

Changes as a social process

**Editors:
Witold Jedynek
József Káposzta
Jarosław Kinal**

Rzeszów 2017

Changes as a social process

Reviewer:

Prof. Dr. László VILLÁNYI

Publisher:

Stowarzyszenie "Kultura w sieci"

KRS: 0000576123

mail: biuro@kulturawsieci.pl

Print:

AdvertDruk

ul. Krakowska 21

41-503 Chorzów

ISBN:

978-83-64804-74-8

Edition I, Format B5

This book is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-Noncommercial-No Derivative Works 3.0 India license. Certain rights reserved to the author. Permission is granted to use the work under the license, provided that you retain this license information and that the author is the owner of the rights to the text. The license content is available at <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/3.0/en/>

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Witold Jedynek THE PARLIAMENTARY CONFLICT IN POLAND AS THE SCENE FOR POWER STRUGGLE	7
Henrietta Nagy, Adrienn Varga-Nagy RURAL TOURISM – REAL POTENTIAL FOR RURAL AREAS IN HUNGARY	21
Laura Ardelean SEVER DUMITRAȘCU – A LIFE IN THE SERVICE OF ARCHAEOLOGY	35
Vassiliki Pliogou, Despina Karakatsani APPROACHES AND ORIENTATIONS OF SOCIAL PEDAGOGY: AN HISTORICAL RETROSPECTION IN EUROPE DURING THE 19TH AND 20TH CENTURY	48
Oksana Krayevska INTEGRATION OF UKRAINE INTO THE EUROPEAN ACADEMIC MOBILITY NETWORK	66
Kata Amelita Gódor, Eszter Fodor - Borsos ARE YOU EATING HEALTHIER BECAUSE OF YOUR GENDER?	79
Izabella Oláh METHODOLOGICAL CHALLENGES IN THE SMALL VILLAGES, HAMLETS AND PIGMY VILLAGES OF HUNGARY.	93
Ágnes Virág, Krisztián Ritter RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND THE EFFICIENCY OF TOURIST COOPERATION	102

Mónika Urbán-Malomsoki, Kitti Némedi-Kollár, László Péli A PRIMARY ANALYSIS OF DEVELOPMENT OPPORTUNITIES IN MEZŐKÖVESD	115
Lilla Áldorfai Czabadai, Zoltán Topa SPRAWLING CITIES VERSUS GREEN AREAS – MITIGATING THE NEGATIVE EFFECTS OF URBAN SPRAWLS	134
András Szeberényi, Krisztián Ritter ASPECTS OF THE USE OF RENEWABLE ENERGY SOURCES IN HUNGARIAN RURAL SETTLEMENTS	147
Izabella Oláh, Tamás Tóth EXAMINATION OF SMALL VILLAGES, HAMLETS AND PIGMY VILLAGES	160
Mariola Kinal, Jarosław Kinal QUALITY MANAGEMENT TOOLS IN EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS	168
Witold Jedynak THE COMMUNIST STRATEGY OF TOTAL ENSLAVEMENT OF POLISH SOCIETY ACCORDING TO POLISH BISHOPS	179
NOTES ABOUT AUTHORS	196

Witold Jedynak

THE PARLIAMENTARY CONFLICT IN POLAND AS THE SCENE FOR POWER STRUGGLE

In every democratic system, there is a pluralism of values and rules concerning social life. The approval of various values and convictions is the condition for the right functioning of a democratic country. In civil societies various ideological concepts constantly clash with one another, which is the reason for political tensions and conflicts. Struggling for power, politicians try to convince the society to their political programs in a democratic way. Not always, however, do political rivals reveal true intentions of their actions and they do not want to admit that, in fact, they just wage power struggle. Often, they hide their true intentions, run a behind-the-scenes game and they present apparent or even fake reasons for conflicts to public opinion. Therefore, one of the most important aims of various scientific research is not only to examine open functions but to discover secret functions as well [Merton, 2002: 135].

The parliamentary conflict in Poland, which lasted from 16th December 2016 to 12th January 2017, turned out to be a serious political crisis which engaged various political forces in the country as well as abroad. The conflict was commented on by the Polish as well as foreign media. The official reason for its outbreak was the exclusion of one of the MPs of the opposition from the session of the Sejm as well as the new regulations related to the presence of journalists in the Sejm. It seems, however, that the intentions of the actors of the political scene participating in this parliamentary conflict were different from those officially stated, as a considerable number of presumptions show that the main reason for the conflict was power struggle. The ruling coalition (Law and Justice, Poland Together and United Poland) wanted to remain in power, which they had won in a democratic way, while the opposition was trying to seize it.

The aim of the research is to uncover the reasons for the parliamentary conflict, to pinpoint its primary goals and to analyse its course. The source materials are mainly the opinion-forming political and social newspapers presenting various political forces and ideological preferences.

The conditions for power struggle

Political behaviour includes various forms of participation in power wielding or power struggle. This especially includes the affiliation with

political parties, mass movements and the participation in political manifestations whose aim is to exert influence on leading political groups [Scheffs, 2012: 210]. Political behaviour results from a certain state of political awareness and it is the reaction of individuals, groups or collectivities to impetuses originating from political phenomena and processes [Wiatr, 2009: 295].

Power struggle is an integral part of every democratic system. In every social structure there are forces out of which some hold power and some are deprived of it. There is a permanent conflict between those interest groups, which has its origin in the pursuit of power. The interests of the group which holds power and the group which is deprived of it, are contradictory. The former wants to remain in power in order to establish *status quo*, the latter aims at seizing it [Dahrendorf, 2008: 149-156]. The acknowledgement or the refusal of acknowledgement of power legitimacy serves an important role in the emergence and the course of a social conflict. Interest groups become parties in the conflict because the interests of the subordinate group threaten the interests of the ruling group [Dahrendorf, 2008: 159]. Political parties comprise groups interested in holding power and dealing with the consequences which arise from it [Dahrendorf, 2008: 162-163].

Conflicts, which constitute one of the fundamental rules regarding the functioning of the society [Simmel, 1975: 74-75], are an integral part of the rivalry between political parties. They consists of all types of behaviour resulting from real or apparent situations which may potentially lead to a conflict. The behaviour is directed at the pursuit of the interests of one group, which encounters the opposing actions of the other group. The goal of confrontational behaviour is not only to secure the social position, power or value but also to win over, neutralize or eliminate the opposite party [J. Sztumski, 1987: 16-17]. In the case of conflicts between groups, the standards, norms and values regarded as the only right ones by one group, can be openly and ostentatiously ignored and degraded by the other group. This brings forth the desire for revenge on the opponent and turns both groups into dangerous enemies [Znaniński, 1992: 344].

One of the reasons for the conflict of interests is often unequal distribution of resources within the system. The subordinate group stands up for their real interests, which leads to their lesser approval of the dominant group's right to rule over the disproportionate distribution of goods. Undermining the authority of the dominant group and questioning the legitimacy of the distribution of resources results in the organization of collective opposition

against the system [Sliz, Szczepanski, 2011: 13]. An integral part of the rivalry between the interest groups becomes power struggle, capital goods and social positions. Values and interests of the opponents are contradictory and the advantage of one party of the conflict causes the disadvantage of the other. Achieving certain goals by one group makes it impossible for the other group to fulfil their aims. The confrontational process, however, does not destroy the social system. It changes the standards and the expectations of the parties participating in a given social interaction [Mucha, 1978: 12].

As a negative factor, conflicts create tensions and social divisions. However, they can also perform a positive function in solidifying or transforming social systems. They strengthen group ties, as they maintain or increase group awareness. They enhance coherence within a group and the identification with its ideology. Moreover, they positively influence the identification of its members with the group and they heighten a sense of group distinctiveness [Coser, 2009: 25-27]. Groups, which not only want to subsist but also try to maintain and enhance their coherence, provoke conflicts so that their members feel a sense of external threat. The awareness of an enemy creates the atmosphere of threat and increases the level of social solidarity within a group [Coser, 2009: 79-82].

Socially controlled conflicts perform stabilizing functions because they ease and defuse tensions and hostility between groups. They also allow to re-establish relations and they prevent violence and bloody fight. They become "a safety valve" which channel hostility and release emotions and aggression. The lack of the outlet for suppressed emotions would lead to the break-off of the relation between the parties [Coser, 2009: 31-33].

Because in civil societies the parties of a conflict are acknowledged by democratic institutions, the clash between them is regarded as a natural phenomenon for social processes. Democratic systems have certain procedures which regulate the process of resolving conflicts, e.g. by means of mediation between acknowledged personalities, parliamentary negotiations or the legal system which allows the arbitration of unsolved disputes. In order to avoid conflicts, political parties, which present the interests of various groups, are free to create coalitions or come to an agreement with one another [Dahrendorf, 2008: 268].

The origin and the course of the parliamentary conflict

The parliamentary crisis in Poland resulted from the growing conflict between the opposite political fractions in the parliament. It was the next, more radical stage of the conflict which, for months, had been escalating between the opposition and Law and Justice. Initially, the conflict had a limited character as the parties, by avoiding open confrontation, were trying to fulfil their political goals by pushing forward their opinions and values. Most often, their activities consisted in making the opposite party agree on compromises by means of pressure, persuasion, negotiation and arguments. One of the most spectacular displays of that limited conflict were peaceful marches and manifestations. The political opponents showed their greatest determination in the dispute over the Constitutional Tribunal, which indicated further escalation of the conflict.

The opinions on the conditions and the reasons for the parliamentary conflict vary immensely. The supporters of the parliamentary opposition made the ruling coalition responsible for the social tensions. In their opinion, the parliamentary crisis was an unexpected form of the constitutional coup launched by Law and Justice which constrained democracy in Poland [Baczynski (1), 2016: 1]. According to the critics of the ruling party, Poland, under the government of Law and Justice, was heading towards dictatorship as it was the chairman of Law and Justice, Jaroslaw Kaczynski, and not the constitutional bodies that decided about the future of the country [Lis, 2017: 4]. The opposition expressed their concern that serious democratic crisis in Poland might be one of the early stages on the way to dictatorship [Nomejko, 2016: 14]. The ruling party took over the independent institutions which guaranteed democracy. They subordinated the Constitutional Tribunal, public media and they dismantled the civil service. The opposition also found themselves in a difficult situation because they had to act almost as if in the state of emergency; they had to fight for their own survival as well as the survival of the social groups which they represented [Michalski, 2017: 10].

The opposition blamed the chairman of Law and Justice, Jaroslaw Kaczynski, for purposefully causing conflicts and using them to transform the social system. The political activities of the chairman aimed at creating an enemy, so that the groups which supported his party would be easy to consolidate, and at attracting new supporters. A long-term conflict enhanced the coherence within the party led by Kaczynski, it intensified the identification with the ideology of the group and it heightened the group awareness. In the conflict with the opposition, the members of Law

and Justice and their supporters consolidated and won the social support. Kaczynski was accused of behaving like a student of Carl Schmitt who had developed the conservative and authoritarian doctrine of political theology which assumed that the essence of politics was conflict and the polarization of the society by pointing to an enemy who had to be fought against and defeated [Szostkiewicz, 2016: 4].

Groups associated with the parliamentary opposition were trying to convince Poles that under the government of Law and Justice people who had different views than the ruling party may be victimized. There was increasing talk of the squads which pacified street demonstrations or organized battery by, so called, unknown doers. Those activities, however, did not aim at eliminating certain people but at threatening and making the society fall into apathy. With the help of propaganda, the ruling party could justify the use of violence in order to discredit the political opponents and to threaten the society with the external enemies in order to justify the restriction of freedom [Kuzniar, 2017: 21].

The supporters of the ruling party see the socio-political conditions for the parliamentary conflict in a totally different way than the opposition. They are of the opinion that the conflict was a natural consequence of the hateful politics conducted by the opposition and that it was just another version of it. In their opinion, the opposition groups had been trying to blackmail the majority of the Polish society, disorganizing work of the most relevant state institutions. That way, they aimed at the escalation of the dispute, expecting physical violence and the outbreak of riots. The strategy of the opposition lied in creating the atmosphere of threat and of being tired of the ongoing conflict (also on an international scale), which might lead to a breakthrough [Kolodziejski, 2017: 35]. The opposition aimed at causing havoc, disturbing peace and public order in the country so that the citizens, who were tired of continuous unrest and conflict, would bring about the change of the government in Poland [Wildstein, 2017; 28]. Moreover, the forces of the opposition tried to present the ruling coalition as the totalitarian authority which destroyed law and order, took away freedom and built the oppressive regime [Wildstein, 2017; 26].

According to the groups supporting the government, maintaining the state of permanent tension and unrest by the opposition was caused by the fact that they had lost power. Removed from power, the politicians of Civic Platform and Polish People's Party, supported by some of the journalists, had been openly saying that the way to deprive Law and Justice of power was the upheaval similar to the Kiev's Maydan [Wybranowski, 2017: 29].

The supporters of Law and Justice made the politicians of the opposition and the media, which were hostile to the ruling party, responsible for the polarization of the political scene and the transformation and escalation of the conflict. Media deliberately tried to instil fear of Law and Justice and, therefore, they presented the situation in Poland as the state of danger. The reign of the ruling party was presented as dictatorship and fascism and the chairman of Law and Justice, Jaroslaw Kaczynski, was compared to Hitler or Stalin. The values, standards and norms, which the opposition did not agree with, were presented by them as negative, harmful and dangerous. Such activities created the atmosphere of danger, stirred up emotions and may have led to a retaliatory situation [Galarowicz, 2017: 15].

The socio-political conditions presented above may be treated as the situation which leads to conflicts. However, to cause its outbreak or the escalation, it is necessary for a certain reason or a set of reasons to emerge. In this situation, the reason or a set of reasons act as a detonator. However, not always are the true (natural) reasons strong enough to provoke a social conflict or, in the situation when the conflict already exists, to lead to its transformation and escalation. That is why, the potential reasons, especially when they are not strong enough to cause the outbreak of the conflict, are strengthened with fake reasons. Provocations, as an example of fake reasons, often turn out to be more effective than the natural reasons, as they take into consideration the existing conditions, especially social relations [Sztumski, 1987: 32-33].

In the case of the analysed conflict we can talk about a number of reasons. The political rivals point to various reasons for the conflict and they usually make their political opponents responsible for provoking it. The parliamentary opposition and their socio-political forces point to the exclusion of one of the MPs of Civic Platform from the session of the Sejm and the fight for the freedom of Polish media as the reason for the parliamentary conflict. They try to convince the public opinion that blocking the parliamentary podium and the parliamentary room was a spontaneous action of the opposition who wanted to defend the MP in the situation when it was impossible for him to carry out his mandate. The protest became a symbol of an important issue, i.e. the defence of democracy. The dissidents were very determined because they were aware that a similar situation might happen to more than just one MP, even to the entire opposition [Szczzerba, 2016: 16].

According to the opponents of the authorities, another reason for the conflict were the restrictions on the presence of journalists in the Sejm

imposed by Law and Justice. The opposition thought that the ruling coalition wanted to deprive the citizens of the access to information on the behaviour of MPs in the Sejm. That way, it would be more difficult for journalists to uncover scandals and inappropriate, or even shocking, behaviour of MPs and senators [Wesolowska, 2016, nr 52: 15].

The reasons for the parliamentary conflict are complex and we cannot limit them to the reasons officially given by the opposition. Without any doubt, we can say that power struggle became the main reason for the parliamentary crisis and the reasons officially given by the opposition were rather catalysts of the serious political crisis and the battle between the dominant and subordinate group. The opinions expressed by the opponents of the ruling party point to the occurrence of the secret functions. Despite the fact that the opposition officially points to the exclusion of one of the MPs from the session of the Sejm as well as the fight for the freedom of media as the main reasons for the conflict, we can notice more significant motives behind their attitude and behaviour. The political opponents accused Law and Justice of destroying the good image of Poland and of limiting freedom and democracy [Preisner, 2017, 17]. The ruling party had been gradually taking over the institutions of power and they were trying to build the authoritarian state [Baczynski (2), 2017: 6]. Those actions aimed at taking control over the entire state and they posed threat to public order and national security. The policy of Law and Justice generated social divisions, weakened the army and embarrassed Poland in front of its allies [Omachel, 2017: 54]. Therefore, the faster the society would rebel against the oppressive authority, the less harmful its policy would be for the country [Preisner, 2017, 19]. The opponents of Law and Justice should not wait until the next election because it may not change anything, as the victory of Law and Justice was the result of the crisis of democracy. The attempt to take over power under the pressure of social protests must be made [Kasprzak, 2017: 19].

The supporters of the ruling party noticed the secret functions of the activities undertaken by the opposition. They are of the opinion that the reasons for the escalation of the conflict had a structural character and power struggle happened between the dominant and subordinate group.

The Prime Minister of the Polish government, Beata Szydło, is convinced that the actions taken by the opposition were aimed at the destabilization of the situation in the country and that the parliamentary crisis was the apogee of the situation. Szydło reminds about the long-term conflict concerning the Constitutional Tribunal and notices the attempts of the

opposition to involve the EU institutions in the internal political struggle in Poland [Szydło, 2017: 5]. Szydło thinks that after the victory of Law and Justice in the presidential as well as parliamentary elections, all the forces whose privileges had been limited by the new authorities, started to consolidate in order to seize power in the country. As the result of the parliamentary elections, those forces were deprived of their economic as well as political influences. Therefore, they tried to regain power because they did not want to accept the results of the democratic elections. The reason for the parliamentary crisis was the struggle of the interest group to seize power in Poland [Szydło, 2017: 5]. Joachim Brudziński, the MP of Law and Justice and the vice-speaker of the Sejm, points to the similar motives behind the crisis. In his opinion, the opposition planned to enact the coordinated and thought-over scenario of overthrowing the government of Law and Justice, but these plans didn't work out [Brudziński, 2017: 27]. The opinion of the leader of one of the opposition parties, Paweł Kukiz, confirms the rhetoric of the ruling party and their supporting groups concerning the reasons and the goals of the parliamentary crisis created by the opposition. In his opinion, all activities undertaken by the opponents of the ruling party confirmed that the main motive wasn't the defence of democracy but destabilization and the pursuit of power. The opposition aimed at causing social unrest which was to lead to seizing power in an unconstitutional way [Kukiz, 2017: 20]. According to the supporters of the government, the alleged defence of the freedom of media was used as the pretext to achieve more important goal, i.e. regaining power by provoking riots and overthrowing the government [Wybranowski, 2017: 28].

Another reason for the outbreak of the conflict was the attempt to block the budget legislation and the legislation concerning retirement and social security pensions for the officers who had worked for the Secret Political Police between 1944-1990. According to the supporters of the government, the protest of the opposition and the lockdown of the Sejm was purposefully planned to start on the day when the most pro-social budget

(since 1989) and the legislation (which took away the pension privileges from the former communist officers of the secret service) were to be passed [Lichocka (1), 2017: 19]. According to the chairman of Law and Justice, Jarosław Kaczyński, the opposition wanted to block the budget legislation by causing the parliamentary crisis. Long-term occupation of the Sejm was to make the approval impossible in the following weeks and even months [Kaczyński, 2016/2017: 18].

The growing conflict became even more serious after the attacks on the opponent and the attempts to break down their resistance. Depending on the circumstances, the battle was transforming into the destructive conflict because the painful attacks, or even attempts to destroy the opponent, became its main aim. The escalation of the conflict was accompanied by strong emotions, intensive propaganda activities as well as a show of strength by both parties. The opinions expressed by the rivals on the course of the parliamentary crisis immensely varied and they depended on the political preferences of those who expressed them. The government made the opposition responsible for the outbreak and the escalation of the conflict, whereas the opposition said that their reaction was caused by the oppressive activities of the ruling coalition. Therefore, the opinions about the same events were radically different. According to the forces supporting Law and Justice, the opposition radicalized their activities and they started to regard confrontation as the only solution to the political dispute [Niewinska, 2017: 22]. The main aim of the radicals was to attack the democratically elected authorities [Lisiecki, 2017: 3].

The behaviour of protesters was going out of control and it was becoming dangerous. The demonstration participants were encouraged by the leaders of the opposition to undertake radical and aggressive activities and, that way, they were becoming offensive. By sitting on the streets right in front of the cars with politicians or by running towards them, they provoked the police to take pacifying actions. They blocked the access to the Sejm and they were also physically aggressive towards the politicians of the ruling coalition and the journalists of the public TV [Nykiel, 2016/2017: 26-27]. The street protests, which allegedly were the spontaneous reaction of the society, had been carefully planned and registered in the City Hall of Warsaw. During the manifestation of the Committee for the Defence of Democracy not much was said on the freedom of media, but a lot on overthrowing the government of the Prime Minister, Beata Szydlo, and forcing the president, Andrzej Duda, to abdicate [Wybranowski, 2017: 28]. The attempts to paralyze the state and to cause unrest were made so that the street riots would lead to the fall of the government [Lichočka (2), 2017: 20].

The occupation of the Sejm consolidated the opponents of Law and Justice and the alleged defence of the destroyed parliamentarism made it possible for the opposition to take propaganda actions and to activate and mobilize their supporters to occupy the Sejm [Janecki, 2017: 25]. The supporters of Law and Justice thought that the unfavourable media, which were directly involved in the political struggle, played an important role in the course of

the parliamentary conflict. Journalists organized groups of marchers and encouraged people to take part in protests [Kaczyński, 2016/2017: 19]. They inspired brutal political struggle not only in the parliament but also on the streets. Becoming involved in the struggle, their attacks were very brutal and it was them who set the narration of the conflict by organizing demonstrations and cheering on the participants [Śpiewak, 2017: 98].

