THE FOURTH GERMAN-RUSSIAN WEEK OF THE YOUNG RESEARCHER

“GLOBAL HISTORY. GERMAN-RUSSIAN PERSPECTIVES ON REGIONAL STUDIES”

Saint Petersburg, October 6–10, 2014
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Welcome to the “4th German-Russian Week of the Young Researcher”!

Dear colleagues from Russia and Germany,

We would like to offer you a warm welcome to this, our, “4th German-Russian Week of the Young Researcher”! When we celebrated the German-Russian Year of Science”, three years ago, the idea was born to invite young researchers from both countries to come together to discuss current topics of mutual interest. Since then it has grown from strength to strength. The success of the first week in Kazan (2011) encouraged us to turn it into an annual event. The following years we met in Ekaterinburg (2012) and in Novosibirsk (2013). The main goal of these meetings is to foster collaboration among young scientists and researchers who will be setting the agenda of scientific cooperation between Russia and Germany in the near future. And indeed this year, in 2014, it is a European idea that we convey with our week within the EU-Russia Year of Science as a joint initiative of the EU-Commission and the Ministry of Education and Science of the Russian Federation. And as usual research organizations and institutions of higher education of both our countries will be presenting their funding programmes and describing the platforms that they can offer to both Russian and German PhD students or PostDoctoral researchers. The over arching principle behind these presentations is to facilitate collaboration and to broaden research networks.

We have chosen the "northern capital" of Russia, Saint Petersburg, as the venue for our fourth German-Russian Week with good reason. Not only is St. Petersburg one of the leading scientific centres in Russia, but it is also closely linked to the topic of our discussion. In contrast to previous meetings, which focused on topics from the fields of engineering, energy or health, during this fourth German-Russian Week we will be debating on historical issues in various regions of the world. Bearing in mind that 2014 commemorates the 100th anniversary of the start of the First World War, which saw the fall of several European Empires, we considered it to be relevant and scientifically attractive to invite young historians to discuss modern approaches towards research on empires. The regions that we will be covering under the general theme of „Global history – Russian-German Perspectives on Regional Studies” include Europe, Africa, Latin America and Asia. We would like to express our deepest gratitude to St. Petersburg State University and its academic hospitality, to the Consulate General of Germany in St. Petersburg for its kind support, as well as to the Russian Foundation for the Humanities (RFH) and the Council of Young Scientists of the Russian Academy of Sciences (YRAS) and the Council of the Russian Union of Young Scientists (RoSMU). And, of course, we thank all of you, the participants, for your involvement and cooperation in this conference.

СПАСИБО ВАМ!
Уважаемые коллеги, дорогие друзья,

Санкт-Петербургский университет всегда с радостью открывает свои двери ученым из разных стран мира, занятым увлекательными исследованиями, и мне особенно приятно встречать в СПбГУ наших партнеров и коллег из Германии. Академические связи именно с немецкими учеными, исследователями, преподавателями, научными и общественными организациями были и остаются одними из самых крепких на протяжении всей истории нашего университета. Сейчас именно с университетами Германии происходит самый активный академический обмен, хотя всего среди наших партнеров уже больше 300 университетов из более чем 70 стран мира. Две из тринадцати ведущих лабораторий СПбГУ возглавляют ведущие ученые из Германии – океанолог Йорн Тиде и химик Детлеф Банеманн. Действуют несколько междисциплинарных исследовательских центров, и три магистерские программы реализуются совместно с университетами Германии. Торжественное открытие одной из таких программ – в области журналистики – состоялось именно в рамках нашей IV Российско-германской недели молодого ученого.

И мы совсем не намерены останавливаться на этом, поэтому с радостью отклинулись на предложение принять у себя IV Неделю молодого ученого. Ее цель – объединение исследователей, занятых разными аспектами исторической науки, развитие междисциплинарных научных проектов. Это и наша цель. Ведь именно такие проекты позволяют открывать новое в, казалось бы, привычном, смотреть на традиционные вопросы с новой стороны. Историческая наука ставит перед молодыми исследователями множество таких вопросов, и, думаю, в результате этой встречи появятся новые совместные инициативы – межрегиональные, международные, глобальные.

Санкт-Петербургский университет с удовольствием поддержит яркие и прогрессивные инициативы молодых ученых. У нас есть для этого все возможности. Мы проводим открытые прозрачные конкурсы на открытие в университете позиции, на проведение конференций, на поездки и даже открыть для всех. Мы первыми среди российских университетов открыли программу грантов для постдоков. Ведущие исследовательские группы университета соревнуются за право пригласить в свои коллектива молодых ученых, которым предлагается зарплата 60 тысяч рублей в месяц. В этом году уже более 100 ученых из 20 стран мира получили работу в университете благодаря этой программе.

Мы первыми в России вернули себе право присуждать собственные ученые степени. Получить нашу степень сложнее, чем обычную, потому что для каждого соискателя мы формируем отдельную группу экспертов, международную; в ней каждый ученый – специалист именно в той области, в которой работает защищающийся. Защиты проходят на английском языке, абсолютно открыто, все материалы публикуются. Это непросто. Но я не думаю, что кого-нибудь из вас останавливают трудности. История учит тому, как их преодолевать. А вы в этом эксперты.

Я буду очень рад увидеть всех вас в СПбГУ снова – в качестве преподавателей, обучающихся, гостей или партнеров. До встречи!

PROF. DR. NIKOLAI KROPACHEV
Rektor
Sankt Petersburger Staatliche Universität

ПРОФ. НИКОЛАЙ КРОПАЧЕВ
Ректор
Санкт-Петербургский государственный университет
Sehr geehrte Kollegen, liebe Freunde,


Ich werde mich sehr freuen, Sie alle in der SPSU wieder begrüßen zu können – als Professoren, Dozenten, Studierende, Gäste oder Partner. Auf ein baldiges Wiedersehen!

St. Petersburg ist eine Stadt mit langer akademischer und wissenschaftlicher Tradition. So wurde hier im 18. Jahrhundert auf Initiative von Peter dem Ersten die russische Akademie der Wissenschaften gegründet. In jener Zeit wurde auch die erste Universität in Russland errichtet, die heutzutage zu den führenden russischen Universitäten zählt.

Deutschland und Russland sind seit Jahrhunderten enge Partner im Bereich Wissenschaft und Forschung. Sowohl bilateral als auch auf europäischer Ebene führen russische und deutsche Wissenschaftler gemeinsame Forschungsprojekte durch.

So beteiligt sich Russland aktiv an den großen internationalen Projekten wie XFEL und FAIR in Deutschland. Sechs Forscher aus Deutschland werden in den nächsten drei Jahren in russischen Labors gemeinsam mit ihren russischen Partnern im Rahmen des Megagrant-Programms ihre Forschungen durchführen. Anfang September wurde das Deutsch-Russische Institut für fortgeschrittene Technologien GRIAT in Kazan eröffnet.

Auch die Staatliche Universität St. Petersburg, bei der wir heute zu Gast sind, beteiligt sich aktiv am wissenschaftlichen Austausch mit Deutschland. Seit vorigem Jahr ist Professor Richter sogar der erste deutsche Lehrstuhlinhaber an der Universität – er leitet den Lehrstuhl für Wirtschaft und BWL. Herr Rektor Kropachev, es ist für uns eine große Ehre, dass die vierte Deutsch-Russische Woche des jungen Wissenschaftlers in den Räumlichkeiten Ihrer Universität stattfindet.


Die vierte Woche widmet sich einem geisteswissenschaftlichen Thema. Deutschland und Russland weisen durch historische und kulturelle Verbindungen eine Vielzahl von Gemeinsamkeiten und Schnittmengen auf, die ihren Niederschlag in den geisteswissenschaftlichen Disziplinen finden, vor allem natürlich in der Geschichtswissenschaft.

Die Veranstaltung bringt zum vierten Mal Doktoranden, Postdocs und Professoren aus Deutschland und Russland zusammen. Das Format der Veranstaltung ermöglicht den wissenschaftlichen Austausch zu den wichtigsten wissenschaftlichen Themen
und stellt eine Basis für die weitere Zusammenarbeit insbesondere der jungen Wissenschaftler dar.


Ich darf Ihnen nun eine erfolgreiche Konferenz mit vielen neuen Anregungen für die weitere deutsch-russische Wissenschaftskooperation und einen lebhaften Meinungsaustausch wünschen!

Vielen Dank für Ihre Aufmerksamkeit!
Дорогие участники IV Российско-германской недели молодого ученого!

Я очень рада приветствовать вас на открытии IV Российско-германской недели молодого ученого в Санкт-Петербурге.

Санкт-Петербург – это город с давними академическими и научными традициями. В XVIII веке по инициативе Петра I здесь была создана Российская академия наук. В это же время в городе появляется и первый в России университет, который сегодня является одним из ведущих российских вузов.

Германия и Россия уже несколько столетий тесно сотрудничают в области науки и исследовательской деятельности. Российские и немецкие ученые реализуют совместные исследовательские проекты, как двусторонние, так и на общеевропейском уровне.

В частности, российская сторона принимает активное участие в крупных международных проектах в Германии – Европейский рентгеновский лазер на свободных электронах XFEL и ускоритель тяжелых ионов FAIR. Шесть ученых из Германии в последующие три года будут проводить свои исследования в российских лабораториях вместе со своими российскими коллегами в рамках программы мегагрантов. В начале сентября в Казани был открыт Германо-Российский институт новых технологий ГРИНТ (GRIAT).

Санкт-Петербургский государственный университет, в стенах которого мы сегодня собрались, также очень активно развивает научное сотрудничество с Германией. В прошлом году в университете появился даже первый немецкий заведующий кафедрой – профессор Рихтер возглавил кафедру экономики предприятия и предпринимательства. Уважаемый господин ректор, для нас большая честь проводить IV Российско-германскую неделю молодого ученого в Вашем университете.

Данное мероприятие уже успело стать своего рода маяком для германо-российского научного сотрудничества. Первая Неделя молодого ученого состоялась в 2011 году в Казани в рамках Российско-Германского года образования, науки и инноваций. Вторая Неделя прошла в 2012 году в Екатеринбурге по теме «Человек и здоровье», а третья в Новосибирске, где ученые двух стран обсудили проблемы авиации и космоса.

Четвертая Неделя посвящена гуманитарным наукам. Германия и Россия, соединенные дружественными и культурными связями, обнаруживают много общего, множество точек соприкосновения, что находит отражение в гуманитарных дисциплинах и прежде всего в исторической науке.

Неделя молодого ученого вот уже в четвертый раз собирает вместе аспирантов, кандидатов и докторов наук, профессоров из Германии и России. Формат мероприятия дает его участникам возможность обмена опытом по важнейшим для современной науки вопросам и является основой продолжения научных контактов, особенно между молодыми учеными.

Проведение подобных мероприятий невозможно без поддержки надежных и сильных партнеров. Тесно сотрудничают между собой Немецкое научно-исследовательское сообщество (DFG) и Российский гуманитарный научный фонд (РГНФ). За обеспечение академического обмена в Санкт-Петербурге отвечает Информационный центр DAAD.

Главным организатором Недели молодого ученого выступает Германский дом науки и инноваций в Москве (DWH). Германский дом был открыт в Москве в 2009 году. Он объединяет под одной крышей немецкие научно-исследовательские организации, работающие в России, и все эти годы успешно поддерживает германо-российское сотрудничество в сфере науки и технологического развития. Важной организацией в его составе, особенно в контексте сегодняшнего мероприятия, является Германский исторический институт.

IV Российско-германская неделя молодого ученого проходит в очень непростой исторический период и потому так важна для всех нас. Еще совсем недавно никто не мог представить себе, что мировая жизнь на европейском пространстве будет поставлена под угрозу. В результате действий в Крыму и на территории Украины мировая политика, в том числе и германо-российские отношения, переживает глубокий кризис доверия. Но мы по-прежнему убеждены в том, что в наших силах найти путь к восстановлению доверительных и прозрачных отношений между нашими странами. И это необходимо сделать, поскольку альтернативы прочным германо-российским и европеиско-российским отношениям не существует. Если мы наладим отношения, от этого все мы только выиграем.

Я хочу пожелать вам плодотворной работы на конференции, новых импульсов для развития научного сотрудничества между Германией и Россией, а также интересных дискуссий. Благодарю за внимание!
Sehr geehrte Damen und Herren, Teilnehmerinnen und Teilnehmer der Vierten Woche des jungen Wissenschaftlers!


Ich freue mich, dass Sie der Einladung zur Eröffnung unserer Woche in so hoher Zahl gefolgt sind, und danke Ihnen für Ihr Interesse, das Sie dieser Veranstaltung entgegenbringen.

Ihr Interesse ehrt unseren Gastgeber, die Staatliche Universität St. Petersburg, die deutsch-russische wissenschaftliche Zusammenarbeit, aber auch die Vertreter der deutschen Hochschulen und Organisationen, die an der Ausgestaltung der „4. Deutsch-Russischen Woche des jungen Wissenschaftlers“ mitwirken.


Die zentrale Aufgabe der Deutschen Häuser für Wissenschaft und Innovation ist die Präsentation des Forschungsstandortes Deutschland und der Leistungsfähigkeit der deutschen Wissenschaft im Ausland.

Im Moskauer Wissenschaftshaus sind es die Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG), die Helmholtz-Gemeinschaft (HGF), die Deutsch-Russische Auslands handels kammer (AHK), die Freie Universität Berlin und der DAAD, die diese Aufgabe gemeinsam wahrnehmen.

Der DAAD ist die weltweit größte akademische Austauschorganisation. Es ist kein Geheimnis, dass der DAAD, seit vielen Jahren, die höchste Zahl der Stipendienbewerbungen eines Landes aus Russland erhält, und die russischen DAAD-Stipendiaten besetzen auch zuverlässig den ersten Platz in der jährlichen Stipendienstatistik.

Das zeigt die außergewöhnliche Dichte der deutsch-russischen Hochschul- und Wissenschaftsbeziehungen, und auch die DFG, lieber Herr Funke, kann aus ihrer Arbeit heraus die Intensität der deutsch-russischen Wissenschaftskooperationen bestätigen.

Russland und Deutschland blicken auf eine 1000-jährige gemeinsame Geschichte zurück, die auch im wissenschaftlichen Bereich eine lange Tradition aufweist:

Umgekehrt waren deutsche Dozenten und Professoren auch und gerade in dieser Stadt, St. Petersburg, in allen wissenschaftlichen Bereichen tätig. Ich erinnere nur an die Beteiligung deutscher Gelehrter am Aufbau der Russischen Akademie der Wissenschaften.

Die Beziehungen zwischen Ihrer Hochschule, Herr Kropatschew, und den deutschen Partnern, sind nachhaltig, effizient und wissenschaftlich herausragend. Der DAAD unterstützt zwei deutsch-russische Zentren an Ihrer Universität:

Seit 2011 besteht das Dmitrij Mendelejew-Programm zur Nachwuchsförderung.


Und erst vor wenigen Wochen haben wir in Kazan die erste Deutsch-Russische Universität Griat mit einer Ausrichtung auf modernes Ingenieurwesen inauguriert.

Dies sind nur wenige Beispiele aus einer Fülle von deutsch-russischen Hochschulköoperationen, die in großer Vielfalt ablaufen.

Warum erwähne ich das?

Wir sehen zurzeit dunkle Wolken am politischen Horizont, die einen Schatten auf unsere gewachsenen und wachsenden Beziehungen zu werfen drohen oder diese gar in Frage stellen wollen.


Umso mehr haben wir daher die akademische Gastfreundschaft der Universität St. Petersburg zu würdigen, die für die kommenden Tage das Forum für die Vorträge und Diskussionen deutscher und russischer Nachwuchswissenschaftler sein wird.


Die Konferenz setzt einen Fokus darauf, dass Russland und Deutschland einen gemeinsamen Ausgangspunkt für die Geschichte des 20. Jahrhunderts haben.


Für mich persönlich beweist die Durchführung der Woche mit ihrem historischen Thema zu einem Zeitpunkt spürbarer politischer Anspannung, wie hoch das gegenseitige Vertrauen zwischen deutschen und russischen Hochschulen und Wissenschaftlern ist.

Daher bin ich überzeugt, dass die Veranstaltung für Sie alle ertragreich sein wird und zu neuen Erkenntnissen und guten Kontakten führen wird.

Ihnen wünsche ich gute Gespräche und danke für Ihre Aufmerksamkeit.
В уважаемые дамы и господа, участники IV Недели молодого ученого!

Как президент Германской службы академических обменов (DAAD) я рада приклонять вас в Санкт-Петербургском государственном университете от имени Германского дома наук и инноваций (DWH) на открытии IV Российско-германской недели молодого ученого.

Я очень рада, что так много гостей смогли принять приглашение и присутствовать на открытии Недели, и благодарю вас за интерес к сегодняшнему мероприятию.

Ваш интерес свидетельствует об уважении к нашему партнеру, Санкт-Петербургскому государственному университету, об уважении к российско-немецкому научному сотрудничеству, а также к представителям немецких вузов и организаций, принимавших участие в подготовке IV Российско-германской недели молодого ученого.

Я хочу сказать Вам, дорогой господин Кропачев, что я впервые в России, впервые в Санкт-Петербурге, а университет, старайший университет России, стал первым российским вузом, который я посетила. Мы благодаря Ваши за возможность превести IV Российско-германскую неделю молодого ученого в Вашем столь богатом традициями университете.

Позвольте мне лично выскажаться Вам слова благодарности за то, что Вы поддержали идею проведения наше мероприятие в СПбГУ. Также я благодаря всех представителей Вашего университета, Ваших коллег, которые принимали участие в подготовке IV Российско-германской недели молодого ученого.

Основной задачей Германских домов науки и инноваций является представление Германии как центра научных исследований, презентация возможностей немецкой науки в других странах мира.

В Германском доме науки и инноваций в Москве поставленную задачу призваны решать сообща такие организации, как Немецкое научно-исследовательское общество (DFG), Объединение имени Гельмгольца (HGF), Российско-Германская внешнеэкономическая палата (AHK), Свободный университет Берлина и DAAD.

DAAD – крупнейшая в мире организация, занимающаяся академическим обменом. Не секрет, что самое большое количество заявок на участие в стипендиальном конкурсе к нам вот уже много лет подряд поступает из России; кроме того, Россия уверенно лидирует в ежегодной статистике по количеству полученных соискателями стипендий.

Этот факт показывает, как тесно сотрудничают друг с другом вузы и научные институты наших стран. И я думаю, дорогой господин Функе, что Немецкое научно-исследовательское общество, опираясь на результаты своей работы, может подтвердить, что российско-германское научное сотрудничество является очень интенсивным.

Россию и Германию связывает тысячелетняя совместная история, научные контакты двух стран имеют давнюю традицию.

В тот год, когда Колумб открыл Америку, – в 1492 году – в университете Ростока уже обучались первые студенты из России. Российские студенты и ученые с тех пор постоянно приезжали в немецкие университеты на учебу, для занятий наукой или чтения лекций.

И наоборот, немецкие доценты и профессора, специалисты во всех областях науки, работали в России, особенно интенсивно – здесь, в Санкт-Петербурге. В качестве подтверждения вышесказанному хочу вспомнить о роли немецких ученых в создании Российской академии наук.

Научные контакты Вашего университета с немецкими партнерами, господин Кропачев, являются прочными, эффективными и дают превосходные результаты. При поддержке DAAD в университете работают два германо-российских центра.

С 2011 года существует совместная программа для молодых исследователей – «Дмитрий Менделеев».

Сегодня для меня будет большой честью открывать новую совместную программу...
обучения "Global Communication and International Journalism", созданную СПбГУ совместно со Свободным университетом Берлина.

А всего несколько недель назад в Казани мы открывали первый Германо-Российский институт новых технологий ГРИНТ (GRIAT), деятельность которого будет связана прежде всего с разработкой инновационных инженерных решений.

Это лишь немногие примеры того, как многообразно сотрудничество немецких и российских вузов и научных институтов.

Почему я говорю об этом сейчас?

Потому что на политическом горизонте сегодня нависли свинцовые тучи, которые в любой момент могут бросить тень на наши существующие и только зарождающиеся совместные проекты и даже поставить наше сотрудничество под вопрос.

Именно потому, что мы накопили положительный опыт сотрудничества и хотим продолжать его – что и позволяют сделать такие мероприятия, как IV Российско-германская неделя молодого ученого, – мы не можем рисковать столь интенсивно развивающимися германско-российскими отношениями, особенно когда речь идет о научном обмене между представителями молодого поколения, вашего поколения, дорогие участники конференции. Мы не можем ставить под угрозу наше сотрудничество, и, если над нами нависли тучи, мы должны лишь крепче сплотиться.

В свете вышеизложенного проявленное представителями Санкт-Петербургского государственного университета гостеприимство, согласие стать на несколько дней форумом для обмена знаниями и научных дискуссий молодых ученых на нашей неделе заслуживает особого уважения.

В отличие от предыдущих трех Недель молодого ученого в Казани, Екатеринбурге и Новосибирске, на петербургской Неделе будут обсуждаться проблемы исторической науки.

Выбрав тему "Global History – German-Russian Perspectives on Regional Studies", Германский дом науки и инноваций в Москве постарался создать для молодых ученых России, занимающихся вопросами истории и ищущих новые подходы к изучению исторического процесса XX века, платформу для обмена опытом и идеями.

Конференция делает акцент на том, что у России и Германии есть общая отправная точка в истории XX века.

Для участия в дискуссиях с молодыми учеными двух стран мы пригласили известных немецких и российских историков. На наше приглашение откликнулись ученые из Мюнхена и Берлина, Москвы и Санкт-Петербурга. Позвольте мне поблагодарить всех участников IV Российско-германской недели молодого ученого за открытость и готовность к сотрудничеству.

Для меня лично проведение Недели на историческую тему в период ощутимой политической напряженности является доказательством того, насколько велико взаимное доверие между немецкими и российскими вузами и учеными.

И потому я убеждена, что мероприятие будет полезным для каждого из нас и проложит дорогу к научным открытиям и важным академическим контактам.

Желаю вам интересного общения и благодарю за внимание.
Sehr geehrter Herr Rektor Kropatschew,
sehr geehrte Frau Generalkonsulin Peitsch,
liebe Frau Kollegin Präsidentin Wintermantel,
lieber Herr Kollege Denisow,
meine sehr geehrten Damen und Herren,

ich freue mich sehr, dass Sie der gemeinsamen Initiative des Deutschen Akademischen Austauschdienstes und der Deutschen Forschungsgemeinschaft folgen und begrüße Sie als deren Vizepräsident ganz herzlich zur vierten Nachwuchswoche des Deutschen Wissenschafts- und Innovationshauses!

Als vorletzter Redner in einer Reihe von Grussworten noch etwas Neues hinzuzufügen, fällt schwer. Aber lassen sich mich doch kurz auf die Entstehung der Wochen und die besonderen Rahmenbedingungen eingehen, unter denen wir die vierte Woche hier bei Ihnen in Petersburg veranstalten dürfen.


Und es ist in der Tat die besondere Beziehung zu Europa, die St. Petersburg in diesen politisch angespannten Tagen als geradezu idealen Standort für unsere Nachwuchswoche erscheinen lässt. Zum einen ist es die historische Bedeutung Ihrer Stadt und zum anderen die Geschichte Ihrer Universität, lieber Herr Rektor Kropatschew, die mit Ihrem starken geistes- und sozialwissenschaftlichen Profil den geistigen Hort für das Thema unserer Woche bietet.

Seit der Gründung Ihrer Stadt durch Peter den Großen vor über 300 Jahren entwickelte sich St. Petersburg rasch als Bindeglied zwischen Europa und Russland. Diese besondere Mittlerfunktion St. Petersbursgs wollen wir auch in diesen Tagen nutzen, um den Austausch von Ideen zu einem aktuellen Thema zwischen unseren Ländern, das heißt eben auch zwischen Ost und West voranzutreiben. Im Mittelpunkt steht nach den Jahren zuvor mit Fragen zur „Energie“, zur „Gesundheit“ und zur „Luft- und Raumfahrt“ mit der „Imperienforschung“ zum ersten Mal ein historischer Themen-
komplex, der verschiedene Regionen der Welt wie Afrika, Asien, Amerika und nicht zuletzt Europa in den Blick nimmt.


