доктрина органічно поєднує в собі політичні, економічні, соціальні й екологічні компоненти суспільного розвитку, чітко визначає європейські та міжнародні координати національного розвитку в контексті глобальних мегатрендів, що є цілком закономірним, умотивованим, логічним і сучасним форматом такого документа.

6. Найвагомішою складовою Доктрини є формулювання конкретних механізмів (8) реалізації політики збалансованого розвитку, які мають виважений характер, базуються на бенчмаркінгу різних країн із урахуванням глобальних ризиків і прогностичних розрахунків на основі Форсайту.

7. Особливо конструктивним є механізм щодо структурної модернізації економіки за мережевим принципом. Необхідність інтегрування вітчизняних компаній у глобальні ланцюги доданої вартості зумовлена конкурентними перевагами цих інвестиційних та виробничих форм кооперації. Такими мережевими формами співробітництва, що зумовлюють швидкі структурні зрушення на мезо- та макrorівнях є функціонування конкурентних кластерів. У цьому механізмі передбачено конкретні ініціативи, що забезпечать розвиток вітчизняних секторів економіки через кластерні мережі та зростання виробництва високотехнологічних товарів та послуг.

8. Одним із важливих механізмів, який розкривається в Доктрині, є розвиток креативних секторів економіки, стимулювання розвитку творчості та її ефективна комерціалізація. В основі реалізації цієї політики є інтелектуальний потенціал українського суспільства з його розвиненим соціальним і людським капіталом.

9. Заслугує на всіляке схвалення ідея щодо необхідності укладення нового Суспільного договору з метою досягнення суспільної стабільності та консолідації різних верств населення з чітким визначенням відповідальності влади, бізнесу та громадян. Тільки за таких умов можна сподіватися на очікуваний результат – сильне, стійке, збалансоване і всеосяжне зростання.

10. Основні положення Доктрини мають бути у подальшому конкретизовані й розвинені у відповідних Програмах і Дорожніх картах галузево-секторального й регіонального розвитку України.

**Рецензент**

Директор Інституту бізнес-освіти,  
завідувач кафедри міжнародної економіки  
ДВНЗ "Київський національний економічний університет  
імені Вадима Гетьмана",  
засл. діяч науки і техніки України,  
д-р екон. наук, проф.

А. М. Поручник

## EXTENDED ABSTRACT IN ENGLISH AND REFERENCES (IN LATIN): TRANSLATION / TRANSLITERATION / TRANSCRIPTION

V. Kolosha, PhD in Economics, Assistant,  
O. Borysenko, PhD in Philology, Associate Professor  
Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv, Kyiv, Ukraine  
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.17721/1728-2667.2017/195-6/1>  
p. 6-11

### INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY RIGHTS AND COMPETITION POLICY

*The article reveals special features of interrelation between intellectual property law and competition policy. The author proves that IPR can create significant entry barriers and restrict competition on goods and services markets. Recommendations towards harmonization of intellectual property law and competition policy in transition economies are given.*

**Key words:** intellectual property rights; competition; entry barriers; competition policy.

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O. Krupskyi, PhD in Psychology, Associate Professor,  
V. Redko, PhD in Economics, Associate Professor  
Oles Honchar Dnipro National University, Dnipro, Ukraine  
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.17721/1728-2667.2017/195-6/2>  
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### THE INFLUENCE OF THE EMPLOYEE' COGNITIVE WORKING STYLE ON THE EMOTIONAL LABOR OUTCOMES IN TOURISM FIRMS

*The purpose of the article is determination of influence of workers cognitive style of on the results of emotional labour of enterprises of tourist industry personnel as a component of their efficiency.*

*Analysing, systematizing and summarizing scientific works of foreign scientists, it was discovered, that emotional labour should be regarded as a process that is characterized by the elements and strategies. A concept "Emotional labour" is formulated taking into account features and modern approaches to management of personnel in tourism business. It was suggested 16 components of emotional labour on tourism and hospitality enterprises, that are interconnected and depend on the psychological type of worker's personality, that in its turn creates the degree of personnel stability to different factors of emotional influence depending on job title. The features of cognitive style of personnel behavior of tourism and hospitality enterprises were determined on the basis of cross-correlation analysis between components of emotional labour. It is grounded*

*that difficulties of emotional labour in a tourism area reflect in emotional strategy chosen by personnel, and require from the top-manager the permanent surveillance and reaction on behavior changes, reactions and implementation of position requirements by each employee.*

*The correlation analysis of factors of influence on personnel emotional labour of tourism and hospitality enterprises (emotional strategies, psychological types of employees, economic and psychological consequences) allowed to reveal cognitive features of personnel behavior on the different hierarchical levels of management.*

*Perspectives of further research in this direction we regard features of management of emotional labour of tourism enterprises personnel to form the effective client oriented organizational culture.*

