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TABLE OF CONTENTS

AGRICULTURAL SCIENCES		
1.	Liubych V., Novikov V. PRODUCTIVITY OF SPRING TRITICALE AT DIFFERENT DOSES OF NITROGEN FERTILIZERS	23
2.	Parkhuts B. INFLUENCE OF MINERAL FERTILIZER LEVEL ON WINTER WHEAT PRODUCTIVITY ON DARK GRAY PODZOLIC SOILS OF PUSTOMYTY RAION OF LVIV OBLAST	26
3.	Гнатюк Н.О. ОБОСНОВАНИЕ МЕРОПРИЯТИЙ ПО ПОВЫШЕНИЮ ЭФФЕКТИВНОСТИ ЭКОЛОГИЧЕСКОЙ КОНВЕРСИИ ОРГАНИЧЕСКИХ ОТХОДОВ	29
4.	Молеща Н.Б., Воропай Г.В., Кузьмич Л.В., Дехтяр О.О. ВПЛИВ КЛІМАТИЧНИХ ЗМІН НА ФОРМУВАННЯ ТЕПЛОВОГО РЕЖИМУ ТА ВОДНО-ФІЗИЧНИХ ВЛАСТИВОСТЕЙ ОСУШУВАНИХ ҐРУНТІВ ЛІВОБЕРЕЖНОГО ЛІСОСТЕПУ УКРАЇНИ	32
5.	Тлеулина З.Т., Абеуова Д.М., Кипшакбаева Г.А. ПЛАСТИЧНОСТЬ СОРТОВ СОИ РАЗЛИЧНОГО ПРОИСХОЖДЕНИЯ В УСЛОВИЯХ СЕВЕРНОГО КАЗАХСТАНА	40
ARCHITECTURE, CONSTRUCTION		
6.	Konovaliuk V., Franchuk Y., Konovaliuk O. IMPROVING THE EFFICIENCY OF GAS USE IN INTERNAL GAS SUPPLY SYSTEMS	45
7.	Лапшій М.І., Таратула Р.Б. МЕТОДОЛОГІЧНІ АСПЕКТИ ОЦІНКИ ВАРТОСТІ СПЕЦІАЛІЗОВАНОГО МАЙНА ПІДПРИЄМСТВА	49
8.	Шатрова І.А., Демидова О.О. ВИЗНАЧЕННЯ ХАРАКТЕРИСТИК І ДОСЛІДЖЕННЯ ЕФЕКТИВНОСТІ ПРОЦЕСУ ВИКОНАННЯ РОБІТ ЖИТЛОВОГО БУДІВНИЦТВА	52

ART HISTORY		
9.	Chiknoverova K., Akhmedova A. МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЕ ОСНОВЫ ПРЕПОДАВАНИЯ ЦИФРОВОЙ ИЛЛЮСТРАЦИИ И ДИЗАЙНА КОМИКСА	55
10.	Земцова В.О., Ількевич А.І., Ліщинська М.В., Савєльєва П.В. РОЛЬ ПРОБІЛУ У ТИПОГРАФІЦІ, РЕКЛАМІ ТА ГРАФІЧНОМУ ДИЗАЙНІ	64
11.	Кузів К.В. ФУНКЦІОНАЛЬНІСТЬ АБСТРАКЦІЇ В ІКОНІ: ПРИЧИНИ, ПЕРЕДУМОВИ ВИНИКНЕННЯ ТА РОЗВИТКУ	69
BIOLOGICAL SCIENCES		
12.	Павлюченко О.В., Павловська А.М. ПЕРЛІВНИЦЕВІ (MOLLUSCA: BIVALVIA: UNIONIDAE) БАСЕЙНУ РІЧКИ ТЕТЕРІВ	72
13.	Кузьменко Л.П., Радчук А.П. ВИКОРИСТАННЯ СУЧАСНИХ ПРИЙОМІВ ДЛЯ ПРОВЕДЕННЯ ЕКСКУРСІЙ У ЗООЛОГІЧНОМУ МУЗЕЇ ДЛЯ СТУДЕНТІВ НЕБІОЛОГІЧНОГО ПРОФІЛЮ	74
14.	Смолєнко Н.П., Коренєва Є.М., Мараховський І.О., Чистякова Е.Є., Бондаренко В.О. ВПЛИВ ВІТАМІНУ D3 ТА ТРІБЕСТАНУ НА СПЕРМАТОГЕНЕЗ ЩУРІВ ІЗ СЕРОТОНІНОВОЮ ГОНАДОПАТІЄЮ	77
15.	Сорока Л.В. ОЦЕНКА ПОТЕНЦИАЛА ТЕХНОЛОГИИ ПЕРЕРАБОТКИ ДРЕВЕСНЫХ ОТХОДОВ МЕТОДОМ БРИКЕТИРОВАНИЯ	80
16.	Суходольська І.Л., Мазур А.І., Басараба І.В. ВИКОРИСТАННЯ ФІТОПЛАНКТОНУ ТА ВИЩИХ ВОДНИХ РОСЛИН ПРИ ОЦІНЮВАННІ СТАНУ ВОДНИХ ЕКОСИСТЕМ	83
17.	Шерстюк Л.М., Коляка М.А., Розумна Л.В., Яловець А.М. ДОСЛІДЖЕННЯ ЗОВНІШНІХ ПОКАЗНИКІВ МУСКУСНОЇ ПОРОДИ КАЧОК В УМОВАХ ВІВАРІЯ	86