Die Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft fördert seit langem die wissenschaftliche Integration Russlands in den europäischen Forschungsräum. Neben regelmäßigen Beratungen und Veranstaltungen in Deutschland und Russland führt die DFG aber auch gemeinsame Ausschreibungen mit ihren russischen Partnerorganisationen RFFI (Russische Stiftung für Grundlagenforschung) und RGNF (Russische Stiftung für Geistes- und Sozialwissenschaften), deren Vertreter ich ganz herzlich begrüße. Es ist mir eine besondere Freude darauf hinzuweisen, dass wir zum ersten Mal gemeinsam mit unseren russischen Kollegen der RFH eine Nachwuchswwoche eröffnen können.


Gestatten Sie mir hier einige weitere Ausführungen zur DFG. Die Deutsche For-


Я очень рад, что вы поддержали совместную инициативу Германской службы академических обменов и Немецкого научно-исследовательского сообщества, и от всей души приветствую вас в качестве вице-президента DFG на открытии IV Недели молодого ученого Германского дома науки и инноваций!

Предпоследнему из выступающих с официальным приветствием всегда непросто добавить что-то новое к уже сказанному. Однако позвольте мне попробовать и коротко рассказать вам историю возникновения мероприятия, остановившись на особенностях проведения IV Недели здесь, в Санкт-Петербурге.

Мы как организаторы прежде всего преследуем две стратегические цели: во-первых, представляя результаты уникальных научных исследований и объединяя молодых ученых наших стран в одну сеть, мы затрагиваем ключевые моменты двустороннего сотрудничества. Во-вторых, мы развиваем обмен с научными центрами в регионах, за пределами Москвы, потому что в регионах, в частности в Северной столице России, также ведутся интересные для Германии исследования, уровень которых очень высок.

В ходе проведения Российско-германского года образования, науки и инноваций 2011/2012 возникла новая идея: предоставить молодым ученым двух стран платформу для обмена опытом, где они могли бы рассказать о своей работе и послушать доклады более опытных коллег. Три года назад в Казани на открытии I Недели мы выразили надежду, что наша инициатива будет иметь продолжение, что раз в год мы сможем проводить двустороннюю Неделю молодого ученого в разных городах России, каждый раз выбирать новую тематику. За прошедшие три года мы побывали в Казани, Екатеринбурге и Новосибирске, отдаваясь посетить Уральский регион и даже преодолеть Урал, теперь мы не просто возвращаемся в Европу, а проводим Неделю в самом европейском городе России.

Именно особенности отношений с Европой делают Санкт-Петербург в период политической напряженности практически идеальным местом для проведения Недели молодого ученого. Историческое значение вашего города и история развития вашего университета, господин Кропачев, где традиционно сильны гуманитарное и социальное направления, – все это создает прекрасную базу для проведения мероприятия на историческую тему.

Основанный более 300 лет назад Петром I, Санкт-Петербург очень скоро стал связующим звеном между Европой и Россией. И сегодня мы хотим использовать посредническую функцию города для того, чтобы осуществить обмен идеями на актуальную для наших стран тему, т.е. чтобы продолжить диалог между Востоком и Западом. В центре внимания в прошлые годы были такие темы, как «энергия», «здоровье», «авиация и космос». В этом году мы впервые коснемся вопросов истории, «изучение империй» позволит нам рассмотреть различные регионы мира, такие, как Африка, Азия, Америка и, разумеется, Европа.

Европейский регион и Европейский союз – темы, которые мы обсудим в первые два дня, – будут определять содержание всей Недели. Если раньше наша конференция проходила в рамках двустороннего Российско-германского года образования, науки и инноваций или перекрестного года Германии и России, то сегодня платформой мероприятия стал год науки Россия – ЕС 2014. Это совместная инициатива Европейской комиссии и Министерства образования и науки РФ, которая будет реализована в странах – членах ЕС и в России. При помощи Года науки организаторы делают акцент на достижениях и потенциале научного сотрудничества между Россией и Европой.

Немецкое научно-исследовательское общество уже давно поддерживает интеграцию России в европейское научно-исследовательское пространство. Кроме регулярных консультаций и мероприятий в Германии и России наша организация проводит совместные конференции вместе с российскими партнерами, которых я очень рад приветствовать сегодня на открытии Недели, – РФФИ (Российский фонд фундаментальных исследований) и РГНФ (Российский гуманитарный научный фонд). С особым удовольствием...
Я хочу отметить, что мы впервые проводим Неделю молодого ученого вместе с нашими российскими коллегами из РГНФ.

Проводя совместные российско-немецкие мероприятия, мы показываем, что наука, образование и культура могут быть мостом между Европой и Россией, и я убежден в том, что в дальнейшем это и будет. Мы вступаем в диалог на исторические темы, который, разумеется, затрагивает и современную политическую ситуацию. Обсуждение проблем региональной истории и особенно современной истории, политически актуальных и зачастую острых вопросов на иностранном языке требует от участников конференции не только достаточно большого знания предмета, но и определенной смелости. Поэтому уже само открытие этой Недели, с нашей точки зрения — серьезный успех для всех собравшихся здесь сегодня. Позвольте мне поздравить организаторов и участников конференции в Санкт-Петербурге с ее открытием и выразить им мое глубокое уважение и благодарность!

Позвольте мне сказать еще несколько слов о Немецком научно-исследовательском сообществе. Оно сегодня является крупнейшей организацией в Европе, финансирующей научные исследования. Годовой бюджет более 2,5 миллиардов евро позволяет нам поддерживать развитие фундаментальных исследований в вузах и научных институтах. В международной деятельности DFG Россия занимает ведущие позиции, поскольку с 2003 года наша организация имеет представительство в Москве, которое в прошлом году отпраздновало десятилетний юбилей. А в 1970 году мы заключили соглашение с Академией наук, в соответствии с которым мы развиваем научный обмен между нашими странами.

Дамы и господа, давайте используем эту неделю в Санкт-Петербурге, чтобы усилив нашу готовность к сотрудничеству. Я думаю, всем нам интересно, что будет дальше, но в одном я уверен: для нас невероятно важно расширять и укреплять институциональное сотрудничество с нашими партнерами в Санкт-Петербурге. Наряду с Вашим университетом, дорогой г-н Крокачев, это еще и Высшая школа экономики, Политехнический университет, а также многочисленные институты Российской академии наук в Санкт-Петербурге. Я желаю вам и всем нам успешной IV Российско-германской неделе молодого ученого и очень надеюсь, что в следующем году мы все вместе будем открывать V Неделю.
Уважаемые коллеги, дорогие друзья!

Российский гуманитарный научный фонд рад приветствовать участников IV Российско-германской недели молодого ученого.

Мы считаем очень важной и актуальной тему IV Недели – «Глобальная история: российско-германский взгляд на региональные исследования». Особенно значимым нам представляется избранный вами гуманитарный акцент, под знаком которого пройдет мероприятие нынешнего года.

РГНФ высоко оценивает перспективы сотрудничества с германскими учеными-гуманитариями. Уже более десяти лет наш фонд и Немецкое научно-исследовательское сообщество (DFG) проводят совместные конкурсы. Их результатом стала поддержка многих интересных проектов, в том числе по исторической проблематике. Участие в этих проектах представителей научной молодежи представляется нам особенно значимым. Ведь именно преемственность научных поколений способствует передаче исторического и культурного опыта, обеспечивает сохранение памяти о важнейших уроках истории.

РГНФ много внимания уделяет поддержке молодых ученых. Наш фонд, 20-летие которого недавно отметила гуманитарная обществоенность России, за время своей деятельности поддержал 250 тысяч российских исследователей, из которых более 83 тысяч — это молодые ученые.

Сегодня 46% полученных грантов РГНФ принадлежат молодым исследователям. Высокое качество их проектов свидетельствует о несомненной зрелости научной мысли, позволяющей надеяться на достойное будущее нашей гуманитарной науки.

И РГНФ, и наши коллеги из DFG глубоко заинтересованы в проведении совместных конкурсов, направленных на поддержку научной молодежи. Мы надеемся, что это станет одним из приоритетных направлений научной политики наших организаций.

Еще раз поздравляем участников мероприятия с началом его работы. Желаем интересных докладов и дискуссий и выражаем надежду, что обсуждаемые проблемы будут иметь долгую и плодотворную научную судьбу.
Die Russische Stiftung für Geistes- und Sozialwissenschaften (Russian Foundation for Humanities, RFH) freut sich sehr, die Teilnehmer der „IV. Deutsch-Russischen Woche des jungen Wissenschaftlers“ begrüßen zu dürfen.


RFH legt viel Wert auf Unterstützung junger Wissenschaftler. Die Stiftung, deren 20-jähriges Bestehen die geisterwissenschaftliche Gemeinschaft Russlands vor kurzem gefeiert hat, hat in all diesen Jahren 250 000 russische Forscher gefördert, darunter mehr als 83 000 junge Wissenschaftler.

Heute sind 46 Prozent der von RFH geförderten Projekte die der Nachwuchswissenschaftler. Hohes wissenschaftliches Niveau der Projekte zeugt von der Reife der Forscher, die auf eine würdige Zukunft der Geisteswissenschaften in Russland hoffen lässt.

Sowohl RFH als auch unsere Kollegen in der DFG sind sehr am gemeinsamen Wettbewerb zur Unterstützung junger Wissenschaftler interessiert. Wir hoffen, dass das eine der prioritären Aufgaben der Wissenschaftspolitik unserer beiden Organisationen sein wird.

Wir gratulieren allen Teilnehmern noch einmal zur Eröffnung der Veranstaltung. Wir wünschen Ihnen Inhaltsreiche Vorträge und spannende Diskussionen und hoffen, dass alle auf der Tagesordnung stehenden Themen ein langes wissenschaftliches Leben haben werden.
Dear Prof. Dr. Funke,
Esteemed Colleagues,
Dear Young Researchers,

Before starting this year’s “Fourth German-Russian Week of the Young Researcher” on Global history, and listening to your lectures, we would like to pass some more general information to you on who we are and what we do. I think that this may be of some help for our young Russian and German participants.

Let me start with some words on the DAAD. The DAAD is the organization of German higher education institutions, devoted to internationalizing the system of scientific research and innovation. By awarding scholarships and providing customized programs which promote transnational cooperation and university partnerships, the DAAD provides students, researchers and instructors the chance to study, work and conduct research at the best institutions in Germany. These efforts correspond to the goals of German cultural diplomacy, education and research policy, as well as development cooperation.

The DAAD wishes to prepare students to take their place as responsible professionals and leaders of tomorrow. In addition to forming a sustainable network throughout the world, the DAAD will place more focus on strengthening the academic and cultural bonds between its scholarship holders and alumni in the future.

We keep our doors open for international cooperation: The DAAD will develop its programs in such a way that universities can use them to implement their own internationalization strategies. To ensure that Germany retains its position as one of the most popular destinations for internationally mobile students, we need to attract 350,000 international students by 2020.

The aim is to raise their academic success rate to that of German students. By the end of this decade, we wish to ensure that one of every two German graduates gain substantial academic experience abroad. The DAAD is a standard-bearer for German as a language of science and scholarship and advocates multilingualism everywhere.

We form expertise for academic collaboration: The DAAD’s activities are based on extensive and differentiated knowledge about the structures of university cooperation and the systems of higher learning and research throughout the world. The DAAD relies on the professional experience of its employees and its worldwide network of branch offices, information centers and lectors. This expertise is updated on a continual basis and made available for strategic, decision-making purposes. Based on this expertise, the DAAD will play a more active role in advancing the internationalization of the academic system.

This is why the DAAD enhances the dialogue between academic and civil societies as an instrument for mutual understanding. Why is this important? Looking back upon the last century we see a century full of wars, catastrophes and the highest death toll mankind ever paid for the lack of communication or the denial of it. And the main reason why the DAAD was founded, in 1924/25, was to resume a broken communication with Germany’s neighbor states and World War I opponents. On the other side, the 20th century has brought about a completely new phenomenon, globalization, which opens up new opportunities as well as new challenges.

We all know that science and research play a significant role in this respect and are to find answers and react to the challenges of the 21st century. Therefore Germany invests considerable financial means into research and has developed a differentiated landscape of research institutions. Besides universities, which combine teaching and research, there is a good deal of organizations doing research by themselves or financing it.

The most commonly known organizations, both in Germany and abroad, are the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft – DFG – (German Research Foundation), the Max Planck Society, the Leibniz Society, the Helmholtz Association and the Fraunhofer Society.

All these organizations support science and research as such, finance projects, materials, expeditions, technology, experiments and the scientific personnel involved.

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As science and research have become more and more vital for development, society, progress and stability, alongside with the globalization of ideas and economy, Germany introduced the idea of a new branch of foreign policy, the "Außenwissenschaftspolitik". We may translate it by "foreign policy for science and research".

It was Frank Walter Steinmeier, Minister of Foreign Affairs, who, in 2007, had proclaimed this new branch of foreign policy and developed the idea of establishing German Centers for Research and Innovation, to represent Germany as the country of research and innovation abroad.

This is why we now have Centers in scientifically prospective countries, such as USA/New York, India/New Delhi, Japan/Tokyo, Brazil/Sao Paolo, Egypt/Cairo and Russia/Moscow.

Science and research are inevitable prerequisites for innovation and technological progress, but innovation itself does require management skills and capabilities as well as economic experience and know-how, to be successfully launched. Therefore, besides the organizations of research, the German economy is integrated into the concept of the Centers.

The mission of the Center in Moscow is to establish a forum, on which German research can be represented, and on which a German-Russian dialogue can be practiced. Research institutions and innovative enterprises should be presented; strategic topics may be discussed.

There will be marketing for German research; the Center offers information for Russian and German scientists in various forms. Outstanding German scientists are invited for lectures, science talks are arranged, workshops organized, and the Moscow Center takes part in conferences. A particularly important goal of the Moscow Center is to bring together young researchers from Germany and Russia as future colleagues. Thus the idea of the "German-Russian Week of the Young Researcher" was developed.

Starting with the "First German-Russian Week of the Young Researcher" in Kazan in 2011, followed by the second week in Ekaterinburg in 2012 and the third in Novosibirsk in 2013, topics reaching from Energy and Health to Aviation and Spaceflight have been discussed.

Today, I am glad to welcome you to the "fourth week", taking up the historic field with this year’s topic "Global History – German-Russian Perspectives on Regional Studies", where you will discuss new approaches to history.

Before we listen to your lectures, let me pass on the word to Professor Funke, Vice-President of the DFG, Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft.

Thank you for your attention and for your participation in the "4th week"!
Dear Distinguished Guests,
Dear Colleagues and Friends,

Thank you very much for handing over to me. It is a great pleasure for me to do this introduction together with you, especially because Professor Huber with whom I opened the first two weeks, could not come to Novosibirsk last year. So we are all very happy to have the President of the DAAD among us here today, which shows that the format and the importance of the week have grown over the years.

It is a little difficult to make a clear cut here, because in fact both of our organizations – the DAAD and the DFG – show responsibility for science and the development of fundamental research. And indeed it is this “Week of the Young Researcher” where our two funding agencies DAAD and DFG meet: Supporting the mobility of young scientists and their research activities.

And especially abroad – here in Russia, in Saint Petersburg – it all makes so much sense to combine the on-site experience of the DAAD and the research expertise of the DFG, which has funded hundreds of projects at local research institutions over the decades. That is why we originally had the idea to organize such a conference together and that is why we are trying to share this introduction here.

But, Miss President Wintermantel has already pointed out that the German Centre for Research and Innovation – das Deutsche Haus für Wissenschaft und Innovation Moskau – is host to many more German organizations than just the DFG and the DAAD. That is why I am very happy to see this week, here in Saint Petersburg, not only Dr. Michael Kleineberg from the local DAAD-Information-Centre, but also representatives from the Alexander von Humboldt-Foundation, Professor Leonid Zhmur, and from the Freie Universität Berlin, Tobias Stüdemann, who will support us the whole week. But, as a matter of fact, even more grateful we have to be to all the researchers to have come to Saint Petersburg. Without your involvement, this week would not have been possible. Many thanks to all the German scientists from Berlin, Bonn, Giessen, Moscow, Munich, Regensburg – and finally – if I may add…from Münster, because this is where I come from!

You might be wondering why I welcome German scientists from Moscow! But I am not mistaken! Because of the topic “Global History”, this conference was organized in collaboration with the German Historical Institute, the DHI in Moscow. The DHI Moscow has long been a close partner in our German Centre for Research and Innovation. Therefore I would like to thank you, Professor Katzer, the director of the DHI, for your personal engagement.

But some of our Russian colleagues had a longer and more tiring journey to come here, because you live further away from Saint Petersburg than most Germans do. So it is a great pleasure to welcome you from various parts of the vast territory of the Russian Federation: from Belgorod, Mos-
GERMAN-RUSSIAN WEEK OF YOUNG RESEARCHER

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

GERMAN-RUSSIAN WEEK OF YOUNG RESEARCHER

And without the help of our friends from Saint Petersburg, vice rectors Sergei Tunik, Igor Gorlinsky, Aleksey Zarvazin and Mr. Petrov, we could not celebrate the opening of this week here today in this fashion.

Also we have to be very grateful to the Russian Foundation for Humanities – RFH, which has helped us to identify and invite Russian scientists. I especially welcome Nikolay Denisov and Yana Smirnova from the RFH Administration in Moscow. Obviously, the active role of ROSMU, the Russian Union of Young Scientists, and the Council of Young Scientists and Specialists – SMU RAN, has to be underlined here, too. Without the strong input of your councils it would have been very difficult to attract young researchers from Russia to this week.

Thank you very much Natalya Tyurnina, as chairperson of the council of SMU RAN here in Saint Petersburg. And to bring all these young talents together with renowned senior scientists – like Martin Schulze Wessels, Sebastian Conrad, Klaus Mühlhahn and Stefan Rinke – makes this week so much more interesting for all of us.

The German scientists have mainly been recruited via DFG funded projects. The DFG as the central, self-governing, research funding organization in Germany, has been active in Russia for many decades now. Why Russia? We believe that there is considerable research potential to be realized in many areas of science and the humanities. We have always put a special focus on countries that allow scientific cooperation to be carried out on an equal footing. Within our agreements and bilateral programmes with the Russian Academy of Sciences, the Russian Foundation for Basic Research – RFBR, and the Russian Foundation for Humanities – RFH, innumerable conferences, symposia, visits and research projects have been implemented in all areas of research, often leading to sustainable integrated networks. Our liaison office in Moscow, as one of only seven DFG offices worldwide, underlines the fact that Russia plays a key role as one of our most important strategic partners. But I will stop here at this point, because my colleagues Torsten Fischer and Jürgen Breitkopf will go into detail later this week and present how the DFG fosters international collaboration and facilitates cooperation, especially among young researchers.

We have heard now – why the DFG is in Russia. And we have heard – why we are in St. Petersburg today. And we have already heard – why we focus on the support of young researchers this week. But we have not heard about the actual topic of this conference! Why did we choose “Global History” as a major topic? Let my briefly explain why. There are three good reasons for it.

First of all, this year – for a change of topic – we really wanted to find a field of general interest in the humanities. We decided on history, because this is an area where Germans and Russians have been working together very successfully for a very long time. As most of the conferences in 2014 are dedicated to the First World War we deliberately chose “Global History” as a broader topic.

The second reason to decide on a historical topic was the possibility to include “Regional Studies” from all over the world. It is the interdisciplinarity of the topic that allows us to invite many different researchers from many different disciplines to set up interdisciplinary networks. We believe that this diversity will be a source for finding new ideas. Identifying and exploiting synergies between various aspects and various scientific approaches will surely be the key to tackle global history.

And thirdly, the topic of “Global History” is a hot issue in the humanities at the moment. Also the subtheme of our week “Research on Empires” can launch a dialogue in our societies about the objectives, challenges and fields of modern scientific approaches in history. It is very important to use this week as a platform to exchange ideas, even if we are not of the same opinion. But this is the very essence of science – to enter an academic dispute and listen to everybody’s arguments in order to understand each other.

But now, Miss President Wintemantel and I have talked a lot and we do not want to repeat ourselves here. I promise you will not have to listen to us again this week. Also, we have already said quite a few words in German and in English – and there are so many great minds among us that have not even said a single word in either language yet. So it is high time for us to finish our introductory remarks and have the young scientists speak!
Building bridges through discussing History: What a fascinating but also challenging task!

Introductory Remarks

Dear Young Researchers,

Dear Readers interested in Russian-German research cooperation,

In the DFG, we have had the interesting mandate to organize funding competition and to fund research projects in the field of history for many decades. We are glad to introduce you very briefly to the research discipline of History as far as we perceive it, on the basis of our experience from the past years. Also, we are very happy to say a few words on the special topic for the Third Young Week of the Young Researchers, which we have jointly chosen with our Russian partners.

As a matter of fact, over the last 30 years we have seen many new approaches arise to explain historical processes and methodological research in political, social, economic, cultural and ideological development of separate countries, large regions and global interaction. Modern methodological opportunities for studying regional and transregional ties, or the impact of global ideas, have enriched the range of analytical instruments of historical studies and opened new research perspectives.

The St. Petersburg “Global History Week” will be devoted to the paradigm of imperial research. In scientific discussions of contemporary history this concept enables us to analyze the type of state structure, which differs from representative samples of national states. Therefore, empire as a paradigm turns out to be opposed to a Eurocentric history understanding, in the framework of which the example of the West-European national state was a universal standard for hegemonic regime estimation. The conference was initially devoted to the imperial history of Eastern and South-Eastern Europe, but broadened up to include the regions of Asia, Africa and South America in order to discuss the topic from different regional perspectives.

We are extremely happy that – following joint preliminary discussions with our Russian partners – we could suggest a topic from the Humanities to the young researchers, as we do firmly believe in the fact that History does indeed bridge nations and cultures and their mutual understanding of ideas and principles. This is why – three years ago, when we first heard about the new idea to establish German-Russian Weeks for young researchers – we immediately thought about our solid bilateral collaboration in nearly all fields of the humanities. Our division has been running a joint call for proposals with the Russian Foundation for the Humanities (RFH) for many years now. Since 2006, dozens of bilateral projects and conferences have
been funded by our agencies. The general importance of this DFG-RFH-Call cannot be overestimated, because it is the only opportunity for researchers from our countries to launch their research projects bottom-up, without any thematic priorities, in all fields of the humanities and the social sciences. And, History, as a research discipline, has always been one of the most favourable for international collaboration. That is the reason why after the successful week in Saint Petersburg our two organizations, DFG and RFH, started to intensify the institutional contacts between review boards and expert groups, especially in the field of history.

Hence, it is not surprising that renowned researchers from Germany had immediately agreed to follow our invitation to St. Petersburg, and so did a number of outstanding Russian historians. They could present their findings during the week and discuss them with the next generation of historians from both our countries: Germany and Russia. We are very grateful to all of them who have followed our invitation to come to the northern capital of Russia. Among them, a specialist on Eastern European History (and at the same time representative of our DFG History review board), Professor Dr. Martin Schulze Wessel, accompanied us for the whole week in St. Petersburg. Professor Schulze Wessel had strongly supported the idea to invite young historians to discuss modern approaches, especially with regard to the research on empires from the very beginning.

As in the previous weeks of the Young Researcher, this week, in St. Petersburg, we would like to touch upon general scientific interests and consider current research conceptions. We have aimed at ensuring interdisciplinary and international exchange at a high scientific level and at stimulating the discussion on functioning of empires, their potential and benefit in opposition to the national state. The intensive cooperation with participation of Russian scientists and our partner organization, the Russian Foundation for Humanities, surely is the best way to solve public and global issues on an international level.