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I. Moyseyenko, Doctor of Sciences (Economics), Professor  
Lviv State University of Internal Affairs, Lviv, Ukraine,  
L. Halkiv, Doctor of Sciences (Economics), Professor  
National University "Lviv Polytechnic", Lviv, Ukraine,  
M. Demchyshyn, PhD in Economics, Associate Professor  
Lviv University of Trade and Economics, Lviv, Ukraine  
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.17721/1728-2667.2017/195-6/3>  
p. 18-24

## ANALYSIS OF TAX BURDEN PARAMETERS OF UKRAINE'S ECONOMY

*The need to solve the problems of macro-economic stabilization of the country's economy on the basis of determining the tax system efficiency led to the actuality and importance of developing methodological issues of macro-economic tax regulation. In terms of macro-financial stability for the purpose of strategic analysis, the macroeconomic category of tax burden and its fiscal efficiency in terms of direct and indirect taxation is considered.*

*Tax burden indicators at a macro-level quantitatively measure the total level of tax payment and pumping up the budget. Based on the analysis of tax burden it is found that in Ukraine the major fiscal function is performed by consumption taxes (indirect taxes).*

*The methodological principles of the diagnostics of tax burden influence on macro-indices of economic stabilization are as follows: selecting parameters of monitoring tax burden state and fiscal burden efficiency; the assessment of an impact on fiscal efficiency on macro-indices. To prognosticate the efficiency of fiscal burden performance in terms of indirect taxes linear and exponential trend equations are calculated. In terms of the analysis of macro-financial stability the usage of tax rates of indirect taxes as indicators of fiscal efficiency provides sufficient reasons for the conclusions regarding long-term trends of pumping the budget.*

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G. Rîmbu, PhD student  
'Lucian Blaga' University of Sibiu, Sibiu, Romania,  
L. A. Constantinescu, PhD, Associate Professor  
'Dimitrie Cantemir' Christian University of Bucharest, Bucharest, Romania  
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.17721/1728-2667.2017/195-6/4>  
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## IMPROVING YOUTHS' SOCIAL SITUATION IN THE EUROPEAN UNION

*The European Union's social policies of the last years aimed at improving the social conditions of youths across Europe. The goal of this paper is to comparatively analyse the characteristics of youths and their social conditions in the EU-27, during 2006-2016, using the following indicators associated to the young population: youth education and training, employment and unemployment rates, health, social inclusion, culture and creativity, participation and youth in the digital world. The paper also reviews the impact and efficiency of the EU's social policies in the current economic background, trying to catch the improvements in young people's social conditions. For this purpose, there were used Employment and Social Conditions Indicators and "Europe 2020" Strategy Indicators.*

*Our analysis reveals that over time the youths' aspirations and needs have changed along with their social conditions. The EU is obviously making progress in improving the social policies addressed to young people, but there are still visible differences between the member states and new, innovative approaches are required to respond to youths' needs in the fast-changing economic and political context of Europe.*

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L. Shynkaruk, Doctor of Sciences (Economics), Professor,  
I. Baranovska, PhD in Economics,  
L. Milman, Degree seekers,  
The National University of Life and Environmental Sciences of Ukraine, Kyiv, Ukraine  
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.17721/1728-2667.2017/195-6/5>  
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## KEY APPROACHES TO THE DOCTRINE OF LONG-TERM DEVELOPMENT OF UKRAINE

*The approaches to the doctrine of long-term development of Ukraine, considering realities of functioning national economy, are substantiated. It is proposed diversification of Ukraine's economy to realize by two directions: through the modernization of traditional sectors and infrastructure and active transition to knowledge-intensive non-raw sectors of production and services. Directions institutional reforms with orientation on rapid improvement of the business environment and attract investment are determined. The basic directions of industrial policy, framework conditions of stimulation industry restructuring and priorities for SME development in Ukraine are defined.*

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A. Starostina, Doctor of Sciences (Economics), Professor,  
M. Ustymenko, PhD in Economics, Assistant  
Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv, Kyiv, Ukraine  
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.17721/1728-2667.2017/195-6/6>  
p. 43-48