18.	Щербак О.В., Безуглий М.Д., Юрко П.С., Боровкова В.М., Кибенко Н.Ю. ТЕХНОЛОГІЯ ВИРОЩУВАННЯ ЇСТІВНИХ ГРИБІВ. ПРОБЛЕМИ ТА ПЕРСПЕКТИВИ	91
	CHEMICAL SCIENCES	
19.	Zolotarenko A., Zolotarenko O., Rudakova E., Schur D., Chymbai M. PRACTICAL HYDROGEN-SORPTION PROPERTIES OF AB2 TYPE ALLOYS	94
20.	Zolotarenko O., Rudakova E., Zolotarenko A., Schur D., Chymbai M. RESULTS OF PRACTICAL ELECTROCHEMICAL SYNTHESIS OF NANODISPERSED NICKEL POWDER FOR 3D PRINTING	104
21.	Буркут Б. ЖИТТЄВІ КОМПЕТЕНТНОСТІ ТА ЗАСОБИ РЕАЛІЗАЦІЇ ІННОВАЦІЙНИХ ТЕХНОЛОГІЙ В УМОВАХ ДИСТАНЦІЙНОГО ТА ЗМІШАНОГО НАВЧАННЯ НА ЗАНЯТТЯХ З ХІМІЇ	114
	CULTUROLOGY	
22.	Вирста Д.І., Вашків Л.П. ПРОЄКТ ЗБЕРЕЖЕННЯ УКРАЇНСЬКИХ НАРОДНИХ ДУМ КРІЗЬ ПРИЗМУ ЕПІСТОЛЯРІЮ ЛЕСІ УКРАЇНКИ	120
23.	Зайцев О.Д. ТВОРЧИЙ ШЛЯХ УКРАЇНСЬКОГО ДЕКОРАТОРА МАРІЇ ТУШИЦЬКОЇ: ІСТОРИКО-КУЛЬТУРНИЙ АСПЕКТ	129
24.	Калашнікова О.Л. НОВІ ФОРМАТИ МИСТЕЦТВА: ДОСВІД АУКЦІОНІВ	134
25.	Мелещук А.А. ТРАНСФОРМАЦІЯ АНТРОПОЛОГІЧНИХ ВИМІРІВ КУЛЬТУРИ ЯПОНІЇ ЕПОХИ ЕДО ПІД ВПЛИВОМ ВЧЕННЯ ДЗЕН-БУДДИЗМУ	137
26.	Петрович І.М. СОНЯЧНІ ГОДИННИКИ С. ПІДГІРЦІ ЗОЛОЧІВСЬКОГО РАЙОНУ, ЛЬВІВСЬКОЇ ОБЛАСТІ	140

27.	Тауасарова Д.Р. МУЗЕЙЛІК КОММУНИКАЦИЯ ҚАЗІРГІ ҚОҒАМНЫҢ ӘЛЕУМЕТТІК-МӘДЕНИ ФЕНОМЕНІ РЕТІНДЕ	142
	ECONOMIC SCIENCES	
28.	Kravchenko S., Bezhenar I. INDICATORS AND FACTORS OF ADAPTATION OF AGRICULTURAL BUSINESS ENTITIES TO THE MARKET	145
29.	Malik M., Kravchenko S., Malik L. METHODS OF DIAGNOSTICS OF THE PROCESSES OF ADAPTATION OF AGRICULTURAL BUSINESS ENTITIES TO COMPETITIVE AND COOPERATIVE INTERACTIONS	148
30.	Obelets T. PROSPECTS OF BITCOIN DEVELOPMENT	153
31.	Syrotyuk H. INNOVATIVE DEVELOPMENT OF AGRICULTURAL ENTERPRISES: REGIONAL ASPECT	156
32.	Trofimchuk M. CONSEQUENCES OF THE WAR FOR THE ECONOMY OF UKRAINE	158
33.	Votchenikova O., Lialina N., Votchenikova V. CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY AS AN ELEMENT OF THE QUALITY MANAGEMENT SYSTEM	161
34.	Гавкалова Н.Л., Єрьомка Д.В. ЕЛЕКТРОННЕ УРЯДУВАННЯ В СИСТЕМІ ВЗАЄМОДІЇ ОРГАНІВ МІСЦЕВОГО САМОВРЯДУВАННЯ ТА ІНСТИТУТІВ ГРОМАДЯНСЬКОГО СУСПІЛЬСТВА	163
35.	Кравець І.М., Музика А.В. СОЦІАЛЬНА ПОЛІТИКА ДЕРЖАВИ У ТРУДОВІЙ СФЕРІ	167
36.	Попова М.О. СУЧАСНІ ОСОБЛИВОСТІ ЕКОНОМІКИ ЕКОЛОГІЧНОГО ТУРИЗМУ	170