With the help of this brochure we make our strong contribution and wish you to enjoy the reading!
What has the study of Russian history gained from the comparison of Empires? The research interest has shifted towards the history of colonialism. The history of the multi-ethnic and multi-religious structure of the Russian Empire has attracted much attention. Especially fruitful is the discussion about the religious policy of the Czarist Empire. Up until now, generalizations about Russia’s religious policy have been drawn primarily from studies of the empire’s treatment of Islam. On the basis of his research about Muslims in Russia and Central Asia, Robert Crews has formulated the concept of the “confessional state”. In a very general sense, Crews’s thesis about the political role of the “confessional state” in shaping religious groups into confessions in such a way as to facilitate the task of integration, can also be applied to other regions of the empire. Yet a close examination of confessional politics in the western borderlands—which were particularly important for Russia’s experience with religious and national diversity—makes clear that Crews’s paradigm is not sufficiently complex for a general analysis of Russian imperial policy towards all confessions. This has been stressed by Mikhail Dolbilov, who offers a much more complex, dynamic, and situational model than Crews. The insights of this discussion offer new perspectives for the comparison of the Russian Empire with other Empires, especially the Ottoman and the Habsburg Empires.
THE EU EASTERN PARTNERSHIP: A SOFT POWER EMPIRE’S PROJECT?

The EaP covers six partner countries: Belarus, Moldova, Ukraine, Armenia, Azerbaijan and Georgia. According to the Prague declaration (May 2009), “The main goal of the Eastern Partnership is to create the necessary conditions to accelerate political association and further economic integration between the European Union and interested partner countries.”

The EaP’s bilateral dimension includes the following priorities:

1. First, to intensify the bilateral relations between the EU and the partner countries with the aim to provide the foundation for association agreements between them (signed with Georgia, Moldova and Ukraine).
2. Second, the EU develops Comprehensive Institution-Building Programs individually with each partner country in order to improve their administrative capacity.
3. Third, the promotion of the mobility of citizens of the partner countries through visa facilitation and readmission agreements and, at the same time, fighting illegal migration and improvement of the border management system.
4. Fourth, the EaP also aims to strengthen energy security through long-term stable and secure energy supply and transit, including through better regulation, energy efficiency and more use of renewable energy sources.

The EaP’s multilateral dimension includes four thematic platforms:

1. democracy, good governance and stability
2. economic integration and convergence with EU policies
3. energy security
4. contacts between people

The multilateral dimension includes also five flagship initiatives:

1. a program of integrated border management
2. support for the development of small and medium enterprises (SME Facility)
3. regional electricity markets, energy efficiency and renewable energy sources
4. environmental governance
5. prevention, preparedness and response to natural and man-made disasters

The Russian concerns about the EaP boil down to the following points:

1. The EaP’s ‘hidden agenda’ includes the EU plan to undermine Russia’s geopolitical dominance in Eastern Europe and the Caucasus. The Ukrainian crisis is solid evidence of this.
2. Moreover, the EaP may potentially undermine Moscow’s own integrationist projects (CIS, Customs Union, Eurasian Union, Belarus-Russia Union State, etc.).
3. The EaP may weaken subregional organizations where Russia participates (e.g., the Black Sea Economic Cooperation).
4. The EaP may downgrade the status of the EU-Russia Four Common Space arrangement and make the EaP participants a more important priority for the EU than Russia (in spheres such as preparing Free Trade Area, Association agreements, visa regime facilitation, etc.).
5. The EaP’s main real aim was to build alternative gas and oil pipelines bypassing Russia (Nabucco, White Stream).

With Russia’s concerns there is Moscow’s skepticism about the EaP:

1. EaP’s poor funding (for 2010–13: Prague summit – €600 mln; Warsaw summit – €1.9 bln, actually – €2,5 bln) prevented the project’s effective implementation. The global crisis and Eurozone crisis were not conducive to better funding.
2. Since the EaP does not promise EU membership to the partner countries, most of them are quite skeptical about the project, as such, and often imitate its implementation rather than do the real ‘homework’.
3. Doubts about the feasibility of democratic reforms by the EaP participants: some of the partner countries (e.g., Belarus, Azerbaijan, Georgia and Ukraine) were, or still are, led by authoritarian or kleptocratic regimes that are reluctant to implement any serious democratic reforms.
4. There is also a big difference of opinion among the project participants on the project’s priorities, final outcomes, and ways and means of its implementation.
Q: You were the second keynote speaker of the first day. Professor Schulze Wessel has approached the topic from a historian’s point of view, whereas you come from the political sciences. What are the differences in your approaches?
A: (a) a political scientist pays more attention to general regularities rather than to specific details, facts, events; (b) a political scientist uses analytical rather than descriptive methods; (c) I’ve paid attention to the present-day/ongoing processes rather than to the historical aspects of the problem.

Q: Your university, SPSU, was host to the German-Russian Week of the Young Researcher. What was your impression of the event and what did your students think of it?
A: I liked the event very much. I believe it was thought-provocative and highly effective. It was also very useful for developing professional contacts. My students share the same opinion.

Q: There is a long tradition of cooperation between German universities and the SPSU. Does your faculty participate in projects with Germany?
A: Yes. My faculty is involved in the St. Petersburg Dialogue. Plus the faculty members had (and have) individual projects with German partners. I, myself, partook in an exchange program with the Free University Berlin (Prof. Klaus Segbers), in November 2012. I am going to visit the Heidelberg University (Prof. Manfred Berg) to implement a research project in November 2015.

The EaP's current status:

- It is a platform for EU-Russia cooperation if both actors stop perceiving the EaP region as a subject for geopolitical and geo-economic competition, drop the ‘hidden agendas’ and set up a joint cooperative agenda.
THE GLOBAL HISTORY OF SPORT IN THE COLD WAR

Sport has long been linked with politics, but never more so than during the Cold War. In this highly precarious time, nations and peoples around the world used sport to promote their political, social, and economic development. The media promoted mega-events between capitalist and Communist athletes as surrogates for diplomatic and military tension. Yet, for all its obvious ideological freightings, sport in this period reflected a complex integration of commerce, celebrity, trans-regional and trans-national fan loyalties. It revealed different and shifting notions of race, class and gender (often within a single nation), and the uneasy mapping of sports and geopolitical allegiances could even make bitter rivals of strategic partners.

Despite its unrivaled visibility, sport has been only minimally examined by scholars of the Cold War, whether they study international political systems or elite and popular culture. As the hardest form of soft power and the softest form of hard power, sport crosses the divide between these two main objects of study. Menting the same rigorous examination already given to subjects from diplomatic relations and military engagement on the one hand to ballet, theater, art and design on the other, sport has the potential to bring both strands of scholarship together in mutually enriching ways. This collaborative and comparative project seeks for the first time to understand Cold War sport in its fullest social, political, cultural and global dimensions. It will not only deliver new knowledge about significant events and processes, but also introduce innovation to the historiography of the period.

Over the course of three workshops, they will seek to: (a) move beyond the role of the state to interrogate the differences and commonalities between the systems brought about by gender, the body, commerce and celebrity; (b) transcend the hitherto dominant focus on the USA and USSR by examining other key nations as well as sports outside the Olympic arena that opened up different nodes of confrontation and rivalry; (c) provide the first, comparative and archive-based examination of the much cited but little understood boycotts of the Olympic Games in Moscow, in 1980, and Los Angeles, in 1984. In contrast to the small body of previous scholarships on the topic, presentations will cover all five continents and a plenitude of sports.

Q: You are the director of the German Historical Institute in Moscow. What are the research priorities of your institute and who are your major partners here in Russia?

A: The focus of our research is on three fields. Firstly, I’d like to mention the history of education and the sciences (Bildungsgeschichte and Wissenschaftsgeschichte). The historiography on this question in Eastern Europe and Russia is less well developed than for Western Europe and is less well known in Western countries. Secondly, our institute started several projects concerning agrarian history from the late imperial to the late Soviet period. They are devoted to the economic, social and cultural dimensions of agriculture and rural life in a longue durée perspective. And, thirdly, we concentrate our interest on some aspects of environmental history during the Cold War, as for example on the history of the Arctic region from a Russian, Soviet and global perspective. The concept is based on the assumption that nature and society are in a true relationship and closely linked with science and technology. All these projects offer splendid opportunities for scientific collaboration with Russian colleagues from universities in the capital and in the regions, research institutes and archives.

Q: You have lived for more than four years in Moscow now. What makes it so special to head a German Institute in Russia?

A: After the 1991 collapse of the Soviet Union, when the archives were opened, foreign historians often tried to acquire, first of all, secret documents in order to rewrite the history of the 20th century. Living and working in the neighborhood of these archives, that means taking part in the contemporary everyday life of Russian people and in the academic debate on history, I learned that you have first to dig into the mountains of published and de-classified sources to understand at least the whole story of their tragic and complicated past. The first time I arrived in Russia was as an un-experienced Frankfurt student at the end of the 1970s. Forty years later, I enjoy the dynamic development of a global city, the direct contacts with Russian colleagues from universities in the capital as well as in the regions, and the work with a young and motivated team of historians.

Q: One of the research projects of the German Historical Institute focuses on the history of the Arctic Region. Can you please tell us more about this project?

A: The aim of this research is to consider the history of global sport – a project funded at the German-Russian Historical Commission. Professor Katzer’s intellectual interests have centered on modern Russian history, with a particular focus on the political, cultural and social history of the twentieth century, especially the First World War and the Russian Civil War, the diplomatic history of the early Cold War, and the Brezhnev period. Current projects are the ideological impacts of Russian Anti-Bolshevism, the Soviet countryside from the 1960s to the 1980s, the problem of authorship and text-production in literature and history, and the place of Soviet physical culture within the history of global sport – a project funded at an earlier stage by the DFG, for three years. The aim of this research is to consider the history of late imperial Russia and the Soviet Union in Eurasian and global contexts, as well as a dialectic process of transferring, adopting and re-transferring of ideas, concepts and technologies. This has led to work on the nature of Soviet culture, the historiography of continuity and change in urban and agrarian spaces, and the conflict between traditional and modern ways of life in a multicultural society.
Q: You are one of the editors of the international peer-review journal “Ab Imperio”. Studies from which areas are covered by your journal and what sort of papers do you accept for publication?

A: Ab Imperio is the periodical that publishes research articles related to the history of empire, nationalism, colonialism, ethnicity, and diversity in the post-Soviet Space and covers the historical period from nomadic empires and early Eurasian history through the Russian and Soviet empires to contemporary politics and society in the region. It also publishes discussions of the com-
The scope of publications is not limited to professional historical research: the journal welcomes contributions from literary scholars, anthropologists, sociologists, and political scientists. The mission of the journal is also to foster a nuanced and theoretically grounded discussion of diversity, hybridity and different political views, as regular features that accompany modern and contemporary history.

Q: The subtopic of the week was “German-Russian Perspectives on Regional Studies”. Is there a difference between German and Russian approaches to historical research?
A: It must be noted that historically the German historical school has exerted a powerful influence over the formation of the field of Russian sciences and universities and the historical profession, in particular. For example, the German system of training doctoral students is undergoing a reform away from the Doktorvater system to the graduate training and supervision by the committee. The same is happening in a few Russian universities, the Higher School of Economics included. There are three differences I would like to note in terms of substance of historical studies. First, the German historical profession is much more versed in understanding the importance and relevance of the comparative historical research. Starting with the Sonderweg Debate and on to the development of the field of global history, it sets one of the models for opening new research agendas in history. The Russian history can offer a rich ground for exploration of comparative dimension and entanglements and the Russian historical profession still has to travel the path to fully embrace the research agenda beyond the confines of the national history. Second, German historians include, in their research, issues of historical memory and public relevance of historical discussion. A notable example is Historikerstreit. There is less cognizance of public history among the Russian historians and all too often they are inclined to remain in the ivory tower of purely historical research. Third, the Russian historical profession has produced an interesting convergence between social, political, and cultural history on the one hand and literary studies and cultural anthropology, on the other. This convergence produced a much more nuanced understandings of lived historical experience and political mythologies that coincide with or frame it.

Q: You are Dean of the Faculty of History of the Higher School of Economics in St. Petersburg. What are your research priorities and in which areas do you cooperate with Germany?
A: My colleagues and I recently started a new history department in 2012. The overarching goal of the department is the systematic development of the field of global, comparative, and transnational history as a potent tool for overcoming the limitations of the national history canon; fostering interdisciplinary dialogue in the field of social sciences and humanities; and bringing new public relevance to historical knowledge. The school mission includes the development of a new type of historical undergraduate and graduate education in Russia; and pioneering new research fields in Russian historiography, in dialogue with the global historical profession. Fields of excellence of the departmental work include: history of empire, nationalism, and colonialism; environmental and technological history, urban history; early modern social and cultural history; intellectual history and history of science; digital humanities and GIS. We are already developing cooperation with German colleagues in the fields of comparative history of empire and nationalism, history of borders and crossing-points, environmental history and history of science. We are looking forward to further cooperation with German historians and will particularly welcome dialogue in the field of history of science, including historical profession, and in the field of spatial history and historical geography.

Aleksandr Semeynov is Professor of History and Dean of the Historical Faculty at the National Research University-Higher School of Economics (HSE) in St. Petersburg. His research priorities include Russian history, history of empires, history of nationalism, and intellectual history. Aleksandr Semeynov graduated from Ivanovo State University in 1997. In 2006 he received his PhD on “The Political Language of Russian Liberalism: The Liberation Movement, Constitutional-Democratic Party, and Public Politics in Late Imperial Russia” at the Central European University, Budapest. Among other temporary positions, he was a Visiting Associate Professor at the Universities of Chicago (2010) and Michigan (2009). He has worked on a number of researches of Russian and international research projects and has been involved in educational projects for the Russian Ministry of Education. He has been affiliated with the collaborative project “Languages of Self-Description and Representation in the Russian Empire” at the Johannes Gutenberg University, Mainz. Now he is leading a group of comparative historical studies of empire and nationalism at the HSE. Professor Semeynov is also a co-founder and an editor of the International Journal “Ab Imperio: Studies of New Imperial History and Nationalism in Post Soviet Space”.

GERMAN-RUSSIAN WEEK OF YOUNG RESEARCHER
THE COLLAPSE OF THE CHINESE EMPIRE IN GLOBAL HISTORY

The role of the Chinese Empire in Global History, at the height of its economic power (1400–1800), has been well described in literature (Andre Guder Frank, Ken Pomeranz, and Bin Wong). During that period, China’s advanced technology and commercial revolution, as well as access to other markets over sea and land, created a market that drove technological development, efficiency in industrial organization and an increasing volume of long-distance trade. After the turn of the 19th century, however, various factors caused China to lose its global economic leadership, as it experienced social upheaval, economic decline and the pressure of European imperialism. Global historians sometimes lose sight of the Chinese thread between the beginning of the 1800s and the appearance of modern China, as an ascendant power, in the late twentieth century. As the talk tries to demonstrate, there are many reasons why we should continue to see important global trends and their effects reflected in the modern Chinese experience.

Q: You are a member of the executive board of GEAS, the DFG Graduate School of East Asian Studies. GEAS builds on a long-established network of co-operations with leading universities in East Asia, especially in China, Japan, and South Korea. How does Russia fit in scientifically as a research partner?
A: Russian universities and particularly the Russian Academy of Sciences have a strong tradition in oriental studies. To name just two: The Institute of Oriental Studies of the Russian Academy in Moscow is a major research center for research on Asia and North Africa and publishes lots of important periodicals. The Institute for Oriental Manuscripts in St. Petersburg houses some of the most comprehensive specialist collections of Asian manuscripts, and I have done research there myself. This is just one brief example of how Russian institutions fit scientifically into my research on East Asia.

Q: You are Vice-President of Freie Universität Berlin, which has been very successful in the German Excellence Initiative. Strategically you want to develop your institution into an international network university. As a result, you opened several representation offices abroad. Is one of them in Moscow? Why exactly Russia?
A: Freie Universität is proud of the fact that we were the first West German institution to have a partnership with a then Soviet university. The number of scientists who have gone in both directions over the years is very impressive. A particular highlight of our cooperation is G-RISC, the German-Russian Interdisciplinary Science Center. This semester we also started a new double degree master’s program in Global Communication and International Journalism, of which we are very proud. All this fits very well into our strategic partnership with St. Petersburg, which we agreed upon two years ago. We plan to develop this partnership ever more intensely. The fact that we will offer next year, for the first time, a joint seed money fund for bilateral projects shows the commitment of both partners. The fund will be financed by the two universities themselves.
RUSSIAN IMAGES OF CHINA
(HISTORICAL AND CONTEMPORARY):
AMBIVALENCE OF PERCEPTIONS

The study of images in relations between various countries has made vast strides in the last several years. Ambivalence of mutual perceptions and the image of another country is a phenomenon quite common due to specific reasons, the roots of which can be found in history, cultural traditions and the current state of relations between the countries.

In the 20th century, ambivalence of Sino-Russian mutual perceptions was based on the following factors: a) a complex of traditional stereotypes with the perception of reality; b) a combination of messianic ideas and realities of international relations (some elements of the implementation of the concept of the Russian messianic role in its relations with China can be traced back to the 1920–30s and the 1950s, though in a modified form); c) spreading of social strata and groups; d) influence of international relations and strategic assessments on the formation of mutual images.

The image of China was actively used in philosophical and political disputes, in Russia, during a long period of time. At the beginning of the 20th century, China was a symbol of despotism for many democratically orientated intellectuals. Criticizing the Chinese Empire, they tried to criticize the Russian political regime. At the same time, Russian conservative politicians and journalists used an image of China for supporting their own conceptions of a strong and stable monarchy. Some authors were afraid of “the Yellow Peril” coming from China. Others wrote about eternal sympathy between the Russians and Chinese and their alliance against Western countries in the future.

After the October revolution of 1917, China was very important for Bolsheviks as an example of a developing revolutionary movement in Asia. There appeared an image of a struggling revolutionary China, which was continually taking part “in the struggle against imperialism and feudalism.” The Chinese question became very popular in the Party meetings and discussions, especially in the central organs of the Bolshevik Party.

Nowadays, Sino-Russian mutual images also have characteristic features of ambivalence. Ambiguity of opinions, views and ideas can be seen at various levels: in political disputes, mass media, the cultural sphere, as well as in attitudes and beliefs of common people. Today, the ambivalence is caused by political, pragmatic, and socio-cultural reasons. With this field of research taken into account, it appears imperative to conduct a deep analysis of the process of socio-cultural interaction between Russia and China from a historical outlook. This type of analysis is essential, as it highlights the importance of interaction between inherently different societies and cultures.

The study of mutual images is very important for understanding the most important factors characterizing the specificity of Sino-Russian intercultural relations.

Q: You work at the oldest faculty for Oriental Studies in Europe. The history of your faculty at SPSU dates back to 1804. What are the research priorities of your faculty?

Q: Do you see any possibilities of cooperation with German scientists in these areas? Which international partners do you have?
A: We have bilateral agreements with Free University of Berlin, Heidelberg University and the University of Hamburg in the field of China Studies. I hope that in the near future, this cooperation will expand. In addition, we are actively cooperating with some universities in China, Japan, Finland and Sweden.

Q: What were your and your students’ impressions of this week, especially because it surely is a very unusual format for us?
A: I think that this format is very useful and effective. I think that it should be continued and developed.

Nikolay Samoylov holds the chair of Theory of Asian and African Social Development at the Faculty of Oriental Studies, St. Petersburg State University. He is also the Deputy Director of the St. Petersburg Branch of the Institute for Far Eastern Studies. Nikolay Samoylov graduated from Saint Petersburg (Leningrad) State University in 1977. He obtained his PhD degree in 1982 at the same university on the thesis “New Ideas in Chinese Social Thought in the 1860–1880s and Chinese National Self-consciousness” and his Habilitation in 2013 on “Russia and China in the 17th–early 20th centuries. Tendencies, Forms and Stages of Socio-Cultural Interaction” in 2013. His work concentrated on Modern History of East Asian Countries, History of Sino-Russian Relations, and Sino-Russian Mutual Images (historical and contemporary). Among other temporary positions, he was a visiting lecturer and researcher at the universities of China (Beijing, Nanjing), Japan (Seikei), the USA (Princeton, Harvard, Arizona State University, University of California), Finland (Turku, Helsinki) and Germany (Tübingen, Heidelberg, Würzburg, FU Berlin). Prof. Samoylov is a member of international scientific associations, e.g. of the Russian Academy Association of Sinologists, Russian Geographical Society, European Association of China Studies, The German Association of Chinese Studies, the Lisbon Geographical Society.
EMPIRES IN GLOBAL HISTORY — RESEARCH PERSPECTIVES

The challenge of global history has meant a new dynamic to the history of empires, too. Empires have long been a privileged field of historical inquiry. As recently as in the 1980s and 1990s, imperialism was at the center of intense debates in postcolonial studies. Here, the landscape was dominated, above all, by a critical view of empires, particularly from the perspective of the colonized and “subaltern.” Since the turn of the millennium, by contrast, a renewed, global historical interest in empires as a form of supra-regional rule has developed. Some of the studies published during this period also took a critical perspective and viewed the long history of the great empires against the backdrop of American hegemony after September 11, 2001, which was perceived as the most recent form of empire-building. Other authors, however, saw the British Empire as a positive model for a world order — or even as a guide for the United States in the present day. “What the British Empire proved,” Niall Ferguson has declared, “is that empire is a form of international government which can work — and not just for the benefit of the ruling power.” But this kind of political exploitation is rather untypical for most historians of empire. Instead, they have focused on a broad range of issues which can be summarized under three broader headings. Firstly, historians have investigated the degree to which the great empires have contributed to world integration. In this context, the British Empire in particular has been described as a driving force in the globalization processes. This may be judged as an achievement or viewed critically, but either way the argument is that the core characteristics of present-day globalization had their origins in the British Empire, and particularly in the settler colonies, whose importance increased significantly between 1850 and 1914. The majority of global transactions — of goods, capital, labor, and information — occurred within a British world. The network of settler colonies guaranteed cultural commonalities and created the trust that was necessary for cross-border investments, mobility, and transfers. The fact that the colonies remained under British sovereignty and could rely on the Royal Navy for their safety contributed to the dependability of these connections — a dependability that, when combined with the transport and communications revolution of those decades, produced a globalizing effect.

In many respects, the second trend in global history research on empires amounts to a critical response to this Anglo-centric perspective (Niall Ferguson has even referred to globalization under British hegemony as “Anglobalization”). Rather than privileging the British Empire, other historians have emphasized the long continuity and relevance of rival empires. In Jane Burbank and Frederick Cooper’s major world history of empires, the British Empire plays only a marginal role. Their interpretation questions the notion of 19th-century High Imperialism as a turning point entirely, suggesting that the Western European colonial empires did not herald a fundamentally new world order. In their analysis, High Imperialism did not represent the first global imperial system, but in many respects continued in the tradition of earlier formations.

Such a criticism of previous historiography begins with a terminological consideration: while European expansion is usually referred to in terms of colonialism, in the case of the Ottomans, Sikhs, or Zulus, the term “empire” is used. “Colonialism is deemed to be one of the global forces that has defined the modern age,” Michael Adas has stated in a critical summary of prevailing opinion, but “empires are seen as modes of state expansion with an ancient lineage, increasingly anachronistic in an era of industrialization and high technology.” Instead, he argues, the various empires must be viewed in context and in their historical simultaneity — the Ottoman Empire, Czarist Russia, the Qing Dynasty, and the empire of the Qajars in Iran all lasted into the early 20th century and were thus synchronous to the British, French, and Dutch empires. Moreover, historians have begun to research the history of empires that for a long time received very little attention — the Qing and Russian empires — but also hardly known imperial formations such as the Islamic Sokoto Caliphate in West Africa and the empire of the Comanche. To summarize this area of research, then, for many centuries, different empires competed with one another, and the hegemony of the European empires did not establish itself until the 19th century.