## ASSESSING PROSPECTS FOR INDUSTRIAL AGGLOMERATION DEVELOPMENT: CASE OF CENTRAL & EAST EUROPE COUNTRIES

*The purpose of the paper is to systemize existing studies into the agglomeration formation and functioning and exploring the peculiarities of agglomerations' development in CEE countries. The research is based on a comparison of indicators for industrial agglomeration development in 51 region of CEE countries. The assessing prospects for industrial agglomeration development were conducted using the following groups of indicators: localization level, availability of resources, the demand for the products of the agglomeration area. The study used methods of analysis and synthesis of scientific generalization, comparison, induction and deduction. Results of the research shows that an important feature for agglomeration development in Central and Eastern Europe were foreign investment resources in the region, which is associated with the emergence of clusters in these regions, although this investment was not the only determinant of success. The success of agglomeration origination with foreign investment was driven by the presence of industrial agglomerations in key areas and related supporting industries. It builds up a competitive advantage in the region and specialization in international supply chains, supply of resources (labor, production, logistical), unmet demand in the domestic markets of these countries. As the prerequisite of agglomeration development was availability of resources (natural; capital; technological). Primary lack of capital; technological resources was compensated as a result of the transfer of activities from abroad due to other competitive advantages of the regions. Availability of market opportunities and demand for agglomerations' products was an important aspect of determining the potential due to unsatisfied demand in national markets of the countries and proximity to customers in West European markets.*

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**INFORMATION ABOUT AUTHORS (META-DATA)**

**Колоша Василина Василівна** – кандидат економічних наук, асистент, кафедра економічної теорії, макро- і мікроекономіки, Київський національний університет імені Тараса Шевченка, Київ, Україна.

**Контактна інформація:** 097-600-88-62, fvasilina@gmail.com.

**Борисенко Олександра Анатоліївна** – кандидат філологічних наук, доцент, кафедра іноземних мов, Київський національний університет імені Тараса Шевченка, Київ, Україна.

**Контактна інформація:** 067-756-95-49, o.borysenkotsu@gmail.com.

**Колоша Василина Васильевна** – кандидат экономических наук, ассистент, кафедра экономической теории, макро- и микроэкономики, Киевский национальный университет имени Тараса Шевченко, Киев, Украина.

**Борисенко Александра Анатольевна** – кандидат филологических наук, доцент, кафедра иностранных языков, Киевский национальный университет имени Тараса Шевченко, Киев, Украина.

**Kolosha Vasylyna** – PhD in Economics, Assistant, Department of Economic Theory, Macro- And Microeconomics, Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv, Kyiv, Ukraine.

**Borysenko Oleksandra** – PhD in Philology, Associate Professor, Foreign Languages Department, Faculty of Economics, Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv, Kyiv, Ukraine.

**Крупський Олександр Петрович** – кандидат психологічних наук, доцент, кафедра менеджменту та туристичного бізнесу, Дніпровський національний університет імені Олеся Гончара, Дніпро, Україна.

**Контактна інформація:** 067-564-85-58, krupsky71@gmail.com.

**Редько Вікторія Євгенівна** – кандидат економічних наук, доцент, кафедра менеджменту та туристичного бізнесу, Дніпровський національний університет імені Олеся Гончара, Дніпро, Україна.

**Контактна інформація:** 050-632-00-73, v1karedko@ukr.net.

**Крупский Александр Петрович** – кандидат психологических наук, доцент, кафедра менеджмента и туристического бизнеса, Днепровский национальный университет имени Олеся Гончара, Днепр, Украина.

**Редько Виктория Евгеньевна** – кандидат экономических наук, доцент, кафедра менеджмента и туристического бизнеса, Днепровский национальный университет имени Олеся Гончара, Днепр, Украина.

**Krupskiyi Oleksandr** – PhD in Psychology, Associate Professor, Department of Management and Tourism, Oles Honchar Dnipro National University, Dnipro, Ukraine.

**Redko Viktoriia** – Phd in Economics, Associate Professor, Department of Management and Tourism, Oles Honchar, Dnipro National University, Dnipro, Ukraine.

**Мойсеєнко Ірина Павлівна** – доктор економічних наук, професор, кафедра фінансів та обліку, Львівський державний університет внутрішніх справ, Львів, Україна.

**Контактна інформація:** 032-238-11-25, (097)332-16-62, iruna\_m2015@ukr.net.

**Гальків Любов Іванівна** – доктор економічних наук, професор, кафедра менеджменту та організацій, Національний університет "Львівська політехніка", Львів, Україна.

**Контактна інформація:** (067)794-02-94, lubakram@gmail.com.

**Демчишин Марія Ярославівна** – кандидат економічних наук, доцент, кафедра вищої математики та кількісних методів, Львівський торговельно-економічний університет, Львів, Україна.

**Контактна інформація:** (067)427-01-61, mariya.demchyshyn@gmail.com.

**Моисеенко Ирина Павловна** – доктор экономических наук, профессор, кафедра финансов и учета, Львовский государственный университет внутренних дел, Львов, Украина.

**Галькив Любовь Ивановна** – доктор экономических наук, профессор, кафедра менеджмента и организаций, Национальный университет "Львовская политехника", Львов, Украина.

**Демчишин Мария Ярославовна** – кандидат экономических наук, доцент, кафедра высшей математики и количественных методов, Львовский торгово-экономический университет, Львов, Украина.