The course of the conflict is presented by the supporters of the opposition in a distinctly different way. According to them, the opponents of Law and Justice protested against the authoritarian authority, which was trying to destroy democracy and introduce dictatorship, in a peaceful and democratic way. The protests of the opposition were the reaction against the real and serious threat to the properly functioning democratic state. The opposition did not plot the coup. It was just their reaction against the change of the system and the crisis caused by the activities undertaken by Law and Justice [Staniszki, 2017: 28-29]. Common unwillingness towards the ruling party and their personnel was emerging. There was even the conviction that the growing number of the Law and Justice supporters could be chased out [Martenka, 2016: 9]. The protests showed that the government of Law and Justice finally started to experience fear [Janicki, Władyka, 2017: 18].

The supporters of Civic Platform accused the ruling party of the propaganda actions based on presenting the protests of the opposition as the attempt to destabilize public order in the country [Baczyński (2), 2017: 6]. Civic defiance was presented by the ruling party as totalitarian propaganda. The protesters were presented as firebrands, communists and thieves as well as the elites who could not accept the lost elections [Szostkiewicz, 2016: 4]. In this rhetoric, the opposition was presented to the tired Polish society as troublemakers who were trying to launch the coup [Dziedzic, 2017: 16]. The ruling party tried to threaten the protesters by announcing the manifestations of the union trade "Solidarity" whose members wanted to pacify the protests of the opposition [Wolski, 2016: 2]. As the response to that, the political forces supporting the opposition said that the defence of the authoritarian authority by trade unions reminded the times of communism when worker activists had been used to pacify the firebrands [Dziadul, 2017: 9].

With time, the intensity of the conflict between the opposition and the ruling party slowly decreased and it was limited mainly to the lockdown of the parliamentary room by the MPs of the opposition. The number of marchers in front of the Sejm also decreased [Kalukin, 2017: 16] and the

opposition divided [Krzymowski, 2017: 10]. By avoiding provocation, the ruling party continued to fulfil their goals. The crisis ended with, i.a., unfortunate, even ridiculous, behaviour of the MPs who occupied the parliamentary room and with the careless activities of the leaders of the opposition, which questioned the idea of the protest [Lisiewicz, 2017: 3; Biedroń, 2017: 22-23].

Summary

Before the beginning of the parliamentary crisis, the relation between the opposition and the ruling coalition experienced a number of confrontational situations and conflicts of limited scope. Only the emergence of new (real and fake) reasons led to the outbreak of the parliamentary conflict in December 2016 and to political struggle which happened on a scale not seen before in the history of parliamentarism of the Third Polish Republic. It was then when the occupation of the Sejm and the suspension of its activities took place. The parties of the conflict pointed to various conditions and reasons for the conflict and they commented on its course in different ways. In this discourse, the responsibility for the outbreak of the crisis was put on the opposite side. Despite that fact that the opposition officially pointed to the exclusion of one of its MPs from the session of the Sejm and the defence of the freedom of media as the reasons for the protests, the secret functions indicated that the main reason was power struggle. The coalition wanted to remain in power, which they had gained democratically, whereas the opposition was trying to overthrow the government and lead to early elections.

References

Scientific literature

- Coser L. A., *The functions of Social Conflict*, translate: S. Burdziej, Zakład Wydawniczy „Nomos”, Krakow 2009.
- Dahrendorf R., *Class and class conflict in industrial society*, translated by R. Babinska, Zakład Wydawniczy Nomos, Krakow 2008.
- Merton R. K., *Social theory and social structure*, . translate: E. Morawska Second Edition, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa 2002.
- Mucha J., *Konflikt i społeczeństwo: z problematyki konfliktu społecznego we współczesnych teoriach zachodnich (Conflict and society: social conflict according to the modern Western theories)*, Państwowe Wydawnictwo Naukowe, Warszawa 1978.

- Scheff L., Zachowania polityczne a zachowania wyborcze w dobie kampanii wyborczej (Political behaviour vs. election behaviour in a good election campaign), "Srodkowoeuropejskie Studia Polityczne" 2012, vol. 2, pp. 209-222.
- Simmel G., Sociology, translate M. Łukasiewicz, Państwowe Wydawnictwo Naukowe, Warszawa 1975.
- Sztumski J., Konflikt społeczny (Social conflict), Uniwersytet Śląski, Katowice 1987.
- Sliz A., Szczepanski M. S., Konflikt społeczny i jego funkcje. Między destrukcją a kreacją, "Annales Universitatis Mariae Curie-Skłodowska" (Sectio I Philosophia-Sociologia) vol. 36, no 2 (2011), pp. 7-25.
- Wiatr J. J., Socjologia polityki (Sociology of politics), wyd. 6, Wydawnictwo Europejska Wyższa Szkoła Prawa i Administracji, Warszawa 2009.
- Znaniecki F., Nauki o kulturze. Narodziny i rozwój (Cultural studies. Origin and development) , translate. . J. Szacki, Second Edition, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa 1992.

Press publications

- Baczynski J., Moc truchleje (Quailing power) , Polityka (Dodatek Specjalny) 2016, no 52-53, p. 1.
- Baczynski J., Rok niespokojnej Ziemi (A year of anxious Land), Polityka 2017, no 1, p. 6.
- Biedron W. Biznes na obronie demokracji (The defence of democracy as business), wSieci 2017, no 2, pp. 22-23.
- Brudzinski J., Przygotowano obalenie rządu. Z Joachimem Brudzinskim wicemarszałkiem Sejmu, wiceprezesem PiS rozmawia Kamila Baranowska (An overthrow of the government has been prepared. An interview with Joachim Brudzinski, the vice-speaker of the Sejm and the deputy chairman of Law and Justice, by Kamila Baranowska, Do Rzeczy 2017, no 4, pp. 26-28.
- Dziadul J., Rezimowe związki? (Regime-like relations?), Polityka 2017, no 1, p. 9.
- Dziedzic M., Puczyk prezesa (A little coup d'état organized by the chairman), Polityka 2017, no 3, pp. 16-18.
- Galarowicz J., Pokusa rokoszu została (The temptation of rokosz remained), Gazeta Polska 2017, no 2, p. 15.
- Janecki S., Harakiri liderow (Harakiri of the leaders), wSieci 2017, no 2, 24-25.
- Janicki M., Władyka W., 7 pytan na rok 2017 (Seven questions for 2017), Polityka 2017, no 1, p. 16-18.

- Kaczynski J., Obronimy polska wolnosc. Rozmowa Jacka i Michala Karnowskich z prezesem Prawa i Sprawiedliwosci Jaroslawem Kaczynskim (We will defend the Polish freedom. An interview with Jaroslaw Kaczynski, the chairman of Law and Justice, by Jacek i Michal Karnowski), *W Sieci* 2016, no 52 - 2017, no 1, pp. 18-22.
- Kalukin R., O pozycji opozycji (About the position of the opposition), *Polityka* 2017, no 2, pp. 14-16.
- Kasprzak P., Sluszenie nieposluszni. Z liderem Obywateli RP Pawlem Kasprzakiem rozmawiala J. Podgorska (Rightfully disobedient. An interview with Pawel Kasprzak, the leader of the Citizens of the Republic of Poland, by J. Podgorska), *Polityka* 2017, no 2, pp. 18-21.
- Kolodziejski K., Jaka demokracja? (Democracy?), *wSieci* 2017, no 2, pp. 33-35.
- Krzymowski M., Wojna przegranych (The war of the defeated), *Newsweek* 2017, no 4, pp. 10-13.
- Kuzniar R., Czy kaczyjscy to faszycy? Z Romanem Kuzniarem rozmawial Rafal Kalukin, (Are the supporters of Jaroslaw Kaczynski fascists? An interview with Roman Kuzniar by Rafal Kalukin) *Polityka* 2017, no 3, pp. 19-21.
- Kukiz P., Schetyna przegral. Z Pawlem Kukizem rozmawia Joanna Miziolek (Schetyna lost. An interview with Pawel Kukiz by Joanna Miziolek), *Wprost* 2017, no 3, p. 20.
- Lichocka J., Pucz przeciw demokracji (Coup d'état against democracy), *Gazeta Polska* 2017, no 1, p. 19.
- Lichocka J., Rozpalenie emocji (Stirring up emotions), *Gazeta Polska* 2017, no 3, p. 20.
- Lis T., Wodz ma wizje (The leader has a vision), *Newsweek* 2017, no 2, p. 4.
- Lisiecki P., Antypisowski fanatyzm (Anti-Law and Justice fascism), *Do Rzeczy* 2017, no 1, p. 3.
- Lisiewicz P., Kraj (The state), *Gazeta Polska* 2017, no 1, p. 3.
- Martenka H., Szopka polska, czyli jaselka (A Polish shed, i.e. nativity play), *Angora* 2016, no 52, p. 9.
- Michalski C., Opozycja stanu wyjątkowego (The opposition of the state of emergency), *Newsweek* 2017, no 3, pp. 8-11.
- Niewinska A.,, Czas radykalow (Time of radicals) , *Do Rzeczy* 2017, no 2, pp. 22-25.
- Nomejko W., Tak sie zaczynaja dyktatury (This is how dictatorship begins), *Angora* 2016 no 52, p. 13-14.
- Nykiel M., Proba rewolty (An attempt of revolt), *wSieci* 2016/2017, no 52-1, p. 24-27.
- Omachel R., Kurs na Białorus (Our destiny - Belarus), *Newsweek* 2017, no 4, pp. 52-56.

- Preisner Z., Czas na bunt, Z Zbigniewem Preisnerem rozmawia Aleksandra Pawlicka (Time for rebellion. An interview with Zbigniew Preisner by Aleksandra Pawlicka), Newsweek 2017, no 3, pp. 17-20.
- Staniszki J., PiS robi papierowy zamach stanu, Z prof. Jadwiga Staniszki rozmawia Eliza Olczyk (Law and Justice launches coup d'état on paper. An interview with prof. Jadwiga Staniszki by Eliza Olczyk), Wprost 2017, no 1, pp. 28-31.
- Szczerba M., Stałem się przypadkowym symbolem ważnej sprawy. Z Michałem Szczerbą posłem PO rozmawia Joanna Miziolek (I accidentally became a symbol of an important issue. An interview with Michal Szczerba, the MP of Civic Platform, by Joanna Miziolek), Wprost 2016, no 51, p. 16.
- Szostkiewicz A., Strach i oburzenie (Fear and outrage), Polityka (Dodatek specjalny) 2016, no 52-53, p. 4.
- Szydło B., Opozycja wpisała się w rosyjski scenariusz. Z premier RP Beata Szydło rozmawiają Tomasz Sakiewicz i Jan Przemyski (The opposition fit into the Russian scenario. An interview with Beata Szydło, the Prime Minister of Poland, by Tomasz Sakiewicz and Jan Przemyski), Gazeta Polska 2017, no 4, pp. 4-7.
- Spiewak J., Wojna na słowa (War of words), Wprost 2017, no 2, p. 98.
- Wesołowska E., Wybrancy boją się dziennikarzy (The chosen ones fear the journalists), Angora 2016, no 52, pp. 15-16.
- Wildstein B., Lekcja opozycji totalnej (The lesson of total opposition), wSieci 2017, no 4, pp. 26-29.
- Wolski M., Przesilenie (A turning point), Gazeta Polska 2016, no 52, p. 2.
- Wybranowski W., Boj to ich nieostatni (This is not their last battle), Do Rzeczy 2017, no 1, pp. 28-29.

RURAL TOURISM – REAL POTENTIAL FOR RURAL AREAS IN HUNGARY?

Introduction

In order to realize complex strategies for the development of rural areas including the development of tourism, the Government of Hungary launched several national programs that could serve as good instruments. The New Széchenyi Plan entered into force in January 2011, which has 7 key priorities, including the Healing Hungary – Health-industry program, with special focus on health tourism. The rest of the key programs (green economy, housing, enterprise development, science-innovation, employment, transportation) also had touristic linkages (Kardos, 2011). They all integrated various industries and sectors, leading to competitive products and services even in middle-terms. The Program, on one hand, aimed at a more efficient use of thermal water reserves and geothermal conditions, on the other hand, harmonized system of industries which preserve health and promote health-conscious lifestyle. A focal point of the Program was a complex use of thermal water supply and to create a uniform structure of the related products and services. Consequently, it had several links to other sectors of the economy. The Program did not aim at the financing and restructuring of the Hungarian healthcare system, but it intended to use the worldwide unique thermal water supply in a complex and sustainable way, creating synergies among the sectors. At this moment, there are several places in Hungary ranging from small villages to large towns that have had investments related to thermal water use, but unfortunately a few of them are not sustainable financially because the size of the investment is not in harmony with the real demand and the core activity is usually related only to swimming.

Major objectives of the Program:

- **Catching-up of areas lagging behind:** Complex economic and social development programs for underdeveloped areas where there are only a few cities and usually near the borders of the country.
- **Complex use of geothermal energy:** It includes the energetic use of high and low temperature thermal water before and after healing, economical and sustainable energy use, the reduction of energy-dependence as well as the self-sufficient energy supply.
- **Protection of natural endowments, maintaining their quality:** Health tourism can be based on the favourable natural conditions, and

human resource. To provide the basic requirements of long-term international competitiveness, special focus should be put on the protection of the water-basis, regular control and quality assurance of healing pools, the promotion of water use and reuse, introduction of modern technologies as well as the revise on quality brands.

- **Long-lasting increase in the country's competitiveness:** Most of the sectors in the health industry contribute to the supply of products and services. Such a „national industry“ may be created that may provide strategic advantage and specific to our country. It creates numerous jobs, makes a lot of income, thus increases the national gross output.
- **Knowledge-development:** In order to improve the quality of health industry and health tourism, the expansion and development of professional knowledge are inevitable. Experts with information about international trends are expected to bring the need for introduction of new technologies (http://kultura.kreativeuropa.hu/letolt/uj_magyarorszag_fejlesztési_terv_0801.pdf).

Two major parts of the program: one is about health industry-based tourism, the other is about thermal health industry. The key priority of the first one is to create the framework and the institutional system for health touristic products and services, aiming at the maintenance of the health of both the body and the soul. The second aim is to discover all the possible ways of using the thermal-, healing- and mineral water, as well as the relations to other sectors. It aims to find out what innovation can be carried out based on health industry and to define the “background” sectors that serve the development of the industry (Kardos, 2011). In addition to the abovementioned Program, there is also a strategy in effect until 2024 aiming at the development of tourism sector. According to the National Tourism Development Concept (2014-2024), Hungary is expected to be the most popular destination of Europe in health tourism by 2024. In order to get the supply to the market, efficient, well-organized and strategically managed system of incentives is necessary, including the country-brand and the national marketing activity (Káposzta, 2016).

Tools to achieve the desired aims:

- innovative and creative high quality products and supply;
- creation of an environment that improves the competitiveness of the tourism in Hungary, job creation;

- restructuring of the institution system of tourism based on the TDM system;
- opening to international markets, to the Eastern countries by international marketing and by using incentives.

The Concept also includes product-specific priorities as follows:

- health tourism – touristic products based on the complex development of bath destinations providing medical services;
- heritage and cultural tourism – major national and cultural heritage promoted as touristic attractions by establishing thematic routes and visitors' centers;
- MICE-conference tourism – establishment of one large congress center and the conscious expansion of further conference facilities, strengthening the professional tourism character of Hungary;
- religion tourism – complex development of pilgrimage routes and touristic networks which can be known even Europe-wide;
- festivals, event – marketing of national or regional events onto the international market;
- development of national gastronomic networks and important festivals, matching the region-specific traditions, cultural and historical conditions;
- ecotourism – complex development of ecotouristic destinations, creation of visitors' center in national parks, organizing events and exhibitions;
- bicycle tourism – complex development of bicycle routes by exploiting the territorial differences;
- water tourism – establishment of port networks meeting the international standards, development of water tour bases, harmonizing them with bicycle tourism;
- equestrian tourism – complex development of equestrian touristic centers, increasing the interest of domestic tourists in equestrian tourism, creation of routes that can be interesting for foreign tourists as well;
- village- and agrotourism – development of village and rural touristic attractions and services by diversifying the supply based on local values, cultures and traditions (National Tourism Development Concept, 2014–2024).

Expected results due to the realization of the objectives by 2024:

- the GDP contribution is expected to increase to 10%;

- the number of registered employees in tourism sectors is expected to increase by 50%;
- Hungary is expected to be among the top 30 in the world, regarding competitiveness;
- statistics on domestic tourism is expected to increase by 30%;
- the number of foreign visitor nights and average spending are expected to increase by 50%;
- penetrating new markets in harmony with the Eastern opening strategy (National Tourism Development Concept, 2014–2024).

Based on the strategies and concepts detailed above we can see that tourism in general is supported in Hungary, tourism is expected to contribute to the national GDP to larger extent and provide more jobs. Due to the favourable natural conditions and thermal water resource, most of Hungary is thought to be suitable for tourism activity, but it is a misleading concept. The rich natural and historical resources and attractions are not enough to maintain sustainable tourism in the whole country. There are several micro-regions (especially in Northern-Hungary, Northern-and Southern Great Plain, Southern-Transdanubia) which include the least-developed micro-regions and require complex development programs to catch up and to moderate the territorial inequalities within the country (which is the major aim of cohesion policy). It is almost obvious for many people if tourism and the development of rural areas are mentioned in a context, rural tourism is highlighted as a potential. However, rural tourism is interpreted in various ways by authors in different countries. For example in Italy, it covers all activities related to the countryside either it is a weekend spent in a hotel for 100 people or walking on a wine route. In the Netherlands, village tourism is rather a holiday in a camping next to a farm, in which the most popular activities are going on excursions, cycling and horse-riding (Turner, 1993). In Greece, e.g. the major service provided in rural tourism is „bed and breakfast”, i.e. accommodation in traditionally furnished rooms and breakfast made from home-made traditional products. Additional services might be offered by restaurants; other cultural and recreational programs may also be available. In Finland, village tourism is rather the rent of a holiday home, usually without catering (Rátz & Puczko, 1998). In Hungary, there is no generally accepted definition for village tourism. It covers activities from the simple village accommodation to a complex product with multiple elements. The definition by EURTER French Institute is broadly accepted and applied: rural tourism is defined by the valorisation through tourism of agrarian spaces, natural resources, cultural heritage, rural housing, local popular traditions and products through specially labelled products that reflect the regional

identities and cover the needs of the consumer for accommodation, gastronomy, leisure activities, animation, and other services, with the objective of a local sustainable development and an adequate answer to the needs of leisure of the modern society within a new social solidarity between city and countryside.

From the host's point of view, village tourism is advantage because:

- it creates jobs, thus reducing the number of migrants or commuting;
- it can function as a supplementary activity to agriculture, so it can contribute to diversified profile;
- it can be a secondary income source which comes from serving own, home-made products to the visitors, renting rooms for tourists as well as providing additional services;
- it may encourage infrastructural development;
- it may expand the range of leisure-time and cultural activities in the village;
- it may have impact on the change in lifestyle, thus bring the urban and rural lifestyles closer to each other.

From the tourists' point of view, the following advantages can be listed:

- village tourism offers holiday which is cheap and close to nature;
- it enables the tourists to know the landscape and people in their own environment;
- it is an active free-time activity, which means that guests may take part actively in the work of village people (harvest, feeding animals, pig slaughter);
- it contributes to learning new skills, rural traditions (old, traditional handcrafting, real local flavors);
- it helps the domestic tourists to learn their own country;
- it helps the foreign tourists to get to know more about our country.

Some statements about village tourism:

- Village tourism – in most cases – is created artificially because of must, which aims to generate supplementary income (Antal, 1994).
- It is based on local resources. It can utilize natural values, local agricultural products, empty houses, unused resources, knowledge of elderly people as well as unexploited human resource (Kovács, 1995). Village tourism may benefit from such things which have no or low cost, like intellectual capital, natural treasures, traditions, local famous places and if they are not used, the population becomes poorer not only economically but culturally as well.

- It is really a complex product.
- If there is one family in a village who receives tourists, it is not rural tourism yet. It is about creating a community (Kovács, 1993). It is usually based on family businesses, but the cooperation in the region is inevitable (Faludi, 1994).
- Village tourism is close to nature and exempt from urbanization, offering recreation without noisy and stressful cities. However, the demand for convenience is a high.
- It provides personalized services. One feature that makes rural tourism unique is that there is a personal relationship between the host and the guest (Danis, 1995). That "personal" feature exists with the broader environment and the host population as well.

The supply of village tourism is really complex. It is much more than providing accommodation with some programs. The village atmosphere, the personal relationship with the hosts and the local people, the wide range of programs and services are all parts of rural tourism, as well as the price, accessibility, weather etc. (Sharpley & Sharpley, 1997). Clean environment, neat gardens, high quality restaurants as well as convenience should be basic elements of supply because urban population, even if shifting from cities to villages, need and insist on basic services like pharmacy, doctor, shops of high quality. So rural tourism – as a touristic product – contains both hard and soft elements. The key factor of rural tourism is not the village, but complex services related to historical, traditional, cultural, environmental, sport, leisure-time activities under rural circumstances. Based on the abovementioned, rural tourism with its wide range of supply both uses and preserves, takes care of the natural beauties, gastronomy, traditions and intellectual heritage of the countryside. Even if there are various concepts and definitions for tourism carried out in the rural areas, we consider the "rural" expression the most appropriate, since such tourism is related to several other sectors and activities, and at the end it can contribute to a complex development of the countryside, so it may result in rural development. Due to its favourable geopolitical features and natural endowments, tourism industry has always been a key sector in Hungary. It is well-known even on the international market and visited by increasing number of foreign tourists. At the same time, we should see that tourism is concentrated in a few specific locations (Budapest, Lake Balaton, Lake Velence, thermal bath cities etc.) and it does not really contribute to the development of rural areas lagging behind (Kollár, Tóth, and Péli, 2012). So tourism should not be targeted as an individual sector, but it should be

integrated into spatial development policies to achieve positive results all over the country.