37.	Піскунов Р.О. СТАНОВЛЕННЯ ОБЛІКОВОЇ ПРАВОВОЇ КУЛЬТУРИ ЗА ЧАСІВ КОЗАЦЬКОЇ УКРАЇНИ	172
38.	Семчук І.В., Камінний В.В. ПІДТРИМКА БІЗНЕСУ В УМОВАХ ВОЄННОГО СТАНУ	174
39.	Халикова Л.С., Селезнёва И.В. ИПОТЕЧНОЕ КРЕДИТОВАНИЕ: ОПЫТ И ПЕРСПЕКТИВЫ РАЗВИТИЯ В РЕСПУБЛИКЕ КАЗАХСТАН	177
40.	Хома І.Б. СТИМУЛЮВАННЯ ІННОВАЦІЙНОЇ ДІЯЛЬНОСТІ ПІДПРИЄМСТВ У СИСТЕМІ КОНТРОЛЮ ЗАБЕЗПЕЧЕННЯ ЕКОНОМІЧНОЇ ЗАХИЩЕНОСТІ	181
41.	Яременко О.Ф. МИТНА БЕЗПЕКА ЯК СКЛАДОВА ЕКОНОМІЧНОЇ БЕЗПЕКИ	187
	GEOGRAPHICAL SCIENCE	
42.	Huseynova B. THE CONTEMPORARY SETTLEMENTS OF THE ETHNIC MINORITIES SETTLING IN THE NORTHWESTERN REGIONS OF AZERBAIJAN	191
	HISTORICAL SCIENCES	
43.	Sattorov N. THE ATTITUDE TOWARDS ETHNIC THEORY WHICH EXISTS IN THE SIENCE OF MODERN ETHNOLOGY	194
44.	Rustamova N.B. VATAN SOG`INCHI-BOBUR TIMSOLIDA	198
45.	Азарх І.С. ВІДНОВЛЕННЯ РАДЯНСЬКОЇ ВЛАДИ В ПІВНІЧНО-ЗАХІДНИХ РЕГІОНАХ УКРАЇНИ	206
46.	Айткалиева Р.А., Отыншиева Г.Т. «ТҮРКСІБ» ДЕРЕКТІ ФИЛЬМІ	208

47.	Бабинець І.І. ДІЯЛЬНІСТЬ МУЗЕЮ (КАБІНЕТУ) АНТРОПОЛОГІЇ ТА ЕТНОЛОГІЇ ІМ. ХВ. ВОВКА ТА АРХЕОЛОГІЧНІ ДОСЛІДЖЕННЯ НА ЧЕРНІГІВЩИНІ	212
48.	Горбань Т.Ю. УКРАЇНСЬКА ДУМСЬКА ГРОМАДА В ДЕРЖАВНІЙ ДУМІ РОСІЙСЬКОЇ ІМПЕРІЇ: В ПОШУКАХ ЕВОЛЮЦІЙНОГО ШЛЯХУ ВИРІШЕННЯ НАЦІОНАЛЬНОГО ПИТАННЯ	219
49.	Еспенбетова А.Т., Мақаш Н.А. ДЕПОРТАЦИЯ: ҚАЗАҚСТАНҒА ЖЕР АУДАРЫЛҒАН ХАЛЫҚТАР ТАҒДЫРЫ	222
50.	Ронай Л.М. ПРАВОВИЙ СТАТУС НЕВИЗНАНИХ РЕЛІГІЙНИХ КОНФЕСІЙ В УГОРЩИНІ У 20-30Х РОКАХ ХХ СТОЛІТТЯ	225
	JOURNALISM	
51.	Кучер А.С. ПОПУЛЯРИЗАЦІЯ КОМІКСІВ В УКРАЇНІ	229
	LEGAL SCIENCES	
52.	Hrytsai S. THE EMERGENCE OF DIGITAL CURRENCY IN UKRAINE	232
53.	Іваницький Є.В. ДО ПИТАННЯ ЗАБЕЗПЕЧЕННЯ ОДНОМАНІТНОСТІ ЗАСТОСУВАННЯ ПРАВОВИХ НОРМ В АНТИКОРУПЦІЙНОМУ ЗАКОНОДАВСТВІ УКРАЇНИ	235
54.	Андрухів О.І. ЗАХИСТ ПРАВ НЕПОВНОЛІТНІХ В УКРАЇНІ В УМОВАХ ВІЙНИ	240
55.	Жупник В.В. ПОРІВНЯЛЬНА ХАРАКТЕРИСТИКА ЕТАПІВ І ЗМІСТУ СТАНОВЛЕННЯ ІДЕЇ СОБОРНОСТІ У ГАЛИЧИНІ ТА НАДДНІПРЯНЩИНІ У XIX – ПОЧАТКУ XX СТ.	244

56.	Зубенко А.В. ОСОБЛИВОСТІ ВІДШКОДУВАННЯ МОРАЛЬНОЇ ШКОДИ	248
57.	Кирильцев К.С. НОРМАТИВНЕ ВРЕГУЛЮВАННЯ СТУДЕНТСЬКОГО САМОВРЯДУВАННЯ В УКРАЇНІ	250
58.	Колесніченко А.А., Колісникова Г.В.Я. ЦИВІЛЬНО-ПРАВОВЕ РЕГУЛЮВАННЯ ДІЯЛЬНОСТІ В МЕРЕЖІ ІНТЕРНЕТ	259
59.	Коряк М.А. ОСОБЛИВОСТІ СПАДКУВАННЯ АВТОРСЬКИХ ПРАВ	263
60.	Костюк У.І. СУЧАСНІ ПРОБЛЕМИ ЕКОЛОГІЧНОЇ БЕЗПЕКИ: ПРАВОВИЙ АСПЕКТ	266
61.	Кісіль А.В. ПРАВОВИЙ АНАЛІЗ ПОНЯТТЯ ЦИВІЛЬНОЇ ДІЄЗДАТНОСТІ ФІЗИЧНОЇ ОСОБИ В УКРАЇНІ ТА ЗАКОРДОНОМ	269
62.	Кісіль А.В. ОСОБЛИВОСТІ НАДАННЯ АДМІНІСТРАТИВНИХ ПОСЛУГ ЦНАП ПІД ЧАС ВІЙСЬКОВОГО СТАНУ	275
63.	Личенко І.О. ФУНКЦІЯ ДЕРЖАВИ ЩОДО АДМІНІСТРАТИВНО-ПРАВОВОЇ ОХОРОНИ ПРАВА ВЛАСНОСТІ	279
64.	Самойлович А.А. СВІДОК В АДМІНІСТРАТИВНОМУ ПРОЦЕСІ	282
65.	Стрельченко О.Г., Братков С.І., Басс В.О., Капітонова Н.В. ДЕЯКІ ПИТАННЯ НАДАННЯ ЖИТЛОВО-КОМУНАЛЬНИХ ПОСЛУГ В УКРАЇНІ ПІД ЧАС ДІЇ ПРАВОВОГО РЕЖИМУ ВОЄННОГО СТАНУ	287
66.	Торська Х.І., Руснак І.В. КОНТРАКТ ЯК ОСОБЛИВИЙ ВИД ТРУДОВОГО ДОГОВОРУ	291