**Moysheyenko Iryna** – Doctor of Sciences (Economics), Professor, Department of Finance and Account, Lviv State University of Internal Affairs, Lviv, Ukraine.

**Halkiv Lyubov** – Doctor of Sciences (Economics), Professor, Department of Management of Organizations, National University "Lviv Polytechnic", Lviv, Ukraine.

**Demchyshyn Mariya** – PhD in Economics, Associate Professor, Department of Mathematics and Quantitative Methods, Lviv University of Trade and Economics, Lviv, Ukraine.

**Рімбу Габрієла** – аспірант, Університет імені Лучіана Блага, Сібіу, Румунія.

**Контактна інформація:** +40755072690, gabriela\_rimbu@yahoo.com.

**Константінеску Ліліана Аврора** – кандидат економічних наук, доцент, Бухарестський Християнський університет "Дімітрі Кантемір", Бухарест, Румунія.

**Рімбу Габрієла** – аспірант, Університет імені Лучіана Блага, Сибіу, Румунія.

**Константінеску Лилиана Аврора** – кандидат экономических наук, доцент, "Димитрий Кантемир", Бухарестский Христианский университет, Бухарест, Румыния.



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**Rîmbu Gabriela** – PhD student, 'Lucian Blaga' University of Sibiu, Sibiu, Romania.

**Constantinescu Liliana Aurora** – PhD in Economics, Associate Professor, 'Dimitrie Cantemir' Christian University of Bucharest, Bucharest, Romania.

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**Шинкарук Лідія Василівна** – член-кореспондент Національної академії наук України, доктор економічних наук, професор, завідувач кафедри виробничого та інвестиційного менеджменту, Національний університет біоресурсів і природокористування України, Київ, Україна.

**Контактна інформація:** 067-235-20-29, (044)527-80-80, lidia\_shyn@ukr.net.

**Барановська Ірина Вікторівна** – кандидат економічних наук, доцент, кафедра виробничого та інвестиційного менеджменту, Національний університет біоресурсів і природокористування України, Київ, Україна.

**Мільман Леонід Михайлович** – здобувач, кафедра виробничого та інвестиційного менеджменту, Національний університет біоресурсів і природокористування України, Київ, Україна.

**Шинкарук Лидия Васильевна** – член-корреспондент Национальной академии наук Украины, доктор экономических наук, профессор, заведующая кафедрой производственного и инвестиционного менеджмента, Национальный университет биоресурсов и природопользования Украины, Киев, Украина.

**Барановська Ирина Викторовна** – кандидат экономических наук, доцент, кафедра производственного и инвестиционного менеджмента, Национальный университет биоресурсов и природопользования Украины, Киев, Украина.

**Мильман Леонид Михайлович** – соискатель, кафедра производственного и инвестиционного менеджмента, Национальный университет биоресурсов и природопользования Украины, Киев, Украина.

**Shynkaruk Lidia** – Corresponding Member of the National Academy of Sciences of Ukraine, Doctor of Sciences (Economic), Professor, Head of Department Production and Investment Management, The National University of Life and Environmental Sciences of Ukraine, Kyiv, Ukraine.

**Baranovska Iryna** – PhD in Economics, Associate Professor, Department Production and Investment Management, The National University of Life and Environmental Sciences of Ukraine, Kyiv, Ukraine.

**Milman Leonid** – Degree seekers, Department Production and Investment Management, The National University of Life and Environmental Sciences of Ukraine, Kyiv, Ukraine.

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**Старостіна Алла Олексіївна** – доктор економічних наук, професор, завідувач кафедри міжнародної економіки та маркетингу, Київський національний університет імені Тараса Шевченка, Київ, Україна.

**Контактна інформація:** (044)257-92-91, allstar@univ.kiev.ua.

**Устименко Марія Вікторівна** – кандидат економічних наук, асистент, кафедра міжнародної економіки та маркетингу, Київський національний університет імені Тараса Шевченка.

**Контактна інформація:** (044)257-92-91, ustimenkomaria00@gmail.com.

**Старостина Алла Алексеевна** – доктор экономических наук, профессор, заведующий кафедрой международной экономики и маркетинга, Киевский национальный университет имени Тараса Шевченко, Киев, Украина.

**Устименко Мария Викторовна** – кандидат экономических наук, асистент, кафедра международной экономики и маркетинга, Киевский национальный университет имени Тараса Шевченко, Киев, Украина.

**Starostina Alla** – Doctor of Sciences (Economics), Professor, Head of Department of International Economy and Marketing, Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv, Ukraine.

**Ustymenko Mariia** – PhD in Economics, Assistant, Department of International Economy and Marketing, Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv, Ukraine.