We should also emphasize that tourism should not be a secondary economic activity but it should be done professionally. It requires touristic resources, qualified human resource and should combine various products and services. At the moment, in many Hungarian rural areas people try to get into tourism because there are no other profitable economic activities or there is no sufficient human resource for other sectors. In our opinion, it is not the way how tourism should be approached. In addition, the statistics regarding village accommodations and the popularity of rural tourism among domestic and foreign tourists do not reflect a favourable tendency.

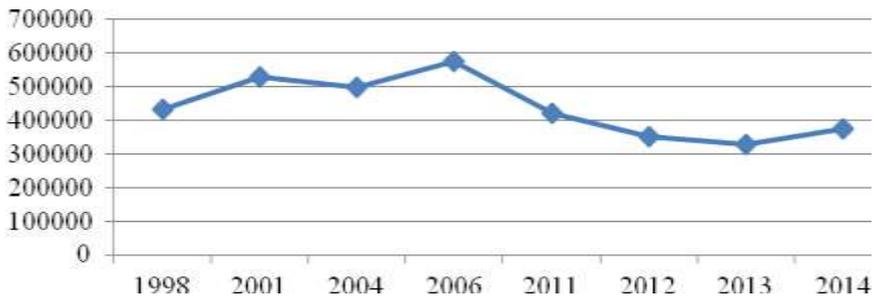
Material and methods

In our research, we intended to show how much the countryside of Hungary is ready for professional rural tourism activity and how important the realization of complex national and regional tourism development strategies would be necessary. We collected the data from the Central Statistical Office, targeting the statistics for rural areas.

Results and Discussion

In order to see whether there is real improvement in rural tourism and whether it is a real potential for most of the villages, we have collected statistical data about the nights spent in accommodations in villages of Hungary. Regarding methodology, it has to be mentioned that the Central Statistical Office collects separate data for village accommodations since 1998, so it is the first year in our analysis. Figure 1 shows that despite of the various links of rural tourism with other sectors and despite of the favourable natural endowments of Hungary, the number of nights spent in village accommodations shows a gradually decreasing tendency after 2006. Due to the lack of local cooperation and the poor quality of services as well as the low qualification of people dealing with rural tourism, the figure dropped to 329,155 by 2013. Compared to the peak year (2003) value – 586,529, the decrease was 44% by 2013. A promising sign could be that the number started to grow again in 2014 to 373,711. However, the increase between 1998 and 2006 was due to the increase in the number of service/accommodation providers and not due to the increase per former existing units.

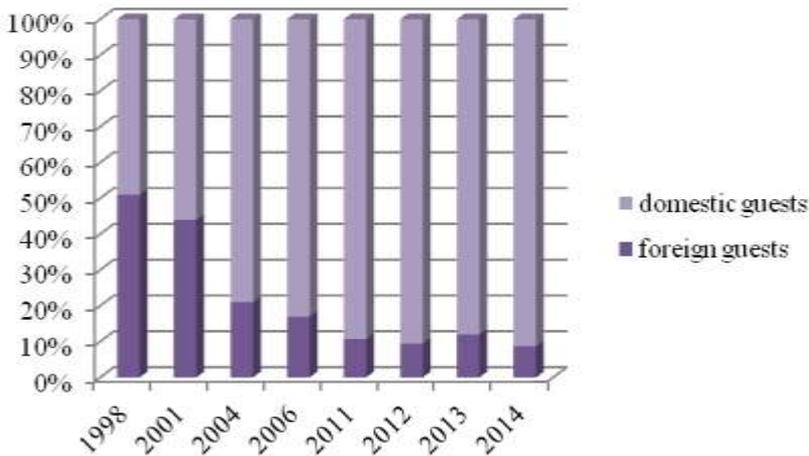
Figure 1: Number of nights spent at accommodations in villages



Source: Central Statistical Office, 2017.

Unfortunately, figures show that there is huge potential in rural tourism but it requires complex development measures.

Figure 2: The distribution of nights spent at accommodations in villages



Source: Central Statistical Office, 2017.

On Figure 2 it can be seen that village accommodations are preferred by domestic tourists, they are not popular among foreign visitors – their share is even decreasing. It clearly shows that there are no festivals, programs, events, exhibitions which would attract foreign tourists to small, rural villages to stay overnight. The high rate (51%) for nights spent by foreign tourists in 1998 and 44% in 2001 can be explained by the lower total number of nights spent (431,272 in 1998) compared to the year of 2013. So the number of nights spent by foreigners was not higher earlier, but the share in the total changed only. The 8.7% of foreign guests in 2014 is an extremely low figure. It is a warning sign to consider the tourism in rural areas a strategic issue at national level.

It is not only the total number of nights spent in village accommodations decreased over the years, but the territorial distribution is imbalanced as well. In Hungary, there are 9 touristic regions (which are not equal to the NUTS 2 spatial development regions applied in cohesion policy).

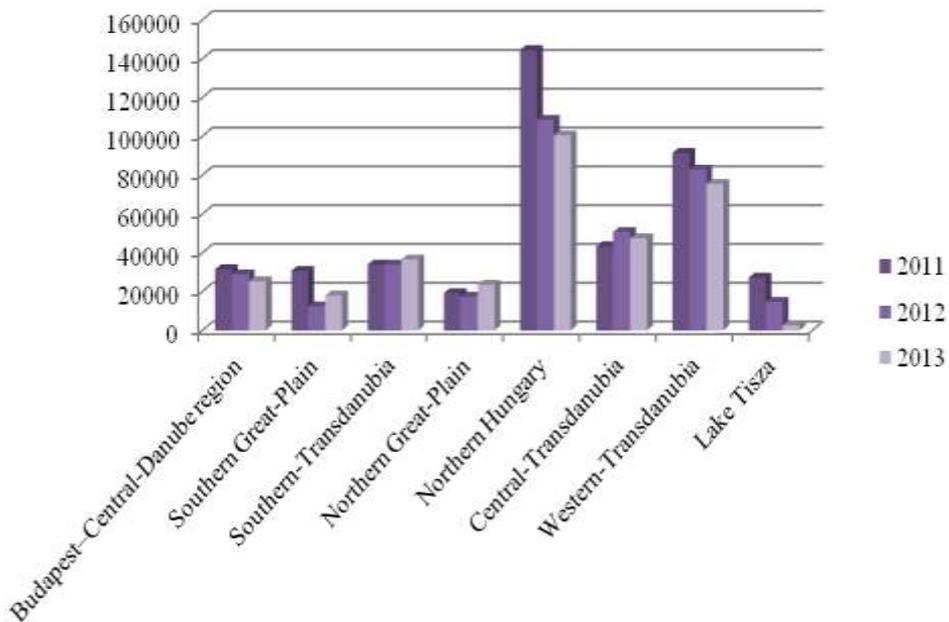
Figure 3: The touristic regions of Hungary



Source:
<http://www.specialtours.hu/tours/biketours/HungarianCyclingTours.php>.

As it is in cohesion policy, huge inequalities can be observed in the tourism sector as well among the regions. Such inequalities could be moderated by increasing the efficiency of tourism in the rural areas, generating more income for the local population, building on the rich rural values, but unfortunately tourism is concentrated in the capital and near the Lake Balaton, Lake Tisza and near the thermal resources. Looking at the Figure 4, we can see the regional distribution of nights spent in village accommodations. It is surprising that Lake Balaton is not included in the figure, which represents the most popular touristic destination of Hungary, but the Central Statistical office does not collect data about it in relation with village accommodations. We can see a clear picture about the significance of Northern Hungary, which had over 100,000 nights spent in the past few years. It is partly because in this regions there are not many hotels and partly because of the rich natural and cultural heritage of the region. Referring to the statement above, the village tourism in Hungary – despite of its potentials in catching up of the regions lagging behind – reflects decreasing tendency. Not to mention the significant territorial imbalances.

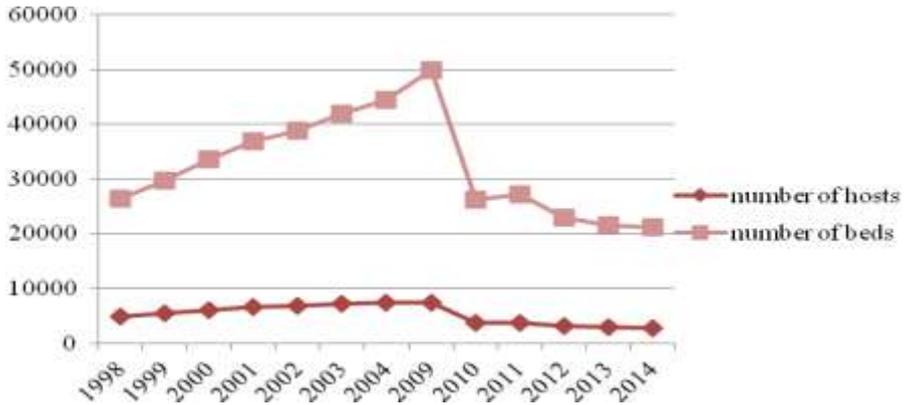
Figure 4: Number of nights spent in village accommodations by touristic regions of Hungary



Source: Central Statistical Office, 2017.

If we look at Figure 5, we can see that it is not only the demand which could be blamed for the decrease, but the supply. It can be seen that the number of those providing village accommodation dramatically dropped over the years as well as the number of beds. In 1998 there were 4,893 hosts, providing village accommodations, reaching the peak in 2004 (7,431), then dropping to 2,805 in 2014. At the same time, the number of beds started from 26,340 in 1998, reaching the peak in 2009 (49,862) and going back to 21,119 in 2014.

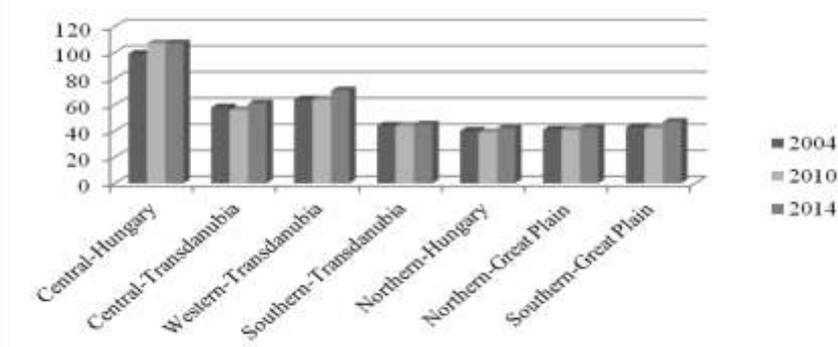
Figure 5: Supply in village tourism in Hungary



Source: Central Statistical Office, 2016.

The abovementioned tendencies are good basis for conscious and targeted tourism strategies because they prove that rural tourism has not brought the expected positive results and there are unexploited potentials and capacities. However, what we can see that there is a lack of integration, efficient information flow as well as cooperation between the service providers so that the potentials could be exploited more. Even if there are national concepts for the development of rural tourism, with the lack of adequate infrastructure, professionalism, cooperation, targeted marketing activity, the rural areas will not be able to catch up to their Western-European counterparts.

Figure 6. Regional GDP per capita (PPS) in the EU average, 2004-2014 (%)



Source: Eurostat, 2017.

Figure 6 also points out that the convergence regions of Hungary (there is only the Central-Hungary region which is not included in this category,

exceeding 75% of the GDP average) are all lagging behind based on the GDP per capita, showing the huge gap between the capital region and the rest of the country.

Conclusions

Based on the overview on the major recent tourism policies in Hungary, it is clear that tourism has always been present in the policies but somehow as a secondary priority. According to some experts and strategies, it is only one sector in the economy, while others say that it should be dealt with as an individual, gradually increasing activity in the economy. It is because Hungary has favourable conditions for various types of tourism (Kassai et al, 2016). Still, it must not be forgotten that tourism requires high quality resources (not only regarding the natural endowments, but e.g. the human resource and the quality and availability of services). As it is seen from the strategies, tourism was always important, but not a strategic sector. Due to the last tourism development strategy (effect until 2024), tourism can find its real role in the economic and social development of the country, thus making it more competitive in the global market. Tourism has already had great impact on the development of regions, but we believe that it could have been greater if it had been elaborated in a harmonized and structured way. Each region has great potentials for tourism, however, it must not be the number one industry in regions lagging behind where there is a lack of necessary infrastructure. In such areas, the short-term strategies should focus on the basic infrastructure and business environment and only later on may come tourism. Regarding rural tourism, there are even more challenges, since in many regions it should be managed and organized with creativity, the people involved in rural tourism should be pro-active, since they are in less favourable market position compared to the most attractive capital or lakes and thermal resorts, however, they should survive on the same international touristic market.

References

- Antal, K. (1994): A falusi turizmus, mint idegenforgalmi termék. *Kereskedelmi Szemle* 1994 (35) / 12.
- Central Statistical Office of Hungary. (2017).
- Danis, Gy. (1995): A falusi turizmus helyzete. Kézirat.
- EUROSTAT (2017), <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/regions> /data/database
- Faludi, E. (1994): Tanácskozás a falusi turizmusról Hőgyészen. *Kereskedelmi Szemle* 1994 (35) / 3.

- Kardos Z. (2011): Turisztikai ismeretek. Regionális turisztikai menedzsment modul, Tankönyvtár, Keszthely, p. 117., pp. 19-40, pp. 94-110
- Kassai Zs. Káposzta J., Ritter K, Dávid L., Nagy H, Farkas T. (2016): The territorial significance of food hungaricums: the case of pálinka, *Romanian Journal of Regional Science* 10:(2) pp. 64-84.
- Káposzta J. (2016): Regionális összefüggések a vidékgazdaság fejlesztésében, *Studia Mundi - Economica* 3:(1) pp. 52-61.
- Kollár K, Tóth T, Péli L (2012): Major economic coherences of peripheral areas in Hungary, *Annals of the Polish Association of Agricultural and Agribusiness Economists* 14:(6) pp. 124-128.
- Kovács D. (1993): A falusi turizmus lehetőségei és korlátai Magyarországon. *Településfejlesztés* 1993/5. pp.7-17.
- Kovács D. (1995): Falusi turizmus helye a családi gazdálkodásban és az átalakuló mezőgazdaságban. *A Falu* 1995. 2. pp. 75-83.
- National Tourism Development Concept, 2014–2024
- Rátz, T. & Puczko, L. (1998): Rural Tourism and Sustainable Development in Hungary. Paper presented in "Rural Tourism Management: Sustainable Options" Conference. September 9-12, 1998. The Scottish Agricultural College (SAC), Ayr, Scotland.
- Sharpley, J. & Sharpley, R. (1997): Rural Tourism - An introduction. International Thomson Business Press, Boston
- Turner. G (1993): Tourism and the environment: the role of the seaside, *Insights: A* 125-31
- http://kultura.kreativeuropa.hu/letolt/uj_magyarorszag_fejlesztési_terv_0801.pdf
- <http://www.specialtours.hu/tours/biketours/HungarianCyclingTours.php>

SEVER DUMITRAȘCU – A LIFE IN THE SERVICE OF ARCHAEOLOGY

The archaeological remains discovered in northwest Romania, belonging to various historical periods, emerging over time as a result of random discoveries or researches conducted by amateur or professional archeologists, starting even in the nineteenth century, have raised the interest of the scientists for the mentioned area. In this context, the young archaeologist Sever Dumitrașcu (born June 6, 1937, in the village of Rapoltu Mare, Hunedoara County), passionate about archeology since he was a high school, received as a mission from his Cluj teachers to come and initiate new archaeological research in the area. Graduate of the Faculty of History and Philosophy at the University of Cluj, Department of Ancient World History and Archeology in 1962, he was transferred in 1964 from the 3-year Pedagogical Institute in Cluj to the one from Oradea (Crișan 2001: 51). He worked there until 1977, when the state decided to abolish the Faculty of History and Geography, resuming its didactic activity after the re-establishment of the faculty in 1990 (Drecin, Măhăra 2004: 45-46) after the fall of the communist regime in December 1989 in Romania. Between 1972 and 1990 he was director and museographer at the Museum of the Criss Land in Oradea (Crișan 2001: 52). Throughout this period, he devoted himself to the field research every year, making a major contribution to elucidating the problems of old history and prehistory in this part of Romania and beyond.

Although his main research topics have been related to the Dacian communities and the history of the first millennium AD, his contributions to Romania's prehistory are important, which is why we are mostly referring to them in this paper, the hundreds of works and studies, as well as the volumes published by the prestigious archaeologist that are available to us, as well as the personal talks with him, about the archaeological campaigns he has undertaken throughout his entire activity. We recall some archaeological sites: Boarta, j. Sibiu; The Medieșul Aurit, Unimăt, j. Satu Mare; Clit, Moroda, j. Arad; Mark, j. Sălaj; Biharea, Sânnicolau Român, Șuncuiuș, Săcălășău Nou, Tinca, Cociuba Mare, j. Bihor, and so on. Based on his research, we highlighted Professor Sever Dumitrașcu's most important contributions to Romania's prehistory chronologically, starting from the Neolithic period up to the second age of iron (La Tène).

The Neolithic

Although no archaeological excavations could be carried out in the Neolithic settlement of Oradea-loşia due to the repeated destruction caused by constructions, a dwelling with painted Neolithic pottery emerged in 1968, which attracted the attention of researcher Sever Dumitraşcu, him considering necessary to publish the results for understanding the Neolithic chronology in northwest Romania, and the origin of the Petreşti culture. The material was included in the Herpály group of the Tisa II culture with painted pottery (Dumitraşcu, Tăutu 1971). Without affirming that this group is at the base of the painted ceramics in the Petreşti culture, Professor Dumitraşcu states that it is not by chance that "for the Transylvanian groups with painted pottery - proto- and pre- Petreşti (maybe even Petreşti) that in an area in the north- West was preserved an area with painted ceramics, while in the Transylvania between the Criş and Petreşti culture the Vinča culture, which does not know the painted pottery, interfered only when it metamorphosed in Petreşti. and we think that one can not forget the existence of a painted ceramic "path" between the north-western groups of painted pottery and the center of Transylvania, on the Criş valley to the east (not on the Someş valley): Oradea-Vadul Crişului-Cluj." (Dumitraşcu, Tăutu 1971: 52)

Several Dumitraşcu's surveys on the ditch of the Sântana-Curtici road and the surrounding terrain, revealed a Neolithic settlement that stretched over an area of approximately 200 m. In the summer of 1963 rescue character archaeological excavations were carried out on the mound-tell in the place called "La Holumb" (Dumitraşcu 1975). It has been determined the existence here of a cultural horizon belonging to Tisa culture with 5 levels of habitation. The materials discovered with obvious elements of cultural conservatism (the window-bearing vessels, the lack of painted pottery, the reuse of the textile style in decoration and the stamped circles on pottery) were chronologically placed on the Tisa III or Tiszapolgár horizon, but a bowl fragment decorated with stamped circles, analogous to the bowls from the cemetery of Decea Mureşului of the Eneolithic Age, causes the researcher to consider more studies necessary to determine to what extent the group of Sântana belongs to the Neolithic and its connections with other groups in Crişana and Transylvania (Dumitraşcu 1975: 31).

In this context, it was not accidental that surveys were made in 1969, during the second campaign from Moroda, in the borders of the villages of Mocrea, Seleuş, Iermata, Chier, Târnova, Măderat and Pâncota, all in Arad County. In Seleuş, archaeological surveys were conducted at the points named "Sub

deal" or "La Tetani" (Dumitraşcu, Ignat 1987). In a place with the appearance of a large mound, two sections of archaeological survey were drawn from where pottery fragments, burnt clay, bone objects, a whole lithic industry consisting of river stone tools, grinders, polishes, adzes, silex cores, unperforated stone axes and so on were retrieved. The pottery consists of large, medium and small pots, legged pots, ornamented with barbotine, girdles, buttons, of Starčevo-Criş type; Medium and small pots, glasses, bowls painted in black, placed by the author in the Oradea-Salca-Oradea-loşia type discoveries group. Another ceramic category discovered here was determined to be Vincian of Bucovăţ type. There appeared large and medium sized pots, carafe vessels, small pots, some even miniaturized, spoon of clay, trays. The ornaments are represented by gurgle, nipple or bumps, button, angular torches, incisions, spiral incisions in raw pasta of vessels (Dumitraşcu, Ignat 1987: 13-20). On the basis of these and researches from other areas of Crişana, the author concludes that this type of pottery penetrates into Crişana where it comes into contact with belated and isolated elements of Starčevo-Criş type, and then with elements of the ceramic group painted with black, Tisa culture. Chronologically it is dated in the first part of the Middle Neolithic, somewhere between the Starčevo-Criş cultures and the Sântana type late Tisa culture mentioned above (Dumitraşcu, Ignat 1987: 23-24).

Period of transition to the Bronze Age

Archeologist Sever Dumitraşcu, concerned with the explanation of the Indo-Europeanization process at the end of the third millennium and the beginning of the second millennium BC, during which he emphasized that the foundations of the ancient European peoples and of Asian peoples were settled, dedicated to the Coţofeni culture, which marks the end and disappearance of the Neolithic and which leads to the formation of the Indo-European communities, concrete of the Thracians of the Northern Balkans, a vast study based on his own researches, as well as on the previous or contemporary researches of the guild colleagues in the country and abroad (Dumitraşcu 1967b).

He highlights the place of this culture in the prehistoric culture of this period. Many of Coţofeni's materials from our country came to light when researching some archaeological sites of another period. The researcher analyzed the material culture of the Coţofeni type, namely the typology and the spreading of the tools/weapons, the pottery from a typological and stylistic point of view, as well as the topographic location of the settlements,

the area of spreading of this culture, the dwellings and graves, as well as the discussions regarding the periodization, chronology and origin of this culture, highlighting its links with other areas and other cultures or cultural horizons (Dumitraşcu 1967b).