67.	Тяпкін А.С., Лущик І.В., Кіпушева Т.В. ОКРЕМІ АСПЕКТИ СУДОВО-ПСИХОЛОГІЧНОЇ ЕКСПЕРТИЗИ ЩОДО ВІДШКОДУВАННЯ МОРАЛЬНИХ СТРАЖДАНЬ	294
68.	Яковенко Є.О. СТАНДАРТ ДОКАЗУВАННЯ «ПОЗА РОЗУМНИМ СУМНІВОМ» В АДМІНІСТРАТИВНОМУ СУДОЧИНСТВІ	301
MANAGEMENT, MARKETING		
69.	Dorosh-Kizym M., Dorosh M., Babych L. MAIN BENEFITS OF INNOVATION IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF MODERN BUSINESS	305
70.	Iastremska O., Iastremska O. THEORETICAL PROVISIONS OF FORMATION AND FUNCTIONING OF INTERNATIONAL INTEGRATED BUSINESS STRUCTURES AND MANAGEMENT OF THEIR ACTIVITIES	310
71.	Ємельянова О.М., Титок В.В. ВПЛИВ ВЗАЄМОЗВ'ЯЗКУ ЛОГІСТИКИ ТА МАРКЕТИНГУ НА РЕЗУЛЬТАТИ ДІЯЛЬНОСТІ БУДІВЕЛЬНИХ ПІДПРИЄМСТВ	320
72.	Есмагамбетов Э. ЭФФЕКТ ОТНОСИТЕЛЬНОГО ВОЗРАСТА	323
73.	Журавель В.І., Журавель В.В., Журавель В.В., Зарецький М.М. ОРГАНІЗАЦІЯ УПРАВЛІНСЬКОЇ ДІЯЛЬНОСТІ З ФУНКЦІОНАЛЬНИХ ПОЗИЦІЙ (НА ПРИКЛАДІ СИСТЕМИ МЕДИЧНОЇ ДОПОМОГИ НАСЕЛЕННЮ)	331
74.	Захаренко-Селезньова А.М. РОЗПОДІЛЬЧА ЛОГІСТИКА В СИСТЕМІ ЗБУТУ ПІДПРИЄМСТВА	341
75.	Павленко Т.О. РОЛЬ МОТИВАЦІЇ В МЕНЕДЖМЕНТІ	344
76.	Сташкевич О.О. МЕНЕДЖМЕНТ ПІД ЧАС ВІЙНИ	347

THEORETICAL PROVISIONS OF FORMATION AND FUNCTIONING OF INTERNATIONAL INTEGRATED BUSINESS STRUCTURES AND MANAGEMENT OF THEIR ACTIVITIES

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In connection with the course of Ukraine's integration into the world economic community, the importance of studying the activities of international integrated business structures (IIBS) is growing, which determines the relevance of transferring their experience in the realities of Ukraine's economy. IIBSs own or control production and service complexes located outside the home country. They are leaders in the production and sale of complete goods. Unlike a conventional corporation that operates on world markets, IISB does not transport goods abroad, but the process of investing capital, combining it with foreign labor within international production. A common factor in the emergence of IIBS is the development of internationalization processes, based on the deepening of the international division of labor and international specialization, which can improve the economic situation of economic entities and countries involved in these processes. The specific causes of MIS may vary. This is the existence of restrictions on the development of international trade, strong monopoly power of producers, currency control, transport costs, differences in tax legislation and others. As a form of international business, IIBSs have a number of undeniable advantages over domestic companies, and their foreign affiliates play a crucial role in ensuring the firm's access to foreign markets, reducing production costs and increasing profits.

The main reasons for the formation of IIBS are as follows.

Opportunities to increase efficiency and competitiveness. In general, such opportunities are common to all large industrial firms that integrate in their structure suppliers, manufacturing, research, distribution and marketing. However, these opportunities are most evident in firms whose capital is transnational.

The global economic environment in which IIBS operates is an additional factor in increasing the company's efficiency and strengthening its position in world markets. Imperfection of the market mechanism in the sale of ownership of technology, production experience and other "intangible" assets, especially management and marketing experience. The imperfection of the market mechanism forces the firm to

strive to maintain control over the use of its "intangible" assets. Under the IIBS, such assets become mobile, transferable , and the externalities of using these assets do not go beyond the IIBS. Additional opportunities to increase efficiency and competitiveness through access to foreign resources. They are implemented through the use of cheaper or more skilled labor, raw materials, research capacity, production capacity and financial resources of the host country.