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### Editorial Report 2017

the Journal "BULETIN OF TARAS SHEVCHENKO NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF KYIV. ECONOMICS"

by Ganna Kharlamova, the executive editor

This annual report presents the summary statistics on the operations of the Bulletin in 2017, together with my commentary. Since 2014, this report is published (after approval by the Publications Committee) on the Bulletin website in a continued effort to increase the transparency of the editorial process (<http://bulletin-econom.univ.kiev.ua/editorial-board/the-editorial-policy>). I hope that the report provides insights to the Bulletin for authors, reviewers, and readers about how the editorial team has improved its responsibilities.

### General situation

**BULETIN OF TARAS SHEVCHENKO NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF KYIV. ECONOMICS** is the academic periodical of TARAS SHEVCHENKO NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF KYIV Faculty of Economics. It publishes articles in the field of current problems of economic theory, international economics, business economics, management, theory of finances, banking, insurance, statistics, accounting and auditing, environmental safety, economic-mathematical modeling, information technology in the economy. Board of Editors and Reviewers consists of faculty

members and academicians from other universities over the world. The submissions are dispersed to members of these Boards according to their fields of expertise.

The website of the journal (<http://bulletin-econom.univ.kiev.ua/>) stores archives since 2008 (on-line papers and full volumes).

Since 2017 we publish bimonthly volumes.

Printing and editorial costs of the journal are covered from the faculty budget. The only rate in 250 UAH per one 8 paged manuscript is to cover mail costs and web-site administration, DOI. The issues are printed in Publishing center "Kyiv University". The costs of regular printing materials (ink, carton etc) are paid by Dean's Office of the faculty of Economics. This allows the journal fulfill its long-standing public service mission of well-regarded and respected academic discourse.

We are TOP-1 University journal according internal rating.

In 2017 6 issues were produced (the normal number) – <http://bulletin-econom.univ.kiev.ua/archive/2017-2>. As pursued, during 2017 the issues of the journal were published within schedule and included:

- 48 papers printed, every 3d papers are printed in English;
- 60 authors, every 6th foreign author is from all over the world

**we clearly see a jump in Journal's internationalization and share of papers in English.**

As to citation:  $h\text{-index} = 13$  (Google scholar) (5 points increase)








The Editorial Board felt that this was a particularly good year for high quality submissions.





















The geographical distribution of all authors of accepted papers over the year: Ukraine, Romania, USA, Bulgaria, Greece, Georgia, Poland.

In 2017, turnaround times for editorial feedback to authors were as follows: max – 1 month, min – 3 days.

### Indexing

For nowadays, we are indexed and abstracted in:

1.  LIBRARY.RU ПИЦ (E-Library),
2. Science Index,
3.  ULRICHSWEB™ GLOBAL SERIALS DIRECTORY Ulrich's Periodicals Directory,
4.  Google Scholar,
5.  RePEc, RepEc,
6.  СОЦИОНЕТ Socionet,
7. Index Copernicus (ICV 2015: 70.91),
8. CyberLeninka,
9.  WorldCat OCLC WorldCat,
10.  CrossRef,

11.  J-Gate, largest E-Journal Gateway
12. Microsoft Academic Search,
13.  Bielefeld Academic Search Engine (BASE),
14. Registry of Open Access Repositories (ROAR),
15. The Directory of Open Access Repositories (OpenDOAR),
16.  IDEAS,
17.  EconPapers,
18. CiteFactor (indexed),
19.  Maksymovych Scientific Library of Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv,
20.  National Library of Ukraine Vernadsky
21. Scopus (under evaluation – last stage),
22. DOAJ
23. ProQuest
24.  CitEc
25.  Impact Factor
26.  Infobase (India)
27.  Researchbib (Japan)
28.  MIAR (Spain) (ICDS = 6.5)
29.  RedLink
30.  INTERNATIONAL SERVICES FOR IMPACT FACTOR AND INDEXING (ISIFI)
31.  ESJI
32.  GIGA Information Centre
33.  Journalindex
34.  General Impact Factor (GIF) (pending)
35. Social Science Research Network
36. Thomson Reuters (under evaluation)
37. Advanced Sciences Index (pending)
38.  Scientific Indexing Service
39.  Open Academic Journals Index
40.  Directory of Research Journals Indexing
41. CEEOL (pending)

The journal is distributed free of charge to the authors, faculty members and to libraries of public universities and some public institutions.

Impact factors are highly volatile, especially for journals that recently got indexed in the Index, and hence caution is advised at the time of evaluating these results. However, these results do suggest that there exist good opportunities for a high-quality international and generalist journal in economic field, such as the Bulletin and that pursuance of tolerance in the

editorial policy towards various research paradigms and methods of conducting research will definitely make the Bulletin a "first choice" journal.