The materials attributed to the Coţofeni culture that emerged on the occasion of excavations allowed archeologist Sever Dumitraşcu to contribute to the study of this important period in which the process of Indo-Europeanization took place. In this respect, we recall some of the archaeological researches that he has participated in or have undertaken over the years.

In the summer of 1963-1964 he participated in excavations in the settlement from Coţofeni to Măgura Căpudului, located on the border of Căpud village, Hunedoara (Dumitraşcu 1967a). The researcher includes this settlement in the widespread area of settlements of the bearers' of this culture chronologically dated between 1900-1700 BC, a period of transition from the Neolithic to the Bronze Age, when restructuring took place in the East European area from the ethnic, linguistic, economic, social point of view. These processes were determined by the Indo-Europeanization process. Analyzing the pottery in detail, Sever Dumitraşcu considers that its rupture from the previous background is big, the connections with the Neolithic cultures Turdaş-Vinca, Petreşti, Sălcuţa being hard to distinguish. By using battle axes and building high-rise settlements, the newcomers dominate the natives. The Coţofeni culture represents a qualitative leap from an economic and social point of view, being the result of the changes that took place during this period. The researcher urges thorough investigations of this culture on the territory of Romania "as part of the area in which Indo-Europeanization occurred or at least adjacent to it" (Dumitraşcu 1967a: 162). Although there are influences that come from northeast and south in our country they have their own individuality.

Another settlement Coţofeni from 1900-1700 BC was excavated by archeologist Sever Dumitraşcu at Girişul de Criş, the point called "Râturi" (Dumitraşcu 1968). As a result of the researches, it seems that the Coţofeni communities left the settlement, being later repopulated by communities belonging to the Basarabi culture in the middle of the first millennium BC. Analyzing with attention the pottery that emerged through the archaeological excavations, the researcher finds that most of it is ornamented with incisions and lack successive stitches as decoration and concludes that the settlement attests to the existence of the prime phase of

the Coțofeni culture. Being extended in Crișana this comes into contact with elements of Pécel culture, but it is already a well individualized culture and it is not significantly contaminated (Dumitrașcu 1968: 264). Over time, the elements from the center of Europe influence the decoration of the pottery, resulting in a decoration with successive incisions, lentils and stitches, which is also specific to the Coțofeni culture, attesting to the existence of the second phase of culture here (Dumitrașcu 1968: 264).

Pottery fragments decorated with incisions or stitches without arrangement or organized in the form of bearded or hatched triangles, sometimes, incisions in the form of pinnacles or small alveoli belonging to the Coțofeni culture were discovered in the summer of 1968 at Unimăt - "Dâlboci", Satu Mare County, from the Tășnad area, on the Crasna valley, attesting one of the most northerly Coțofeni settlements in Transylvania. The pottery differs from the one found at Girișu de Criș - "Râturi", with the succession of lining and stitches decoration here, indicating the late dating or contacts that took place between the Coțofeni phase without successive stitches and the Furchenstich ceramic horizon. The fine pottery, ornamented with horizontal or vertical lines with hatches, with elements that can be found in the neighboring areas, where the Coțofeni pottery is present (Baden, Kostolac, Vučedol), but still special, outlines a special horizon with a new Coțofeni type ceramic, which the archaeologist Sever Dumitrașcu defines as the Unimăt type and considers it important for the internal periodization of the Coțofeni culture (Dumitrașcu 1969).

By chance incineration tombs were discovered by the illustrious archaeologist amongst Dacian tombs from the 2nd-4th centuries AD in the necropolis of the Medieșul Aurit settlement in Satu Mare County, which were disturbed by the terracing of the land and other agricultural works, tombs belonging to the Coțofeni culture (Dumitrașcu 1972: 52). Fragments of pottery, probably from other destroyed tombs, were found in the necropolis. A globular shaped urn made of blackish-grayish paste, ornamented with short incised lines between the neck of the vessel and its body, with fan-shaped oblique lines in the upper body, was found in the tombs, fragments of urns from gray-crimson paste, decorated on the shoulder with triangles resulting from successive stitches, below incised double lines and hatched diamonds, in the lower part there appear incised oblique lines flanked by rows of applied pills forming the so-called decoration in lentils (Dumitrașcu 1972 : 53-54).

The other discovered pottery fragments belonging to the Coțofeni culture are decorated with incised lines arranged parallel to the walls of the vessel or oblique, or in the form of pine twigs or in strips filled with cross-hatches. The existence of these elements of Coțofeni material culture determines Sever Dumitrașcu to believe that a north-western facies of this culture emerged here, probably of a peripheral aspect (Dumitrașcu 1972: 55). The relations between the Coțofeni culture in Medieș-Aurit and the other cultures and groups of the same period could not be specifically defined, but the discovery of the cremation tombs is of particular importance. The author of the research considers that: "Regardless of the origin and the path followed by the ritual of the incineration to reach the cultures in the center of Europe, there remains the certainty of the existence of this rite in the period of transition to the Bronze Age in northwest Romania" (Dumitrașcu 1972: 58). The adoption of this ritual of incineration along with the ornamentation of ceramic with cord, striations, the emergence of stone battle axes are all new elements that define the transition processes that take place at the beginning of the Bronze Age, linked to the emergence of the Indo-Europeans, who can not be ignored in research of the common European roots.

The Bronze Age

In the summer of 1964, archaeological excavations were made in an Otomani settlement of the Bronze Age from Potău from the place called Ciuncaș, near the Medieșul Aurit locality, Satu Mare County, a settlement whose existence was known from the beginning of the 20th century. As a result of the researches, the settlement, of the "island" type, is strengthened for defensive purposes and corresponds chronologically to the Otomani I phase, with some elements of Otomani II that is to the period Br A and B (Dumitrașcu, Bader 1972). The pottery discovered here in general is roughly processed from black and red paste, decorated with strips, textile prints, alveolar or creased girdles and conical protrusions, and linear strips in the form of simple springs or garlands, spirals, triangles, lines in zigzag, but there appeared also fine black pottery and sculpture decorated with incised lines (Dumitrașcu, Bader 1972: 130-131). The way of execution and ornamentation of the pottery suggests the origin of the culture from the background of the passage from Neolithic to Bronze (Baden-Pécel), as well as a "quasi the same origin with the Wietenberg culture, these two Thracian cultures in central and western Transylvania, eastern Hungary and Czechoslovakia forming a common ethnic-linguistic mass at that historical stage." (Dumitrașcu, Bader 1972: 136)

Although it is the Bronze Age, metal objects are still scarce, and they are expensive, so the stone and bone tools predominate. Numerous osteological materials indicate the care of this community for cattle breeding, but also for hunting. Signs of wheat harvests and debris prove that agriculture also contributed to the economy of the community (Dumitrașcu, Bader 1972: 132-134).

The research of the settlement, located about half a kilometer away from the Bronze A2 bronze deposit at Apa, brings new contributions to the periodization and dating of the Otomani culture of the Bronze Age. On the basis of analogies with other Otomani discoveries, the archaeologist proposes for phase I the name of *Medieșul Aurit-Otomani I-Nagyrev A* (Dumitrașcu, Bader 1972: 136).

The end of the Bronze Age and the beginning of the Iron Age (BrCD-HaA₁)

For this period researched by the illustrious archaeologist, we mention the excavations made over several decades in the complex archaeological site of Biharea, especially the points called *Lutărie 3*, located south of the fortress of the *CAP Garden - Baraj*, north of the earth fortress (Dumitrașcu, Emődi 1981: 75). The materials from this last point were found in complexes disturbed by subsequent depositions, with the exception of three cases (Dumitrașcu, Emődi, 1980). There is a graveyard where three graves (?) have inventories arranged as coherent as possible. There were still piles of material indicating the existence of other graves, but the disturbance of the pieces urged the researcher to caution.

The author highlights the ceramic material, black on the outer surface and yellowish-clayey on the inner surface, being early elements of the early Iron Age, with the explicit emphasis that they do not belong to the Gáva culture. Urns in the funerary pit, bitronconic, ornamented with double elevations, up and down, have analogies in the discoveries from Oradea (Rulikowsy cemetery) and Cociuba Mare, Bihor County and other southern cultures such as Cruceni-Belegiș. Chronologically, between the middle Bronze Age of Otomani-Wietenberg type in Crișana and the early Iron Age Gáva culture (Dumitrașcu, Emődi 1980: 55-58). In addition to this cemetery, other materials from this period, such as portable vessels (Dumitrașcu 1994: 108-110), have also been discovered in the site.

Compared to research in the country and abroad, Sever Dumitrașcu believes that there are at least two non-Otomani and ante-Gáva cultural levels in

Crișana between Otomani and Gáva cultures, thus enrolling in chronological terms during the BrCD-HaA₁ period. The discoveries from Biharea for this transitional period from the Bronze Age to the Iron Age are somewhat different, contributing to the understanding of the hallstatisation process, filling the gap that existed here between the Bronze and Iron Ages.

The findings from Biharea, along with others in the center of Crișana, are framed by the illustrious archaeologist Sever Dumitrașcu in a new culture called Biharea (Dumitrașcu 1983; Dumitrașcu 1994: 111), a culture that played an important role in the genesis of cultures with channeled pottery. Three types of tombs were uncovered in the Biharea necropolis: with incineration remains deposited in urns, inventory thrown into the pit, and incineration remains deposited in urns along with inventory thrown into the pit. The funeral ritual is exclusively incineration, with no burials here for the BrCD-HaA₁ period. We find this situation in the Cruceni-Belegiș and Žuto-Brdo-Gârla Mare cultures. The tombs researched in Biharea are flat, this culture does not identify with the civilization of the tumuli, but the type of urn with upward and downward elevations mentioned above were also discovered in the tumuli at Meri and Moldova Nouă (Dumitrașcu 1987).

Also framed in this period is the bronze deposit from the cave in Șuncuiuș, brought to light by Professor Sever Dumitrașcu in 1988, together with the archaeologist Ioan Crișan. At the mouth of Lesiana cave, ceramic material, dated to BrCD-HaA₁, of crimson interior and black on the outside, but also decorated with fine grooves was discovered. There is pottery decorated with garlands under the lip or on the neck or on the top of the vessels. There are analogies between the ceramic material from Lesiana-Șuncuiuș and Biharea, as well as other materials discovered in the northwest of the country. Taking into consideration this material as well as the typological, stylistic and cultural considerations, the deposit was chronologically framed during the respective period, stating that from the stratigraphic point of view there is no information to determine the moment of depositing the deposit (Dumitrașcu, Crișan 1989). The deposit published in 1989 weighs 4370 g and consists of 110 pieces of bronze and 3 pieces found in the culture layer, consisting of: tools, weapons, clothing and/or harness pieces, ornaments and more.

In the summer of 1989, the second bronze deposit was discovered at the mouth of Lesiana cave at Șuncuiuș. In the pit were also some ceramic fragments that could be dated and they were framed during the BrD-HaA₁ period. Also a fragment from a portable oven emerged (Dumitrașcu 1992: 2-

3). Corroborating the results of the research with those made a year ago, the author does not rule out a possible metallurgical activity carried out here. The warehouse consists of 19 pieces (calciform pendants, saltaleoni, button) (Dumitrașcu 1992: 5-6).

The early Iron Age

Very close to the deposit at Șuncuiuș, on the right bank of Crișul Repede river, on the Simeonului hill, was also investigated, together with Ioan Crișan, a hallstattian fortress of the barbed spur type. The pottery discovered here is similar to the ones discovered at the mouth of the Lesiana cave dated to BrCD-HaA₁, it is crimson-colored in the interior and black outside and channelled but more evolved, so it was framed in HaA-B₁ (Dumitrașcu, Crișan 1989). Sever Dumitrașcu believes that from the Simeonului hill the area was well controlled and places the presence of Hallstatt's fortress here on account of the salt and bronze trade between the Thracian communities from Transylvania and the ones from Crișana of the Apuseni Mountains (Dumitrașcu, Crișan 1989).

In order to know the beginnings of the Iron Age (HaA₁-A₂/B₁) in Crișana, we mention the closed cult complexes from Tășad, which were researched by Professor Dumitrașcu in 1995 and 1996 together with the students of the history department at the Faculty of Letters and Socio- Human Sciences at the University of Oradea. In these complexes the materials were intentionally deposited, after the analysis of the pottery, it was found that graphite was used for the ceramics, and the potter's wheel did not seem to be a technology known by the craftsmen of these Hallstattian communities (Dumitrașcu 1998).

Of course, in Biharea too, being a complex archeological site, archaeological materials were discovered dated in the Middle and Late Hallstatt HaCD and until the beginning of the late Iron Age La Tène (Dumitrașcu, Emődi, 1981). Although the HaB period is less well represented here until this phase of research, at the point called *Cărămidărie II*, located south of the fortress, but sporadically also within the fortress, probably arrived here due to leveling works have been discovered fragments of black pottery decorated with grooves dated during this period.

For the middle Hallstat (HaCD), the material found at the 3 points (inside the fortress, the center-south sector and the western sector at the *Cărămidărie II*

point, south of the fortress, at the *Grădina C.A.P. -Baraj* Point, including the "Island", north of the citadel), but sporadically in a secondary position is representative, typologically split in 5 categories of vessels: vessels with straight or slightly arched walls, bitronconic vessels, bowls, mugs and trays (Dumitrașcu, Emodi 1981: 78-79).

On the basis of the ceramic material, the execution technique and the ornaments applied, the archaeologist Sever Dumitrașcu considers "this cultural level (HaC-D) as a long-standing and belonging ethnically to the Proto-historical Dacians from Biharea" (Dumitrașcu, Emődi 1981: 79).

This ceramic type of HaCD continues to appear in Biharea and the layers dated to early La Tène, even medium, proving the continuity in time and the unity of the Geto-Dacian material culture (Dumitrașcu, Emődi 1981: 80).

The late Iron Age of La Tène

Materials from La Tène were discovered at Biharea on the occasion of the excavations carried out in the summer of 1977, in the sector called the *Grădina C.A.P.-Baraj*. They unveiled a Celtic pottery workshop with a clay pit (Dumitrașcu 1979). Beside this there was a lot of pottery, clay mounds, tiles and a bone tool used to decorate the vessels.

Near the workshop, however, on the other bank of the Ceșmeu was excavated a LaTène pit with a lot of shards. The pottery was divided into two categories: made of fine paste, on the wheel, ash-blackish or blackish or yellowish and yellow-crimson, and made of fine paste with graphite, black, gray, blackish or even yellowish crimson, hand-made, and gray pottery with graphite in paste or graphite-applied made by hand. Although some kilns were found, they could not be attributed to the Celtic level, so it was not possible at that stage of the research to establish how and where their pottery was burned (Dumitrașcu 1979: 50-51). Subsequent research will unearth more materials, the researcher summing up in the monograph of the site 2-dwellings and the ceramic modeling and burning workshop, with the pottery room and the oven serving pit but also with 3 kilns (Dumitrașcu 1994: 123-135).

The discovered materials of the Celtic level in Biharea have a unitary character. The author fits this level during the La Tène III (about the second half of the 2nd century BC - the beginning of the 1st century BC). Field research reveals that the Celtic settlement was abandoned at some point, perhaps due to the Dacians, who apparently opposed the ingress and the

possible Celtic domination in the northwest and west of the country (Dumitrașcu 1979: 56).

It can be noticed the archaeologist dedicated his life to research, contributing decisively to the prehistory period, some of his discoveries representing milestones to the later researches. We presented only the most important discoveries of above mentioned period made by the professor and archaeologist Sever Dumitrașcu in a chronological succession. There are more discoveries in his main research field. He is a model for the present and the future archaeologists.

References

- Crișan 2001 - Crișan, Ioan, *Sever Dumitrașcu – activitatea arheologică și muzeografică (Sever Dumitrașcu – Archaeological and Museographical Activity)*, in *Adevărul omeneste posibil (The Humanly Possible Truth)*, Cris County Museum Publisher House, Oradea, 2001, p. 53-58
- Drecin, Măhăra 2004 - Drecin, Mihai D., Măhăra, Gheorghe, *40 de ani de la înființarea Facultății de Istorie-Geografie. 1964-2004 (40 Years since the History-Geography Faculty Establishment. 1964-2004)*, University of Oradea Publisher House, Oradea, 2004
- Dumitrașcu 1967a - Dumitrașcu, Sever, *Așezarea Coțofeni - „Măgura Căpuului” (Coțofeni Settlement-„Măgura Căpuului”)*, în *Studii și comunicări (Studies and Communications)*, Brukenthal Museum 1817-1967, vol. 13, Sibiu, 1967, p.157-163
- Dumitrașcu 1967b - Dumitrașcu, Sever, *Note asupra culturii Coțofeni (Protothracia I) (Notes on Coțofeni Culture (Protothracia I))*, în *Lucrări Științifice (Scientific Works)*, 1, Oradea, 1967, p.79-98
- Dumitrașcu 1968 - Dumitrașcu, Sever, *Așezarea Coțofeni de la Giriș-„Rături” (Coțofeni Settlement at Giriș-„Rături”)*, în *Lucrări Științifice (Scientific Works)*, 2, Oradea, 1968, p.257-266
- Dumitrașcu 1969 - Dumitrașcu, Sever, *Săpăturile arheologice de la Unimăt (Archaeological Excavations at Unimăt)*, in *Satu Mare. Studii și Comunicări*, Satu Mare, 1969, p.41-48
- Dumitrașcu 1972 - Dumitrașcu, Sever, *Morminte Coțofeni de incinerare descoperite la Medieșul Aurit (Coțofeni Incineration Tombs Discovered at Medieșul Aurit)*, in *Satu Mare. Studii și Comunicări*, II, Satu Mare, 1972, p.52
- Dumitrașcu 1975 - Dumitrașcu, Sever, *Așezarea neolitică de la Sântana-Holumb (jud. Arad) (The Neolithic Settlement from Sântana-Holumb*

- (*Arad County*), în *Banatica*, Mountainous Banat Museum, III, Reșița, 1975, p.25-32
- Dumitrașcu 1979 - Dumitrașcu, Sever, *Un atelier de olărie (La Tène) descoperit la Biharea (A Pottery Workshop (La Tène) Discovered at Biharea)*, în *Sargetia. Acta Musei Devensis*, Hunedoara County Museum, XIV, Deva, 1979, p.46-58
- Dumitrașcu 1983 - Dumitrașcu, Sever, *O nouă cultură arheologică protoistorică recent descoperită și studiată: cultura Biharea (BrCD-Ha A₁) (A New Protohistorical Archaeological Culture Discovered and Studied: Biharea Culture (BrCD-Ha A₁))*, în *Carpica*, „Iulian Antonescu” History County Museum, XV, Bacău, 1983, p.105-116
- Dumitrașcu 1987 - Dumitrașcu, Sever, *Rituri și ritualuri de înmormântare de la începutul epocii fierului (BrCD-HaA₁) în descoperirile din nord-vestul României (Biharea) (Burial Rites and Rituals at the Early Iron Age (BrCD-HaA₁) in Discoveries in North-Western Romania (Biharea))*, în *Crisia*, Cris County Museum XVII, Oradea, 1987, p.305-314
- Dumitrașcu 1992 - Dumitrașcu, Sever, *Depozitul de bronzuri nr. 2 de la Șuncuiuș, județul Bihor (The Bronze Deposit no 2 from Șuncuiuș, Bihor County)*, în *Analele Universității din Oradea (Annals of the University of Oradea)*, Istorie-Arheologie (History-Archeology), II, Oradea, 1992, p.2-12
- Dumitrașcu 1994 - Dumitrașcu, Sever, *Biharea. I. Săpături arheologice (1973-1980) (Biharea. I. Archaeological Excavations (1973-1980))*, University of Oradea Publisher House, Oradea, 1994
- Dumitrașcu 1998 - Sever Dumitrașcu et alli., *Două complexe de cult descoperite la Tășad. Contribuții la cunoașterea tehnologiei perioadei de început a epocii fierului (HaA₁-A₂) (Two Religious Complexes Discovered at Tășad. Contributions to the Knowledge of Technology for the Beginning of the Iron Age)*, în *Analele Universității din Oradea (Annals of the University of Oradea)*, Istorie-Arheologie (History-Archeology), VI-VII, 1996-1997, Oradea, 1998, p.5-18
- Dumitrașcu, Bader 1972 - Dumitrașcu, Sever, Bader, Tiberiu, *Săpăturile arheologice la așezarea de tip Otomani de la Medieșul Aurit (Archaeological Excavations in the Otomani Type Settlement at Medieșul Aurit)*, în *Materiale și Cercetări Arheologice (Archaeological Researches and Materials)*, IX, Bucharest, 1972, p.127-136
- Dumitrașcu, Crișan 1989 - Dumitrașcu, Sever, Crișan, Ioan, *Depozitul de bronzuri de la Șuncuiuș, județul Bihor (The Bronze Deposit from Șuncuiuș, Bihor County)*, în *Bibliotheca Crisia*, XIX, Oradea, 1989, 107 p.
- Dumitrașcu, Emődi 1980 - Dumitrașcu, Sever, Emődi, Ioan, *Materiale arheologice de la sfârșitul epocii bronzului și de la începutul epocii*

- fierului descoperite la Biharea (Archaeological Materials Belonging to the End of the Bronze Age and the Beginning of the Iron Age Discovered at Biharea)*, in *Acta Musei Porolissensis*, IV, Zalău, 1980, p.47-67
- Dumitrașcu, Emődi 1981 - Dumitrașcu, Sever, Emődi, Ioan, *Descoperiri arheologice hallstatiene de la Biharea (Hallstattian Archaeological Discoveries at Biharea)*, in *Ziridava*, Arad Regional Museum, XIII, Arad, 1981, p.75-109
- Dumitrașcu, Ignat 1987 - Dumitrașcu, Sever, Ignat, Doina, *Descoperirile neolitice de la Seleuș (jud. Arad) (Neolithic Discoveries at Seleuș (Arad County))*, în *Ziridava*, Arad County Museum, XV-XVI, Arad, 1987, p.11-24
- Dumitrașcu, Tăutu 1971 - Dumitrașcu, Sever, Tăutu, Nicolae, *Ceramică neolitică pictată descoperită La Oradea-loșia (Painted Neolithic Pottery Discovered at Oradea- loșia)*, în *Crisia*, Cris County Museum, I, Oradea, 1971, p.47-53

Vassiliki Pliogou, Despina Karakatsani

**APPROACHES AND ORIENTATIONS OF SOCIAL PEDAGOGY: AN HISTORICAL
RETROSPECTION IN EUROPE DURING THE 19TH AND 20TH CENTURY**

Introduction

Social Pedagogy is a scientific field that has historically been linked to efforts to address social and economic deadlocks that emerged in Europe mainly through the occurrence of Industrial Revolution in the 18th century, as well as its development and its impact during 19th century. Thus, on the one hand, the dynamic of Enlightenment's basic ideas on young children's education and protection from all kinds of exploitation, especially in the workplace, European societies' intense urbanization and, on the other, the First and Second World War during the transition to the 20th century, played a decisive role in the development of Social Pedagogy as the science that was asked to reform the educational and social system in different countries of the world in the last two centuries (Mylonakou-Keke, 2003).