Proximity to consumers of products of foreign branches of the firm and the ability to obtain information about market prospects and competitive potential of firms in the host country. IIBS affiliates gain important advantages over host country firms through the use of the parent company's scientific, technical, and managerial capabilities.Possibility to use in own interests features of the state, in particular tax, policy in the different countries, differences in exchange rates, etc. This possibility is realized, as a rule, in the reduction of transaction costs that directly affect the efficiency of economic activity of IIBS.Ability to continue the life cycle of their technologies and products. It is provided by the opportunity to sell obsolete technologies and products to foreign affiliates and focus the efforts and resources of units on the development of new technologies and products in the home country.

In general, the effectiveness of foreign economic expansion as a means of mitigating market fluctuations is highly valued and is considered greater than that provided by purely national means of reducing economic risk. Research confirms that having branches in many countries is more profitable than stable factors, such as the large absolute size of the company and the degree of diversification of its production program within the country. the size of production.

A wide network of production branches located in different countries allows IIBS to increase production where it can be carried out with maximum benefit, and limit where it is unprofitable. Firms that are part of an international company and are in a difficult position are able to quickly reduce unprofitable production. The more decisive actions of IIBS compared to national firms are explained by the fact that they, in contrast to their purely domestic competitors, can achieve fixed costs not only by maintaining unprofitable production, but also at the expense of profits in other countries from foreign investment. The reasons for the export and import of foreign direct investment in relation to IIBS are very diverse. The main ones are the desire to place capital in the country and in the industry where it will bring maximum profits, reduce taxation and diversify risk. Multidimensional econometric studies conducted under the auspices of the UN economic services have shown that the specific reasons for the export and import of direct investment largely intersect, but their relative role is different.

The reasons for the export and import of capital are as follows. Technological leadership. The higher the share of research and development (R&D) expenditures in the corporation's sales, the greater the volume of its direct investment abroad. The lower the share of R&D expenditures in the corporation's sales volume, the smaller the volume of its direct investment abroad. By making direct investments abroad, corporations seek to maintain control over key technology that gives them a competitive advantage. The direct relationship between the level of R&D development and the volume of capital exports is confirmed for almost all developed countries.

Benefits in the qualification of the workforce, usually measured by the average level of wages. The higher the level of wages in the corporation, the greater the volume of its direct investment. The lower the level of wages in the corporation, the smaller the volume of its direct investment exports. Advantages in advertising, reflecting the experience of international marketing. The higher the share of advertising costs in the corporation's sales, the greater the volume of its direct investment exports. The lower the share of advertising costs in the corporation's sales, the smaller the volume of its direct investment exports. Economics of scale. The greater the size of the corporation's production in the domestic market, the greater the volume of direct investment exports. The smaller the size of the corporation's production in the domestic market, the smaller the volume of direct investment exports. Most corporations, before investing abroad, take full advantage of economies of scale in the internal market. The size of the corporation. The larger the size of the corporation, the greater the volume of its direct investment. The smaller the size of the corporation, the smaller the volume of its direct investment exports. The degree of concentration of production. The higher the level of concentration of production of a particular product within the corporation, the greater the volume of its exports of direct investment. The lower the level of concentration of production of a particular product within the corporation, the smaller the volume of its direct investment. Providing access to natural resources. The higher the corporation's need for a particular natural resource, the greater its direct investment exports to the country where the resource is. The lower the corporation's demand for a particular natural resource, the smaller its direct investment exports to the country this resource is available. Other reasons for the export of capital: reduction of transport costs for delivery of goods to the consumer by creating an enterprise in close proximity to it; to overcome import barriers in a foreign country by creating controlled production on its territory. Other reasons for the import of capital: the export orientation of industry, based on foreign direct investment, the existence of government programs of economic development.

That is, the factors that determine the export and import of direct investment are largely the same, which leads to cross-investment. Advantages in the development of R&D, the level of qualification of the workforce, the advantages in advertising, which reflects the accumulated experience of international marketing, and the size of the corporation are both factors in both exports and imports of direct investment. Economies of scale, a high level of concentration of production and the need for natural resources, on the contrary, are factors in exports, but not imports of direct investment. The need for capital, a significant number of national branches, lower production costs, higher protection of the domestic market and its significant size, in turn, are factors in the import of foreign direct investment.

The effect of foreign direct investment in the recipient country is both economic and social. The social effect includes: raising the level of skills of the workforce, the level of wages, and thus the welfare of the population as a whole; reducing unemployment; development of social infrastructure of a certain territory on which the enterprise with joint investments is located.

The economic effect should include: increasing the level of economic activity in the country; development of industries that have received foreign investment;

introduction of innovations in terms of equipment, technology and products, ie ensuring a sustainable level of its competitiveness; transfer of positive experience of enterprise management; increase in profits of enterprises and, as a consequence, tax payments to the budgets of all levels; increase national income and gross national product.

However, the recipient country may face negative effects, which are: location on its territory of ecologically polluted production; export of profits abroad; loss of control over the activities of enterprises.

For foreign investment donors, the economic effect is mainly: increase profits; taking labor-intensive production processes abroad; entering new capacious markets for products; sales of products that are not in high demand in traditional markets, etc.

The theory of foreign direct investment is a new branch of the international economy. There are several theories that mostly complement the interpretation of foreign direct investment. These are theories: international portfolio investments, monopolistic advantage of foreign direct investment, internalization of foreign direct investment, eclectic paradigm of foreign direct investment.