However — and this is the third point — if empires constituted the historical norm, then the traditional interpretation of the rise of the nation state since the late 18th century must also be revised. For this narrative itself now appears to be a product of the legitimating discourses of nation state elites. But, in terms of global history, cohesive nation states were still the absolute exception by the turn of the 20th century. As Jürgen Osterhammel summarizes, “in the 19th century it was the empire, not yet the nation state, that was the dominant form of territorial organization on a
worldwide scale." Even the 20th century, though, was shaped by large imperial formations, as Japan, Nazi Germany, and the Soviet Union joined the existing colonial empires. Some authors thus question whether a transition to a world of nation states had taken place even by the post-war period. France, for example, began to transform itself into a nation state after 1962, following the Évian Accords and the end of its colonial empire. But, by 1957, it had already gone beyond this in the Treaty of Rome and its integration into the European Economic Community, and had surrendered parts of its state sovereignty to a larger entity. "Empire was a remarkably durable form of state," Burbank and Cooper write. "By comparison, the nation-state appears as a blip on the historical horizon, a state form that emerged recently from under imperial skies and whose hold on the world's political imagination may well prove partial or transitory."

As these examples demonstrate, Niall Ferguson's call to deduce political lessons for the future from a liberal interpretation of Britain's global empire is not representative of the global historical research of the last few years. It, nevertheless, remains conspicuous that many of the more recent studies often pursue a macro perspective and conceive empires as power structures that allow for political stability under conditions of ethnic and cultural heterogeneity. Meanwhile, the forms of violence used, the social costs, and the overriding of alternative cultural traditions are given significantly less attention. The subversive thrust of postcolonial studies has, in some respects, given way to a less critical interpretation that recognizes empire not so much as a transgression by the European colonial rulers, but rather as historical normality: "Empire," writes John Darwin, "has been the default mode of political organization throughout most of history. Imperial power has usually been the rule of the road."

But this normalization should not cloud our view of the fact that imperial rule was always based, too, on power imbalance, exploitation, repression, and violence. Even from a global historical perspective, the role of force in economic extraction and social transformation must not be overlooked. This is of particular importance since world integration from the 16th century onwards — and even more so from the 19th century — occurred under the conditions of colonial rule. Global entanglement — the mobility of commodities, people, ideas, and institutions — took place against a backdrop of imperial structures. The world economy relied on the use and often forcible exploitation of labor, raw materials, and demand from colonized societies. Colonialism was a central element in the world order — but also in the legal and ideological legitimization of that order. "Modernization" projects in both the colonies and the metropole, and cultural transfer and appropriation, too, were pursued under colonial conditions. Globalization processes were not a drive dictated by the laws of nature towards ever closer interconnection; instead, they were energized and driven by empires and developed within an imperial world order. This makes it all the more important that the concomitants and costs associated with this order are not lost from view in the reconstruction of the global past.

Q: You are the speaker of the DFG Research Training Group "Actors in the history of globalization": How did you and the young researchers profit from this week in St. Petersburg?
A: The claim of our research group is that the world looks different from place to place — and it is thus crucial to acknowledge the multiplicity and positionality of ways of understanding the past. The topic of empires, that we discussed in St. Petersburg, showed very clearly that this is indeed the case, and it was highly illuminating to have such a variety of perspectives at the table.

Q: You are a member of the board of directors of the "Forum Transregional Studies" in Berlin. What is the general idea of this forum and can Russian scientists participate in it?
A: The idea of the "Forum" is to help foster transnational perspectives in the German university system. Most disciplines — such as political science, sociology, history, art history, law, and so forth — still operate primarily within national boundaries; also, methodologically, they are tied to the concept of national containers. The aim of the forum is to move beyond these confines, and to open up the various disciplines to transnational and global methods and perspectives. The "Forum" has a range of activities, including conferences and a fellow program, and Russian scholars would certainly be most welcome to apply and to participate.

Q: Even though it was your first time in St. Petersburg, you were one of the “most wanted” partners for conversation during the coffee breaks. Will you come back to Russia and, what is even more important, do you see any prospects for scientific cooperation?
A: My first visit will certainly not be the last — I have benefited a lot from the conversations, and have found the interventions of some of my Russian colleagues very stimulating. The long tradition of research into the history of empires, for which Russian historiography is well known, makes such cooperation attractive.
RUSSIAN-JAPANESE KULTURKAMPF, 1904–05: ORGANIZATION, METHODS, IDEAS

The overlapping of, and interactions between, the Russian and Japanese hemispheres were important results of the Russo-Japanese War, 1904–1905, and these were also reflected in the cultural space and in neighboring countries. In fact, the history of this war has been transformed into a “polygon” for the study of cultural competition and mutual-influence under the extreme conditions of military conflict.

The most resonant manifestation of this diverse Kulturkampf was the competition between Japan and Russia in the information-propaganda and ideological spheres, strategically important for both warring sides. The ideas and estimations expressed in Russo-Japanese published polemics, and the stereotypes expressed, shaped the mood of world public opinion toward Russia and Japan and defined the whole international public-political climate of the war of 1904–1905. They also had a direct relationship towards such essentially important questions as the acquisition of foreign credits, the placing in foreign countries of military supply orders, assistance in obtaining secret information about the enemy, and the endpoint and conditions of ending the war. The ideological-propagandistic rivalry between Russia and Japan during the war in 1904–1905 was the dawn and harbinger of the media wars that accompanied all of the twentieth century’s subsequent armed conflicts.

The “field” of this confrontation was the newspapers and journals of the Old and New worlds, and those of Japan and Russia. However, the zone of their special propaganda activity and ideological struggle became Korea and especially China. Military actions on their territories attracted to the region hundreds of journalists from all over the world. The Far-Eastern press and its contents, which were widely published abroad, rendered considerable influence on world public opinion. Hence, the rivalry between Russia and Japan in the information-propaganda space of the countries of the Far-East, in fact, became the battle for the minds not only of the Asian but in essence of the world community. This paper is devoted to these kinds of activities in the Far-East information “kitchen,” the news “pot”, from which foreign journalists, the representatives of world-wide information agencies, at times drew their information and evaluations. In fulfilling the strategic task of manipulating public opinion by means of the printed word, Japan and Russia pursued similar tactics, but employed different methods. The tactics included, first, the publication of their own printed products in the Far-Eastern region; second, the covert subsidizing of local and foreign-language (formally independent) press; and finally, tracking foreign periodicals and the attitudes commensurate with them for their impact on the journalists who reported and commented on the progress of the war. The algorithms for realizing these three components in agitational-propaganda practice were different for Russia and Japan— their goals were also different.

Q: You are the Deputy Director of the Institute for Russian History of the Russian Academy of Sciences. What are the research priorities of your institute?

A: Research priorities of IRI RAS are: interethnic, cross-cultural, (in particular interdenominational) relations inside and outside Russia, Russian social history, the political and economic state and changes in Russian society in 9th–21st centuries, history of the Russian public movement, local government and self-government. If speaking about exact projects, I could name many volumes of “History of Russia”, a research dated for the 100-years anniversary of the 1917 February Revolution and October upheaval, history of the Crimea and Novorossia.

Q: You have spent the whole week with us listening to the presentations of young researchers from Germany and from Russia. What do you think are the differences in conducting research in your field in Germany and in Russia?

A: Differences of Russian and German young scholars’ research: As a tendency, I could state that Russian historians are more inclined to advert to case-studies envisaging a lower level of generalization than their German colleagues. The latter are more disposed to inter-disciplinary research and wide conclusions, sometimes too “bold”.

Q: These days, the Russian Academy of Sciences is confronted with a fundamental reform. What will be the future of your institute, in particular, and of historical research, in general, within the Academy?

A: The reform of the Russian Academy of Sciences is under way and is far from being completed, so it’s too early to draw any conclusions. Restating the famous expression by Count A. Kh. Benkendorf, I can say, that “the past of IRI RAS is splendid, its present is brilliant, and its future exceeds the most daring expectations”. 
THE SPANISH COLONIAL EMPIRE IN AMERICA: FUNCTIONS AND DYSFUNCTIONS

In my talk “The Spanish Colonial Empire in America: Functions and Dysfunctions” I discussed the ideas and problems of an “empire in which the sun never set”, according to Charles V. The modern idea of empire was basically born in the 16th century when the Iberian powers settled and expanded in the so-called “New World”. Indeed, the moment of the encounter of Spaniards and autochthonous populations, in what was to be called the Americas, opened the possibility to think of the world in its global dimension. Thus, it can reasonably be taken as the origin of a new phase of history, which is much discussed in the new global historiography today. The Spanish empire was to survive relatively long, that is more than 300 years, and, thus, much longer than most empires of the modern age. The questions I asked in my talk were the following: What kind of conceptions of empire did the Spaniards harbor and how far did they differ from colonial realities? What kind of institutions did the crown create and how did they function? What actors governed the colonies and what kind of governance did the Spaniards create? In general, the talk was based on the hypothesis that imperial ideals and colonial realities differed widely, giving the American side a high degree of autonomy within the empire.

Q: You coordinate a number of DFG Research Training Groups and Collaborative Research Centres, like the “Governance in Areas of Limited Statehood”. What attracted you scientifically to this week here in Russia?
A: The topics of imperialism and the history of empires are central themes in my own research. Looking at these topics from a comparative perspective is a very enriching experience. The fact that these visions came from German and Russian scholars was an especially attractive and new dimension for me.

Q: You have brought a couple of young researchers to St. Petersburg. What did you and your students think about the week in general?
A: We agreed that the week was excellently organized and offered us a wealth of new experiences and contacts. The discussions with the Russian colleagues taught us new insights about the different approaches to historical studies and the position of the historian.

Q: St. Petersburg has been your first visit to Russia. Will you come back to Russia? Could you find new contacts for further cooperation?
A: No, it hasn’t. I have been in Moscow, for a conference at the German Historical Institute, in 2010. Indeed, as President of the European Association of Latin American Historians (AHILA), an organization founded in the 1970s with the explicit aim to bridge the East-West gap during the Cold War, I am in touch with Russian colleagues. However, that group is still small and the stay in St. Petersburg gave me the possibility to get to know several very interesting academics with whom I share common interests. We are now working on a joint project to bring the group of Russian historians of Latin America for a workshop to Berlin in 2015.

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Stefan Rinke is Professor of Latin American History at the Institute of Latin American Studies at Freie Universität Berlin and, since 2014, President of the Association of Latin American Historians in Europe (AHILA). He is speaker of the German-Mexican Graduate School “Between Spaces” – a cooperative doctoral program with El Colegio de México, UNAM and CIESAS – and co-speaker of the Collaborative Research Area “Governance in Areas of Limited Statehood”, both funded by the DFG. Recently, he has been granted an Einstein Research Fellowship for his project on Latin America and the First World War. Professor Rinke is a member of the board of the journals Geschichte und Gesellschaft and Iberoamericana, and co-editor of the Enzyklopädie der Neuzeit. His research interests include Latin American history from the 16th to the 21st centuries, Latin America in a global context and the comparative history of the Americas.
RUSSIA – CENTRAL AMERICA: FORGOTTEN PAST, UNCERTAIN FUTURE

The official contacts between Russia and Central America began in 1871 when the Russian government recognized the government of Costa Rica, under President T. Guardia. In 1882, Alexander II recognized the government of Guatemala, under President J.R. Barrios.

However, we have to mention that regular Russian expeditions to Central America were organized from the middle of the 19th century. These were led by Wilhelm Friedrich von Karwinsky (1841–1843), Alexander Rotchev 1851–1853), Alexander Voyeykov (1874) and Theodor Fielstrupp (1914–1915).

The famous Central American Caudillos such as Mexican President, Jose Porfirio Diaz and Manuel Estrada Cabrera, President of Guatemala, supported the expansion of political and trade contacts with Russia in late 19th–early 20th centuries.

Mexico became the doorway to Central America, for Russians, when Baron Roman Rozen was appointed as the first Ambassador of the Russian Empire to Mexico in 1891. The Russian diplomats in Mexico, Theodor Ganzen and Boris Vendengauzen, presented rich information about the political and economic situation, not only in Mexico but in the Central America area as well.

The construction of the Panama Canal attracted the Interest of the Russian government because of the important meaning of the interoceanic canal for international trade. One of the active builders of the canal was Russian engineer Nickolay Dobachevsky.

In the 1920s, during the revolutionary wave around the world, and in Latin America after the Mexican and Russian Revolutions, Augusto Cesar Sandino was politically and ideologically strongly supported by the International Communist Movement (Komintern) in his struggle against US intervention (1928–1934) in Nicaragua.

During the reign of the military regimes in Central America (Jorje Ubico, President of Guatemala 1932–1944 and Anastacio Somoza, President of Nicaragua 1936–1956) no connection with the Soviet Union existed because of ideological reasons.

However, during the Guatemalan Revolution (1944–1954), the USSR demonstrated friendly feelings to the attempts to create democratic regimes in Central America, but no real economic or military support during the Cold War reality was possible.

The Nicaraguan Revolution opened a new period of bilateral relations as Carlos Fonseca Amador, the founder of FSLN, studied in the USSR.

The Sandinista Revolution in Nicaragua (1979) created a new era of Soviet influence in Central America, which was ended with the dissolution of the Soviet Union in 1991.

What does C.A. mean for Russia now?
Central America Population — around 40 M

• Central American exports around the world increasing to $30 billion (2012)
• Foreign Investments (including Russian) — $10 billions (2012)
• New embassies opened in Russia — Salvador (October 2012), Honduras (October 2013)
• Honduras, Salvador, Guatemala, Nicaragua — no visas required for Russians.
• Russia—Central America: The main trends of Economic and Cultural cooperation include:
  • Russia exports oil, electric equipment, cars, buses, locomotives, helicopters, grain, weapons
  • Russian imports coffee, rum, sea food, bananas.
  • Very limited tourism from both sides yet.

Very limited student/cultural exchange. It means that Russia is still waiting for a second opening in Central America.

New Interoceanic Canal in Nicaragua construction costs have grown from $20 billion (2010) to $40 billion (2014). The project would have an economic and political interest for Russia.

The conclusion: A pragmatic/constructive approach must take precedence in Russian-Central America cooperation over ideological/geopolitical heritage stereotypes.
Q: You have done some decades of research in regional studies and in international relations. What are the prospects for young researchers in the sphere of humanities in Russia today?
A: I think that the young researches in Russia have great opportunities to prepare their projects, now. First of all, it is connected with enormous changes in historical resource data and an open information technology environment. Secondly, due to the opportunities for international contacts and cooperation, the Russian scholar has been made a member of an international community.
One of the main problems is the research of Russian history as a part of a world historical process not as an exclusive model.

Q: What are the “hot issues” in Russian historical research at the moment? And what about your region: North and Central America?
A: As for modern and current history, I can point to the history of World War II and its interpretation, Cold War special features, the process of development of democratic institutions in Russia, and Soviet (Russian) soft power in International relations etc.
As for my region, here I see the actual themes like global policy of the US and American exceptionalism; the study of the university system as a civic society component and as a resource in international relations and soft power; and political and economic integration in Latin (Central) America.

Q: You have chaired a panel of young scientists. Can you imagine teaming them up in a bilateral German-Russian project? Are there any big international projects at your faculty?
A: Yes, I can. As for international projects, we have the experience of teaching online courses (video conferences) on World War II and the Cold War with Ramapo College (NJ, USA), Bard College (NY, USA), G. Mason University (VA, USA), University of Commonwealth Virginia. We have close cooperation and joint projects with some schools and research institutions from the Netherlands, Germany, Finland, Canada and Poland as well.
From a global perspective, the relationship between the European Empires and the independent indigenous people or “savages”, as they preferred to call them, was the most difficult and persistent problem on the American frontier. Specifically, it involved independent Indians who could not be conquered by the European empires in the same way other Native American groups were. This paper examined the case of the Spanish Empire, concentrating on the history of the Southern Chilean borderland between 1760 and 1810. It focused upon the interactions between the state and independent indigenous actors, as well as the measures they both took to provide security in the region.

The indigenous people, who lived independently beyond the borders of the Kingdom of Chile, self-denominated themselves as “che”, in English, “people”, whereas they were called “Araucanos” by the Spaniards. By the late eighteenth century, they reached about 17% of the population of the Kingdom and about 45% in the borderlands. They remained outside the authority of the Spanish, from whom they defended their territory for nearly 300 hundred years, from the late 1500s. During this process, the che established a formal military frontier and sovereign territory recognized by the Spanish Crown. From the mid-eighteenth century until the late nineteenth century, various groups of che had, under their political, cultural, and economic control, the largest territory ever held by any independent indigenous people of the Spanish Americas.

In this context, the term "security" was a central concept in the process of political and social transformation of the borderland. The empirical data shows that the use of the term “security” had a central role in the semantic field of the state administration, notably from the late colonial period. Its use was linked to the specific realities at the time and was employed to determine the implementation of certain measures under its name. The paper proposed “security” as an object of study of historical research, which can be investigated through the concept of securitization.

The securitization approach highlights processes that occur when a given topic is presented as an existential threat for a society. This society is then required to undertake emergency measures and to justify actions lying beyond the scope of regular political proceedings. The paper inquired into which concepts of security were developed by the actors of the Southern Chilean borderland and how the different processes of securitization were configured (i.e. what or who should be protected and by whom, and how security would be provided).

The paper also showed that even though different historical ideas of the concept of “security” were present in the borderland, both for the che and for the State, the reference objects for their ideas of security refer back essentially to a single concept: the sovereignty of each actor. This, ultimately, is not a surprising result. However, the interesting thing is, perhaps, that this reveals the continuation of a process or the persistence of an unresolved problem. This demonstrates that it is not easy to reconcile the same sense of security when the set of values for all actors is not respected, and when well-being is not guaranteed for all. Ultimately, the interests of the state institutions, as well as the che, are the manifestation of their
idea of well-being, which cannot be maintained without sovereignty. The paper showed the relevance of securitization processes in the study of colonial borderlands. It was a central issue in all empires present in America and its relevance is not restricted purely to the colonial past. It continues to apply to the situation of many indigenous groups in Latin America, whose struggle for rights is still, evidently, seen as a threat to national security.

**MUSLIMS IN THE RUSSIAN ARMY, 1874–1917 – GLOBAL PERSPECTIVES**

In 1874, universal liability to military conscription was introduced in the Russian Empire. It was the last of Tsar Alexander II’s “Great Reforms”, aimed at modernizing the empire and preserving Russia’s status as one of Europe’s great powers. The military reform forced the Russian Empire to confront the challenge of integrating numerous non-Russian and non-Orthodox subjects into the army. This was at a time when governmental elites had become increasingly concerned that Russia’s cultural diversity could threaten the internal order of the state. The study looks at the implications of the military service reform for the diverse Muslim population of the Russian Empire.

In two ways, the reform of 1874 took place in a global context. Firstly, the Prussian army was the model Russian military reformers envisioned for their own country. Prussia’s stunning victories against Austria and France in 1866 and 1870/71 had convinced elites across Europe that the future belonged to national armies of conscripted soldiers, who were united in their willingness to sacrifice their lives for their fatherland. However, unlike other European countries, Russia was a multi-religious and multi-ethnic empire. The introduction of universal liability to military service soon turned into a test-bed of how well the empire had integrated its numerous non-Russian and non-Orthodox subjects and, perhaps more importantly, how much it trusted them. The reformers faced the challenge of implementing the model of a national army in an imperial and autocratic state. In this process they re-interpreted “Western” models of military organization to adapt them to the specific conditions of late imperial Russia.

Secondly, with regards to the Muslim population, military elites were well aware that they were, in some ways, competing with the Ottoman Empire for the loyalty of Russia’s Muslim subjects. Most especially, the Crimean Tatars as well as the Muslims of Central Asia and the Caucasus had strong ties to the Ottoman Empire and Persia. At the same time, the Ottoman Sultan claimed to be the protector of all Muslims. Would Muslim soldiers fight for Christian Russia, especially in case of a war against the Ottoman Empire? How could Russia ensure their loyalty? In many cases, such deliberations prompted the military to accommodate Muslim demands by integrating their religious needs into the everyday life of the army. Thus, rivalry with the Ottoman Empire had implications for Russia’s policy towards her Muslim population and, in some cases, this led to a greater degree of religious toleration.

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In April 1955, representatives of 29 Asian and African countries gathered in Bandung, Indonesia for the “first intercontinental conference of coloured people in history” (Sukarno). However, it was neither its emphasis on colour nor its “intercontinental” nature that made the Bandung conference unique and distinct from earlier gatherings, such as the Pan-African congresses or meetings of the League against Imperialism. Bandung gained importance because the conference transformed anti-colonial movements and “freedom fighters” into nationally minded statesmen and representatives of newly independent nation-states. The meeting enabled all participants to become visible and audible as legitimate statesmen both at home and in international politics. Shortly after Bandung, for example, the Kremlin changed its foreign policy toward the post-colonial countries and established several strategies to win the support of the new Third World countries.

Since then, numerous scholars have acknowledged the political importance of the conference by pointing to de-colonization, the course of the Cold War and the establishment of the Non-Aligned Movement. While there is no dispute about the significance of the conference, questions remain as to why a conference of post-colonial states and anti-colonial movements was perceived as so important in international politics by its contemporaries. Furthermore, the researcher is in particular interest as to how the conference was perceived by the Soviet Union and how the Soviet leadership reacted to the conference.

To answer these questions, the researcher will draw on approaches from various academic fields, which included the Performative Studies, Visual History, “Thick Description,” and Global History that enable re-interpretation of the Bandung Conference Acts as well as the Soviet Union’s reaction to the conference.

For this project, empirical research has been done in the United Nations Archives and the National Archives of the United States, the Soviet Union/Russia, Great Britain, Yugoslavia/Serbia, and Germany.

I would like to address the question, of whether we can speak of a certain imperial legacy, in European history of religion, after 1917/18. Specifically, the Czechoslovak Republic and Soviet Russia both claimed not only to represent a new state, which discontinued the preceding imperial polities, but also to create a whole new legacy that was in ideological opposition to imperial rule. Not least, they openly and implicitly focused on the role that church and religion played during the ancient regime.

In both cases, this claim to a new society coincided with a surge in new religious groups and
activities. Many of them were hoping not only to use, but also to shape the new ideological framework for their benefit. They all stressed their opposition to the former state churches, the Roman Catholic and Russian-Orthodox Churches, and applauded the new regimes. Further, many even went so far as to claim the fulfilment of the new states’ historical destiny, in and through their religious practices. Schismatic movements within the former state churches, like the Czechoslovak Church and the Russian Renovationist movement, come to mind. But even these loyalist churches were outdone by smaller “sects” and communities, which perceived themselves as incarnations of the new state’s supposed religion.

Interestingly, this corresponded with an ideological void at the centre of the new polities’ discourse. To be sure, most of the soon-to-be revolutionary elites had written a lot on religion and churches in pre-war time. However, they mostly focused on an anticlerical critique of the state power abuse by the church.

This empty space in ideology was filled by new, and quite often ephemeral, institutions that served as a staging area for a new group of experts on religion. Both new states set up commissions on the separation of state and church. Most notably, it was never decided whether the discourses, led by revolutionary intellectuals and channeled by these institutions, had targeted only the former state church or religion in general. From the onset, they were unsure whether their main task was to challenge the remaining power of the old state church or to oversee “religion” (whatever that may be). In short, while negating the former state churches, these experts still had trouble to step out of the imperial legacy of overseeing churches and religion.

In Soviet Russia, the best known example is the leadership of the Godless movement. However, academic groups in the Communist academy and some well-known Bolshevik leaders belonged in the same category. And Last, but not least, minor religious communities themselves entered this discourse on what the relationship between the new state and religion might be. Thus, the mere existence of all these institutions, groups, and organizations seemed to prove the assumption that a new relationship between the political and the religious sphere was expected. In short, the state did not have to create something religious, but to publicly impart something about religion.