The search for appropriate education and social care adoption has been approached as the means for empowering each society in social educators' effort to realize their vision in practice. For that reason, Social Pedagogy and Social Work have the same historical roots, as Social Pedagogy began in the Middle Ages, when public social care was born to meet the needs of people in poverty. At the same time, family, guild and any social circle was unable to cope. However, over time Social Work focuses on adults' protection, while Social Pedagogy focuses on adopting measures for children and adolescents' education (Kanavakis, 2002). The term "Social Pedagogy" was first identified in Germany in 1844 by Karl Mager, who argued that social criticism should characterize every socio-pedagogical effort, in order to bring about educational and social change for all people, especially for socially disadvantaged groups (Mylonakou-Keke, 2013).

This pedagogical movement was rapidly adopted, using the term "Social Pedagogy" more broadly. As the idea of general education spread, there was an attempt to prevent social destruction from poverty and the negative effects of industrial development. Also, young people's divergent social behavior was approached as a pedagogical issue to be resolved (Kanavakis, 2002).

Nowadays, Social Pedagogy is governed by a multidisciplinary interdisciplinary character, since it is in continuous interaction mainly with Pedagogy, Sociology, Psychology, Social Work, Economic and Political Sciences, as well as Neurosciences, Information and Communication Technologies. Through this interaction with different scientific fields, Social Pedagogy is called upon to highlight the unity of theory and practice, to develop preventive and interventional activities, to reform educational and social systems (Kron, 2012). In other words, it is called to educate people who can recognize the complexity of social phenomena, as well as struggle dynamically for a better life, adopting life attitudes characterized by full respect for diversity and each cultural diversity.

Historical evolution of Social Pedagogy¹

Key representatives in Europe of 19th century

Social Pedagogy in Germany

Significant personalities, mainly from Germany, contributed with their work to shaping and developing Social Pedagogy. An occasion was given by a military research in Rhine region, the results of which showed that recruits from industrial areas suffered from severe diseases related to heavy work during their childhood, which did not make them able to fulfill their military obligations. As a result, in 1839, work in factories for children under the age of nine years was forbidden and a set of measures were adopted to protect children in general (Kanavakis, 2002).

Indicatively, the main representatives and some of the most important parts of their work are mentioned. In particular, Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi (1746-1827) was described as a genius "educator of people" as "orphans' father ". In his work we can distinguish the ideals of humanity, the emphasis on maternal education and the importance of interpersonal relationships when linking theory with practice (Reble, 1992).

Friedrich Ernest Schleiermacher (1768-1834) was originally a tutor at home and then a priest of the Protestant Church. His contribution to the field of

¹It is clarified at the outset that this article selects a brief presentation of the main representatives of social pedagogical thinking formation in European continent countries during the last two centuries, but this does not mean that they are the only ones.

pedagogical theory consists in linking education to history and culture, i.e. in highlighting the importance of a socially oriented education closely linked to political processes and democratic institutions (Reble, 1992).

Friedrich Adolph Wilhelm Diesterweg (1790-1866), influenced by Rousseau (Houssaye, 2000), Pestalozzi and Froebel's work (Houssaye, 2000), was deeply convinced that all people are capable of evolving as individuals, provided that the pedagogical principle of evolution in educational process is characterized by respect and care towards another fellow human being the enhancement of stimuli that direct the individual towards full development, the connection of education to social emancipation, highlighting teacher's role in shaping social life, the support of all people's right to education without any discrimination throughout their lives (Kanavakis, 2002).

Johann-Hinrich Wichern (1808-1881) highlighted family's role and its value as a pedagogical tool, strongly supporting the necessity of educating children from unprivileged family environments and reintegrating children into their natural family. His work directly linked theory with practice through active action and the Educator's participation in social development, further highlighting individuals and organizations' collective work as crucial to addressing socio-pedagogical problems (Schambach, 2008).

Social Pedagogy in the broader area of Europe

Despite the fact that social pedagogy is attributed to German intelligentsia, also other European countries have developed initiatives of enlightened personalities who, under the influence of specific economic and social theories, have left their mark on the development of the present scientific field. Brilliant examples are Giovanni Bosco (1815-1888) in Italy, priest in Catholic Church, who devoted his life to protect poor and abandoned teenagers by setting up schools for their education and vocational training (Lane, 1995).

However, in Greece, despite the particularity of an unorganized state entity with a long period of enslavement, the Neohellenic Enlightenment movement, that is developing in the years before the revolution of 1821, affects perceptions about spiritual regeneration and national freedom. Adamantios Korais (1748-1833) could be regarded as an early social pedagogy, since he worked methodically for Greece's liberation, he fought

for Greek nation's education, placing issues of education at top priority, such as the acquisition of skills and knowledge in order to facilitate an individual's survival and adaptation to particular social conditions. Also, the title of early social pedagogue was given to Theophilos Kairis (1784-1853), who -through the establishment of an orphanage for the protection and education of poor and orphan children in liberation struggle, as well as teaching children "art of life"- helped to treat a strong social and educational issue of his time. Moreover, his sister Evanthia Kairi (1799-1866) showed an indisputable socio-pedagogical activity, highlighting the necessity of girls and women's education as the purpose of her life (Mylonakou-Keke, 2003).

Finally, the work of George Cleovoulos, 'Philippoupoliti' (1785-1828), was characterized by elements of early socio-pedagogical intervention, thanks to his ethos, his modesty and his constant social contribution to the formation of the idea of education for all children, mainly poor and orphan. He founded in 1819 the first institution for the training of Greek schoolteachers implementing the peer tutoring or "monitorial method", which it discovers during his studies in Switzerland, when he focuses his interest on Pestalozzi's ideas (Perselis, 2011). In 1865, People's University of the Society of Friends' People headed by Alexander Soutsos was founded. Its purpose was to provide free scientific and technical knowledge to those who did not have access to education and, mainly, to higher education (Pyrgiotakis, 2009).

Key representatives in Europe of 20th century

Social Pedagogy in Germany

At the beginning of 20th century, interest and dialogue on the concept of community and society began to grow in Germany. In the writings of Ferdinand Tönnies (1855-1936) it is found that community is defined as the way of individuals' coexistence, while he perceives society as a situation, a human construct. In a more simplified approach, community means the family or the neighborhood, while society means a city or state (Bond, 2011). With this reasoning, Paul Natorp (1854-1924), who is considered as one of the founders and formers of Social Pedagogy in Germany, argued that individuals become acquainted and integrated within the community, pointing to the lasting relationship of interaction between the individual and the community. At the same, he emphasizes that community members' educational level influences its function and also its members' educational level is shaped by the community itself. In this way, the idea of national

education for all social classes is emerging, which will be Social Pedagogy's primary objective (Eichsteller & Holthoff, 2012).

After First World War, the Socio-Pedagogical Movement is organized in Germany, aiming at protecting all children through socio-pedagogical interventions, setting the foundation for creating a socio-pedagogical theory (Sharp, 2017). Gertrud Baumer (1873-1954) and Herman Nohl (1879-1960) were the main representatives of the socio-pedagogical Movement. Gertrud Baumer, with Helen Lange (1848-1930) and Alice Salomon (1872-1948), also played a leading role in Women's Movement, whose work influenced the formation of Social Pedagogy, especially in relation to women's education and the development of the term 'social care' (Kuhlmann, 2008). Gertrud Baumer's work was distinguished by the idea that Social Pedagogy along with family and school are complementary and interacting institutions for child education. In fact, he advocated that Social Pedagogy should be perceived as social education, which should be granted by the state to all citizens in order to cultivate and improve their educational level (Sharp, 2017). Also, Herman Nohl supported the same idea. He is considered one of the founders of Social Pedagogy and the initiators of its implementation in practice, emphasizing on the prevention of socio-pedagogical problems and not their "treatment" and on Social Education's humanitarian orientation and the importance of relationship between pedagogue and educator (Eichsteller & Holthoff, 2011).

It is worth mentioning the work of Kurt Lewin (1890-1947), who contributed to the importance placed upon the interdependence and coexistence of theory and practice. He argued that there is nothing as practical as a good theory, setting the foundation for creating a methodological tool for the research approach of social issues, action research. Social Sciences, and particularly Social Psychology and Social Pedagogy through Kurt Lewin's work, have gained an 'ally' in highlighting the importance of groups' effective action in order to improve the social situations in which individuals themselves live on (Billig, 2015).

Finally, Klaus Mollenhauer (1928-1998), Hans Thiersch (1935- ...) and Hansjosef Buchkremer (1940- ...) are founders of modern Social Pedagogy in Germany. The origin of Social Pedagogy, the conceptualization of its term and its function, have taken a keen interest in Klaus Mollenhauer, who categorized its development into three stages. At the beginning of the industrial revolution (before the 19th century), with its impact on people's social and economic life, the first socio-pedagogical institutions were

founded, mainly aiming at smoothing-out the social integration of orphans and young people who needed "reform". The second stage is placed during 19th century, when children and young people's poverty and deprivation were on the rise. Family and society in general seemed weak to meet their needs due to new labor, economic and social conditions. And, it is, at this point that Social Pedagogy's establishment has been identified, since it was asked to propose solutions and to play a decisive role in dealing with them. The third stage of Social Pedagogy's development is noted in the 20th century, theoretically with the development of different social pedagogy considerations, as well as in practice, where legislation for children's education, protection and dignified living contributed to socio-pedagogical institutions' role and action. Klaus Mullenhauer contributed with his work to distinguishing Social Pedagogy from School Education, pointing out that Social Pedagogy's main features are its association with a social problem that will serve as a springboard for its intervention, since its object is not knowledge transfer as it takes place within school context, but a multidimensional pedagogical process throughout an individual's life with the aim of improving him/her and improving his/her living conditions (Sandermann & Neumann, 2014).

Then, Professor of Social Pedagogy at the University of Tuebingen Hans Thiersch, having diverted his attention to the content and mission of Social Pedagogy, proposed a model of preventive / interventional Social Pedagogy, which emphasizes on its role with regard to engraving policies on education, family, work and social policy in general. It is a Social Pedagogy that is identical to social work that its workers should be distinguished from flexibility, adaptability, self-control and critical reflection (Kraimer & Altmeyer, 2016).

Completing our periodic review of Social Pedagogy's development in Germany, a brief reference is done to Hansjosef Buchkremer's work, who is considered to be one of the founders of modern Social Pedagogy and his work is characterized complete and realistic. Key points of his work are the approach of Social Pedagogy as the fullest theoretical scheme for the development and preservation of culture's ethical dimension due to globalization and for the creation of a single curriculum that concerns an individual's whole lifetime. He also highlights Social Pedagogy's multiple roles, i.e. its preventative role in avoiding early learning mistakes, its mediating role between the citizen experiencing a difficult social situation and institutions that can help overcome it, its "firefighting" role, i.e. its immediate and timely intervention in people's problems, but also its

tortuous role, in order to awaken the involved people in relation to the issues that need to be addressed immediately in a given space-time frame. Finally, Hansjosef Buchkremer emphasizes on Social Pedagogy's role in playing an effective role in achieving its goals (Buchkremer, 2009).

In modern Germany's pedagogical thinking, Social Pedagogy focuses its interest upon all people throughout their lives. For this reason, "Gerandagogiki" is one of the disciplines that has been developing in recent years. It focuses on the development of socio-pedagogical intervention programs for the elderly people aiming at preserving their physical and mental performance and their psychological completeness and autonomous, dignified living and active participation in social life (Hinze, 2002).

Social Pedagogy in the broader area of Europe

Social Pedagogy in Italy

Focusing our attention on social pedagogy's development in the 20th century, in the broader area of Europe, it is worth mentioning the work of Maria Montessori (1870-1952), in Italy, whose socio-pedagogical intervention is characterized by the creation of a model, derived from the philosophical stance of Rousseau, Pestalozzi and Fröbel, as described by Houssaye (2000). Montessori advocated upon the idea that respecting the child's freedom and nature and creating the right environment for the child to express himself/herself can help the child to achieve the ultimate goal which is in line with what the global society expects from the child anyway. More specifically, she supported that the child should be encouraged to experiment, to act independently, to develop self-control thus achieving the ultimate goal of the global society within which the child lives and evolves which is characterized by respect, justice and peace (Standing, 1998).

In Italy, Lorenzo Milani (1923-1967) and Danilo Dolci (1924-1997) were well-known thinkers about their socio-pedagogical action. Lorenzo Milani's name was "red priest", because as a priest he fought for the economically and socially weak people of his parish, and he was the creator of the first "class" schools, that is, the schools only for the poor. These schools were the result of his view that all children and young people should be aware that school is their salvation, regardless of their socio-economic situation. Even though there was a reaction to the beliefs of that era, concerning the "social class schools", Milani's stance, influenced the events which took place in tertiary education (Mayo, 2015).

Danilo Dolci, known as "Ghandi of Sicily", devoted all his life to the development of degraded Sicily, mainly in the 1950s and 1960s. He advocated local communities' education with the aim of resolving their socio-economic problems without the use of force and their members' education, emphasizing on creativity and strengthening cooperation and relationships between children, parents and teachers. He is considered to be one of the most renowned social educators with collaborations with world intellectuals (Bess, 1993), such as the American Professor of Linguistics, intellectual, political activist, Noam Chomsky, the initiator of "Genetic-Transformational Grammar" (Chomsky, 1968), Brazilian social pedagogue Paulo Freire, who in 1972 wrote the most widespread work "Pedagogy of the Oppressed" (Freire, 1972).

Social Pedagogy in France

France is another European country that has contributed to Social Pedagogy's development. Its basic consideration is that through the educational process young learners and teenage students are able to judge or become capable of judging, comparing and finally acquiring the concept of being a citizen.

Thinkers such as Pierre Bourdieu (1930-2002), Jean-Claude Passeron (1930- ...), Edgar Morin (1921- ...), as well as members of the Non-Governmental, Non-Profit Organization "Group of Pedagogy and Social Animation" (Group de Pedagogie et d' Animation Sociale/ GPAS /Group of Pedagogy and Social Animation) identify the relevant perceptions in this country (Mylonakou-Keke, 2003).

In particular, sociologists Pierre Bourdieu and Jean-Claude Passeron argued that school not only gives degrees, but also plans 'routes' for thought, as cognitive and linguistic dominant models define a region of "avenues, compulsory turns and dead ends". School is a socializing institution. But the question is how it is done, since it is not a static institution. However, schools shape children's development. Bourdieu and Passeron refer to osmotic learning, meaning that everything that children learn from their families, due to their daily contact with their parents' culture, as well as their contact with this culture's objects, such as the way of speaking, the use of leisure time, books, music, etc., all contribute to children's education. However, school can methodically "neutralize" the action of cultural inequality social factors and help children from less privileged socio-economic backgrounds in their social development

(Passeron & Bourdieu, 1964). Bourdieu in his work *"Raisons Pratiques. Sur la théorie de l' action"* (1994) argues that education should be considered a lifelong task, the development of general forms of thought should be strengthened, the curriculum of each subject should be replaced by a global interdisciplinary curriculum, a flexible timetable should be implemented, the use of a variety of aids should be achieved and group emulation should be enhanced in order to develop a sense of belonging. The philosopher, sociologist, author, Edgar Morin in his work *"Seven Necessary Knowledge in Future Education"* (1999), advocates that education should highlight the view that there is no knowledge that is not endangered by illusion and/or error. Also, knowledge should perceive its objects within their framework, holistically and not fragmented, such as the teaching of human being, which at the same time is a biological, cultural, psychic, social, natural, historical being. So, its educational approach should not be fragmented. Furthermore, Morin argued that strategic principles should be adopted which will be capable of dealing with unforeseen circumstances, the random and the uncertain, as well as teaching principles which introduce the concept of mutual understanding, with a view to improving human relations. From pedagogical thinking in modern France it appears that Social Pedagogy is approached as a functional "educational intermediary" between school and social reality.

Social Pedagogy in the United Kingdom

Social Education in the United Kingdom is distinguished by a clear orientation towards Social Work, with a long tradition during the last two centuries. In the past decade, there was a debate on the conceptual approach of the term and the content of Social Pedagogy began to emerge, as well as a wide field of development is identified (Vitler, 2002 ; Paget, Eagle, Citarella, 2007).

There are initiatives, such as the reformist Anthony Ashley Cooper (1801-1885), whose name was associated with the creation of "ragged schools" with the aim of improving the education of working class children and coping with child labor. Also, the military Robert Baden-Powell (1857-1941), founder of the World Scout Movement, was fond of Maria Montessori's pedagogical views on imagination development, strengthening young people's autonomy and responsibility through common living (Finlayson, 1994). Finally, innovator pedagogue Josephine Macalister-Brew (1904-1957), who instigated the concept of the informal education, published her homonymous work (Smith, 2001). All these initiatives

highlight this country's long tradition in performing socio-pedagogical actions that became apparent through social work's practices and purposes.

Social Pedagogy's development in this country is focused on care, protection and education of children who lack family environment, strengthening all forms of family organization in cooperation with the school units attended by children, all children's holistic development and social well-being and by extension social pedagogues' education in this direction, enhancing relevant educational and social policy measures, as well as relevant methodological proposals. Also, Social Pedagogy's recognition as a cognitive academic subject is bounded in this direction through University Institutes and Research Centers action, such as the Institute of Education of London University, Thomas Coram Research Unit of Social Pedagogy Organization, ThemPra Social Pedagogy, whose name comes from the phrase "Theory meets Practice" (Eichsteller & Holthoff, 2012).

Social Pedagogy in Scandinavian countries

In Scandinavian countries, Social Pedagogy has a recognized and strong tradition, both at academic and professional level, as well as in the design, implementation and institutionalization of socio-pedagogical policies (Bernard, 2010). Its basic principles are based on the combination of theory and practice, with emphasis on the development of issues relevant to individual's full and lasting development throughout his/her life, his/her education in co-operation with the family, his/her culture aimed at emancipation, management and treatment of psychosocial phenomena, such as intimidation, violence, social exclusion, marginalization, social inclusion (Hämäläinen, 2012).

Social Pedagogy in Russia

Russia has an important tradition in Social Pedagogy. Since the early 20th century, there has been as an autonomous scientific subject in many Universities in the country, resulting in the institutionalized professional identity of social pedagogue (Mylonakou-Keke, 2013). The social pedagogue and author, Anton Semenovitch Makarenko (1888-1939), is considered to be its founder when, during the 1920-30s, he implemented a program to counter childhood delinquency. His work is distinguished by a series of principles, such as each child capabilities' empowerment, the positive contribution of parental involvement in educational practice, Pedagogy's connection to social progress, highlighting the importance of acquiring ethos

and professionalism from the part of the teachers (Filonov, 2000). In contemporary Russia, Social Pedagogy is approached as an interdisciplinary field of interaction between the disciplines of Pedagogy, Sociology, Psychology, Philosophy, Anthropology and Social Work, with the ultimate objective of strengthening people's personal capacities in a context of social development and progress.

Theoretical, methodological and epistemological dimensions of Social Pedagogy

In contemporary pedagogical thinking, Social Pedagogy is accepted as equal to General Pedagogy, having all individual's education as a special field of study, without any distinction, also outside the educational system, throughout their lifetime and with the stable and lasting cooperation between family, school and community (Mylonakou-Keke, 2009).

Social Pedagogy has a course of 172 years as a scientific discipline. It is linked to the effort to solve various social and political problems and it is based on the interdisciplinary nature of various scientific fields. (Mylonakou-Keke, 2016). There is no commonly accepted definition of Social Pedagogy due to the rapid change and range of aims and contents of the specific scientific field that attempts to respond to various social and cultural needs and imperatives, bridging the formal with non-formal education, school education with adult education, emphasizing on its social and sociological aspects and approaches. Connection between theory and practice, emphasis on problem solving, holistic approach and view, its interdisciplinary character, its preventive and interventional nature, the need for a collective-collaborative and community approach are its main features (Mylonakou-Keke, 2016, p. 219)

Social pedagogy theories developed in conjunction with Pedagogy, Psychology, Social Work theory, Sociology and Social Adult Education theories. Until today, Social Pedagogy's identity is determined by diversity in the issues with which it is concerned: childhood, youth, social and family care and elderly care, delinquent behavior, crime, drugs, children's rights. Diversity is also seen in application fields: schools, workplace and entertainment-cultural context. Also, while in the past the tendency was to emphasize on the individual, education and work are now oriented across the family and the social network. Today, work is oriented to the more

marginalized, irrespective of age and problem, to the defense of children's rights (Karakatsani, Pliogou, 2016), while theoretical and practical tools are combined.