Theory of international portfolio investment.

In explaining the international movement of capital as a factor of production, traditional economic theory is based on the model of portfolio investment. This theory assumes the existence of different interest rates in countries as a cause of international capital movements. Capital moves from country A to country B because the long-term interest rate (return on capital) is higher in country B than in country A, reflecting the relative capital surplus in the latter. Capital continues to move from country A to country B until interest rates equalize and return on capital is the same in both countries. Capital moves from country A to country B also when the value of assets is higher in country A than in country B, with the same income, investors in country A will buy lower value assets in country B. This theory offers a good interpretation of the international movement of portfolio capital and short-term capital, if exchange rates and other risks are taken into account. But the theory of international portfolio investment cannot adequately explain foreign direct investment. In fact, allowing perfect competition, this theory makes any foreign direct investment impossible. In highly competitive markets, local firms can buy technology and other technical knowledge available to foreign firms. Therefore, international firms, having no advantage over local firms, will not have an incentive to produce abroad: under these conditions, they will bear the costs of doing business outside their own country (which will not have local firms), and they will not be reimbursed from sale. In this case, it is more profitable for capital to move through world capital markets than through the mediation of an international firm, as in the case of foreign direct investment. Hence the rationale for foreign direct investment stems from the denial of perfect competition when a direct investment firm is given some advantages over local firms.

The theory of monopolistic superiority of foreign direct investment.

Monopolistic advantage theory states that an investing firm has a monopolistic advantage that allows it to manage a subsidiary abroad more efficiently than local and competing firms. These advantages relate to the specifics of the firm rather than its production location. These benefits are the property of the firm, and therefore they are

not available to other firms in the open market. Thus, direct investment is more about the theory of organization of production than the theory of international capital movements. The monopolistic advantages of an investing firm can be divided into two general categories: better knowledge and economies of scale. The theory of monopolistic superiority of foreign direct investment distinguishes between horizontal foreign investment and vertical foreign investment. Horizontal foreign investment is made when an investing company enters foreign countries to produce the same products that are produced at home. Therefore, it is nothing more than a geographical diversification of the company's product range. On the contrary, vertical investments exist when the investing company operates in foreign countries for the production of intermediate products (semi-finished products), which are used as input parameters in domestic production (reverse vertical integration), or for the production or sale of its products in the last stages, closer to the end customer (forward vertical integration). Reverse vertical integration is associated in particular with investment in mining, while forward integration is associated with exports, such as the establishment of a prefabricated plant or a sales office. Two versions of the theory of monopolistic superiority (better knowledge and product life cycle) are based on horizontal investment, while the third option (oligopoly) uses vertical investment.

Advanced knowledge includes all invisible intangible assets owned by the firm and which provide it with an advantage in the following activities: technology, management and organizational skills, marketing skills, etc. Monopolistic advantages arise as a result of the firm's control over the use of its intangible assets, which are transformed into differentiated products. All assets are similar to public goods in that the marginal cost of their use through foreign direct investment is zero or very small compared to their return. Expenditures of a firm investing in the acquisition of its intangible assets have been made in the past (past expenditures), and the supply of these assets is very flexible (sometimes going indefinitely), as their use in one country does not contradict the use in another. And although the marginal cost of using intangible assets in a foreign country is very small for the investing firm, local companies have to pay in full for the acquisition of such assets. Having better knowledge allows the investing firm to create differentiated products with different physical (due to technical knowledge) and psychological properties (due to marketing skills), which favorably distinguish these products from competitors. Thus, the firm gains some control over commodity prices and sales, which, in turn, allows you to get an economic rent on its intangible assets. Thus, a firm that invests in differentiated products controls the knowledge that can be transferred to foreign markets for little or no money. The theory of monopolistic superiority states that horizontal foreign investments are mainly made by knowledge-intensive industries.

The product life cycle model was created to explain US exports and foreign direct investment in the production of differentiated products. Therefore, it cannot explain the foreign direct investment of firms in other countries or the phenomenon of cross-investment. In the 1950s and early 1960s, the claim that product innovation was originally made for the American market and, accordingly, transferred to foreign markets through exports and foreign direct investment was supported by a significant increase in American horizontal investment. However, over the last quarter of a

century, this assertion has been refuted by the growth of European and Japanese TNCs (multinational companies). The conducted statistical analysis gives enough grounds to claim that firms in other developed countries (as well as: in TNCs) are currently able to use the monopolistic advantage with the help of foreign direct investment.

The product life cycle model is best suited for the initial development of foreign markets by producers as direct investors. But it is not suitable for multinational companies engaged in international production and on-site marketing. Foreign direct investors are mostly large firms in oligopolistic industries, which are characterized by the presence of several major players with homogeneous or differentiated products. Due to the fact that there are so few participants (usually eight or even fewer), each of them is very sensitive to the competitive actions of others. This interdependence of oligopolistic firms in one industry is the essence of oligopoly; in other words, it is the cause of oligopolistic behavior. When, in order to gain a competitive advantage, an oligopolistic firm launches new products or obtains new sources of raw materials, rival firms are forced to respond in response. -initiators will grow even more. Indeed, the main goal of oligopolistic firms is to expand (at minimum profits) rather than maximize profits. Every firm seeks to expand at least as fast as a competing firm; its growth rate is determined by its relative size, which in turn is consistent with the relevant market authorities. Given this, an oligopolistic firm is extremely sensitive to the actions of rival firms that threaten its market share. The loss of a certain market share is seen as a danger, even if the aggregate market expands so rapidly that the firm's absolute profits and sales increase. Thus, equilibrium in an oligopolistic market exists only when there is stability in the distribution of the market between rivals. Oligopolistic firms generate monopoly profits (surplus profits) through entry barriers that keep new firms out of the industry. The most common barriers to market entry are internal economies of scale, which require large investments that are not available to new firms; control over rare or cheap raw material supplies through vertical integration; differentiated products; intangible assets such as patents, trademarks, trademarks. In most areas of production , oligopolists are heterogeneous, producing differentiated products, they also receive monopoly profits partly from intangible assets, as already mentioned, and partly from other barriers to market entry. However, in the basic industries and the mining industry (for example, steel, oil, aluminum) oligopolists are homogeneous with the participating firms that produce homogeneous, undifferentiated products. In the absence of an advantage in intangible assets, these industries must rely on other barriers to entry for monopoly profits, especially internal economies of scale and vertical integration.