Until 1929, public discussions on religious topics drew large crowds. The most well-known of those was a series of discussions between the people’s commissar of Enlightenment, Anatoliy V. Lunačarskij and Aleksandr I. Vvedenskij, the bishop and head of the schismatic Renovationist church. But the Soviet press mostly ignored these events so as not to concede religious discussions to priests and other religious activists.

However, the main problem of discussing religion in the public was a different one. The Soviet state created an aura of legitimacy for religious activists, who took part in those discussions. Moreover, the state could not protect itself from being defined as a religious actor. In the end, one of the reasons why the revolutionary states started to deal again with their old enemies, the former imperial state churches, is precisely because they could avoid blurring the border between the political and the religious. And consequently, “church” became again synonymous with “religion” and could be successfully compartmentalized.
The presentation traced the spread of a global, anti-imperialist consciousness from the vantage point of Paris between the two World Wars. It sought to answer the questions of why and how Paris became a hatchery for many of the political and intellectual elites that rose to prominence in Africa and Asia after World War II – including Zhou Enlai, Ho Chi Minh, Ferhat Abbas, and Léopold Sédar Senghor. In contrast to the existing literature, which has mostly approached them from the angle of individual biographies, the paper explored the local, social context in which these and other activists moved. It thus wove the stories of these and many other individuals, who spent formative stints in Paris, into larger thematic currents that treat inter-war Paris as a crossroads of global migrations, which, through contact and exchange, bred new forms of anti-imperialism subsequently catapulted onto a global stage. Drawing on police surveillance documents, diplomatic and personal correspondence, memoirs, and published books and periodicals from many countries, the paper combined imperial and intellectual history with the social history of migration. Building on a valuable body of historical scholarship about the imperial nature of the France of the Third Republic, it went beyond the existing literature through an analysis of the interactions between groups that, so far, have been treated in isolation from one another. By concentrating on the specific locale of Paris, it took seriously the demand, recently lodged by many historians, to grant attention to how the global is inscribed in the local and vice versa. It showed how exchange and contact between the metropolitan and non-European actors, played into the emergence of nationalisms at the “periphery,” which due to Paris’s role as a hub of transnational exchange, had global repercussions.

The paper eventually highlighted the role of migration and interaction as driving forces enabling challenges to the imperial world order, and contributing to a growing body of literature about the origins of decolonization after WWII, by looking at these from a social – rather than intellectual – history angle. As recently advocated by Tony Ballantyne and Antoinette Burton (Rosenberg, 2012), the paper took a closer look at the globally rising chorus of challenges to imperialism long before WWII and the conference of Bandung in 1955, which was dealt with in more detail in the subsequent presentation by Jürgen Dinkel. To explain this spread of anti-imperialism from the interwar years onwards, scholars have traditionally concentrated on the question of whether nationalism, in what came to be known as the “Third World,” was homegrown or rather a European export. In contrast to this dichotomy, the paper focused on the considerable proportion of the post-WWII nationalist, political and intellectual leaders of Africa and Asia, who had spent their formative years both at home and in an imperial center It chose Paris as a uniquely privileged site, and as a generator for this locally grounded transnational exchange, which nourished the relatively simultaneous rise of anti-imperialist, (pan-) nationalisms in geographically far-flung places.
European and other empires usually tried to dominate self-sufficient societies, which did not need any trade for feeding their population. Material exchange, in consequence, served other ends than basic social reproduction. A material transaction, as the theory goes, creates something between the giver and the recipient. This “something” is more important than the material good that had changed the owner.

A historical research on non-state societies serves to illustrate this theory. The chosen examples are firstly the Comcáac, a forager group in the Desert of Sonora, North West Mexico; and secondly, the Sultanate of Sulu, a trading port in the Southern Philippines whose dominant ethnic group are the Tausug.

The first example is given by the family compounds of the Comcáac. To reassure themselves of their neighbors’ continuing peaceful intentions, be it the Spaniards or other indigenous groups, the Comcáac went on regular trade missions outside their territory and into the agricultural settlements. Carrying, hunting and gathering products, they frequently bartered their items with the produce of the sedentary people. After independence, colonial governors, as well as the Republican state agents, noticed the peacekeeping effect of these “trade missions.” However, for their food subsistence, no such exchange was necessary. The Comcáac, apparently, did not meet the Spaniards for the purpose of trading, but instead, traded with them to allow such peaceful meetings. Establishing reciprocal relations between themselves and the colonists was meant to enable the development of interethnic trust.

When the Spaniards landed on Sulu for the first time, they had different intentions from those described in Chinese-Sulu relations. In 1578, during the first meeting with the islanders, the Spaniards exacted tribute from the Sultanate of Sulu and claimed their submission to the Spanish Throne, without offering anything in return. As a result, the Spanish emissaries had to fight their way through the island to meet the Sultan, who retreated into the mountainous interior and offered a ransom of twelve pearls to keep the Spaniards away from his island. This forced payment, however, was interpreted as a tribute by the Spanish Governor of Manila and served in the following decades to justify the Spanish claim to sovereignty over the Sulu sultanate. While the Chinese Emperor had given large amounts of Chinese products in return to the Sulu tribute mission, the Spanish approach did not follow any principle of reciprocity.

Reciprocity is a basic rule of social cohesion within and between societies. While it requires the constant maintenance of material exchange, this exchange serves above all to maintain friendly relations rather than to enlarge the profits of one of the sides. Therefore, the imposition of asymmetric exchange-relations by imperial strategies lies at the ground of interethnic conflicts.
In 1992 American philosopher Francis Fukuyama (born October 27, 1952) published “The End of History and the Last Man”. This event became the end of regional history and the starting point for the onset of global history. Although most of Fukuyama’s predictions were not realized, his idea for a Universal History appears to be popular in the twenty-first century. “A Universal History of mankind is not an encyclopedic catalogue of everything that is known about humanity, but rather an attempt to find a meaningful pattern in the overall development of human societies generally. The effort to write a Universal History is itself not universal to all peoples and cultures,” he wrote. [Fukuyama, F. The End of History and the Last Man. N.Y.: Penguin Books USA Inc., 1992. P.55.]

The diversity of approaches is the main element of global history. In the last third of the twentieth century, philosophers, historians, anthropologists and cultural specialists were engaged in the development of different conceptions. The conceptions of Orientalism, proposed by Palestinian American intellectual and literary critic Edward Wadie Said (1935–2003), became one of the most discussed. According to E.W. Said’s definition, “Orientalism is a style of thought based upon an ontological and epistemological distinction made between “the Orient” and (most of the time) “the Occident”.” [Said, E.W. Orientalism. London: Penguin, 1977. P.3.] The dichotomy “Orient-Occident” brought forth two scientific methods: Orientalism and Occidentalism. The primary goal of Orientalism is to understand the East from within.

America’s version, Afrocentricity, was developed simultaneously with and based upon Orientalism. The black nationalistic movement of the period, from 1954 to 1968, also provided the basis for Afrocentricity.

Afrocentricity is one of the most popular conceptions among Africans, Afro-Americans and some representatives of the African diaspora. The aim of Afrocentric current is to rehabilitate the blacks from every corner of the globe. The Afrocentric movement began to develop in the 1980s, when the book entitled “Afrocentricity: The Theory of Social Change” [Asante, M.K. Afrocentricity: The Theory of Social Change. Trenton, NJ: Africa World Press, 1980.] was published. Molefi Kete Asante (born Arthur Lee Smith Jr on August 14, 1942), the author of this book, became the main ideologist of Afrocentricity. M. K. Asante is Professor of the Department of African American Studies at Temple University, Philadelphia. His career in education, communication, philosophy and social studies continues for more than four decades. M.K. Asante, just as E. W. Said, is of the opinion that the issue should be understood from within. The issue, in this case, is Black people.

According to the Asante’s writings, Afrocentricity is a multidimensional notion. Firstly, it is a kind of philosophy, which sometimes borders on ideology. Secondly, this notion involves a particular method of research activities. The point of this mode comprises the interpretation of Africans as subjects rather than objects. Thirdly, Afrocentricity continues to be a significant social-cultural movement and a specified way of life. M. K. Asante claimed that he founded the "Afrocentric Movement" to examine why black people were so disoriented. He aims to apply achievements of researches in practice. He appeals to black people to study African heritage and "to return to African spiritual base", in spite of their domicile.

History is the most important branch of science for afrocentrists. However, their views about history are different from common notion. Afrocentrists are of the opinion that all great achievements were made by black people. So modern civilizations originate from Ancient Egypt and Nubia, whose inhabitants (including Tuthmoses IV and Cleopatra) were black. Afrocentrists try to get rid of an inferiority complex, which, according to their opinion, was formed under the influence of the whites, by means of rewriting and reorienting history.
Tourism possesses the capacity to commodify and utilize whatever its gaze falls upon (MacCannell 1976, Urry 1990); history is no exception. Increasing numbers of individuals encounter local histories of tourism destinations during their vacations—they may learn of these histories through guided tours, ruins and relics or ubiquitous travel guidebooks. The latter present history as an explanatory narrative adjusted to the requirements of their imagined audience. Subsequently, travel guidebooks supply their readers with teleological narratives, orientalist clichés (Said 1978) and, sometimes, nationalist propaganda (Koshar 1998).

As travel guidebooks engage in the historiography of their destinations, they focus exclusively on their destination or even a certain subject, for instance a country, a region or a particular site. Identifying the narrative practices that guidebooks utilize to present their sites and destinations to their audience, constitutes an indication of how tourism itself may transform history. Western and Chinese travel guidebooks may emerge from different traditions of travel and travel writing, their general inclination to romanticize and other destinations and sites constitutes perhaps a global phenomenon. Tourism itself, this conclusion suggests, seeks to construct a romanticized narrative of local history in order to satisfy the tourist demand for Otherness.

A second question must necessarily be posed to the validity of using Chinese and Western guidebooks as separate categories. Mass tourism as a global phenomenon ostensibly consists of the same practices, and therefore Chinese and Western guidebooks match in structure and contents. Western, in this case, is a useful category since guidebooks are frequently translated back and forth between western languages. However, few translations into or from Chinese occur. A distinct tradition of travel writing in China exists and is further impacted by a different approach to issues of authenticity and reproduction (Nyiri 2003). While Chinese and Western guidebooks appear similar, their differences must be understood as products of specific cultural backgrounds.

Last but not least, one effect occurs regardless of the guidebook’s cultural background: in their establishment of sites and their legitimization as sites of tourist interest and public meaning, the travel guidebooks create a canon of sites of meaning. The meanings ascribed reflect contemporary ideas of importance and construct a material production of a current understanding of history. Travel guidebooks then themselves constitute a type of historiography. And in their entirety, travel guidebooks establish a global history.

Of course, this global history narrative resulting from the corpus of travel guidebooks is a construct. Historiography in tourism extends beyond the scope of guidebooks into oral accounts and museums, and natural sights rouse tourist interest without needing to establish any historical significance. However, as growing numbers of individuals travel to ever more distant and unfamiliar places, and encounter their destinations’ histories only through travel guidebooks, analyzing these historiographies may help to understand how tourism constructs places and meanings.
For a long time the historiography of the Romanov Empire has presented the 19th century as a period of a continuous oppression of national minorities by the centralized state. Contemporary historians have objected to such a black and white picture, and have suggested a more nuanced version of the story.

In my presentation I continued this line of argument and suggested that the relation of the Romanov Empire and its emerging nations was much more multifaceted. At the moment my research has shown that

a) There was no unified strategy on the side of the imperial authorities towards its national movements; various groups could have shaped governmental policy towards national questions. This might be properly illustrated with stories of the 1900–1903 confiscation of Antanas Maciejauskas’s map, which was initially banned by the head of the Supreme Committee for Press, Nikolai Shakhovskoi. Later, this decision was revoked by the Senate, and consequently, in 1904, the ban on publishing Lithuanian texts in Latin was abolished altogether. In another case, when, in 1910, the head of Kievan Temporary Committee for Print, Timofei Florinskii, decided to confiscate all copies of the fourth issue of the Selo newspaper and of its annual calendar, this commitment was overruled by the local Judicial Chamber, which was then perceived by Florinskii’s local antagonists as “a slap to Florinski;”

b) The repressive national policy of the Romanov Empire was not necessarily brought to life by the central authorities. As two cases of memorial politics in the southern governorates show, sometimes local administrations tried to implement much harsher decisions than the capital. For instance, this was the case in the story about a monument to Taras Shevchenko, in Kiev. In 1912, Kiev Governor-General, Fedor Trepov, addressed the Senate with a petition to cancel the permission to erect the monument. After the required papers were brought to the capital in 1913, the Senate decided that it would leave the report of the Governor-General without any consequences. Two years later this exact decision was used as a precedent to deny the request of the Poltava Governor to prohibit the erection of Shevchenko’s monument in Romny, using the same type of arguments.

Therefore, during my presentation, I wanted to underline that to understand the late 19th and early 20th century’s political constellation in the Romanov Empire, we should not only talk about how under-governed a state the Empire was, not only enlarge the number of actors who participated in every chosen situation, and not only consider the Romanov Empire as a solid hindrance, which allegedly stood in the way of developing its fully scaled national movements by constantly prohibiting and repressing them. Historians should look deeper at every particular situation and describe it as thickly as possible, as Clifford Geertz would put it. In this case, as some of the examples I brought attest, we will find doubts, uncertainty and asymmetry of power instead of a well-founded structure. Therefore, one should follow the path of some contemporary historians to break through the rigid centre-periphery model and suggest something more hybrid, from periphery to centre approach, as one of Ab Imperio authors put it recently.
Introduction. When Russian fur hunters, in search of new hunting grounds, dropped anchor offshore the Alaskan coast in the mid-18th century for the first time, the impact on the Northern Pacific political landscape turned out to be much bigger than expected. In the 1780s, a Russian merchant established the first Russian permanent settlement on the American Northwest Coast. Then, in 1799, Tsar Paul established the semi-governmental Russian-American Company, to consolidate the Russian seizure of Alaska and thereby initiated the history of the first and only Russian overseas colony.

Beside the enormous economic profit from sea otter hunting, the young Russian colony also caused new political dimensions – and tensions. The Spanish missionaries in California, the British Hudson Bay Company and the American native population – all in fear of competing against yet another party on the North American continent – skeptically eyed the Russian approach towards America. In the early 19th century, the young United States of America gained interest in the Pacific Rim, as well, and quickly developed territorial ambitions towards the remaining North American continent. The picture of international political and territorial competition thus became even more complex and diverse.

Research Approach. My dissertation focuses on the Russian colonists in Alaska and their mandate within the Russian imperial agenda. Their relationships to Saint Petersburg and Washington, as well as their function as a geographical and political link between Russian and US-American imperialism, are the core topics of my work.

The basic assumption of my research is that the Russian colonists lived in a situation of enduring and diverse uncertainty. Against this background the colonists had to face various challenges. First of all, the lack of geographic knowledge about Alaska and the entire Northern Pacific forced the colonists to establish and maintain their colony in an almost unknown space. The numerous parties the colonists encountered – US-Americans, Spaniards, the British and the native population – brought in their own agendas the colonists had to decode and address properly. The faraway capital Saint Petersburg, though, was supposed to define the scope for the Russian colony, but frequently lacked the interest as well as the decisiveness to equip the colonists with a precise mission and the necessary tools.

Methodological Approach. The basis of my research is a topographical approach which does not aim at chronology or actors primarily, but on geographical places in the Russian Empire, the United States and the contested ones in-between. Each place will be engaged by one of two core questions:

1. Which attitude or relationship linked the Russian colonists with this place?
2. How was – vice versa – the Russian expansion to Alaska and the presence of Russian colonists in Northwest America received in this place?

To frame my research, the following characteristics are considered:
- topographical and mental mapping,
- official and unofficial political and economic relations,
- cultural and social exchange as well as,
- infrastructure and history of transport.

Sources. Primarily, I consider sources that illuminate the agency of the Russian colonists and the perspectives of Saint Petersburg and Washington on Russian-America. Both approaches will therefore include various types of sources: first of all, letters, but also maps, newspapers, diaries and reminiscences as well as accounts of journeys, and other observations. Besides well-established collections, less known documents and source editions will be consulted.
FALLEN HEROES STILL FIGHTING: USE OF THE MEMORY OF WORLD WAR II FOR IDENTITY POLITICS IN SOVIET LITHUANIA

Long before 1991, the post-Soviet states had begun to de-Sovietize and nationalize the writing of their own histories – something that had been long dictated by the imperial Soviet center. In my paper I will discuss to what degree the concept of history in the Soviet Union was “imperial”, i.e. produced, controlled and censored in Moscow. The focal point of my talk will be the Sovietization of history in Lithuania.

The national history of all republics was recounted within the framework of a universal history of the USSR – i.e. as a movement of the oppressed working class toward socialism and as a success story resulting from the socialist Revolution. In the 1950s, the Soviet interpretation of relations between the Russian people and Lithuanians, Ukrainians, Moldavians etc. was a near replica of the official Tsarist interpretation. This elaborate historical myth included a rehabilitation of the Tsarist past by stressing the superiority of Russians as “natural” historical leaders and their role as “elder brothers” in the narrative of the success story. Another point was the stress placed on the lack of ethnic hostility between Russians and non-Russians in the past – the non-Russian territories were not conquered territories, but had joined the Tsarist or Soviet Empires through “unions” and “re-unions” that brought only positive benefits. All these motifs are to be found in the case of Lithuania. Here, as in the other republics, the decisive role in formulating conventional Soviet discourse was played by the Central Committee of the Lithuanian Communist Party.

However, the process of creating history for Lithuania had some specific local motifs. The narrative had to do the following:

1. highlight class struggle in all periods of Lithuanian history;
2. stress the negative role of Christianity as an ideological cover for the eastern expansion of western feudal lords;
3. emphasize the importance of Russia for Lithuanian history;
4. show the unions between Lithuanian and Poland to be the outcome of a “conspiracy” of Lithuanian and Polish feudal lords,
5. stress the importance of the 1918 proletarian revolution in Lithuania to demonstrate the legitimacy of the re-establishment of the Soviet rule in 1940 and the joining of Lithuania to the Soviet Union.

Above all, it was the memory of the Great Patriotic War that was used to “sovietize” Lithuanian history.

To underline the historical continuity of the conflict between East and West, Soviet cultural policy looked to the victorious Battle of Grunwald in 1410, where German Teutonic crusaders were beaten by a coalition of Poles, Slavs, and Lithuanians. Hitler’s attack on the Soviet Union was set in the context of the Germans’ “eternal Drang nach Osten” since the Middle Ages and seen as another attempt to colonize the freedom-loving Lithuanians and erase their nation and culture. Thus, the first function of this memory politics was to show German brutality towards Lithuanians and present the Soviet Army as liberators of the country. This narrative was intended to block out the memory of Soviet deportations and the Lithuanian sufferings in the first year of Soviet rule. Liberation by Soviet soldiers was incorporated into the new “founding myth” of cities like Vilnius and Klaipeda. The propaganda requiring Lithuanian gratitude for being liberated also influenced the form of war memorials. Compared with the monuments erected in the rest of the Soviet Union, they presented not so much heroic combatants as the figure of the “grateful motherland Lithuania”.

The second function was to demonstrate the historical friendship and brotherhood-in-arms between Lithuanians and Russians. The Battle of Grunwald became a symbol of the successful re-
sistance demonstrated by ‘working’ people to the German ‘feudalists’ – something resulting in a triumphant victory guided by the ‘Great Russian brother’. Especially in the early 1960s, at a peak in Cold War rhetoric and East-West antagonism, the Battle of Grunwald was presented as a prototype of the cooperation and friendship between Russians and Lithuanians in their common struggle against the “cruel enemy from the west”. At the same time, in depicting the united struggle of Russian and Lithuanian soldiers and partisans against the German fascists, it was important to stress the heroism and resistance demonstrated by ethnically Lithuanian soldiers. In particular, the soldiers of the 16th Lithuanian Division of the Soviet Army were presented as heroes. The Lithuanian underground resistance against the Nazis was presented as a very significant and broad-based movement.

The third function of the war narrative was to confirm the Lithuanians as heroes and to blend out their role as perpetrators and collaborators with the Nazis. The very sensitive issue of the collaboration of Lithuanians with the German occupation forces was not broached in the public sphere. As part of this process of constructing Lithuanian loyalty to Russia, the participation of Lithuanians in Nazi crimes was not mentioned publically. Only those who managed to flee from Soviet Lithuania to the USA or Canada were accused of being war criminals.

The Japanese policy conceptions regarding Russia developed under the direct influence of the configuration of world politics during the second part of the 20th century. During the Cold War, from 1950 to the mid 1980s, the Soviet Union and Japan related to the different antagonistic systems that made a negative impact on bilateral relations.

There were 2 main directions for Soviet-Japan relations: 1) economic relations, and 2) political relations. Economic relations (trade and mutual activity on fishery, oil and coal projects in the Far East and Siberia) developed and increased gradually up to the USSR collapse. The political ties were worsened by ideological antagonism and a territorial dispute. In the period of peace negotiations in 1955–1956, before the 1956 Joint Declaration was signed, there appeared two main positions on the territorial problem: 1) "yonto: ikkatsu henkanron" (demand to return four islands at once and only after their return sign the Peace treaty) and 2) "dankanaikei henkanron" (step-by-step solving of the territorial problem and sign the Peace treaty). The first one became the mainstream for the Cold War period.

From the end of the 1980s, according to Soviet government intention, two-way connections were intensified. The changing situation in the USSR, caused by the global transformations of the 1990’s, called “global uncertainty”, became the great “Russian challenge” for Japanese foreign policy.

During that short period of the 1990s, there were formulated numerous new conceptions towards new Russia-Japan relations in the post-bipolar period. The “Suzuki group” became the group of politicians and diplomats who formulated a new agenda in this direction, when the window of opportunity was opened. The core of the group: politician, Lower House deputy Suzuki Muneo, high-ranking diplomat Togo Kazuhiko and specialist on Russia in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs Sato Masaru. They acted in two main directions: 1) solving territorial problem using a new conceptual basis, 2) developing strong ties on state, regional and personal levels between Russia and Japan.

At the end of the 1980s, Togo formulated a new basic concept on policy toward the USSR called “good-tempered balance” (kakudaikinkou). It was concentrated on the closing of bilateral rela-
tions in economic, international and official relations, and was considered as a basis of Japan’s diplomacy towards Russia up to 1996.

From 1992, representatives of the “Suzuki group” suggested to step aside from the concept “return four islands at once”. First, they offered the idea “peace treaty and two islands forward” – that was based on the Joint Declaration of 1956 and was one of the variations of “dankaiteki henkanron”.

The “group” was very active in the period 1996–2001 because the party and fraction to which Suzuki was connected was in power.

In 1996 they formulated a new conception of diplomacy on Russian direction – the “multilevel approach” (jyuzoutekina appurochi), which was created to transform relations in a strategic partnership in economics, international relations and security in Asia.

That time the group was very creative in formulating numerous ideas on territorial problem salvation: during a “no-necktie meetings” between President Yeltsin and Prime Minister Hashimoto, in 1997–98, they suggested to avoid the idea of “territorial transfer” in favor of a “plan of border determination”, which meant to put a new demarcation line between Urup and Iturup (based on 1855 border line, mentioned in Simoda treaty). Suzuki and Sato suggested discussing different ways of sovereignty of these territories.

From 1995–2000, to make Japan’s image better among Kurile Islands inhabitants, Suzuki lobbied and carried out several infrastructural projects on the disputed islands. During 1999–2000, Suzuki Munro lobbied the construction of Diesel engine power stations on Kunashir, Iturup and Shikotan and there was built the famous House of Russia-Japan friendship on Kunashir Island.