In the scientific field of Social Pedagogy, we distinguish two main analysis and research issues: at first the way in which upbringing and education can be prerequisites for a functional social life and on the other hand the issue of social prerequisites in combination with educational processes (Hornstein, 1995, p. 17). In the question "how sociology and pedagogy interact and shape the more specific, that is social pedagogy", Mollenhauer describes the theoretical frameworks of social pedagogical research and practice and links them to intergenerational relations and regularity, poverty and interculturalism.

According to Eriksson (2010), social pedagogy analysis can be done on two axes: the first is a more general-catholic, according to which there are different kinds of concept analysis and it has regulatory character. It is a theoretical discourse and the development of concepts as tools for Social Pedagogy analysis. Analyses at this theoretical level can be done in three levels: micro-, medium- and macro-level. At macro level, there are theories about state providence. At medium level, theories refer to multicultural society or social planning. At micro-level, theories are related to language, communication and social psychology. Also, practice and implementation are of interest, since social pedagogy is related to purpose, attitude, method, tools in various social works.

In the context of traditions that arose, there was a concern about individual's well-being or happiness and what could be described as a holistic and educational approach. This includes interest about social groups and working style.

Some of the professionals interpret this process as "community education", while others attribute to it more social terms in conjunction with care. There are three main pillars or traditions in this field:

- *The nature of human being and, in particular, the extent to which individuals can be fully developed as part of society.* Within this tradition of social pedagogy, emphasis is placed on social inclusion and socialization. This tradition has been described as "Continental Tradition" by Eriksson and Markström (2003).

- *Social conditions and social problems.* This tradition of social pedagogy has been expressed in the work of university and social groups in Britain and North America and has been linked to the development of social work. Eriksson and Markström (2003) characterize this trend as "American tradition". This element of tradition emphasizes on collaboration with individuals, problem-solving and care provision.

- *Pedagogy* - this tradition of social pedagogy has its roots in the work of educational thinkers and philosophers such as Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi and John Dewey. More recently, Paulo Freire has been particularly influential. The subtitle of a book published by Claire Cameron and Peter Moss is indicative " *Social Pedagogy and Working with Children and Young People: Where care and education meet* " (2011).

Analysis shows that building a social pedagogical theory usually deals with the tension between an individual's autonomy and modern society demands in the process of socialization, and that social pedagogical theory is often applied to alleviate social suffering through education. Social pedagogy is considered a science (research and theory field), a scientific professional system of practices (professional practice) and a system of corresponding professional education (discipline).

The whole analysis focuses on the following considerations and approaches. Social Pedagogy is related to:

- An academic discipline - a reflection, whose feature is the heterogeneous model.
- Pedagogy, thinking from practice and for practice, which can be developed towards an action oriented socio-pedagogical model.

Social pedagogy is perceived as a view on socio-pedagogical intervention itself. On the one hand, it is a socio-pedagogical meta-theory, and on the other hand it approaches it as all the factors that contribute to an overall analysis of social action, which is perceived as the creation of a symbolic institution (Castoriadis 1975).

We also distinguish some of the main axes on which the concept of Social Pedagogy is articulated:

- The concept of the other and the individual's multidimensional approach to social context.

- The subject of social action, socio-pedagogical aspect, the importance of its evaluation aspects and the active subject.
- An analysis of socio-pedagogy phenomenon by meeting here H. Radlińska's notion, the famous Polish inventor of the notion, who refers to the concept of work for society, social support and support, the evaluation of action research and the learning process (research action -participation).
- An analysis of learning possibilities and perspectives for action in/through and for communities up to selection skills acquisition of perspectives and action possibilities.
- An analysis of solutions except for traditional areas of social pedagogy and their implementation, with the aim of modifying and improving social action and practice, for example institutional pedagogues.

Social Pedagogy is based on the belief that the social conditions can be influenced and changed through education. We must also underline that social pedagogy is based on humanistic values and defends a complex and holistic approach to education and care in the name of human rights.

References

- Bernard, R. (2010) *Social Pedagogy in a Professional Norwegian Child Welfare Context*. Retrieved from: <https://oda.hioa.no/en/social-pedagogy-in-a-professional-norwegian-child-welfare-context/asset/dspace:1921/519689.pdf> (Last access: 1/8/2017).
- Bess, M. (1993) *Realism, Utopia, and the Mushroom cloud: Four Activist Intellectuals and their Strategies for Peace, 1945-1989*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Billig, M. (2015) Kurt Lewin's leadership studies and his legacy to social psychology: is there nothing as practical as a good theory? *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour*, 45 (4), 440-460. Retrieved from: <https://dspace.lboro.ac.uk/dspace-jspui/bitstream/2134/16182/4/Lewin%20revised.pdf> (Last access: 28/7/2017).
- Bond, N. (2011) Ferdinand Tönnies's Romanticism. *The European Legacy*, 16 (4), 487-504.
- Bourdieu, P. (1994) *Raisons Pratiques. Sur la Theorie de l' Action*. Paris: Seuil.
- Buchkremer, Hj. (2009) (hrsg) *Handbuch Sozialpädagogik*. Darmstadt: Buchgesellschaft Publications.

- Cameron, C. & Moss, P. (2011) (eds.) *Social Pedagogy and Working with Children and Young People. Where care and education meet*. London: Jessica Kingsley Publishers.
- Castoriadis, C. (1975) *L'Institution Imaginaire de la Société*. Paris. Edition du Seuil.
- Chomsky, N. (1968) [2006] *Language and Mind* (3rd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Retrieved from: <http://www.ugr.es/~fmanjon/Language%20and%20Mind.pdf> (Last access: 28/7/2017).
- Eichsteller, G. & Holthoff, S. (2011) Conceptual foundations of Social Pedagogy: a transnational perspective from Germany. In: C. Cameron & P. Moss (eds.), *Social Pedagogy and Working with Children and Young People. Where Care and Education Meet* (pp. 33-52). London and Philadelphia: Jessica Kingsley Publishers.
- Eichsteller, G. & Holthoff, S. (2012) Key Pedagogic Thinkers. Paul Natorp (1854-1924). *Journal of Pedagogic Development*, 3 (2). Retrieved from: <https://journals.beds.ac.uk/ojs/index.php/jpd/article/viewFile/184/277> (Last access: 28/7/2017).
- Eriksson, L. (2010) Community development and social pedagogy: traditions for understanding mobilization for collective self-development. In: *Community Development Journal Advance Access published February 18, 2010*, pp. 1-18.
- Eriksson, L. & Markström, A.M. (2003) Interpreting the concept of social pedagogy. In: Gustavsson, A., Hermansson, H. & Hämäläinen, J. (eds) *Perspectives and Theory in Social Pedagogy* (pp. 9-22). Goteborg: Bokförlaget Daidalos A.B.
- Filonov, G.N. (2000) *Anton Makarenko (1888-1939)*. UNESCO: International Bureau of Education, 1-9. Retrieved from: http://www.ibe.unesco.org/fileadmin/user_upload/archive/Publications/thinkerspdf/makarene.pdf (Last access: 1/8/2017).
- Finlayson, G.B.A.M (1994) *Citizen, State, and Social Welfare in Britain 1830-1990*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Freire, P. (1972) *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*. England: Penguin Books.
- Hämäläinen, J. (2012) Social pedagogy in Finland. *Kriminologija i Socijalna Integracija*, 20(1), 1-132.
- Hinze, U. (2002) *Reflexive Gerontagogik*. Norderstedt: BoD.
- Hornstein, W. (1995) Zur disziplinären Identität der Sozialpädagogik. In: Sünker, H. (ed). *Theorie, Politik und Praxis Sozialer Arbeit* (pp. 12-31). Bielefeld: Kleine Verlag.
- Houssaye, J. (ed.) (2000) *Fifteen Pedagogues: Landmarks in the History of Pedagogic Thought* (trans. D. Karakatsani). Athens: Metechmio. [In Greek]

- Kanavakis, M. (2002) *Social Pedagogy. Content and Historical Evolution*. Athens: Papazisis. [In Greek]
- Karakatsani, D. & Pliogou, V. (2016) Analysis of Childhood and the perspectives of the protection of Children's Rights. The case of the Polish Pedagogue Janusz Korczak. In V. Baros, M. Dimasi, Th. Gamprani & Gr.-K. Konstantinidou (eds.). *Childhood and Immigration. Challenges for the Pedagogy of* heterogeneity-Honorable Volume for the Professor Spyros Pantazis (pp. 101-118). Athens: Diadrasi. [In Greek]
- Kraimer, K. & Altmeyer, L. (2016) The Relationship Between Social Work and Social Pedagogy – Similarities in Theory and Profession from a German Perspective. *Sociální pedagogika / Social Education*, 4 (1), 25–37. Retrieved from: <http://soced.cz/wp-content/uploads/2016/04/Article-SocEd-The-relationship-btw-social-work-and-social-pedagogy.pdf> (Last access: 30/7/2017).
- Kron, F., W. (2012) *Basic Knowledge in the Science of Pedagogy* (ed. & pref. A. Sofos, trans. P. Psallida). Athens: Ion. [In Greek]
- Kuhlmann, C. (2008) Alice Salomon (Germany), President 1928/29-1946. *Social Work and Society. International Online Journal*, 6 (1). Retrieved from: <http://www.socwork.net/sws/article/view/99/388> (Last access: 29/7/2017).
- Lane, A.- Th. (1995) (ed.) *Biographical Dictionary of European Labor Leaders*. USA: Greenwood Press.
- Mayo, P. (2015) Italian signposts for a sociologically and critically engaged pedagogy. Don Lorenzo Milani (1923-1967) and the schools of San Donato and Barbiana revisited. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 36(6), 853–870.
- Mollenhauer, K. (1978) 'Zur Funktionsbestimmung der Sozialpädagogik' in Wollenweber, H.(ed.) *Sozialpädagogik in Wissenschaft und Unterricht*, Paderborn, Schöningh, pp. 49–52.
- Morin, E. (1999) *Les Sept Savoirs Necessaires a l' Education du Futur*. Paris: Editions UNESCO.
- Mylonakou-Keke, I. (2003) *Issues of Social Pedagogy*. Athens: Atrapos. [In Greek]
- Mylonakou-Keke, I. (2009) *Cooperation among School, Family and Community*. Athens: Papazisis. [In Greek]
- Mylonakou-Keke, I. (2013) *Social Pedagogy. Theoretical, Epistemological and Methodological Dimensions*. Athens: Diadrasi. [In Greek]
- Mylonakou-Keke, I. (2016) *The epistemological character of Social Pedagogy*. In V. Baros, M. Dimasi, Th. Gamprani & Gr.-K. Konstantinidou (eds.). *Childhood and Immigration. Challenges for the Pedagogy of*

- heterogeneity-Honorable Volume for the Professor Spyros Pantazis (pp. 215-250). Athens: Diadrasi. [In Greek]
- Paget, B., Eagle, G., Citarella, V. (2007) *Social Pedagogy and the Young People's Workforce*. A report for the Department for Children, School and Families.
- Retrieved from:
<https://library.lowestoft.ac.uk/HeritageScripts/Hapi.dll/filetransfer/social%20pedagogy%20and%20the%20young%20persons%20workforce%20-%20dcsf.pdf?CookieCheck=42949.3574073843&filename=D331DC1CAACC9280B02A8E8AEB216795203C0F790A7ED18C34301A958D7798784A05552131915E158CC898448760B05A18BBC34E19227E89BBD1503373D438373FD32EB214099730E14BFF9D5086F467FF6C611DA24676B6F2752A2367B6AAA88DD5DA78E90176E02CE62F8258CEA9065B2206C1F6AC1806C62686791A1BB6DA96B49F510F&DataSetName=HERITAGE> (Last access: 31/7/2017).
- Passeron, J.-C. & Bourdieu, P. (1964) *Les Héritiers: Les Etudiants et la Culture*. Paris: Les Editions de Minuit.
- Perselis, E. (2011) *Authority and Religious Education in Greece in 19th century. Historical and Pedagogical Approach of the Role of Church, State and Intellect for the formation of the School Religious Education*. Athens: Grigori. [In Greek]
- Pyrgiotakis, I. (2009) *Introduction to Pedagogical Science*. Athens: Ellinika Grammata. [In Greek]
- Radlińska, H. (1935) Stosunek wychowawcy do środowiska społecznego. Szkice z pedagogiki społecznej [The attitude of an educator to the milieu societal. Sketches of social pedagogy]. Warszawa: Nasza Księgarnia.
- Reble, A. (1992) *History of Pedagogy* (trans. Th. Chatzistefanidis, S. Chatzistefanidi-Polyzoi). Athens: Papadima. [In Greek]
- Sandermann, P. & Neumann, S. (2014) On Multifaceted Commonality: Theories of Social Pedagogy in Germany. *International Journal of Social Pedagogy*, 3(1), 15-29. Retrieved from: <http://www.internationaljournalofsocialpedagogy.com> (Last access: 31/7/2017).
- Schambach, S. (2008) *Johann Hinrich Wichern*. Hamburg: Ellert & Richter.
- Sharp, I. (2017) An unbroken family? Gertrud Bäumer and the German Women's Movement's Return to International Work in the 1920s. *Women's History Review*, 26(2), 245-261.
- Smith, M. K. (2001) *Josephine Macalister Brew and Informal Education*. Retrieved from: <http://infed.org/mobi/josephine-macalister-brew-and-informal-education> (Last access: 1/8/2017).

- Standing, E. M. (1998) *Maria Montessori: Her Life and Work*. New York: DuttonPlume, Villa, R.A., & Thousand.
- Vitler, K. (2002) *Social Pedagogy – What's in it for us?* Retrieved from: www.childrenuk.co.uk/chjul2002/chjul2002/social%20ped.html (Last access: 1/8/2017).

INTEGRATION OF UKRAINE INTO THE EUROPEAN ACADEMIC MOBILITY NETWORK

The ongoing process of the European integration deepening and its functional expansion into the new and more profound spheres of cooperation with the gradual involvement of the ever-increasing intensity and complexity of forms of supranational governance does not overlook the issue of education and is intended to contribute to the formation of the European educational area involving both the EU Member States and its Neighbours.

Recognizing the importance of the educational component for the harmonious development of the EU and enhancing its competitiveness, the EU member states pay attention to this area in the framework of supranational institutions and try to carry out joint activities. At the same time, they increasingly talk about the need to respect and develop the common principles of the EU's educational policy, which include: freedom of movement of knowledge; Mobility of students and teachers; Multilingualism; Autonomy of the university; Education focused on learning outcomes; Quality assurance in higher education; The principle of offsetting loans; The only structure of educational degrees (qualifications); Lifelong learning; Tricycle education; The principle of the knowledge triangle; The principle of freedom of learning and teaching.

The goal of education in the European context is to promote the development of a civic consciousness based on values such as solidarity, democracy, equality and mutual respect. Important elements of education are respect for cultural and ethnic identity. That is why the basic element of educational policy is the study of foreign languages and the acquisition of knowledge about other countries. Particular attention should be paid to the transnational cooperation between individual education systems.

The importance of studying the EU education policy is also conditioned by the immediate neighbourhood of Ukraine and the EU and the growing interest of Ukrainian society in the opportunities and prospects of Ukraine's European integration aspirations at the present stage and the usage of positive dynamics of cooperation in the educational sphere and the prospects for introducing the Bologna process in Ukraine. The latest enlargement of the EU has created a fundamentally new situation on the European continent and has brought the EU borders closer to the borders of Ukraine, which affects both the relations between Ukraine and the EU and the development of Ukraine as a whole (Крайєвська, 2011).

The purpose of this article is a comprehensive study of the peculiarities of Ukraine's integration into the European academic mobility network in the context of the formation and implementation of the educational policy of the EU and Ukraine in the framework of the Association Agreement, as well as the implementation of the basic principles of the Bologna process.

The peculiarities of the formation and implementation of EU educational policy are mainly studied in the context of the Bologna process. However, it is also necessary to study the institutional and legal mechanisms for regulations of the the EU's educational policy and cooperation with Ukraine based on the general principles of the formation of the EU common policies. Such authors as: Andrushchenko V. (2010), Vilchinska N. (2011), Kovalchuk O.S. (2013), Kolesnik V. Yu. (2014), Ognevjuk V. O. (2010), Semenchenko O. (2012) contributed to the development of the declared theme and complements the scientific researches in this sphere.

The important sources of information for the analysis of the EU's educational policy and cooperation with Ukraine are the EU and Ukraine's regulatory documents on educational policy and activities of EU institutions in this sphere, the EU-Ukraine Association Agreement and analytical articles and official information of the Delegation of the European Union to Ukraine, National Erasmus+ Office in Ukraine.

The main trend of the modern development of the state governance of Ukraine is the strengthening of the influence of its democratic component, the importance of social institutions and the civil society itself. Undoubtedly, the modernization of the social-power relations of Ukrainian society requires the effectiveness of the social sphere, in particular, the effective use of human potential, the high level of professional knowledge and skills of specialists, and their readiness for socio-technological changes (*Аналіз освітньої політики*, 2014).

The European integration strategy of Ukraine envisages, in particular, the reform of the education system, which is a prerequisite for the emergence in our country of highly qualified specialists who are ready to find answers to current challenges of the present. In turn, the study of the positive and negative experience of states that are already members of the European Union would more effectively realize the European integration aspirations of Ukrainian society (Булик, 2012).

The development of education in Ukraine must be carried out in the direction of the model of the new century, taking into account both the national traditions of culture and education, as well as the current positive world trends in the development of education. The state's priority to education, its full-fledged budget support must meet the real needs of the present and

future Ukraine. It is the purposeful state educational policy that can contribute to the growth of the well-being of every citizen and the competitiveness of the entire country. Society needs to consider education as national wealth, to enter it in the list of basic priorities, objects of priority support. For the formation and implementation of state educational policy, it is also necessary to formulate the principles and basic provisions on which the state policy in the sphere of education is based, its directions and the whole (*Проблеми та перспективи входження України в європейський інтелектуальний простір: освітні аспекти, 2009*).

Ukraine is now in a condition of the transformation of all spheres of society, which are taking place in the context of globalization. This, in particular, caused the need to standardize the provision of services. Education is also undergoing change, especially through the development of global information networks and the deepening of the technology of all production processes. Education of Ukraine is influenced by many factors, it is deeply transformed. Keeping its assets, it now forms in the world of educational space, which requires some degree of unification with the educational systems of different countries (*Аналіз освітньої політики, 2014*).

This leads to the emergence of a number of topical issues that require urgent solutions. For example, the Ukrainian education system needs to create its own educational standards for different categories of management and teaching staff. The requirements of modern society to the teacher provide in the process of its preparation of the application of the competence approach. Currently, a competent person must necessarily act in the information space, so the proper functioning of the media is a guarantee of successful teacher training. The problem of mastering pedagogical technologies is not the last place in the preparation of managerial and pedagogical staff (*Аналіз освітньої політики, 2014*).

The importance of forming a state strategy in the sphere of education is also of great significance in Ukraine (*Проблеми та перспективи входження України в європейський інтелектуальний простір: освітні аспекти, 2009*). The development of education in our state should not be considered only from the needs of the modern transforming society. Reformation needs should be made in the direction of a new century model, taking into account both the national traditions of culture and education, and the current positive world trends in the development of education. The state's priority to education, its full-fledged budget support must meet the real needs of the present and future Ukraine. It is the purposeful state educational policy that can contribute to the growth of the well-being of every citizen and the competitiveness of the entire country. State education policy will only be effective if it is developed and implemented in a unity with the country's active innovation policy. Higher education should actively participate in the creation of a

competitive infrastructure - technology parks, innovation centres, etc. (Краєвська, 2011).

Society should consider education as a national wealth, enter it in the list of main priorities, objects of priority support, etc. For the formation and implementation of state educational policy, it is also necessary to formulate principles that would have clearly articulated the main provisions on which the state policy in the sphere of education is based, its ideals and goals.

Within the framework of the EU educational policy and external assistance programs, the European Commission implements a series of educational activities that complement the EU's internal programs. Particular attention is paid to the higher education system, which plays a key role in the development of modern society, contributing to social, cultural and economic development, the promotion of pan-European ethical and cultural values, and the training of future leaders. The European Commission is implementing a number of international cooperation programs in the sphere of higher education (*Освітні програми Європейської Комісії*).

The educational programs financed by the EU budget aim to provide support to partner countries in reforming the system of higher education in accordance with the principles of the Bologna Process. Ukraine was and is an active participant in these processes. In May 2005, Ukraine signed the Bologna Declaration. Ukraine is also an active participant in the European educational programs and projects, among them Tempus, Erasmus Mundus and Jean Monet Program (*Україна в Європейських освітніх програмах*).

Since 2014, the EU has introduced new education and science programs - the Erasmus + education program, which brings together all of the above-mentioned programs under one roof for the period 2014-2020 and supports projects, partnerships, measures and mobility in the field education, training, youth and sport, as well as the Horizons 2020 research program. Ukraine is a partner country of the Erasmus+ program and has the opportunity to participate in competitions open to all partner countries within the framework of the International Program Dimension (Краєвська, 2014).