As in the case of horizontal investment, oligopolistic opposition justifies the concentration of foreign investment in one country by members of the oligopolistic industry. Vertical foreign investment can also be used to create barriers for new firms to enter the industry. By denying potential newcomers access to raw materials, the oligopolist is able to retain market power. And the last. Vertical foreign investment can provide cost savings through technical improvements in production, improved coordination in the movement of products between different stages of production, synchronization of operations compared to independent producers who do so through foreign markets. As a result, the oligopolist internalizes (transforms into internal) external economies of scale. Vertical foreign investments are not limited to the

extraction of raw materials. Industrial companies can invest abroad in order to produce components and semi-finished products for subsequent transfer to production units in the domestic country and third countries. This use of vertical investment is not an oligopolistic behavior, but rather an attempt to minimize production costs. In conclusion, it should be noted that the theory of monopoly advantage advocates the emergence of foreign direct investment in response to structural market failures, allowing individual firms to maintain monopoly power in foreign markets.

The theory of monopolistic advantage also highlights the phenomenon of reverse investment. Due to the fact that intangible assets are a specific advantage of the firm rather than the country, there is no contradiction between investing in a US company, say, in France with a French company investing in parallel in the United States. Because two firms produce differentiated products that belong to different market segments, they may also belong to the same industry.

This theory also has the advantage of predicting the production structure of foreign direct investment. She answers the question: what types of companies and industries invest abroad? But the theory does not explain why some knowledge-intensive industries, especially aerospace, are leading exporters but insignificant investors abroad. It may happen that the possession of intangible and other company-specific assets is a necessary but not sufficient condition for foreign direct investment. The second condition is that a firm with a monopoly advantage can get the highest return on its own assets only by investing abroad in controlled production. This means that the return on foreign investment must be greater than the return on export and licensing.

Theory of internalization of foreign direct investment.

The theory of internalization (also known as the theory of expenditure transformation) justifies why foreign investment is a more effective means of using foreign resources and markets than; export or licensing. Therefore, this is the theory of a multinational firm, whose characteristic feature, as mentioned earlier, is international production. The theory of internalization states that: markets are unable to effectively place factors of services and goods in accordance with natural and government-established external (non-market) effects; markets and firms are alternative ways of organizing the exchange of goods and services; exchange is internalized within the firm, if the cost of these operations is less than; expenses for market operations; TNCs are a structure that internalizes the international exchange of goods and services (including intermediate products) through foreign direct investment (international production). Markets become suboptimal allocation of resources if they are not able to take into account externalities in market prices. Natural externalities can be defined as externalities (benefits or losses from economic activities for third parties without payment or compensation) from property, technical externalities and from goods intended for joint consumption. External effects of ownership occur when the seller cannot bill consumers. For example, an innovator who implements some inventions cannot force users to pay for them if they are disclosed due to lack of legal protection (patents and trademarks). Technical externalities occur whenever the income on products increases at the effect of scale. External effects of public goods appear on such public goods as knowledge, the consumption of which by one individual does not

reduce the consumption of another individual. In addition to these natural externalities, government intervention in markets creates artificial externalities that differentiate between individual and societal expenditures and revenues: tariffs, subsidies and other incentives, taxes, price controls, currency restrictions, investment conditions, and so on. Therefore, the theory of internalization explains horizontal foreign investment as a response to market failures to effectively use the benefits of better knowledge. Internalization allows firms to "appropriate" excess profits from production improvements that cannot be obtained in foreign markets. The theory of internalization also interprets vertical integration as a replacement for an inefficient foreign market. Reverse integration occurs when: with a small number of buyers and sellers, the cost of coordinating production stages is high; the exchange takes a long time; buyers and sellers are in a position of uncertainty. Progressive (forward) integration is effective for the organization of exchange, provided there is a close interdependence between the production firm and marketing services, and the weakening of this interdependence through market prices and contracts requires large funds.

Thus, the theory of internalization is based on the fact that a multinational company invests abroad, and to take advantage of market externalities: economies of scale in production and marketing, as well as property rights and public nature of inventions, government market restrictions. Thus, TNCs carry out international movement of goods and services more efficiently than: the foreign market. In other words, intangible as well as other assets of the firm cause foreign direct investment, as soon as less money is needed for intra-firm operations than for operations in foreign markets. From the standpoint of internalization theory , IIBSs are institutions invented to create internal markets and use them to their advantage.