New activity on the territorial question, under the ideas of the “Suzuki group”, started after Putin became the president of Russia. Suzuki Munro was nominated to be a special envoy of the Prime minister in Russia. He tried to construct new ties with fellows of the new Russian presidential team. Face-to-face diplomacy was used again. The main agenda on the territorial dispute from the September 2000 visit of the Russian president to Tokyo to the Irkutsk Summit, in March 2001, was the version of “step-by-step solving the territorial and peace treaty problem” called “Two islands forward”. The “Suzuki group” promoted it during the half year negotiations. It meant to sign a Peace treaty and transfer to Japan thee Habomai group and Shikotan, according to the 1956 Joint Declaration, as the first step, and continue negotiations on Kunashir and Iturup sovereignty on the second step. The new Russian administration agreed to discuss the first step but rejected the second. Negotiations on a peace treaty and the territories were again at a deadlock.

In 2001, Koizumi Junichiro occupied the chair of prime-minister. Together with the new Minister of Foreign Affairs, Tanaka Makiko, he opposed the conception of “step-by-step solving of territorial and peace treaty problem” in favor of a traditional approach “all 4 islands at once”. So the “Suzuki group” ideas were rejected from 2001, and in the course of political power struggle Suzuki Munro became an uncomfortable figure for the new ambitious prime-minister. Suzuki Munro and his fellows were eliminated by a corruption scandal which burst out in February, 2002. The political career of Suzuki was ended; Sato Masaru and Togo Kazuhiko were discharged from the MOFA. Suzuki and Sato were jailed; Togo had to emigrate to the Netherlands for several years. The ideas of the group were rejected for the 2000s decade.
Decentralization of political power in many democratic countries in the world, as well as the problems of global governance, favour the study of the phenomenon of empire as a type of polity (which is the synonym of a strong political power and "the relative order") by scientists from different fields (political science, history, international relations). Despite the fact that nowadays there are no empires in the form they existed in the 18th–19th centuries, the topic of "empire" still occupies an important place in the political discourse of some countries (Russia, France, and Great Britain), due to the particularities of their cultural and historical development. Moreover, from the standpoint of conceptual analysis, it is possible to find the features of their imperial policy in the foreign policy of individual states (supranational polities).

The main characteristics of the modern imperial policy are the aspiration for seizure of territories, the expansion of political influence and the existence of a universal political idea proving the claims of the state (supranational polity) on global leadership. The idea has always played a special role in the existence, operation and development of the empire, acquiring a certain messianic significance.

The foreign policy of the United States, becoming the only superpower tending to global domination after the collapse of the Soviet Union in the early 1990’s, is more similar to imperial policy than ones of other modern states. The idea of liberal democracy has become a messianic project, assisting the expansion of the political influence of the United States of America in the world.

In addition to the United States, the foreign policy of several countries with a long-term imperial history may also be considered as imperial, in certain circumstances. For example, the nostalgia for the loss of the imperial past still exists in Russia (at the level of the political elite, and at the level of ordinary citizens). In recent years, Russian foreign policy towards Ukraine (especially the annexation of Crimea to Russia) is a testament to the desire of the Russian political elite to transfer the issue of revival of the empire in Russia from the theoretical to the practical field.

In the modern world imperial policy cannot remain the same as it was centuries ago. The nature of international relations has changed dramatically over the past few decades. Interdependence of economies due to globalization creates conditions under which military expansion (inherent to empires of the past) is fraught with serious problems for the state to implement (i.e. the threat of economic and political sanctions). In these circumstances, the use of non-power tools in foreign policy (soft power) is very important (especially for countries whose foreign policy has imperial features). Use of soft power tools gives such states (supranational polities) an opportunity to expand their political influence in the world, without fear of being accused of "imperial ambitions". One of such tools is "public diplomacy 2.0", aimed at creating a positive image of the country abroad.

"Public Diplomacy 2.0" is a relatively new trend in the framework of public diplomacy, which is a way of communicative influence on foreign audiences through technology Web 2.0. (social networks, blogs, video sharing, etc.). It is becoming increasingly important in modern world politics in relation to the growing number of users of the World Wide Web; the decline in the popularity of traditional media and the rapid spread of new media; as well as the transformation of the Internet space into the area for active political interactions.

The analysis of the activity of a number of countries in the field of "public diplomacy 2.0" demonstrates that states with a long-term "imperial" experience (Britain, France, Russia) or having the aspiration to become the "global empire" (United States of America) are more active in this field than states whose history cannot be called "imperial".
The report is devoted to comparing two types of territorial structures of plural (multi-ethnic, multi-linguistic, multi-religious) societies. The first (‘old’) type is an empire; the second (‘modern’) one is a federation.

An empire is a political community under a single authority. All empires in the past had complex ethnic (and, as a rule, linguistic, sometimes religious) and territorial structure. Heterogenic societies within empires were territorially fragmented. State governance in empires was based on the center-periphery model, where a ‘center’ usually consisted of the dominating ethnic group under the governance of an emperor, while peripheries were self-rulled and had their own governors or sovereigns. Constituent parts of an empire usually had different legal statuses. So, in empires, self-governance and centralized governance as well as direct and indirect methods of governance were combined. Finally, in any empire, there was a specific kind of legal and political consciousness based on an ‘apotheosis’ of an empire’s power and a justification for expansion of the empire’s space.

Classic federations arose on empires’ peripheries as an antipode of empires. But they became successors of empires, having maintained some specific features of them. According to a well-known definition of federalism proposed by D. Elazar, federalism involves the combination of self-rule and shared rule, an arrangement where two or more peoples or polities find it necessary and desirable to live together within some kind of constitutional framework that will allow all the parties to preserve their respective integrities, while securing peace and stability, through power-sharing, in those spheres where it is necessary.

We can find some similarities between definitions of empire and federation. First (classic) federations were established to create a single nation out of different communities, to provide solidarity within a fragmentized society, and, as a result, they combined approaches of ‘modern’ nation-state-building and ‘traditional’ governance in empires.

Nevertheless, federations rejected some traditional imperial practices and formed a new type of territorial structure of a state. Classic federations have some characteristics that distinguish them from empires: first federations (such as the USA and Australia) tended to create social cohesion by eliminating distinctions between populations of different units and refusing to exercise ethnic or linguistic criterion of territorial structuring. As consequences, first federations had full symmetry of constituent units. Also classic federations were created on the principle of non-centralism or polycentrism: while an empire had a center and peripheries, federations obtained two levels of centers with equal rights in relations between them.

In the 20th century, so-called ‘multinational’, or post-classic, federations appeared (the USSR – Russia, Yugoslavia, India, Ethiopia, Nigeria, and so on). They had an ethnic-based fragmentation of territory. Being fragmented societies with a center (a dominating ethnic group) and a periphery (minorities), they look like repercussions of empires rather than classic federations. Certain imperial mechanisms of governance became more appropriate for managing plural societies and for transforming diversity into social solidarity.

So, multinational federations gradually reverted back to an imperial model and now they can be described as modern ‘federal empires’. Nevertheless they also have some significant ‘federal’ features that were not distinctive features of ‘old’, or ‘classic’, empires (power-sharing, collective loyalty, proportional representation, inclusion of the whole population and equal rights for all citizens of the ‘federal empire’).
In 1929, Soviet stage director Lev Nikulin visited Spain. He wrote in his travelogue that he had been only the eighth Soviet citizen who had had a tour to this country since 1917. It clearly shows us that, during the 1920s, relations between Soviet Russia and Spain were practically absent.

Spain did not recognize the Soviet Union; the amount of Russian emigrants was low comparing to France, Germany and other countries; leftist movements in Spain were feeble. In another words, Spain was a mental periphery for the Soviet citizen. There was no image of contemporary Spain: the educated men used the stereotypes like corrida etc.

One decade later, in 1939, Spain became the most important country for large groups of Soviet citizens. Hundreds of youngsters learned Spanish; the map of Spain was necessary in a house of “modern man”.

Describing this change, one should notice the social and political situation in Spain. In April, 1931, the monarchy fell. The new republican government was very eager to reform the archaic Spanish society, which was not, however, really ready to be modernized. However, the reaction of the Soviet state to the revolution was very discrete. There was no solidarity campaign, but the door to Spain opened.

During the next few years one could see the real boost of mutual contacts. Soviet archives conserved literally hundreds of letters, in which the Spaniards asked for books, magazines and other productions from the USSR. In some cases, they were even looking for a job in a Soviet state.

First, working and sport contacts between the countries took place in that time. However, one thing one should keep in mind – these contacts were one-sided. The “ordinary” Soviets could not visit Spain.

During all the 1930s, Spanish delegations were trying to achieve the Soviet experience – either the professional or political one. These delegations were allowed to meet with the highest officials. They were particularly interested in the Russian social changes and the Civil War experience.

Moreover, Spanish citizens accepted the heroes of the USSR. First of all, one should talk about Chapaev. The book about him was translated into Spanish and the movie became very popular during the war. The streets and the battalions of the Republican army and International Brigades were named after him.

The reforms of the new Republic were both unpopular and badly made. In October, 1934, the miners’ revolt in Austria was harshly suppressed. The rebels in the north of Spain caused a short, but intensive, solidarity campaign in the USSR. Nevertheless, this campaign was no more than a short flash before the breakout of the Civil War on 18th July, 1936. It continued for two and a half years, and became the fiercest military conflict in the interwar Europe. The war became internationalized – Germany and Italy sent their troops to assist the rebel army, Mexico and the Soviet Union supported the Republicans – through military supplies.

Nevertheless, during the first weeks of the conflict, the Soviet media published only news from Spain. The first great solidarity rallies in Moscow, Leningrad and other cities occurred on 3rd August.

After that, the wide and profound solidarity campaign began. It included fundraising, the rallies of support, and so on. The peak of the campaign was in October, 1936. The “Izvestia” columnists, Brothers Tour, named this period “the Spanish Summer”.

The media often made a sharp connection between the Spanish situation and the Russian one. The war and revolution were described as a continuation of the Russian one. Spain even became some kind of a bad example – what can take place if you do not struggle against the spies and class enemies and not be vigilant.
The campaign was highly active before the summer of 1937. During this period, three big Moscow trials took place, and no one could exclude the role of Spain as a factor of internal mobilization of Soviet society.

Even after the Republican’s final defeat, in March, 1939, Spain remained an important part of the Soviet cultural code. “Spanish kids” became the influential diaspora in Soviet society. Even today, practically any Russian knows the motto of the Republicans – ¡NO PASARÁN! The clench-fist symbol is widely used by leftist and antifascist movements in Russia and across the whole world.

This case clearly shows us how history becomes global in the twentieth century. The regional conflict not only became international because of military intervention but also because of the sincere reaction in a very distant state. The revolutionary Spain used much of the Russian Revolutionary experience. In my opinion, it proves the transnational and, speaking wider, global character of regional conflict in the twentieth century.

“Markets of violence” (Gewaltmärkte) and “areas open to violence” (gewaltoffene Räume) are the key terms of Georg Elwert’s analytical approach to the conflicts which are often masked, and therefore traditionally conceived of as ethnic, ideological or pure political nature. Markets of violence are defined as “economic areas dominated by civil wars, warlords or robbery (marauding), in which a self-perpetuating system emerges … beneath the surface of moral, world-view and power conflicts”. These are highly profitable social systems wherein acquisition, based upon violence, can be combined with peaceful exchange. Their major actors, the warlords, employ violence out of economic imperatives in order to maximize profit, and are generally always confronted with a strategic triangle of violence, trade and time. Such systems generate no rules, but rather routines, and may remain stable over decades, as long as there are inner resources, access to external markets and a lack of the monopolization of violence.

Markets of violence can only emerge in the areas open to violence, as opposed to Weber’s monopoly of violence (Gewaltmonopol). The disintegration of a monopoly of violence results mostly from non-economic factors (e.g. in a fragile or fail state), but causes extensive economic deformations: rate of return from investments in security/warlordism starts to massively exceed the profit from investments in conventional commercial activities (industry, trade, agriculture), thus making market of violence a much more lucrative economic pattern. The establishing of a market of violence often, if not always, involves the putting up of a suitable, symbolic-ideological smokescreen.

Rather a practically focused concept derived from Elwert’s ethno-sociological field studies in Africa, it is not only well applicable to the instable regions of the modern world, but may provide historical studies with a powerful descriptive and interpretative tool as well. A wide range of early modern European (primarily East European) processes could be explained in terms of this theoretical framework. The following seemingly well-known historical phenomena will be especially the subject of this examination: eruption of violence in early 17th century Muscovy, known as the Time of Troubles, with specific reference made to the imperial frontier in the Northern Black Sea region. Furthermore, the Thirty Years’ War and the decline and collapse of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth should also be addressed in order to sound out the conceivable gain of Elwert’s concept.
MEXICAN FOREIGN POLICY STRATEGY IN THE 21ST CENTURY: REGIONAL OR GLOBAL PLAYER?

Taking as a starting point an emerging or existing multipolar system, the crucial point is who are these multiple poles, or powers of new world order, that are deciding and shaping the rules of the global geopolitical world game.

Another big question for the researchers in the field of international relations: What is the role of compact geographical regions with emerging regional leaders and integration blocks on the world map and in their interactions?

Latin American region development during the bipolar system was marked with the presence of the superpower in the inter-American subsystem, which had a defining value over the countries’ foreign policy. Notwithstanding, the region, on its own, has had a wide history of leadership projects, individual (a Brazilian military school and concept of grandezza, Argentinean ambitions to lead, Cuban attempts to set up and widen revolution ideas, the Venezuelan alternative Bolivarian model, ALBA) and collective ones (the Contadora Group, G3, UNASUR, CELAC, Alianza de Pasifico etc.) as well.

At the beginning of the 21st century, there are two economic leaders or emerging powers in the region: Brazil and Mexico. Both have had notable economic success, although Mexico suffered a major decline after the economic crises in Latin America, because of its economic ties to the USA. There are more opinions that Brazil is a regional power that is rising, or has already got to be a global one, owing to its ambitions and interest in playing a significant role in the international relations system (Brazil takes part in BRICS; is looking to reform the UN Security Council and gain a permanent membership in it; a mediation role in the Iran case). In the case of Mexico, question marks exist: Is Mexico a reluctant middle power? Is it a pivot state in the regional subsystem or is it also a rising global player?

Chronologically, the research is focused on the development of Mexican foreign policy in the 21st century, starting with a “big electoral shift” of the Vicente Fox Quesada administration in 2000, but paying more attention to the Felipe Calderon Hinojosa presidency (2006–2012) and the current initiatives of Enrique Peña Nieto (2012–2018). The basis of the Mexican foreign policy, with its major principles from Carranza doctrine up to abnegation strategy during the cold war period, will be used as a historical heritage that helps for understanding the grassroots of the recent changes, shifts and trends.

During Vicente Fox’s mandate, Mexico participated actively in the inter-American dialog, based on a concept that it has to play a connecting role of a bridge between North and South America. This paradigm got to the apogee at the Mar de la Plata meeting, that gave a result of Free Trade Area of Americas “a la carta”, in the negotiations of the ambitious plan to create a Free Trade Agreement from Alaska to Tierra de Fuego. All Mexican activism, at that point, achieved was comments from Latin-American countries, that Mexico was losing its Latin American identity and trading it for the North American one. During F. Calderon’s term in office, Mexico declared a war on drugs and organized crime that helped her to receive USA financial aid and military help, according to the Merida Plan. At the same time, this really hard period of Mexican contemporary history and the drug war that cost more than 70,000 lives, put aside foreign policy topics not only in the agenda but as a reflection of this trend – in the newspaper headlines worldwide. Within Calderon’s administration emerged the interrogative comment, does Mexico still have a foreign policy or is it completely occupied with domestic affairs?

The most recent changes that prove the revitalization of the Mexican international interests were made with the creation of the Pacific Alliance. Nevertheless, the brief observations mentioned above and the lack of profound academic researches of the contemporary phase of Mexican foreign policy leave a space to fill in.

What factors make a regular actor of a world system a bigger one or a one with a global aspiration to lead, to set up the rules and shape the system configuration? Among these there are: economic
growth and economic potential, that permit major spending for the realization of active foreign policy; global aspirations; and global vision. The last factor represents the internal interests and ambitions of one actor-state or group of countries, but for the stability of the world system it requires that this vision is based on the values and principles shared and supported by the other medium and smaller actors.

Leading with this premise, of factors that are necessary for a global player to achieve, Mexican experience is analyzed on a following order.

1. Economic development and potential. In this area, the attention will be put on the political measures to promote growth and address social problems, stressing more the external sources. Here the important points are Mexican trade promotion strategy and investment promotion strategy (PROMEXICO); initiatives for wider participation in international commerce and world politics; and attempts for the diversifications of trade and investment.

2. Analysis of the Mexican 20th century foreign policy inheritance, its role in regional affairs and its attitude towards world politics. This historical basis helped to understand the way that Mexico went from abnegation to a bandwagoning strategy. A very important part of a foreign policy area is within the cultural diplomacy that helps to form or change the international image of the country and make it more or less attractive in the international arena.

3. Research of the development of social-political thought in Mexico and the existence, or lack of, internal consensus on the role of the country in world politics. There are several geopolitically symbolic images of the self-perceptions that exist among Mexican academic elite and attentive public. The important question is whether they reached a consensus and if the images convert into the country’s global ambition and global vision. Another point of the research, in this area, is to analyze the values that can be transmitted and their closeness for the international community.

Contemporary Asian Studies and Chinese Studies, in particular, are widely debating the problem of how one can apply the conceptual framework of Social and Humanitarian Studies to the research of non-European societies. Indeed, the theoretical and methodological framework of the Western Social and Humanitarian Studies was worked out on the basis of analysis of European societies, with their particular culture and history. Due to this state of affairs, Asian Studies are bound to maintain their special status and develop largely isolated from the mainstream of social and humanitarian thought. Not being articulated in the terminological dialect of the modern social sciences, their scholarly results are sometimes obscure for a specialist from a related Social and Humanitarian area and, therefore, there is little demand for them.

In the meantime, developing contemporary Asian Studies can lead to more profound interdisciplinary relations between them and a range of socioeconomics, political sciences and the Humanities. Current trends in the theoretical and methodological development of the social sciences are paving the way for such convergence. Intensive use of such a methodological framework will help discover new prospects for the analysis of Asian societies and make the results of such studies more accessible for non-Orientalists.

One of the application areas for the latest sociological concepts can be the history of Chinese traditional education. At the present moment, the studies of Chinese education reveal a relative division of research areas between those who are engaged in Chinese historical studies and specialists from related disciplines. The problems of the social and cultural specificity of Chinese education, and the particularities of how it functioned in the traditional community, continue to
be the scope of interest for professional Chinese historians. By contrast, the issues of Chinese education nowadays have become a subject matter of scholars who work in the sphere of comparative pedagogy and the sociology of education; they are focussed on the topical aspects of the contemporary, educational practice. At the same time, research reveals a rather rigid dividing line between the interpretation of the traditional education forms and the contemporary ones, which did not gain a foothold until the 20th century, and have been largely influenced by the Western models of educational institutions and educational practice management. The history of Chinese education, therefore, appears to consist of two radically different periods, the traditional and the contemporary, where any historical continuity is only too relative.

In this regard, there is an urgent need for a common theoretical and methodological research frame, which would enable us to solve a few fundamental troubles. First, we need a common methodology suitable for studying both the traditional and the contemporary condition of Chinese education. This will help reveal the continuity in the development of educational practices and their organisation features. Second, when studying education one has to take into account the relations between education and other social subsystems, such as family, religion, politics and economy. Third, most of today’s education research is chiefly focussed on studying educational organisation, be it the medieval academies or the Western-model schools and universities founded in the second half of the 19th century, etc. In the meantime, educational communication is distinguished by being implemented not only within organisations but also on the level of personal interaction. The history of Chinese education provides considerable evidence of that: family instruction practice, professional or trade training, apprenticeship and the practice of canonical knowledge transfer. The methodology of education studies should take these forms of education into special consideration, as it was there that new pedagogical models got implemented, which later changed the goals and content of education.

**POST-IMPERIAL PROJECTS IN SIBERIA AND MONGOLIA, 1911–1924**

The creation of the Buryat-Mongolian Autonomous Socialist Soviet Republic within the Soviet Union, in 1923, and the independent Mongolian People’s Republic, a year later, was supposed to provide for effective control over the strategic border region between the recently collapsed Russian and Qing empires and its highly diverse population, and demonstrate a globally applicable model of transcultural governance to follow the World Revolution. Although both republics were nominally based on ethno-national categories (Buryat-Mongols and Mongols), the non-national religious, political and economic considerations played a major role during the development of the Soviet project. The new governance structures were accepted by the majority of the regional poly-ethnic, multi-religious and otherwise socially diverse population.

The ultimate disentanglement of the geographical space into two territories was preceded by several alternative suggestions about how to draw new boundaries on the remains of the largest Asian empires. Among these projects that were developed and partly implemented, in the Baikal region in North Asia, in 1911–1924, there were ethnic autonomies, super-ethnic federations and sovereign theocracies. The participants of the power relations behind the projects included American, Japanese, Czechoslovak, Italian, French, British, Canadian, Chinese, Serbian, Hungarian, Austrian and German military personnel, brought to the region by the Xinhai Revolution (1911–1912), the Great War (1914–1918), the October and February Revolutions (1917), the Civil War and the Allied Intervention in Russia (1917–1922), and a number of previously marginalized local groups, Buddhist monks and lay indigenous intellectuals.
The proponents of the ethno-national republics considered the experience of the failed attempts and paid much attention to the identities they sought to articulate. Furthermore, many actors, who developed or opposed the unsuccessful projects, entered the interactions leading to the creation of the two republics, both of which were constructed with substantial participation of regional intellectuals.

Although all suggested boundaries technically partitioned the earth’s surface, they were constructed not in the geographical space, but in the many relational spaces – spaces formed by various relations between people, places, institutions and other objects. In some of these transcultural (entangled and overlapping) spaces, boundaries were imagined and articulated in terms of group identities (ethnic, religious, occupational) and then projected onto the geographical space suggesting demarcation of territories. In others, the boundaries were designed to establish control over communication networks and economic resources.

In order to grasp the interconnections and interrelations between and within the various transcultural spaces, a geographic information system was developed. The GIS allowed for exploring each boundary project in a geographically nuanced manner. The use of time function allowed for analyzing the process of boundary construction in its dynamics. Following the post-representational approach to cartography, the four-dimensional GIS did not aim at reconstructing a historic reality, but combined many different views of it instead, contributing thereby to transcultural studies’ quest for relationality and multipolar argumentation.

Even though the disentanglement projects were implemented locally, they were shaped by global and local power and discursive crossings. For social mobilization, the many actors interested in establishing new power structures in the Baikal region appealed to the globally circulating ideas of self-determination and social justice, while utilizing local ethnic, clan, super-ethnic, political and religious categories.

The case study of the Baikal region in 1911–1924 allowed for in-depth exploration of relations between transculturality, power and space which are especially relevant nowadays, when the human diversity, interconnectedness and interdependency had been realized and addressed on global scale.

Source material used for the study was accessed at the State Archive of the Republic of Buryatia, the State Archive of the Russian Federation, the Russian State Archive of Socio-Political History, the National Library of Russia, the Russian State Military Archive, the US National Archives, and the Japan Center for Asian Historical Records.

DOES THE SHALE REVOLUTION MEAN THE END OF THE RUSSIAN ENERGY EMPIRE?

“Energy empire” is – if not an academic – term often used to describe modern Russia. Russia does not however qualify to be an energy empire, even if we go as far as to reduce the meaning of “empire” to “superpower”. There is too much interdependence created by trade in energy, and the interdependence is asymmetrical, not in Russia’s favour. The asymmetry has recently been increasing due to the shale revolution and its indirect effects.

There are few subjects in study of Russia’s energy policy that are as contested as the effects of the shale revolution. For the Eastern European consumers of Russian natural gas, the shale revolution has become a beacon of “energy independence”. At the same time, it has long been dismissed in Russia as “another Hollywood show”.

Providing the definition of the shale revolution and the background story of its making in the USA, I argue that it was a combination of factors unique to the USA that had made the shale revolution possible.
Therefore, in spite of very positive assessments of shale gas deposits around the world and their even distribution among nations, the shale revolution is a regional, exclusively North American phenomenon. There is a well-known list of factors, impeding its replication in Europe, Asia or elsewhere. A special attention is paid to the environmental concerns.