Erasmus+ covers education, youth policy and sports. Erasmus+ in higher education (within the framework of the international dimension of the program):

- Training mobility of university staff and students on the basis of bilateral cooperation (international credit mobility projects – ICM – Erasmus+ KA1);
- implementation of joint master's programs and obtaining individual scholarships (graduate mobility)

- development of the capacity of higher education (ex-Tempus) - reforming higher education (Erasmus+ KA2).
- Strategic partnerships
- Alliances of knowledge
- Jean Monet projects - European studies.

In all of the above directions, Ukrainian institutions can be partners, but in the directions of Jean Monnet and the Development of Higher Education Capacity as coordinators and partners (*Міністерство освіти і науки України. Міжнародне співробітництво*).

In order to increase awareness, visibility, relevance, efficiency and impact of the international components of the Erasmus+ program, the National Erasmus+ office in Ukraine was established (*National Erasmus+ Office in Ukraine*). The National Erasmus+ Office in Ukraine is a partner of the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine (MESU) and carries out the following activities:

1. Information and promotional activities
2. Assisting potential participants and beneficiaries
3. Selection, monitoring and dissemination of information on Erasmus+ and former Tempus projects
4. Supporting the activities of the National Team of Experts on Higher Education Reform

The EU-Ukraine Action Plan, which defines the program of political and economic reforms, pays much attention to the cooperation in the sphere of higher education and reform of this sector. One of the priorities of the activities defined by the EU-Ukraine Action Plan is "reforming and improving the education and training system and activities towards approximation to the EU standards and practices, as well as expanding cooperation in education, internships and youth."

The Action Plan provides for such steps by Ukraine and the European Union (*План дій "Україна–Європейський Союз"*):

- Involve representatives of interested public and social partners in the reform of the higher education and vocational education system;

- Use the existing Tempus program to explore opportunities for promoting human resources and human capital, in particular, to promote reform and the development of the system of continuing education in Ukraine;
- Create the European Studies and European Law Department through the Jean Monnet Program and support the training of young scientists;
- Launch a political dialogue between Ukraine and the EU in the sphere of education and training;
- Increase the possibility of exchange for Ukrainians through participation in the Erasmus Mundus program (Краєвська, 2011).

Education and science in the globalized world have become the determining factor in human development. Today they are a non-alternative means of national self-affirmation. Becoming a full participant in global politics, economy and culture can only be the country in which intellectual professions have become massive, and investments in human development are the most important and most effective ones. Countries that have bet on science and education have now become world leaders. For example, the growth of the UN Human Development Index for South-East Asian countries allows them to break into the sphere of high-tech; each dollar invested in education has turned into tens of dollars in GDP.

The process of the European integration can not be limited only by political and economic factors. It is intended to cover all spheres of public life: economic, political, legal, scientific, cultural and educational. In addition, it is the humanitarian development of society that is the main prerequisite and a guarantee of successful progress in this direction. Among other factors, integration in the educational sphere is one of the most important - the long-term factor of the whole process. After all, it is education that largely lays views, values, ways of perceiving and interpreting the world, and so on. Therefore, the proximity or at least the proportionality of education should become an effective stimulator of the European integration process for the long term.

The EU experience points out that the scientific and educational environment is best developed exactly where there is an innovative component. To date, the EU has succeeded in the following competitive areas: ensuring a high level of education, creating good conditions for research, cultivating a supportive space for creativity and innovation. An important condition for the economic recovery of Ukraine is the provision of financing of science, at least within the limits defined by the law on science of Ukraine at the level of 1.7% of GNP, which should become the indisputable figure of each annual budget (Краєвська, 2011).

The education in Ukraine has been intensively reformed in the years of independence, but the concept of reform does not yet have solid foundations, and the methods of implementing reforms are debatable. Risks may be related to changes in the basic principles of the functioning of the domestic education system, the possible deterioration of the quantitative or qualitative characteristics of education, its individual elements, as well as social relations related to educational activities, national interests regarding its development or social threats (*Аналіз освітньої політики, 2014*).

It is worth bearing in mind that individual risks are the result of a combination of other circumstances, in particular the acceleration of the processes of globalization or regionalization. We fully agree with the opinion of scholars and politicians that the strategic directions of state policy in the sphere of education include:

- bringing the content of education to all levels and types of education in accordance with the needs of the present time, strategic development of the state, competitiveness of the European and world standards of education and individual requirements of individual;
- modernization of profile specialization of higher education, specification of its graduates, content, forms and methods of organization of training;
- revival, further development of vocational education, modernization of its material base and strengthening the scientific-professional and production-technical level of the educational process;
- restructuring and development of postgraduate pedagogical education on the basis of a competent, systematic approach aimed at maximizing the professional qualities and personal needs of a person throughout his/her life;
- ensuring the availability of all citizens of the state to any levels and forms of education in accordance with the demand of society and personality, individualization of methods taking into account its psychophysiological properties;
- enhancement of the scientific-professional and production-technical level of the educational process;
- improvement of the quality and volume of information provision of education on the basis of modern technical means and computerization;
- promotion of the dissemination and development of scientifically grounded innovation processes in all educational institutions and spheres of educational activity: educational and managerial;

- raising the level of scientific psychological and pedagogical provision of education and its structural components;
- priority attention to the system of moral education of the individual, especially to the formation of humanistic, democratic, patriotic civil and human values;
- development of forms of public monitoring and evaluation of educational quality;
- provision of healthcare-saving educational and educational environment;
- bringing the financial, material and technical base of education and its development in line with the requirements and needs of the present;
- updating the legislative and regulatory framework of education and all its systemic structural components;
- raising the level of educational management of the official-functional competence of education managers of all levels and managerial staff (*Стратегія реформування освіти в Україні, 2003*).

Cooperation between Ukraine and the EU is governed by the provisions of the Association Agreement between Ukraine and the EU signed in 2014. There is the Chapter 23 "Education, training, and youth" of the Part 5 of the "Economic and Sectorial Cooperation" of the Association Agreement, which, together with the section on trade, is the core of the agreement. This Part contains specific measures for the harmonization of Ukrainian policies and the EU, that is, Ukraine will gradually (mainly within 1-5 years) implement European legislation (about 300 regulations, protocols and directives) and take measures to reform the practically the whole economy. There are 28 policy areas for harmonization, including research and development cooperation; education, training and youth.

The EU and Ukraine agreed that "fully respecting the responsibility of the Parties for the content of teaching and the organisation of education systems and their cultural and linguistic diversity, the Parties shall promote cooperation in the field of education, training and youth in order to enhance mutual understanding, promote intercultural dialogue and increase the knowledge of their respective cultures (Article 430 of the AA) (*EU-Ukraine Association Agreement, 2017*).

The EU and Ukraine shall undertake to intensify cooperation in the field of higher education, aiming, in particular at: (a) reforming and modernising the higher education systems; (b) promoting convergence in the field of higher education deriving from the Bologna process; (c) enhancing the quality and

relevance of higher education; (d) stepping up cooperation between higher education institutions; (e) building up the capacity of higher education institutions; (f) increasing student and teacher mobility: attention will be paid to cooperation in the field of education with a view to facilitating access to higher education (Article 431 of the AA).

The EU and Ukraine shall endeavour to increase the exchange of information and expertise, in order to encourage closer cooperation in the field of vocational education and training with a view, in particular, to: (a) developing systems of vocational education and training, and further professional training throughout the working life, in response to the needs of the changing labour market; (b) establishing a national framework to improve the transparency and recognition of qualifications and skills drawing, where possible, on the EU experience (Article 432).

The Parties shall examine the possibility of developing their cooperation in other areas, such as secondary education, distance education, and life-long learning (Article 433). The Parties agree to encourage closer cooperation and exchange of experience in the field of youth policy and non-formal education for young people, with the aim of: (a) facilitating the integration of young people into society at large by encouraging their active citizenship and spirit of initiative; (b) helping young people acquire knowledge, skills and competencies outside the educational systems, including through volunteering, and recognising the value of such experiences; (c) enhancing cooperation with third countries; (d) promoting cooperation between youth organisations in Ukraine and in the EU and its Member States; (e) promoting healthy lifestyles, with a particular focus on youth (Article 434) (*EU-Ukraine Association Agreement, 2017*).

Consequently, in the sphere of education, all the changes stipulated in the Agreement are aimed at ensuring that the Ukrainian bureaucracy, which makes demands for education, correspond to the European one. The Agreement stipulates that the system of vocational education in Ukraine should be compatible with the needs of the Ukrainian economy, as well as with the educational standards of the EU. That is, Ukraine and the EU will work to ensure that the Ukrainian vocational school does not differ from any similar educational institution of the EU by a set of subjects and specialties (*Угода про асоціацію з ЄС, 2013*).

In higher education, the parties declare continuation of cooperation within the Bologna process. The process of creating a single European educational area began in the late 1970's, but the official date for the start of the process is June 19, 1999, when the Bologna Declaration was signed. The Bologna Process was launched to improve the competitiveness of the European education, to increase the mobility of students and teachers (for example,

according to the Erasmus program, students can study 1-2 semesters in another country, and the credits (grades) received there will be recognized in "native" higher education institutions), the possibility of easier employment of graduates in accordance with the principle of free movement of labour within the EU. The universities, which joined the process, introduced a system of knowledge assessment, which made it easy to determine the level of training and graduation level (a credit-module system that allows you to immediately determine how many hours a student studied this or that subject and how intensive the task was performed, level of bachelors, masters and PhD programmes) (Краєвська, 2013).

The Bologna Process does not foresee the introduction of identical curricula in all universities of the European Higher Education Area, but make them proportional, and the educational systems of different countries or even universities are more understandable. At the same time, the Association Agreement does not mention the mutual recognition of diplomas by Ukraine and the EU. This issue is regulated by separate bilateral agreements. But in the future, in the event of successful implementation by Ukraine of the Bologna process and the recognition of qualifications, the need for nostrification of diplomas will disappear by itself (Краєвська, 2014).

The Agreement stipulates that the unification of professional experience of Ukrainian and European specialists should take place. In the EU today, this is happening on the basis of a huge complex directive that defines how different frameworks of qualifications are agreed in different countries.

The Agreement establishes a procedure for permanent dialogue and elimination of obstacles related to the recognition of qualifications and length of service necessary for the provision of certain services, through consultations in the Association Committee on Trade. It is said that when in one of the EU member states employees do not include work experience, or qualification level obtained in Ukraine, then the Ukrainian side should raise this issue, and the decision on it should be recorded in the annex to the agreement (*Угода про асоціацію з ЄС*, 2013).

In our opinion, the new education system should offer a wide range of educational activities, preparatory courses, new curricula that would be interesting not only for young people but also for adults and would be able to meet the various demands of life - such an education system should be open, gradually adapt and respond to the existing internal and interstate socio-economic relations.

Regardless of the significant impact of education on socio-economic reforms, unfortunately, it is impossible to fully guarantee what reforms can lead to the desired results and how the educational systems themselves should be

changed in order to achieve the goal of reform. It becomes obvious that for the success of reforms it is necessary to implement innovations, information and communication technologies, attract investments and evaluate the quality of education, which in generalized definition and summary presentation should be understood as a complex of characteristics of competencies and professional consciousness that reflect the ability of a specialist to carry out professional activities in accordance with requirements. The modern stage of economic development at a certain level of efficiency and professional success with an understanding of social responsibility for the results of professional activities (*Аналіз освітньої політики, 2014*).

Consequently, in addition to the European integration itself in the educational sphere, through the education system it is more possible to create awareness of the widest strata of Ukrainian citizenship of the need for the fullest possible realization of the overall strategic course of Ukraine toward the integration into European and world structures in order to protect their own national interests and realize the spiritual and intellectual potential of the Ukrainian people for the benefit of present and future generations. The development of education should become an effective stimulant of the European integration process of Ukraine for the long term.

References

- Аналіз освітньої політики (2014): теорія і практика управління на місцевому рівні: наук.посіб. / авт. кол. : В.Г. Базілюк, Т.С. Бойченко, Л.М. Забродська [та ін.]; Держ. вищ. навч.заклад «Ун-т менедж. освіти». — К. : Вид-во ДВНЗ «Ун-т менеджменту освіти» НАПНУкраїни.
- Андрущенко В. (2010). Основні характеристики європейської вищої освіти та можливості їх реалізаційв системі освіти України / В. Андрущенко // Вища освіта України. – № 4. – С.5–16.
- Вільчинська Н. (2011). Освітня політика Європейського Союзу: етапи розвитку / Н. Вільчинська // Гілея : [науковий вісник] : Збірник наукових праць / гол.ред. В. М. Вашкевич. — К. : ВІР УАН. — Випуск 54 (№ 11). — С. 473-480.
- Ковальчук О.С. (2013). Формування освітньої політики країн Євросоюзу під впливом процесів глобалізації та європеїзації // *Scientific research and their practical application. Modern state and ways of development.* – № 1-12. [Електронний ресурс]. Режим доступу : <http://www.sworld.com.ua/index.php/ru/conference/the-content-of-conferences/archives-of-individual-conferences/oct-2013>

- Колесник В. Ю. (2014). Становлення та розвиток політики Європейського Союзу у сфері освіти / В. Ю. Колесник // Вісник Чернівецького факультету Національного університету "Одеська юридична академія". - Вип. 1. - С. 232-250.
- Краєвська О. (2011). Освітня політика Європейського Союзу: становлення та механізми реалізації // Вісник Львівського університету. Серія міжнародні відносини. – вип. 28. – с. 53-66.
- Краєвська О. (2013). Стан та перспективи співробітництва України та ЄС в освітній сфері // Збірник матеріалів III щорічної міжнародної науково-практичної конференції «Європейський Союз та Україна: перспективи трансформації двосторонніх відносин» (м. Львів, 25 жовтня 2013 року).- С. 305-308 (тези)
- Краєвська О. (2014). Угода про Асоціацію між Україною та ЄС: співпраця у сфері освіти та науки / О.Краєвська // Вісник Львівського університету. Серія міжнародні відносини - Випуск 36. Част. 2 – С. 90-97.
- Міністерство освіти і науки України. Міжнародне співробітництво. Участь України у програмах ЄС:Еразмус + та Горизонт 2020 [Електронний ресурс]. – Режим доступу: <http://mon.gov.ua/activity/mizhnarodni-zvyazki/uchast-u-programah-es-erazmus-ta-gorizont-2020/erazmus.html>
- На шляху до Європейського простору вищої освіти. Доступно з <<http://www.tempus.org.ua/uk/vyshha-osvita-ta-bolonskyj-proces/informacijno-analitychni-materialy.html>>
- Огнев'юк В. О. (2010). Університетська освіта України в контексті перспектив Європейської інтеграції. // Віче. – № 20.
- Освітні програми Європейської Комісії. [Електронний ресурс]. – Режим доступу: <<http://www.eu-edu.org/ua/euedu1.html>>
- Проблеми та перспективи входу України в європейський інтелектуальний простір: освітні аспекти // Збірник науково-експертних матеріалів, Київ – 2009. [Електронний ресурс]. – Режим доступу: <http://www.niss.gov.ua/book/Osvita/index.htm>
- План дій "Україна – Європейський Союз" (2005). [Електронний ресурс]. – Режим доступу :<http://zakon1.rada.gov.ua/cgi-bin/laws/main.cgi?user=c&find=1&org=720>
- Семенченко О. (2012). Формування освітньої та наукової стратегії в контексті Європейської інтеграції України / О. Г. Семенченко // Державне управління та місцеве самоврядування. – 01/2012 . – Вип.1(12) . – С. 89-95.
- Стратегія реформування освіти в Україні (2003): Рекомендації з освітньої політики. – К.: К. І. С, 2003. – 296 с.

Угода про асоціацію з ЄС (2013): соціальна політика й освіта
(ІНФОГРАФІКА), 20/11/2013,
http://texty.org.ua/pg/article/editorial/read/49789/Ugoda_pro_asociaciju_z_JeS_socialna_polityka

Україна в Європейських освітніх програмах. [Електронний ресурс]. –
Режим доступу: <http://www.eu-edu.org/ua/euedu67.html>

EU-Ukraine Association Agreement – the complete texts - [Електронний
ресурс]. – Режим доступу: <http://ukraine-eu.mfa.gov.ua/en/page/open/id/2900>

National Erasmus+ Office in Ukraine [Електронний ресурс]. – Режим
доступу: <http://erasmusplus.org.ua/en/>

ARE YOU EATING HEALTHIER BECAUSE OF YOUR GENDER?

Introduction

WHO defines quality of life (QOL) as “individuals’ perception of their position in life in the context of the culture and value systems in which they live and in relation to their goals, expectations, standards and concerns.” (WHO, 1997). Quality of life is a comprehensive concept or definition that contains many different dimensions. It encompasses both objective factors – such as health or living conditions – and the subjective perception of each of them (Eurofound, 2012). Measuring quality of life for different countries, regions or populations is a complex and complicated task, therefore, this paper extensively focus on the health related metrics in Hungary compared with EU (28) and the other Visegrad countries (Slovakia, Czech Republic and Poland).

The research is based on the extensive literature review and Eurostat statistics. Gender differences in healthy eating and health behaviours. We thing that women take more attention to their (and their families) nourishment. They are capable to pay even more for healthy/bio ingredients, just to feel that they did everything for their health. To understand the role that health-conscious consumer behavior can play in life quality development it is essential to know the most important definitions – what the health awareness and quality of life means, what kind of health issues (most common chronic diseases) are in the public nowadays, what kind of food categories are in the population’s consumption, etc. Furthermore, the paper also focuses on the different indicators as tools for sustainable development and the consumer-focused health communication as the key of the effective life quality development.

The main objective of the paper is to provide a better understanding of life quality development related to health awareness and its measurement. Moreover, the study also offers a brief introspection into the situation of Hungary in comparison with the European Union and regionally, with the other V4 countries (Slovakia, Czech Republic and Poland).

Research methodology

The base of the study is the extensive literature review and the data analysis related to the regional quality of life. Analyzed data derive from the Eurostat database – health related quality of life metrics between 2005/2010 and 2014 were acquired and analyzed. This paper aims to examine the relevant

relationships and differences in quality of life between Hungary and the European Union or the Visegrad countries. We examined the gender differences in nourishment, eating habits, consumption habits. We compared not only the V4 countries but man and women in V4 countries.

To reach an adequate picture of quality of life, all figures of 8+1 dimensions should be analyzed, however, research data of this paper exclusively refers to the health related quality of life metrics from the mentioned time period in order to perform an appropriate comparison between countries. Quality of life was examined in case of healthy people (indicators and figures refer to healthy people) – results may be varied in case of people with chronic or other diseases.

Theoretical background

Health, health awareness and health literacy – relations and differences

The most integrated, accepted and commonly used definition of health was defined by the World Health Organization (WHO) in 1948. According to the Preamble to the Constitution of the WHO: "Health is a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity." (WHO, 1948)

It is increasingly recognized fact that health can be maintained and improved not only through the health science and different healthcare services, but also through the smart lifestyle of the individuals or society. Thus, WHO also determined the main elements of health, which include the social and economic environment, the physical environment, and the person's individual characteristics and behaviors. These determinants – that have been found to influence whether people are healthy or unhealthy – include the following key factors:

- 1) Income and social status: the greater the gap in the social status and income level, the greater the differences in health – linear relationship.
- 2) Education and literacy: low education level likely means more stressful lifestyle, poorer health and self-confidence level.
- 3) Physical environment: safe communities, infrastructure, drinkable and safe water, clean air, appropriate work environment and conditions mean better health.
- 4) Social support networks (social environment): the greater the support from family members, friends and communities, the better the health. Also culture (traditions, norms, models) can have positive or negative effect to health condition.
- 5) Genetics

6) Personal behavior and characteristics: balanced or unhealthy diet (fruit and vegetable consumption), physical activity, overweight and obesity, smoke, alcohol consumption, stressful work environment all affect health condition.

7) Health services: the accessibility of healthcare services can help preventing certain diseases, treating easily others and or avoiding different threats.

8) Gender: men and women suffer from different type of diseases at different ages.

As a result, it can be clearly seen that health awareness is influenced by not only the healthcare services and opportunities, but also the prevention of diseases and the personal behavior are essential. Health awareness or health-conscious behavior is all of the individual attitudes, behaviors and activities in order to live longer and remain healthier. To reach these targets, people:

1) keep important and enforce their health aspects during their decisions, control consciously their habits (e.g. proper nutrition, physical activity, sexual behavior, avoiding the harmful practices and habits) and thus, they are actively involved in the development of health,

2) learn basic assistance and self-help skills

3) develop and apply an informed consumer behavior in relation to the healthcare system:

a) the knowledge of the nature of the disease and possible outputs

b) the knowledge about the operation of the healthcare system

c) the knowledge of the patients' rights

d) the knowledge of health consumer protection(WHO, 2016)

When we talk about the health awareness of a certain population it is essential to mention an emerging concept called "health literacy". The term of health literacy is introduced in 1974 and it has become increasingly important in public health. According to the World Health Organization (1998), health literacy means "the cognitive and social skills which determine the motivation and ability of individuals to gain access to understand and use information in ways which promote and maintain good health". Although WHO definition determine the health literacy in an individual level, there are some authors who suggest that this term should be shifted towards in level of a society – for example Freedman et al. (2009) states that health literacy means the degree to which individuals and groups can obtain process, understand, evaluate, and act upon information needed to make public health decisions that benefit the community. Sørensen et al. (2012) made an attempt to combine the available definitions of the diverse resources and identified a new comprehensive definition which

encompasses both the public health perspective and the individual approach.