Eclectic paradigm of foreign direct investment. Theories of monopoly advantage and internalization have come a long way in explaining foreign direct investment, but not to the end. In particular, these theories do not explain why the schemes of foreign relations of TNCs (combination of exports, licensing and investment) are different in different countries. The only plausible explanation for the differences between these schemes by country is the impact of national characteristics on foreign investment, as well as other forms of international cooperation. The eclectic paradigm of foreign direct investment helps to justify interstate differences, models of international relations of the IIBS. Foreign direct investment means that the peculiarities of the location are the advantages of foreign host countries, but the advantages of the investing firm are ownership; each side benefits. Therefore, international production concerns not only the monopolistic advantage of the firm and its ability to internalize this advantage, but also the foreign country, where this production gives the firm unique opportunities. Due to the fact that some market failures relate to the manifestation of national specifics, the benefits of internalization for IIBS depend on the country. Thus, the eclectic paradigm uses the provisions of theories of international trade (comparative advantage), location, as well as theories of monopolistic advantage and internalization .

The main importance of the eclectic paradigm is to justify the location of international production depending on the specifics of the host country. International cooperation requires both the contribution of the firm itself and national factors

(minerals, human resources, energy sources, geographical location, market, government policy, etc.). If the internalization of its monopolistic advantage is more profitable for IIBS , then it is investing in this foreign country. Otherwise, the company uses the national market through export or licensing. Thus, the theory of foreign direct investment should answer three main questions: why firms direct their activities abroad as direct investors, as direct investment firms will be able to successfully compete with local firms, which have a natural advantage of local firms in a familiar business environment why firms choose to penetrate foreign countries rather than producers; exporters or licensors. The theory of international portfolio investment is unable to explain foreign direct investment. Indeed, allowing perfect competition, this theory makes it impossible for any foreign direct investment. The theory of monopolistic superiority states that an investing firm has monopolistic advantages that allow it to manage subsidiaries abroad more efficiently than local competing firms. These benefits can be grouped into two categories: intangible assets (better knowledge) and economies of scale. Intangible assets are specific advantages of the firm, and the marginal cost of their use in foreign investment is very small, because it is the cost of past periods.

Intangible assets allow the investing firm to create differentiated products with competitive advantages and thus make a profit. The theory of internalization of foreign direct investment states that multinational firms internationalize international market operations if they manage to take advantage of external (side) effects through internal movements. Thus, a TNC is an institution designed to create and use internal markets. The eclectic paradigm of foreign direct investment states that in order to explain the international behavior of the firm, it is necessary to take into account both the specific preferences of the firm and the country. If it is more profitable for a TNC to internalize its monopoly advantage in a certain country, it will invest in that country. To create a unified theory of international economic development requires a synthesis of theories of international trade and investment, which will enhance the activities of IIBS.

Since the late 1990s, there has been a steady increase in foreign direct investment by IIBS, which contributes to the interdependence of countries and individual economic entities in the world economy through the integration of business units rather than on the basis of international trade. Foreign capital, having penetrated deeply into the economies of many countries, has become part of their reproductive process. The share of enterprises controlled by foreign capital in the total production of manufacturing in Australia, Belgium, Ireland, Canada exceeds 33%, in the leading Western European countries is 21-28%, in the US foreign controlled enterprises produce more than 10% of industrial products. In the economies of developing countries, foreign capital in the form of direct investment accounts for up to 40% of industrial production. The majority of foreign direct investment falls on developed countries: both capital-exporting countries and host countries.

In today's world, host countries (developed and developing) tend to approve IIBS on their territory. When choosing an IIBS country, investment conditions should be assessed according to the following criteria: assessment of the local market in terms of its capacity, resources, location, etc., political stability in the country, legal conditions of foreign investment, taxation system, nature of trade policy, infrastructure

development, intellectual protection. IIBS activities are assessed differently in their home countries. However, they all acknowledge the great potential of IIBS and the steady expansion of their activities across national borders, as well as the significant role of IIBS in investing capital in the national economy. The most problematic in the activities of IIBS for the host countries are the relationship between IIBS and national governments and the realization of corporate interests of IIBS. On the one hand, the IIBS is an important instrument of foreign economic and foreign policy influence, and the state cannot but use it in the interests of its assertion on the world stage. The target form of communication between big business and public authorities is a system of lobbying aimed at defending the interests of IIBS. The modern IIBS lobbying network includes departments of corporations and their associations, informal contact organizations, foundations, bureaus, etc. They aim to influence the adoption of relevant legislation, party activities, election results and judicial decisions. Lobbyists use various methods in their activities: organizing campaigns to attract voters to vote; establishing contacts with politicians and officials of the state apparatus to influence their decisions on the financing of election campaigns, the activities of political parties, etc. In addition, in recent decades XX Art. IIBS was not limited to funding individual politicians. The largest owners of IIBS are members of governments and run for office. Moreover, many of them hold senior government positions in sectors of the economy in which they had significant financial interests prior to their appointment. Naturally, IIBS, in turn, fears nationalization or some restriction of its activities abroad and needs substantial support and protection from the US government. The main components of the IIBS's potential are: the presence of a wide network of branches, subsidiaries, missions, connections , which no diplomatic mission has; the presence of IIBS in the economy of host countries, in their infrastructure, foreign trade, in contrast to official diplomacy, which operates at the interstate level; extending the control of IIBS to the media, communication, which means having a powerful weapon in the formation of local public opinion; creation in the dependent countries of an obedient force in the person of representatives of local political and social circles. Thus, IIBSs have significant opportunities to participate in political processes. This applies not only to the home countries, but also to the host countries.