### Statistics

The past year has been another good one for the journal. As **Statistics** shows, our **submission numbers** reached a new high of more than 100 at the end of 2017 and exceeded the level of the previous year.

The journal has free access to archive and we have already thousands of visitors.

This strong and sustained growth rate has seen submissions more than triple over the past 2 years, reflecting the growing international status of the journal, which now receives papers from over 10 countries each year.

Average rate of papers' decline is 20%. We have just a few recalls by authors. As well just 15% rejections are on the base of plagiarism. A significant portion of the articles has been assigned to two referees, except the cases when the decision is made based on a single experienced and trusted referee report and editorial evaluation. We have a double peer-review system.

*People also read our papers – at least they download them!*

Series-Handle: repec:scn:pnoeeq

Address on IDEAS: <<http://ideas.repec.org/s/scn/pnoeeq.html>>

Address on EconPapers: <<http://econpapers.repec.org/article/scnpnoeeq/>>

Page views (file downloads) on participating RePEc services:

Last month: 209 (43)

Previous month: 196 (13)

Last 3 months: 560 (71)

Last year: 3749 (369)

Since start: 13788 (1472)

Top items in the series: <<http://logec.repec.org/scripts/seritemstat.pl?h=repec:scn:pnoeeq>>

Impact factors (last 10 years). For more details, see:

<http://ideas.repec.org/top/#series>

Simple impact factor: 0.01 (0.01)

Recursive impact factor: 0 (0)

Discounted impact factor: 0.01 (0.01)

Recursive discounted impact factor: 0 (0)

h-index: 1 (1)

Euclidian citation score: 1 (1)

The most read papers according to **RePEc services**:

Top 25 Journal Articles by File Downloads 2017-10

Rank	Journal Article	Click on a column heading to sort by a different category								
		File Downloads				Abstract Views				
		2017	10	3 months	12 months	Total	2017	10	3 months	12 months
1	ЗАРУБЕЖНЫЙ ОПЫТ РАЗВИТИЯ СОЦИАЛЬНОГО ПРЕДПРИНИМАТЕЛЬСТВА <i>Н. Игнатович and В. Гура</i>	3	3	9	17	7	9	37	58	
1	СОВРЕМЕННЫЕ ТЕНДЕНЦИИ РАЗВИТИЯ МИРОВОГО РЫНКА ДЕРИВАТИВОВ <i>В. Шелудько and В. Вирченко</i>	3	3	12	49	3	3	39	151	
3	МИРОВОЙ ОПЫТ ФОРМИРОВАНИЯ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННОЙ ИНВЕСТИЦИОННОЙ ПОЛИТИКИ И МЕХАНИЗМОВ ЕЁ РЕАЛИЗАЦИИ <i>Т. Затонацкая</i>	2	2	4	10	2	2	10	35	
3	ПЕРСПЕКТИВЫ И ПРОБЛЕМЫ РАЗВИТИЯ СОЦИАЛЬНОЙ ПРЕДПРИНИМАТЕЛЬСТВА В УКРАИНЕ <i>М. Наумова</i>	2	4	5	5	2	5	16	16	
3	ДИВЕРСИФИКАЦИЯ ЭНЕРГЕТИЧЕСКОЙ ЗАВИСИМОСТИ УКРАИНЫ <i>А. Степанова</i>	2	2	2	3	2	2	5	11	
3	MACROECONOMIC FORECASTING USING BAYESIAN VECTOR AUTOREGRESSIVE APPROACH <i>D. Tutberidze and D. Japaridze</i>	2	2	3	3	3	7	20	20	