Difficulties in replicating the shale revolution do not mean that it does not have a profound effect on the geopolitics of energy. It is the indirect effects that matter the most and, above others, the ongoing globalization of LNG markets. However profound, it alone will have little effect on Russia’s energy policy. We must consider very different exposure to the countries, dependent on Russia’s energy exports, of the effects of such globalization.

The most important, indirect consequence of the shale revolution will thus be the ongoing normative changes in gas markets: new pricing mechanisms, shorter contract spans and flexible volumes. Russia has so far been violently opposing these changes. In the negative scenario, reluctant to change the modus operandi of its energy policy, Russia may find itself too inflexible for the changing environment and aggravate the asymmetry of dependence even more. In the positive scenario, the challenges may trigger long-awaited changes in both domestic and foreign energy policies of Russia.

**Towards a Change in the Latin American Policy on Violence: How Different Types of Violence Determine Government Policy Implementation**

The most violent places in the world are Central American and Venezuela. It’s certainly worth adding Colombia to the list because of its long-lasting period of violence. The phenomenon of Latin American violence could be considered according to very different criteria – goals, actors, level of organization, and control of territory – but for the pronounced countries the main attribute is the type of violence which is based on a complexity of causes and actors.

So, the distinction of violence existing in Latin America can be the following: Colombia, where the government struggles for ending a long-lasting internal conflict; Venezuela, faced with numerous protests against state authorities and Central American countries suffering from gang violence.

As for Colombia, the presidential election campaign of this year became a plebiscite on the most important issue for the citizens – a political settlement versus a continuation of the conflict which has caused criminal and drug related violence and provoked insecurity. The outcome of the vote (a win for Juan Manuel Santos) showed strong support amongst the people for government efforts to settle the internal conflict at the negotiating table. Thus violence, its victims and perpetrators, have become important actors of Colombian politics.

In Venezuela, the protests and unrest has become a regular feature of domestic politics since the turn of the 21st century. On the one hand, the protests were caused largely by high levels of violence, inflation and chronic shortages of basic goods. On the other hand, the degree of polarization and militarization in society diminished opportunities for a peaceful political transformation. Thus, in Venezuela, violence is simultaneously a cause, an instrument and a result of political processes.

In Central America the main problem is organized crime groups which have coercive power and control specific territories that are significantly weakening the state control within the national
territory. According to the results of the last presidential elections in El Salvador and Honduras, we can suppose that the widespread demand for “iron fist” strategies to be used by authorities is because they have been unsuccessful in reducing violence and providing public security, before now. For instance, results of the November 2013 presidential election in Honduras indicated that, in the most murderous nation, people have chosen the law-and-order president (Juan Orlando Hernández), in contrast to neighbor El Salvador, where this year the voters were choosing between the “iron fist” politics (Norman Quijano) and continuation of former president’s soften policy towards gangs (Salvador Sánchez Cerén). The latter, who was the vice president during the truce talks between the government and imprisoned gang leaders, defeated Mr. Quijano, who planned to apply the military justice code against violent criminals. Probably the most important reason was the argument that after the truce was forged, in March 2012, the homicide rate had dropped by half, a year later.

An erosion of the state monopoly for the use of violence, and the emergence of new violent actors, has become one of the most visible trends of contemporary domestic politics in Latin America. The tradition of using force and violence as an element of political culture, aggravated by challenges of globalization and transnational criminality, has made it more and more difficult for governments to avoid or to stop it.

To do regional studies means to study an unfamiliar reality. It means to learn the language, to get acquainted with history, art, some aspects of the science, society and political development, and some other aspects of everyday life of the country or region studied. This background is, apparently, very helpful for any regional studies. But after getting acquainted with the development of schools of thought (for example in economy) it may come to overlapping between the object of study and the methodology. In other words, there might be an intention to use the proposed methodology of the economist, whose works you have read mainly to learn more about the country or the region you are studying, to better understand the logic of political decision making.

That is what happened when I was thinking about whether the bulk of information about Ordoliberalism and the idea and methodology of Systemvergleich (comparison of systems) that I acquired during my studies of Germany could help me to study German Unification as an art of methodology. I must say, that I didn’t manage to use it completely. And, here, I’ll try to explain why it came to be that way. So, my topic is dedicated to the role of regional schools of thought and what role they may or may not play in regional research, and why it came to that result. My case study is the West German approach of comparison of economic systems – Systemvergleich. I compare it with the approach that was used during the same period of time (end of 1950s to the end of 1980s) in the works of English or American economists.

I came to following conclusions:

- In the works of English and American economists there is an observable change in the methodology of the comparison of economic systems: while, in the beginning, the primary focus is on the comparison of ideologies of the different systems, in time the focus shifts towards institutional economics in combination with statistical methods. In German works these dynamics aren’t as noticeable. There was a willingness to use only Ordoliberalism.

- Because of the Ordoliberalism, with its main idea that everything is interconnected (Interdependenz der Ordnungen), it was difficult to do microanalysis.
Characteristic of the German Systemvergleich is that there is an intention to work out a mastermind procedure for a system comparison.

For the German approach it is also typical to look for and to find a special point which mostly differs in the compared economics and through which their difference in other aspects could be explained (for example, ownership).

These aspects of German Systemvergleich made it very difficult or even impossible to use this methodological approach for an analysis of the East German transformation process.

Part of the literature I’m basing my research:


Research on the socialist countries of Central and Eastern Europe seldom leaves the frame of the nation state behind. This is truer for economic history. While the history of the Western European integration process is receiving much attention, starting with the Union for Coal and Steel, and reaching as far as the Maastricht Treaty and beyond, this is not true for integration processes which took place in Eastern Europe between 1945 and 1990. Yet they had command over the CMEA since 1949, an instrument with which it was possible to constitute economic cooperation across borders, according to the internationalist ideology of the ruling communist parties.

With my project, which I’d like to present, I want to take a closer look at the cooperation between the CMEA member states on the field of development aid. Due to the decolonization process, the socialist countries faced a more or less ideal situation to prove the superiority of their development model and ideology. With my research on this part of East-South relations, I expect further insights on the CMEA’s appeal on developing countries but also on the inner cohesion of the CMEA. What power relations can be seen inside the CMEA? Was the Soviet Union the all deciding hegemon or could the countries on the periphery like Hungary or the GDR exercise some power too and enforce their own goals? To which degree could developing countries play off the CMEA member states against each other and how did they react to such attempts?

The “Chinese Dream” can be expressed in China’s desire to be an informal world leader in many political, cultural, scientific and economic processes. Since the beginning of Deng Xiaoping’s reforms in 1978, the development of a scientific and technological base has been of high priority in achieving this aim. Space technologies, inter alia, were officially listed among key technical fields to modernize the economy (see “863 Program”).

In 2014, China ranked third (after the USA and Russia) in the scope of its space program by several measures (e.g. in the number of state’s currently operating artificial satellites). China’s space program is notable for its reliable space launch vehicles with a proven record of success. Finally, China became the third and, up to date, last country with an independent human spaceflight program.
However, in terms of technological capability, China’s space activities are equal to the level of Soviet and American space achievements in the 1960s–70’s. Even so, China’s space activities have significant influence on international relations concerning both diplomatic resources and military assets.

Below, I present some aspects through which China’s space activities influence international relations:

1. The planned launch of a new generation of Chinese satellites for real-time surveillance, military navigation and communication, regardless of their efficiency, might lead to a re-consideration of defense and security concepts by the Chinese government. The recent example is the absence of the traditional Chinese position of “no first use” of nuclear weapons in the newest Chinese defense white paper.

2. The development of aerospace technology in China activates space programs in other countries, both China’s partners and competitors. First, China exported several satellites to developing countries in Latin America, South-East Asia and Africa, though the exported items didn’t belong to the qualitatively new generation of satellites. Second, growth of space activities among countries of East Asia and the Pacific (namely China, Japan, South Korea, India, and, most recently, New Zealand and Malaysia) gives rise to a higher competition in the region.

3. China’s scientific and technical assistance to North Korea, Pakistan and some Arab states, most lately Saudi Arabia (officially recognized transfer of DF-21 missiles), demonstrates China’s role in shaping the political and military situation in Asia. In 2013, the expert communities of China and Pakistan were discussing, in open sources, the possibility of providing China’s satellite navigation services to the government of Pakistan, which could advance Pakistan’s precision-guided missiles capability.

4. China-U.S. cooperation, in the 1980s, on using Chinese space carriers to launch American and European satellites was aimed to make China abide by international law and nuclear non-proliferation policy. The current U.S. ban on using Chinese space carriers for launching the American and some European satellites is a result of tensions in Sino-US political relations.

5. Chinese-European cooperation in the peaceful use of space has a significant potential for mitigating political tensions between China and the West. China and the European Space Agency have successful experience of cooperation in the first major Chinese space exploration. Moreover, a special report of the International Coordination Group for Meteorological Satellites (WMO-CGMS) proposes the launching of combined weather satellite constellations belonging to China, the EU and the U.S.

An important purpose of my paper is to draw attention to the Chinese literature on China’s space program. Though the number of such works is growing fast, they haven’t been widely investigated by western and Russian researchers.

Not only were various aspects of China’s space program analyzed in numerous scholar researches inside China. Most importantly, much research has been done by prominent participants of China’s space program, who became more open in publishing their memoirs on the issue (e.g. the book “The philosophy of the development of China’s space industry”, 2013, written by former director of China National Space Administration Liu Jiyuan). These materials (written mainly in Chinese) may not necessarily accurately reflect the current state of China’s space industry, but are still important in the context of oriental sciences.
On October 8th, 1565, a carrack commanded by the young captain Juan de Salcedo and piloted by the Augustinian friar Andrés de Urdaneta entered the port of Acapulco in New Spain. It was the first time that a Spanish ship had successfully completed the long eastern bound journey between the Asian and American continents. One of the effects of this transoceanic encounter, that was referred to in the immediate aftermath of these events, concerned the changing perception of the place of New Spain and its inhabitants within the Empire. In an account of the journey, printed in Barcelona, in 1566, the unknown author observes “those of Mexico are mighty proud of their discovery, which gives them to believe that they will be the heart of the world.” This presentation deals with precisely this type of response to the establishment of new trans-Pacific connections, and the impact this had on perceptions of New Spain’s geopolitical position in the imperial or global order. My principal objective is to arrive at a better understanding of how perceptions of the viceroyalty’s position, at the crossroads between Europe and Asia, contributed to the shaping of various political and social identities among different groups of creole and Peninsular Spaniards residing in the viceroyalty.

Unstable, ambiguous, and often contradictory, identity is deemed a notoriously slippery category for social and historical analysis. In spite of its multivalent nature, identity can nonetheless serve as a meta-concept to deal with questions of human diversity and social distinction. I use the term identity as a nexus of distinct but interrelated processes of categorizing and self-understanding, of crafting and interpreting, and of internal and external identification. In an attempt to deal with such identifying and categorizing processes, from the point of view of individual actors, I have chosen to study the making of identities through the prism of the “economy of grace and mercedes.” A constitutive pillar of the Spanish Empire, this increasingly organized political system played a key role in shaping actions and images of people involved in constant struggles for rewards and social recognition. By connecting cosmographical, legal, and political theory to practices of the administration of commutative and distributive justice, we will be able to explore the various manners in which individual actors, participating in this trans-imperial economy, shaped their identities, as they interpreted the world and acted within it.

From the late sixteenth century, New Spain’s position at the “heart of the world” became an increasingly important theme in these interpretations. Changing flows of peoples, commodities, and ideas affected daily life and the dynamics of social negotiations in the viceroyalty. Inhabitants of the viceroyalty were grappling with the challenges and opportunities related to the high degree of geographical and social mobility that they experienced at this crossing of imperial pathways. Soldiers, merchants, and mendicant friars gained, in the Pacific Rim, capital, both monetary as well as symbolical, that allowed them to negotiate a better position in the viceregal society. Others, however, resisted such pretensions, arguing that these newcomers were robbing the descendants of the conquistadores from the rewards and privileges that legally ought to be theirs. In this presentation I argue that, in the context of the conflicts between different social groups, New Spain’s pivotal position in the imperial order provoked diverging responses, ranging between sentiments of pride to overt aversion. Furthermore, it will be contended that the way in which historical actors conceptualized the relationship between the viceroyalty and the Pacific space was intimately related to the categories and social identities they used to situate themselves or others in local or imperial orders.
Social policy, as the state and society’s activity to regulate the social sphere and social relations in order to ensure that vital needs are provided, has always greatly interested researchers. At the present time, a surge of interest in the concepts and models of social policy that can provide people with a decent life is taking place. British social policy and practice, known for its achievements in the world, is of particular interest nowadays.

Since 1945, there has been the formation of several approaches to solving the social problems in Great Britain. These approaches could allow us to formulate three models of social policy developed within Great Britain’s political parties.

The first model was issued in the framework of the traditional Labour conception. Determining the role of the state, which aims to provide all citizens “from the cradle to the grave” with the distribution of numerous benefits and special payments. Thus, creating a “welfare state” is the most specific feature of the first model. Implementation of the traditional Labour social model ensured a certain social security to the people. But at the same time, it has led to the decline in civic engagement in the community and major financial contributions to the social sphere. The growth of public spending on social programs was increased, as opposed to the economy. As a result, people lost all sense of personal initiative and responsibility, and became fully reliant on the state support system.

In the period from 1979–97, the British new Conservatives implemented the second version of the social question solution, on the basis of which the conception of the second model of social policy appeared. This model was described by the use of the accumulated state funds to support only the most disabled people and those who could not work, the “social outcasts”. The Tory’s policy in the social sphere, known as “social conservatism”, was to reduce government spending on social programs. The programme included the extensive privatization of social services and the introduction of market elements into it. This policy led to increased social inequality. There was a decline in the overall standard of living, increased unemployment, and the problem of child poverty was identified as well. So, that social crisis highlighted the need for a new social policy ideology, which was proposed by “New Labour”.

“New Labour” as a new political branch within the Labour Party appeared in the 1990s. The “New Labour” representatives suggested the third option, or “the third way” to solve social problems, based on the following principle – “from the welfare state to the welfare society.” These statements became the basis of the third model of social policy in the United Kingdom. Tony Blair (the “New Labour leader”) identified “the third way” of social organization, which was based on the distinction between the functions of the state and society in addressing social issues. So, in particular, the state is responsible for the activity only in the main areas of social policy, in order to eliminate the very poor people, and the society in its turn has to deal with all the other social problems by stimulating the activity of the citizens. The main meaning of the new model was to justify the transition from the idea of “the welfare state” to the idea of “the welfare society.” The concept of “the welfare state” is defined by “New Labour” as a society whose citizens achieve social benefits not only due to the distribution of state activity in the social sphere, but also by enhancing its own citizenship.

The study of the whole complexity of basic social reforms and the results of their implementation during the second half of the 20th century and beginning of the 21st century is of great scientific and political significance. It allows us to analyze the positive and negative aspects of social policy of traditional Labour, “New Labour” and the new Conservatives, as well as fully reconstruct the social history of Great Britain and understand the domestic policy of this country at the present time.
The Russian Academy of Sciences (RAS) was founded by decree of Peter the Great, in 1724, in St. Petersburg. The Academy of Sciences was situated in our city until 1934. Half a century later the Leningrad, now St. Petersburg, Scientific Center was formed. It is, by right, considered to be the historical core of the Russian Academy of Sciences. Now SPbSC RAS is one of the biggest scientific centers in Russia. It incorporates 45 scientific institutions. Academician J.I. Alferov is chairman of SPbSC RAS. In research institutes of SPbSC RAS, there are more than one thousand young scientists under 35 years old. Since academic institutes and organizations of the RAMS (Academy of Medical Sciences) and RAAS (Academy of Agricultural Sciences) have been affiliated to the RAS, the number of young scientists has increased.

It is worth noting that SPbSC RAS institutes represent all scientific branches existing in RAS. In the SPbSC RAS, there are three institutions which are older than the Academy of Sciences: the Kunstkamera (Peter the Great Museum of Anthropology and Ethnography); the Library of the Academy of Sciences; and the Botanical Institute (in the XVIII century “Pharmaceutical Garden”), founded in 1714. Among the scientific institutions of St. Petersburg, the largest and most famous Russian academic institutions with ancient traditions, is the Ioffe Physical-Technical Institute; the Library of the Academy of Sciences; the largest biological institutes (the Pavlov Institute of Physiology and the Institute of Cytology); and the leading chemical institutions (the Grebenshikov Institute of Silicate Chemistry and the Institute of Macromolecular Compounds etc.).

Since 2010, the Council of Young Scientists and Specialists of SPbSC RAS functions at SPbSC RAS. The Council promotes the professional development of young scientists and scientific organizations from SPbSC RAS, the accumulation of professional experience, the disclosure of creative and scientific potential as well as protecting their social, material and personal interests.
Saint Petersburg State University is the first university to be founded in Russia, by decree of Tsar Peter the Great, in 1724. In November, 2009, the Russian President, Dmitry Medvedev, signed a law which accorded special status to St. Petersburg State University and Moscow State University as “unique scientific and educational complexes, the country’s oldest universities, having enormous significance for the development of Russian society.” St. Petersburg State University is authorized to issue its own diplomas with the official insignia of the Russian Federation. The University was the first in Russia to introduce its own educational standards, setting requirements for achievements by students that are higher than the official state standards. In 2014, the University resumed the tradition of conferring its own post-graduate degrees. Works submitted for the title of PhD SPbSU are assessed by scientists from several countries, who must be specialists in the area in which the PhD thesis is written.

St. Petersburg State University is a major international scientific and educational centre. The University has set up a unique Research Park, which is open to scientists from around the world. The university offers competitive programs of support for young scientists. It has 13 laboratories supervised by world leading scientists. Professors and graduates of the University, who include eight Nobel Prize winners, have made scientific discoveries and breakthroughs of major importance to the history of world science.

More than 300 higher education institutions in over 70 countries have partnership relations with St. Petersburg University. The University participates in international scientific and educational programs, is a member of 13 major international associations, and cooperates actively with international organizations. A total of 19 educational programs are currently being implemented by the University in collaboration with foreign universities, including master’s programs taught in English. The University offers master’s degree programs, in which graduates obtain two diplomas: one from St. Petersburg State University and another from the partner University.

Graduates of St. Petersburg State University include six Russian heads of government: Petr Stolypin, Boris Sturmer, Alexander Kerensky, Vladimir Lenin, Vladimir Putin and Dmitry Medvedev (the latter two have also served as Presidents of the Russian Federation).

The Expert Centre at St. Petersburg State University provides expert opinions at the request of the Constitutional Court and the Supreme Court of the Russian Federation; federal ministries and departments; Russian regional administrations; public corporations; and private businesses.

Today, St. Petersburg State University stands for the vanguard of scientific research, high standards of education, competent expert consulting, development and innovation based on strong historical traditions.
The Russian Foundation for Humanities (RFH), one of the most important institutions of human studies, was created by the resolution of the government of the Russian Federation in 1994. The main purpose of RFH is financial and organizational support for research in the Humanities, based on the principles of creative freedom for scientists to choose the area and methods of research.

The Foundation annually holds different contests of scientific projects in all major areas of Humanities and social sciences.

To promote integration of Russian scientists in the world scientific community and develop new mutually beneficial international contacts, RFH has organized international programs. Nowadays, the Foundation has agreements with 21 institutions from 19 countries and is also involved in the research programs of the European Union ERA.Net RUS and BONUS.

The participation of young scientists, including students and post-graduate students, is encouraged in all RFH competitions. For a young scientist to get a RFH grant is an external recognition and appreciation by specialists of the relevance and importance of his/her work and its quality.

The RFH Publishing Program is one of the largest in Russia in the field of scientific publishing. Books published under RFH support are regularly exhibited at Russian and international exhibitions.

The Foundation selects and supports research projects based on a multi-stage independent scientific expertise. The experts are more than 1100 authoritative and highly qualified Russian PhD scientists working in more than 400 scientific and educational organizations and representing 52 regions of the Russian Federation. Since 2013, the expertise of projects is handled by foreign scientists from 25 countries: Great Britain, Germany, Spain, Italy, USA, Finland, France, Switzerland, Sweden, Japan, etc.

This year, the Russian Foundation for Humanities has celebrated its 20th anniversary. Within the last 20 years, in total, more than 120,000 proposals have been submitted and reviewed; the Foundation has funded more than 40,000 research projects, involving more than 250,000 Russian scientists including over 83,000 young scientists. Over 120,000 scientific articles and over 5,000 scientific books were published and handed over to 206 Russian federal research libraries and the country’s leading universities. More than 2,000 scientific conferences were supported; about 1,000 information resources on the Internet were created.

RFH, today, means almost 8,000 applications for contests a year and almost 3,500 annually supported projects. RFH has a unique database for Humanitarian research studies held in Russia. RFH activities, as one of the most important elements of the organizational structure of Russian science, contribute to its interagency, interregional and interdisciplinary integration.
Higher School of Economics is one the top Russian research Universities in the social and economic field. It was founded by an Ordinance of the RF Government, on November 27th, 1992, initially as a master’s education center. The university has a unique system of network campuses across the country; there are four of them: Moscow, St.Petersburg, Nizhny Novgorod and Perm. The research expertise of HSE professors has been widely recognized domestically as well as internationally.

Higher School of Economics-St.Petersburg enrolled its first students in 1998. In 2008, Higher School of Economics received the status of National Research University, which means that one of its strategic goals has become to provide the efficient education process and integrate it with research activities. Recently, Higher School of Economics has become one of 15 universities in Russia to receive additional governmental funding within the framework of implementing the Global Competitiveness Program. The internationalization of education and research is one of the strategic goals of HSE – St.Petersburg and its activities reflect its dedication in many ways.

HSE – St.Petersburg recruits some of the best students and annually keeps highest positions in domestic rankings. The university offers Bachelor and Master programs in Management, Economics, Sociology, Political Science, History, Sociology and Law. There are several international programs where top-notch research expertise is transferred into the learning process. Centers of research excellence include international economics, urban development, urban planning, migration and tolerance, and imperialism studies. There are two international laboratories and several international projects in the field of history, sociology and other fields.
THE GERMAN HOUSE FOR RESEARCH AND INNOVATION (DWIH) MOSCOW

The German Houses of Research and Innovation (DWIH) provide a platform for the German research and innovation landscape, showcasing the accomplishments of German science, research, and research-based companies and promoting collaboration with Germany and innovative German organizations. They are part of the Internationalization Strategy of the German Federal Government and the Federal Foreign Office's Research and Academic Relations Initiative. The Federal Foreign Office is implementing this project in cooperation with the Federal Ministry of Education and Research and in close collaboration with the Alliance of German Science Organizations, which includes the Alexander von Humboldt Foundation, Fraunhofer-Gesellschaft, German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD), German Council of Science and Humanities (WR), German National Academy of Sciences Leopoldina, German Rectors' Conference (HRK), German Research Foundation (DFG), Helmholtz Association, Leibniz Association, Max-Planck-Gesellschaft – as well as the Association of German Chambers of Industry and Commerce (DIHK).

The houses were created for various goals:

- Promote Germany as a research location
- Provide a forum for international dialogue and scientific exchange
- Provide support and services (advising for international researchers; organizing educational events; facilitating collaboration)

The German House for Research and Innovation in Moscow goes back to a June 2009 meeting between Germany’s then Foreign Minister Frank Walter Steinmeier and his Russian counterpart Sergey Lavrov, when both agreed on expanding the institute under the leadership of the DAAD. In 2011 a joint declaration between Dr. Guide Westerwelle and Sergey Lavrov on the establishment of a German House of Research and Innovation in Moscow was signed. Currently the DWIH project in Moscow is lead jointly by the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD) and the German Research Foundation (DFG) and comprises partners with a representation/representative in Moscow like the Helmholtz Association of German Research Centres (HGF), Alexander von Humboldt-Foundation (AvH), the Freie Universität Berlin and the German Historical Institute (DHI) Moscow. The German-Russian Chamber of Foreign Commerce (AHK) is also member of the DWIH.