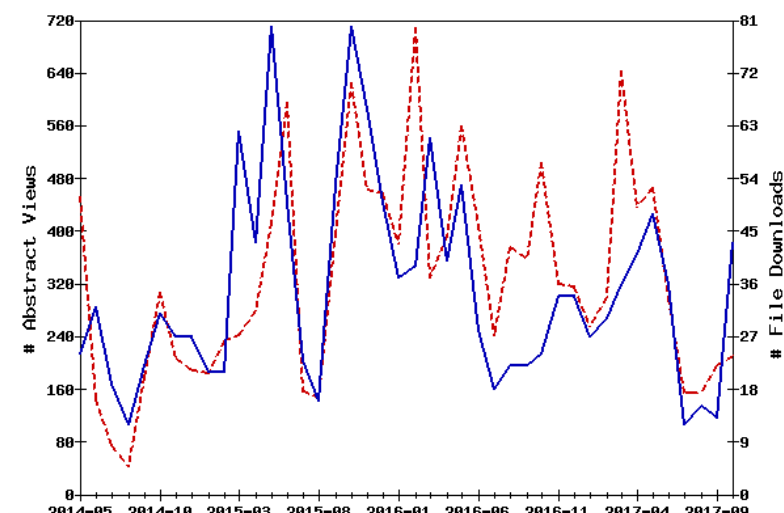
3	ОСОБЕННОСТИ НАЛОГООБЛОЖЕНИЯ СУБЪЕКТОВ РЫНКА ЭЛЕКТРОННОЙ КОММЕРЦИИ <i>Т. Затонацкая and Е. Мельничук</i>	2	2	2	2	3	3	4	4
8	СИТУАЦИОННЫЙ АНАЛИЗ ФАКТОРОВ ЦЕНООБРАЗОВАНИЯ МАШИНОСТРОИТЕЛЬНЫХ ПРЕДПРИЯТИЙ <i>Е. Чукурна</i>	1	1	1	1	1	1	5	9
8	РОЛЬ ОБЛИГАЦИЙ ДИАСПОРЫ ДЛЯ РАЗВИВАЮЩИХСЯ СТРАН <i>Ю. Буник</i>	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	5
8	УЧЕТ ОПЦИОННЫХ КОНТРАКТОВ И ЭКОНОМИЧЕСКИЙ АНАЛИЗ СТРАТЕГИЙ КОМБИНАЦИЙ ИХ ИСПОЛЬЗОВАНИЯ <i>И. Дерун</i>	1	1	1	1	1	1	4	4
8	СТАТИСТИЧЕСКАЯ ГРАМОТНОСТЬ: ИЗЛИШНЕЕ ТРЕБОВАНИЕ ИЛИ НЕОБХОДИМОСТЬ СОВРЕМЕННОСТИ <i>М. Потапова</i>	1	1	2	7	2	2	4	32
8	ОТКРЫТОСТЬ И ПРОЗРАЧНОСТЬ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННОГО И МЕСТНЫХ БЮДЖЕТОВ В УКРАИНЕ <i>Ю. Наконечная and Л. Демиденко</i>	1	1	1	1	1	1	6	6
8	ИМИТАЦИОННОЕ МОДЕЛИРОВАНИЕ ЛОГИСТИЧЕСКИХ ПРОЦЕССОВ <i>Ю. Тараненко and И. Федоренко</i>	1	1	4	4	1	1	10	10
8	ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКИЕ АСПЕКТЫ МОДЕЛИРОВАНИЯ ИНФОРМАЦИОННЫХ ПОТОКОВ В ЛОГИСТИКЕ ПРЕДПРИЯТИЯ <i>В. Скицко</i>	1	1	3	9	2	2	7	26
8	БАЗЕЛЬ I, II, III: РАЗВИТИЕ ПОДХОДОВ ДЛЯ УКРЕПЛЕНИЯ РЕГУЛЯТОРНОЙ ОСНОВЫ <i>С. Науменкова</i>	1	1	2	6	1	1	3	14
8	СТАТИСТИЧЕСКАЯ ОЦЕНКА ВЛИЯНИЯ ЭКОНОМИЧЕСКИХ ФАКТОРОВ НА СОЦИАЛЬНО-ДЕМОГРАФИЧЕСКИЕ ПОКАЗАТЕЛИ РАЗВИТИЯ СТРАНЫ <i>О. Евсеенко</i>	1	1	2	2	1	1	13	29
8	ДЕЦЕНТРАЛИЗАЦИЯ И КАЧЕСТВО УПРАВЛЕНИЯ: НЕКОТОРЫЕ ВОПРОСЫ ИЗ ОПЫТА ЧЕХИИ И СЛОВАЦКОЙ РЕСПУБЛИКИ <i>Дж. Немец and Л. Матеёва</i>	1	1	1	6	1	1	4	25
8	ОЦЕНКА ПРИБЫЛИ СТРАХОВОЙ КОМПАНИИ СРЕДСТВАМИ ИМИТАЦИОННОГО МОДЕЛИРОВАНИЯ <i>О. Клепикова</i>	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	9
8	ОЦЕНКА ПРЕДЕЛЬНО ДОПУСТИМОГО ФИСКАЛЬНОГО БРЕМЕНИ ДЛЯ НАЦИОНАЛЬНОЙ ЭКОНОМИКИ УКРАИНЫ <i>М. Александрова</i>	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	13
8	ЗАРУБЕЖНЫЙ ОПЫТ ФУНКЦИОНИРОВАНИЯ И РАЗВИТИЯ ИНТЕРНЕТ-СТРАХОВАНИЯ <i>А. Тлустая and В. Эрастов</i>	1	2	6	11	1	2	15	43
8	ІНДЕКС ЕКОЛОГІЧНОЇ БЕЗПЕКИ УКРАЇНИ: КОНЦЕПЦІЯ ТА ОЦІНКА <i>Г. Харламова and В. Бутковський (Ganna Kharlamova)</i>	1	1	3	8	1	1	9	22
8	TECHNOLOGY-CHANGE CHANGES: IMPLICATIONS FOR UNIVERSITIES AND R&D-SECTOR <i>Grigoris Zarotiadis</i>	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
8	THE ROLE OF THE SOCIAL-ENTREPRENEURSHIP CORPORATIONS IN KAZAKHSTAN IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE PUBLIC PRIVATE PARTNERSHIP MECHANISMS <i>A. Taubayev, B. Doskaliyeva and S. Akenov</i>	1	1	5	8	1	1	6	15

8	ТЕНДЕНЦИИ ФУНКЦИОНИРОВАНИЯ НЕФОРМАЛЬНОГО СЕКТОРА ЭКОНОМИКИ УКРАИНЫ <i>А. Ходжаян and Б. Ганжа</i>	1	1	1	1	3	3	4	4
8	ОСОБЕННОСТИ ПРИМЕНЕНИЯ ИННОВАЦИЙ В РАЗВИТИЕ ТУРИСТИЧЕСКОЙ ОТРАСЛИ УКРАИНЫ <i>О. Давыдова</i>	1	1	1	1	3	4	9	17

## Access Statistics for Journal

Journal	File Downloads				Abstract Views			
	2017 10	3 months	12 months	Total	2017 10	3 months	12 months	Total
Вестник Киевского национального университета имени Тараса Шевченко. Экономика. Socionet	43	71	369	1,472	209	560	3,749	13,788

There are currently 659 items in this series, of which 659 are downloadable.



Our ranks in E-library:

Импакт-фактор РИНЦ 2016	0,062
Импакт-фактор РИНЦ 2014	0,014

Our ranks in Cyberleninka:

СТАТИСТИКА

всего статей: 1483

281272 140555 21 h<sup>5</sup> 5

Index Copernicus gave us 78,52 for 2016 and we are top-12 in Economics (Ukraine) according the IC.

ICV 2016: 78.52

Archival ratings ▼

Year	Prev. meth.	Act. meth.
2015		70.91
2014		67.43
2013	6.54	

The Statistics of 2017:

Year	#	к-сть статей	к-сть авторів	к-сть інозем. авторів	к-сть укр. авторів	к-сть статей англ. мовою	к-сть статей укр. мовою	к-сть статей рос. мовою	к-сть авторів із КНУ	к-сть країн авторів	к-сть установ/ ВНЗ авторів
2017	190	9	11	0	11	0	9	0	7	1	4
	191	8	11	8	3	8	0	0	0	7	8
	192	7	11	3	8	1	6	0	3	2	5
	193	8	10	0	10	0	8	0	2	1	8
	194	10	13	0	13	0	10	0	8	1	5
	195	6	14	2	12	5	0	1	4	2	8

### Editorial policy

During 2017 the journal faithfully continued to implement its aims and scope as defined in 2013. It is:

"The Bulletin is the international scholarly journal of Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv. Devoted to the advancement of economic knowledge, it provides a forum for the publication of high quality socio-economic research manuscripts. The journal acknowledges its European origins and the distinctive variety of the Ukrainian and European economic research community. Conscious of these origins, the Bulletin emphasizes openness and flexibility, not only regarding the substantive issues of economic research, but also with respect to paradigms, methodologies and styles of conducting that research."

The journal is very pleased to announce some new members of the **Editorial and Review Board**:

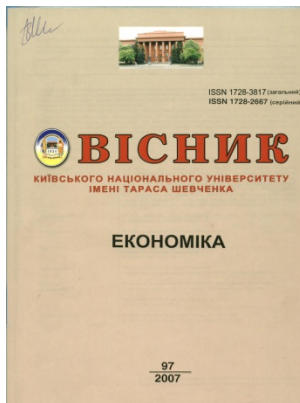
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They bring expertise across a range of quantitative application. I would like to warmly thank all those who have generously given their time to review articles for the journal.

We strongly encourage academics from across the field to submit their work to the journal and in closing I know I speak for the entire Editorial Board when I express my unreserved thanks to the large team of Referee's who support the journal. Without your continued support the journal could not survive – thank you!

Ganna Kharlamova  
Executive Editor



**Вісник Київського національного університету імені Тараса Шевченка. Економіка.** – це рецензований, цитований у міжнародних наукометричних базах науковий журнал, що видається із 2017 року шість разів на рік і присвячений дослідженням в економічній сфері.

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Наукове видання



# **ВІСНИК**

## **КИЇВСЬКОГО НАЦІОНАЛЬНОГО УНІВЕРСИТЕТУ ІМЕНІ ТАРАСА ШЕВЧЕНКА**

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☎ (38044) 239 3222; (38044) 239 3172; тел./факс (38044) 239 3128  
e-mail: vpc\_div.chief@univ.net.ua; redaktor@univ.net.ua  
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