DWIH Moscow’s current director is Dr. Gregor Berghorn (DAAD).

In its various activities the DWIH Moscow focuses mainly on topics of German-Russian scientific cooperation, i.e. climate, energy, health care, resource management, logistics and legal cooperation. Beside these, it has established an event portfolio on additional fields of German Russian scientific interest as aviation and space, energy saving technologies in constructing, bioenergy and several more. The DWIH regularly organizes and supports German-Russian events like e.g.:

- Science Lectures of outstanding German scientists
- Science Talks with high-ranked representatives of German and Russian science
- The „German-Russian Week of the Young Researcher“, once a year on varying subjects in the Russian regions
- Regular meetings with rectors of leading Russian universities
- Symposia/Conferences on current scientific topics
- Information seminars in centres of scientific and innovative research in Russia
- Economy and innovation: participation in economic conferences on innovative topics
- Round table talks with scientists and journalists

In 2014, the German House of Research and Innovation in Moscow participated in more than 40 events and organized itself several high-ranked scientific events.
Studia humanitatis – humanistic studies – have for many centuries dwelled at the heart of education. Until the last few decades, the ‘humanities’ were a central strand of teaching and research. But, occasionally, it seems as if some of them have fallen on hard times.

The goal of the German Historical Institute in Moscow, founded in 2005 as one of ten world-wide research institutes under the roof of the Max Weber Foundation, is to promote common German and Russian transnational and interdisciplinary research with a focus on history, culture, economic and social sciences. The institute functions as a forum for the dialogue between scholars of both academic communities, by bringing them together in international conferences, scientific lectures or methodological seminars. It offers scholarships and internships for young academics, as well as lecturers, for work in Russian archives and libraries.

Furthermore, the activity of the GHI Moscow focuses on the coordination and carrying out projects with German, Russian and other international partners, predominantly universities, archives, institutions and historical associations. Areas of research are the study of how Russian and German people process and document their historical experience from the Middle Ages to the present day, in the context of European and world history.

What does this mean more concretely? Practicing the humanities abroad can be described as a concept to study political, social, religious, philosophical, or other questions at the places where history was made, texts were written, and the material culture had its origins. This mode of research is to some extent similar to what archeologists are doing – ‘excavating’ relics of the past in international teams, feeling the genius loci and a sense of connection to the people living there in former times as well as to the contemporaries in the guest land. Globalization presents a challenge to all sciences, to the prevailing narratives of social and cultural development, and – even more – to the order of knowledge itself. Exchange and interaction, entanglement and networks characterize our modern world. The humanities, and especially the historical sciences, should be able to pose questions and generate answers that respond to the changing realities.
THE GERMAN ACADEMIC EXCHANGE SERVICE (DAAD)

The German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD) is the largest funding organisation in the world supporting the international exchange of students and scholars. Since it was founded in 1925, more than 1.5 million scholars in Germany and abroad have received DAAD funding. It is a registered association and its members are German institutions of higher education and student bodies. Its activities go far beyond simply awarding grants and scholarships. The DAAD supports the internationalisation of German universities, promotes German studies and the German language abroad, assists developing countries in establishing effective universities and advises decision makers on matters of cultural, education and development policy.

Its budget is derived mainly from the federal funding for various ministries, primarily the German Federal Foreign Office, but also from the European Union and a number of enterprises, organisations and foreign governments. Its head office is in Bonn, but the DAAD also has an office in the German capital, Berlin, to which the famous Berlin Artists-in-Residence Programme (Berliner Künstlerprogramm) is closely affiliated. It maintains contact with and provides advice to its main partner countries on every continent via a network of regional offices and information centres.

In 2011, the DAAD funded more than 70,000 German and international scholars worldwide. The funding offers range from a year abroad for undergraduates to doctoral programmes, from internships to visiting lectureships, and from information gathering visits to assisting with the establishment of new universities abroad. Voluntary, independent selection committees decide on the funding. The selection committee members are appointed by the DAAD's Executive Committee according to certain appointment principles. The DAAD supports the international activities of German institutions of higher education through marketing services, publications, the staging of events and training courses.

The DAAD’s programmes have the following five strategic goals:
- to encourage outstanding young students and academics from abroad to come to Germany for study and research visits and, if possible, to maintain contact with them as partners lifelong;
- to qualify young German researchers and professionals at the very best institutions around the world in a spirit of tolerance and openness;
- to promote the internationality and appeal of Germany’s institutions of higher education;
- to support German language, literature and cultural studies at foreign universities;
- to assist developing countries in the southern hemisphere and reforming countries in the former Eastern Bloc in the establishment of effective higher education systems.
The Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (German Research Foundation) is the biggest funding agency in Europe for the development of fundamental research with an annual budget of 2.5 billion Euro. Its membership consists of German research universities, non-university research institutions, scientific associations and the Academies of Science and the Humanities. The DFG has expanded its presence in other research regions around the world with its 7 liaison offices. The office Russia/CIS was opened in Moscow in 2003. Framework agreements on the co-funding of research projects and researcher mobility exist with the following partners: the Russian Academy of Sciences (RAN), the Russian Foundation for Basic Research (RFFI), the Russian Foundation for the Humanities (RGNF).

How does the DFG promote young researchers? Creative and intelligent minds are the key to successful science and research. That is why the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (German Research Foundation) places a special focus on promoting young researchers. We are committed to helping young talents pursue cutting-edge investigations in top-level settings and help them to become independent early on in their careers.

Flexible individual funding and customised excellence programmes give young researchers the opportunity to advance in their careers and undertake projects from all branches of science and the humanities. The DFG accepts funding proposals from researchers with a doctoral degree (PhD) who live and work in Germany or plan to do so in the future. PhD students are not supported individually, but can be, indirectly through the funding of programmes and projects.

Project-based doctoral and post-doctoral qualifications. For doctoral researchers, who like working in a team and value a well-designed framework, a Research Training Group (RTG) may be the right choice. It combines an ambitious research programme with target-oriented supervision and academic freedom to form an ideal environment for a successful doctorate. Post-docs help design the research and qualification programmes of an existing RTG and explore new research topics for your future career.

Following completion of the doctorate there is the possibility to assume responsibility as an investigator in an existent DFG-funded project. This will give young researchers the opportunity to advance their qualifications and improve their career prospects by gaining experience and by building new networks.

The Temporary Position is a funding mechanism that provides young researchers with funding for a temporary post-doctoral position in conjunction with a proposal for a research grant. Researchers may select the scientific setting in Germany that they think will provide the best conditions for their project.

Excellence programmes. The Emmy Noether Programme is aimed at outstanding scientists and academics with at least two and no more than four years of post-doctoral research experience (or up to six years for licensed medical doctors). It allows young researchers to head their own independent junior research group that will work on a project for five or, in exceptional cases, six years. It offers a fast-track opportunity to qualify for a leading position in research.

For young researchers, who have all the qualifications for a professorship, the Heisenberg Programme may be the right option. This programme provides them with funding for up to five years so they can distinguish themselves further academically. There are two variations of the programme: the portable Heisenberg fellowship, which also allows one to go abroad for some time; and the Heisenberg professorship, which offers the prospect of acquiring a tenured position at a German university, provided the candidate receives a positive review.
The Alexander von Humboldt Foundation promotes academic co-operation between excellent scientists and scholars from Germany and abroad. AvH research fellowships and research awards allow scientists to come to Germany to work on a research project they have chosen themselves together with a host and a collaborative partner. As an intermediary organization for German foreign cultural and educational policy AvH promotes international cultural dialogue and academic exchange.

What is important to us? Only one thing is important to becoming a member of the Humboldt Family: your own excellent performance. There are no quotas, neither for individual countries nor for particular academic disciplines. AvH selection committees comprise of academics from all fields of specialisation and they make independent decisions based solely on the applicant’s academic record. So in this case people are supported, specific not projects. After all, even in times of increased teamwork, it is the individual’s ability and dedication that are decisive for academic success.

Roots of the AvH: Alexander von Humboldt was a discoverer and cosmopolitan. He was a fighter for the freedom of research, a humanist and a patron of excellent academic talent. Shortly after his death, the Alexander von Humboldt Foundation for Nature Research and Travel was established in 1860.

Today’s Alexander von Humboldt Foundation was established by the Federal Republic of Germany on 10 December 1953. With Humboldt as a model, the Foundation maintains an international network of academic co-operation and trust. It links more than 25,000 Humboldtians throughout the world together, including 49 Nobel Laureates. The Foundation is funded by the Federal Foreign Office, the Federal Ministry of Education and Research, the Federal Ministry for Economic Co-operation and Development, the Federal Ministry for the Environment, Nature Conservation and Nuclear Safety as well as a number of national and international partners.

Become a Humboldtian: Whether you are a young post-doctoral researcher at the beginning of your academic career, an experienced established academic, or even a world authority within your discipline – our research fellowships and research awards offer you sponsorship specifically tailored to you and your career situation.

Key Sponsorship Programmes:
• Research Fellowships for post-doctoral researchers and for experienced researchers (up to 24 months of stay in Germany).
• Awards (Sofja Kovalevskaja Award, Friedrich Wilhelm Bessel Research Award, Humboldt Research Award, Alexander von Humboldt Professorship and others)
• German Chancellor Fellowships to prospective leaders from the USA, the Russian Federation and China who have shown an outstanding potential for leadership in their careers thus far. For representatives of all professions and disciplines, giving special preference to the humanities, law, social science and economics.
Freie Universität Berlin – one of the German universities of Excellence – has been the first university from Western Germany to cooperate with the Leningrad State University. The cooperation with the then Soviet university started in 1968, when the first agreement was signed. This longstanding partnership has grown and been developed into a strategic partnership, since 2012. The strong commitment of professors and young researchers of Freie Universität in the 4th Week of the Young Researcher in Saint Petersburg is therefore a direct result of this relationship, indicating an interest not only in Russian science in general but also cooperation with Saint Petersburg University especially.

Freie Universität Berlin focuses in its development strategy in fostering scientific careers of young researchers from all over the world. By strengthening and developing regional as well as international networks, the university intends to support career paths towards professorship for prospective young researchers. Third party funded scientific projects, as well as time limited positions at many universities and research institutions, raise the question of how to prepare doctoral students for international scientific careers and of how to plan such a career.

Scientific careers in the western approach presume international experience at the educational and scientific level, whereas the Russian model is only partly and slowly considering international experience as a bonus for career advancements; this can be clearly shown by comparing recent job offers of Russian and German institutions.

The role of Freie Universität Berlin’s liaison offices, in 7 countries around the globe, is not only to attract highly talented young researchers to the exciting scientific environment in Berlin, but also to support scientists going to the respective regions, to motivate them to pursue a research, stay abroad and to connect with (young) colleagues e.g. in Russia. High level conferences, like the Week on Global History, are ideal to foster networks between the next generation of scientists. Although it is still a major challenge to plan scientific careers, Freie Universität Berlin offers excellent opportunities for career advancements, including structured doctorate programs, postdoc fellowships and Dahlem International Network Professorships.
It has become a good tradition of the Weeks of the Young Researcher to offer different formats of discussions than only the classic power point presentation. That is why from the very beginning we have always included workshops during the week and panel discussions at the end of the week. In order to get feedback from the participants on the week this year we invited Anna Litvinenko from Saint Petersburg State University to host a panel with young scientists. On the panel the Russian side was represented by Anna Protsenko from the Institute of Latin America (RAS) in Moscow and the German side by Michael Goebel from the Freie Universität Berlin, who both were open to questions from the auditorium.

Some challenges researchers of Russia and Germany face are polarized. Russians are often restricted to the one and only research organisation for a lifespan desperately lacking mobility. While their German colleague can well find himself aged forty, having changed five to a dozen employers and still having no long-term job offer to stick to, to make his family assured they needn’t worry about bread winning.

What further difficulties are waiting out there, and how to fight them? The panel discussion participants took turns sharing their experiences. Writing in English, the Lingua Franca of the globalized science, was named the number one problem Russians and Germans do share. More and more practical trainings in academic writing should be organised, everyone agreed, after Anna Litvinenko, the chairperson of the discussion, presented a successful case of Saint Petersburg State University inviting noted experts and publishing houses representatives to hold extended trainings as well as intensive workshops on a regular basis.

But not just writing skills need constant improvement, but scientific approaches differ, some of the researchers argued. Russian and German are yet quite similar. Exempli gratia, we both see global history as a perspective rather than a field of study or an object in itself, and that’s why dispute and collaboration are possible. But the American approach, on the other hand, differs substantially, making it difficult for a Russian or a German social scientist to get understood and published in American journals. US scientists focus on theory, while their vis-a-vis in Europe find methodology more appealing, while Russians are keen on empirical studies. Sometimes we happen to use totally different criteria when taking part in international grant committees.

“Yet fruitful bilateral and multilateral collaboration is by all means possible when based on personal trust among scientists born and working in different countries and representing different research cultures”, Anna Litvinenko summarized, when the brief 60 minutes for the discussion elapsed. A master programme, officially opened by Frei Universität Berlin and Saint Petersburg State University, just two days before the discussion to widen the long list of the two universities’ joint projects, made that sound indisputable.
# LIST OF PARTICIPANTS

THE GERMAN-RUSSIAN WEEK OF THE YOUNG RESEARCHER: GLOBAL HISTORY

Saint Petersburg, October 6–10, 2014

## GERMAN DELEGATION

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<td>Dr.</td>
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## RUSSIAN DELEGATION

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PROGRAMME

OCTOBER 5, SUNDAY

12:00  Light lunch
13:00  Excursion and Sightseeing Tour
       Catherine Palace and Museum of World War I, Tsarskoye Selo
19:00  Words of Welcome to the participants of the week by
       • Dr. Gregor BERGĦORN, DAAD Moscow
       • Dr. Martin KRISPIN, DWIH Moscow
       • Dr. Jörn ACHTERBERG, DFG Moscow

OCTOBER 6, MONDAY

09:30  Registration of Participants at Saint Petersburg State University (SPSU)
10:00  Official Opening of the Week with welcome addresses by
       • Prof. Dr. Nikolai KROPACHEV,
         Rector of SPSU
       • Dr. Heike PEITSCH,
         Consul General of the Federal Republic of Germany
         in St. Petersburg
       • Prof. Dr. Margret WINTERMANTEL,
         President of the DAAD
       • Prof. Dr. Peter FUNKE,
         Vice-President of the DFG
       • Dr. Yury VOROTNIKOV,
         Deputy Chairman of the Board
         of the Russian Foundation of Humanities (RFH)
11:00  “The History of Modern Empires in a Global Perspective. Comparisons and Entanglements”
       Prof. Dr. Martin SCHULZE WESSEL
       Chair of Eastern European History, Department of History,
       Ludwig-Maximilians-Universität, München
       – Discussion –
12:00  “The EU Eastern Partnership: A Soft Power Empire’s Project?”
       Prof. Dr. Aleksandr A. SERGUNIN
       Chair for Theory and History of International Relations,
       Department of International Relations,
       St. Petersburg State University
       – Discussion –
13:00  Lunch
14:00  Introductory Remarks to The Fourth German-Russian “Week of the Young Researcher”
   • Prof. Dr. Margret WINTERMANTEL, President of the DAAD
   • Prof. Dr. Peter FUNKE, Vice-President of the DFG
14:30  Short Lectures of Young Researchers
   Chair:
   • Prof. Dr. Martin SCHULZE WESSEL, LMU München
   • Prof. Dr. Aleksandr A. SERGUNIN, SPSU
   MOCHALOV, Artur: “Transforming Diversity into Solidarity: Federal Empires and State-building in Multinational Societies”
   TOGANOVA, Natalia: “Comparative Economic Studies and German Unification: Has the Systemvergleich Been Abandoned and Has the (US-) Economic Imperialism Won?”
   GLEIXNER, Johannes: “Forced Continuity: Religion, Legitimacy, and the Post-Imperial State. The Cases of Czechoslovakia and Soviet Russia”
16:00  Coffee Break
16:30–17:30  Short Lectures of Young Researchers
   MARCHUKOV, Aleksandr: “Public Diplomacy 2.0 as a Tool of Contemporary Imperial Policy”
   POPOV, Vadim: “Areas Open to Violence and Markets of Violence: Historical Reach of a Sociological Concept”
19:00  Evening Reception

OCTOBER 7, TUESDAY

09:00  Presentation of St. Petersburg State University
   Dr. Aleksey ZAVARZIN, Vice-Rector, Press Secretary, SPSU
09:30  Presentation of St. Petersburg Scientific Centre of the Russian Academy of Sciences (RAS)
   Dr. Natalya TYURNINA, Chairperson of the Council of Young Scientists and Specialists (YRAS), St. Petersburg
10:00  Presentation of Higher School of Economics in St. Petersburg (HSE SPb)
   Olga I. OKULOVA, Director, Center for International Cooperation
10:30  DWIH Moskau
   Deutsches Haus für Wissenschaft und Innovation
   German Centre for Research and Innovation
   • Dr. Gregor BERGHORN, Managing Director
   • Dr. Jörn ACHTERBERG, Deputy Director
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<td>11:00</td>
<td>Coffee Break</td>
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| 11:30  | “Practicing Humanities Abroad. The German Historical Institute in Moscow”  
        Prof. Dr. Nikolaus KATZER  
        German Historical Institute, DHI Moscow  
        – Discussion –          |
| 12:15  | “Imperial Decay or Renewal: Regionalism, Autonomism, and Federalism in the Russian Empire”  
        Prof. Dr. Aleksandr M. SEMYONOv  
        Center for Historical Research,  
        Dean of Faculty of History,  
        Higher School of Economics in St. Petersburg  
        – Discussion –          |
| 13:00  | Lunch                                                                 |
| 14:00–15:30 | Short Lectures of Young Researchers  
              Chair:  
              • Prof. Dr. Nikolaus KATZER, DHI Moscow  
              • Prof. Dr. Aleksandr M. SEMYONOv, HSE Spb  
              DAVIES, Franziska: “Muslims in the Russian army, 1874–1917 – Global Perspectives”  
              KOTENKO, Anton: “The Romanov Empire as a Decentralized State”  
              SABLINT, Ivan: “Post-Imperial Projects in Siberia and Mongolia 1911–1924”          |
| 15:30  | Coffee Break                                                         |
| 16:00–17:30 | Short Lectures of Young Researchers  
              SHADURSKY, Andrey: “Does the Shale Revolution Mean the End of the Russian Energy Empire?”  
              MAKHOTINA, Yekaterina: “Fallen Heroes still Fighting: Imperial Legacy of the History Politics for the Russian-Baltic Relations”  
              YAKUBOVA, Lala: “Social Policy of Great Britain after World War II: Models, Priority Orientations, Realization Mechanisms”          |

**OCTOBER 8, WEDNESDAY**

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<th>Time</th>
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| 09:00  | Presentation of Freie Universität Berlin  
          Tobias STUDEMANN, Head of Liaison Office of Freie Universität Berlin in Moscow          |
| 09:30  | “The End of Imperial China in Global History”  
          Prof. Dr. Klaus MÜHLHAHN  
          Seminar of East Asian Studies, Department of History and Cultural Studies,  
          Freie Universität Berlin  
          – Discussion –          |
| 10:30  | “Global Histories of Empire: Promises and Challenges”  
          Prof. Dr. Sebastian CONRAD  
          Chair of Modern History, Friedrich Meinecke Institute, Department of History and Cultural Studies, Freie Universität Berlin  
          – Discussion –          |
11:30 Coffee Break

12:00 “Russian Images of China (Historical and Contemporary): Ambivalence of Perceptions”
Prof. Dr. Nikolay A. SAMOYLOV
Head of the Department of Theory of Asian and African Social Development, Faculty for Oriental Studies, St. Petersburg State University
– Discussion –

12:45 Lunch

13:30 Short Lectures of Young Researchers
Chair:
• Prof. Dr. Nikolay A. SAMOYLOV, SPSU
• Dr. Torsten FISCHER, Group of Humanities and Social Sciences, DFG Bonn
TUTNOVA, Tatyana: “How China’s Space Activities May Influence International Relations”
MALASHEVSKAYA, Maria: “Japan’s Diplomacy Conceptions Towards Russia in 1990s and the Suzuki group”
RYSAKOVA, Polina: “History of Chinese traditional education”
KORELL, Emmelie: “Historiography in Travel Guidebooks”

15:30 Coffee Break

16:00–17:30 Short Lectures of Young Researchers
KHOKHOLKOVA, Nadezhda: “Afrocentricity as the Alternative Paradigm of Global History”
GOEBEL, Michael: “The Political Networks of Africans and Asians in Interwar Paris”

19:30 Cultural Programme
State Hermitage (museum open till 21:00)

OCTOBER 9, THURSDAY

09:00 DAAD – Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst
German Academic Exchange Service in Russia
Dr. Gregor BERGHORN
Head of DAAD-Office in Moscow

09:45 Alexander von Humboldt-Foundation
Prof. Dr. Leonid ZHMUD,
Institute for the History of Sciences and Technologies, RAS, St. Petersburg

10:30 Presentation of the Russian Foundation of Humanities (RFH)
Dr. Yana SMIRNOVA,
Adviser, International Relations Department
11:15 Coffee Break

11:45 DFG – Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft
German Research Foundation

DFG – Cooperation with Russia
Dr. Jörn ACHTERBERG,
Head of DFG-Office in Moscow

DFG – Humanities and Social Sciences
Dr. Torsten FISCHER,
Group of Humanities and Social Sciences, DFG Bonn

DFG – Promoting Research Careers
Dr. Jürgen BREITKOPF,
Group of Research Careers, DFG Bonn

12:30 Lunch

Prof. Dr. Dmitry B. PAVLOV
Deputy Director of Institute for Russian History,
RAS, Moscow
– Discussion –

14:00 Short Lectures of Young Researchers
Chair:
• Prof. Dmitry B. PAVLOV, Institute for Russian History
• Dr. Torsten FISCHER, DFG Bonn

TRECKER, Max: “Aid for the “Third World”? Multilateral Cooperation Attempts in the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (CMEA)”


15:30 Coffee Break

16:00–17:00 Workshop and Panel Discussion “Prospects for Young Researchers”
Chairperson:
Associate Professor Dr. Anna LITVINENKO
School of Journalism and Mass Communication,
St. Petersburg State University

Invited panelists:
Young Russian and German Researchers,
Representatives of DAAD, DFG, SPSU, YRAS

19:00 Cultural Programme
Ballet Swan Lake, Mikhailovsky Theatre
OCTOBER 10, FRIDAY

09:00  “The Spanish Colonial Empire in America: Functions and Dysfunctions”
      Prof. Dr. Stefan RINKE
      History of Latin America, Institute for Latin American Studies (LAI),
      Freie Universität Berlin
      – Discussion –

10:00  “Russia and Central America. Forgotten Past, Uncertain Future”
      Prof. Dr. Aleksandr I. KUBYSHKIN
      Chair of Northern American Studies, Faculty of International Relations,
      St. Petersburg State University
      – Discussion –

11:00  Coffee Break

11:15  Short Lectures of Young Researchers
      Chair:
      • Prof. Dr. Stefan Rinke, FU Berlin
      • Prof. Dr. Aleksandr I. Kubyshkin, SPSU
      CONTRERAS Saiz, Monika: “Borderland Security in the Spanish Empire: the Case of Chile, 1760–1810”
      Vallen, Nino: “Negotiating Creole Identities at the Crossing of Imperial Pathways, 1571–1641”
      PROTSENKO, Anna: “Mexican Foreign Policy Strategy in the 21st century”

13:45  Closing remarks
      Dr. Gregor BERGHORN, Managing Director DWIH Moscow
      Dr. Jörn ACHTERBERG, Deputy Director DWIH Moscow

14:00  Lunch

15:00  Departure of Participants