Typical health issues – differences between men and women

Based on Courtenay's researches who pointed out that men on television smoke more, drink more, and are more overweight, yet they are much less likely to be diagnosed with illnesses thus appearing to be citizens who can take health risks without paying health costs. He said that men who subscribe to the socially constructed gender roles would therefore be particularly at risk of premature death from diseases where health behaviors play an important role. "Food choices are an area in which consistent behavioral differences have been observed. Numerous studies have reported that boys and men eat fewer fruits and vegetables, choose fewer high-fiber foods, eat fewer low-fat foods, and consume more soft drinks than do women. Differences in reported food choices have not always been reflected in differences in the proportion of energy consumed as fats, or fiber intake, but this is partly because of gender differences in alcohol consumption, which may add a substantial sum of energy as "drink calories." Adjusted for energy intake, women's diets do tend to be higher in micronutrients than men's diets. Men rate many health behaviors, including food choice behaviors, as less important than women rate them. Courtenay's analysis made special mention of nutrition: "The socially prescribed male]would not be interested in learning about health and nutrition, or cooking, and he would be unconcerned about his weight, diet or hygiene". It has also been shown that men give lower priority to health compared with other considerations such as taste or convenience in making food choices. Differences in beliefs about the importance of eating in accordance with health recommendations could therefore contribute to explaining the gender differences in food choice. Another factor that might contribute to gender differences in diet is women's greater concern about weight control and their higher frequency of dieting. In almost every study of attitudes to body weight or dieting, women report more worries about weight and make more attempts to control weight than do men. This applies equally in pre-adolescence and in old age, to the poor as well as the rich, and in developing as well as developed countries. Selecting lower fat and lower sugar foods, as well as increasing intake of fruits and vegetables, are important aspects of many weight-controlling diets, and therefore differences in dieting might partly explain gender differences in food choices, particularly food choices such as fat restriction, which are linked with dieting." (Jane et al. 2004)

Chronic diseases are defined by the World Health Organization as "noncommunicable diseases" or "diseases of long duration and generally

slow progression" (WHO, 2013). Different chronic diseases are currently the leading causes of the mortality and disability in developed countries; these diseases are responsible for 86% of all deaths in the European Union. Busse et al. (2010) state that chronic diseases also have an important effect on people' performance and productivity both in their private life and in their workplace. Chronic diseases can reduce the earnings, the participation ability in diverse tasks and thus, the labour productivity. Similarly, these problems can increase the early retirement and disabled lifestyle. However, the impact is beyond the individuals' life, as the society also suffers because of the chronic diseases. "Disease-related impairment of household consumption and educational performance has a negative effect on gross domestic product (GDP)." (Busse et al., 2010) The consequences of chronic diseases are very serious: current forecasts demonstrate that the population aged over 65 will rise from 87.5 million in 2010 to 152.6 million in 2060, and chronic diseases has significant effect more than 80% of people in these ages. (Council of the European Union, 2013) Moreover, WHO (2005) suggests that chronic diseases are no longer considered only the elderly individuals' problem, as its project estimated that 72% of all deaths before the age of 60 years in 2002 were due to the noncommunicable illnesses in high-income countries. Therefore, it is clearly seen that the governments, health organizations and practitioners need to deal with the prevention of main chronic diseases.

The diverse resources (Busse et al., 2010; OECD, 2012; Cancer Research UK, 2009) mention the same diseases, as chronic diseases. Traditionally, chronic diseases include the following diseases: cardiovascular disease, diabetes, asthma, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, cancer, HIV/AIDS, mental disorders (such as depression or dementia) and multiple sclerosis. Although the prevention of HIV/AIDS is a big challenge worldwide, it causes more serious problem and needs better solution in case of the societies of developing countries. Similarly, BBC (2013) mentioned almost the same diseases organized into different categories as the five big killers in the United Kingdom: heart diseases, respiratory diseases, stroke, cancer and liver disease.

Quality of life

Quality of life is a broader concept than healthy life or living conditions and refers to the overall social welfare (Eurofound, 2012). The measurement of quality of life is relatively new, and will be further developed with new indicators. Quality of life indicators should be evaluated through a multidimensional framework developed by the Eurostat. The framework consists of the following dimensions:

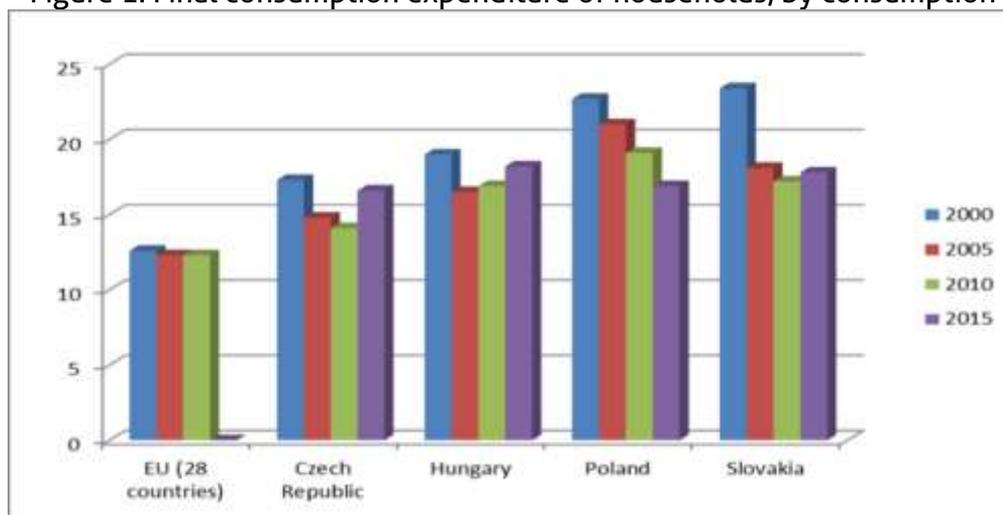
- 1) Material living conditions (income, consumption and material conditions e.g. net national income)

- 2) Productive or main activity (e.g. working hours, balancing working and non-working life)
- 3) Health (e.g. life expectancy, the number of healthy life years)
- 4) Education (e.g. the number of early school leavers)
- 5) Leisure and social interactions (e.g. how often citizens spend time with people at sporting or cultural events or if they volunteer for different types of organizations)
- 6) Economic and physical safety (e.g. the number of homicides per country)
- 7) Governance and basic rights (e.g. satisfaction with public services and the lack of discrimination)
- 8) Natural and living environment (e.g. individuals' own perceptions, the amount of pollutants present in the air)
- 9) Overall experience of life (life satisfaction, affect, eudaemonics) (Eurostat, 2011)

Life quality development is an increasingly relevant question nowadays since some researches demonstrated the relationships between the different dimensions of quality of life framework. For example Acemoglu and Johnson (2006) state in their study that the increase in life expectancy led to a significant increase in population. Moreover, they found a small initial positive effect of life expectancy on total GDP, and they predict this effect grows somewhat over the next 40 years, but not enough to compensate for the increase in population.

Figure 1 presents the final consumption expenditure of households of the Visegrad countries compared with the EU (28) between 2000 and 2015. We can observe the households' final consumption expenditure was the lowest in EU (28) during the analysed time period, however, the value decreased in all V4 countries between 2000 and 2015. The largest difference was in Slovakia, and the lowest one was in Hungary. It is interesting that the value was continuously decreasing between 2000 and 2015 only in Poland compared with the other Visegrad countries.

Figure 1: Final consumption expenditure of households, by consumption



Source: Authors' compilation based on Eurostat database

Analysis of quality of life in V4 countries

There are different metrics for measurement of quality of life (for example net income can influence the quality of life). However, this study exclusively examines the following health related metrics based on the Eurostat database:

1) according to outcomes (between 2010 and 2014):

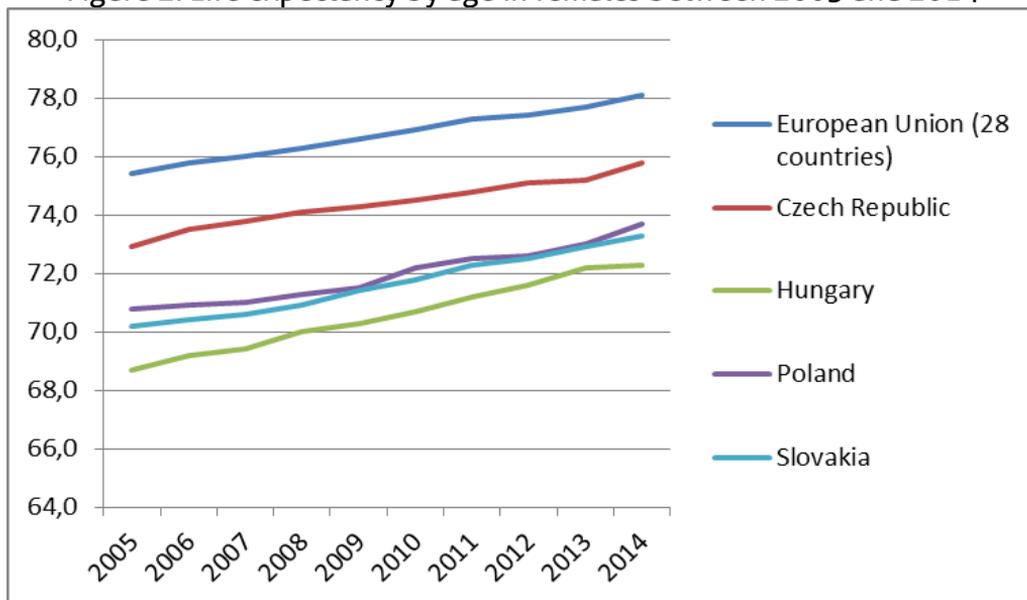
- life expectancy by age and sex
- healthy life years in absolute value at birth and in percentage of total life expectancy

2) according to drivers of healthy and unhealthy behaviors (in 2008):

- body mass index (BMI) by sex
- daily smokers of cigarettes by sex and age

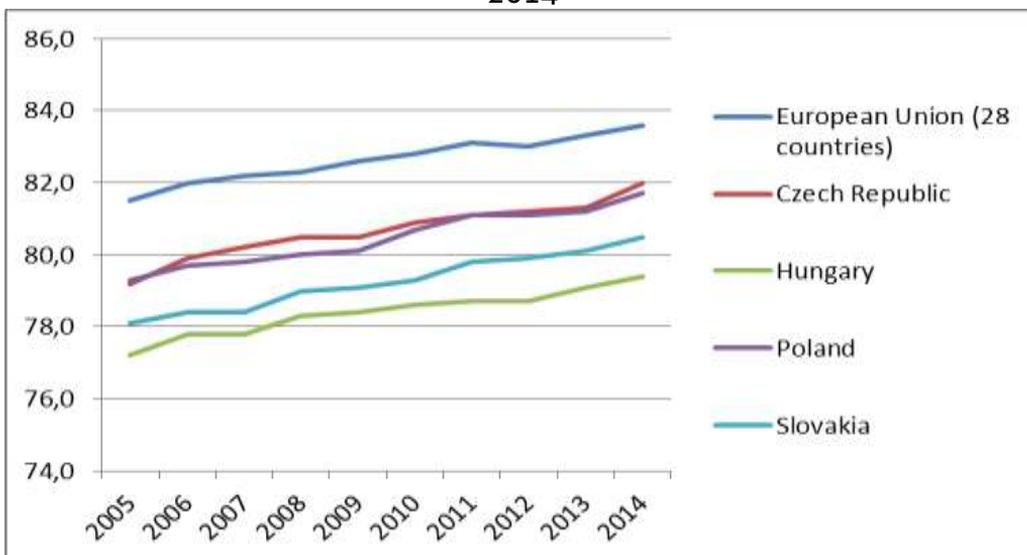
Life expectancy increased in all countries in case of both females (Figure 2) and males (Figure 3) from 2005 to 2014. If total values are compared by V4 countries and EU (28), total life expectancy increased exactly by 1 year between 2010 and 2014. It is necessary to mention that total life expectancy increased substantially in all Visegrad countries compared with EU (28), however, the highest growth was in Slovakia and Poland (1.4 years between 2010 and 2014). Among the V4 countries Hungary is in the worst, and Czech Republic in the best situation in all categories. In 2014, total life expectancy was 76 years in Hungary, and 78.9 years in Czech Republic (similarly, males: 72.3 and 75.8; females: 79.4 and 82), the difference is around 3 years. Life expectancy is higher in female population than in males in all countries.

Figure 2: Life expectancy by age in females between 2005 and 2014



Source: Author's compilation based on Eurostat database

Figure 3: Life expectancy by age in males between 2005 and 2014

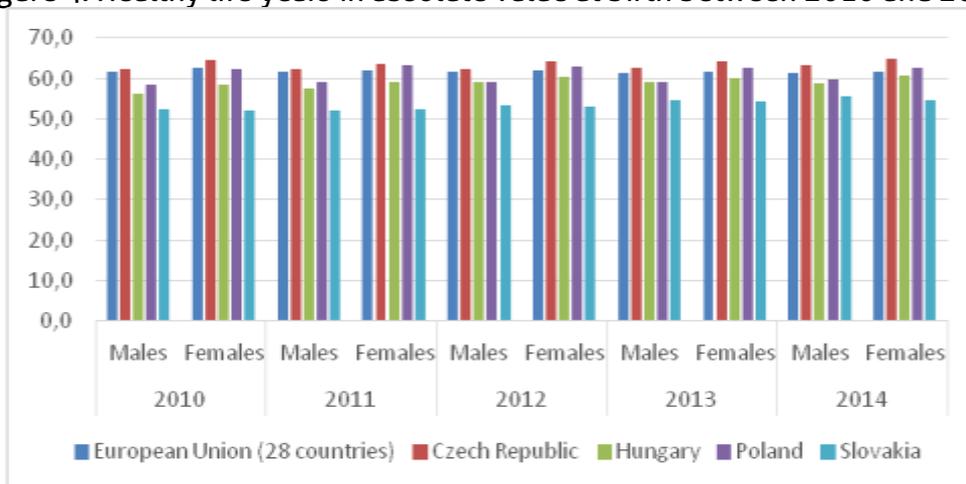


Source: Author's compilation based on Eurostat database

Figure 4 presents the healthy life years in absolute value at birth by sex and countries. Healthy life years can be analyzed and evaluated in percentage of the total life expectancy or in absolute value. When it comes to the analysis based on absolute value at birth it is clearly seen that both the male and

female population can count the highest figure in Czech Republic among the Visegrad countries. Although the life expectancy is the lowest in all groups in Hungary, it is an interesting fact that healthy life years is the least in Slovakia. Therefore, the population of Slovakia spend more years in different diseases during their life. In other words the development of life quality through health awareness would be the most important task in case of Slovakia. The difference was relatively high between the lowest (Slovakia – males: 55.5, females: 54.6) and highest (Czech Republic – males: 63.4, females: 65) value in 2014 (males: 7.9, females: 10.4).

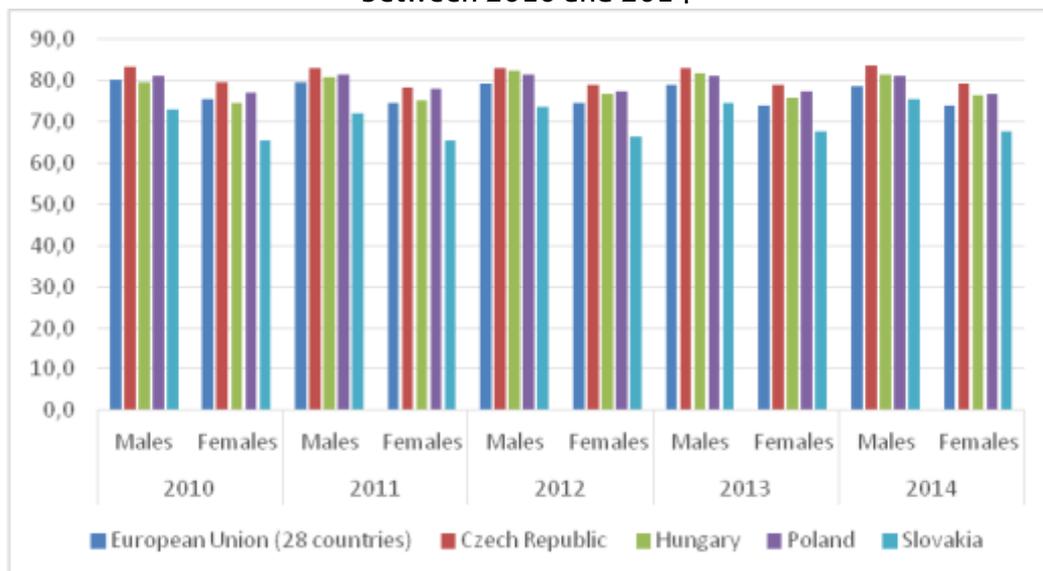
Figure 4: Healthy life years in absolute value at birth between 2010 and 2014



Source: Author's compilation based on Eurostat database

Further interesting things can be discovered if we can analyze the data based on the healthy life years in percentage of total life expectancy which is presented in Figure 5. Healthy life years is higher in males than in females considering the percentage of the total life expectancy.

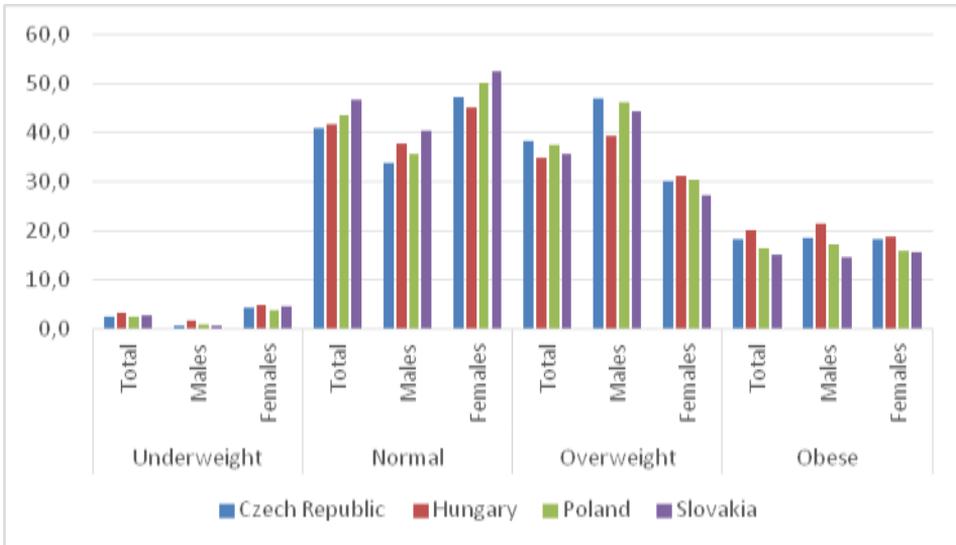
Figure 5: Healthy life years in percentage of the total life expectancy between 2010 and 2014



Source: Author's compilation based on Eurostat database

Definition of body mass index (BMI) is determined by the World Health Organization as a "simple index of weight-for-height that is commonly used to classify underweight, overweight and obesity in adults. It is defined as the weight in kilograms divided by the square of the height in meters (kg/m²)" (WHO, 2016). Data of Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland and Slovakia are available for males, females and total population in each categories (presented by Figure 6) Although the most amount of people belonged to the normal category in case of each countries in 2008, it is important to mention that more than 50% of the total population was overweight or obese. As researches emphasized the relationship between obesity and chronic diseases – such as diabetes or cardiovascular diseases – it would be highly relevant task to decrease the proportion of obese and overweight people through building health awareness in the population in each countries. Compared the V4 countries with each other it is obvious that the largest proportion of the population (46.7%) belonged to the category of normal weight in Slovakia, and the smallest proportion (40.9%) was in Czech Republic. The proportion of obese people was the largest (20%) in Hungary and the smallest (15.1%) in Slovakia. The proportion of obese males and females is almost the same, however, there were more overweight men than women in each countries.

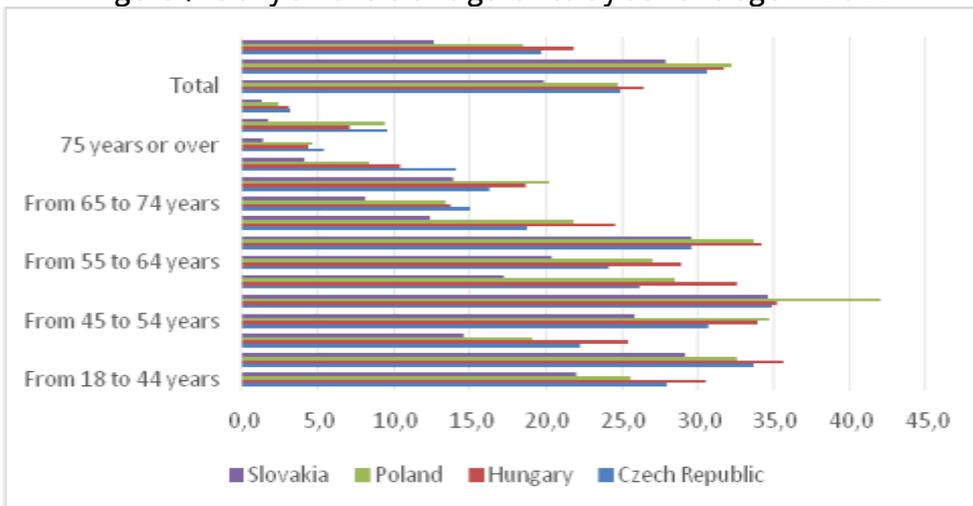
Figure 6: BMI by sex in 2012



Source: Author's compilation based on Eurostat database

Figure 7 shows the other driver of healthy and unhealthy behavior: the daily smokers of cigarettes in females/males/total order in each age categories in 2012. In Poland more than 40% of the male population between 45 and 54 years smoked in 2012 – the highest value belonged to this category (42%). Females smoked less in daily level in all countries and all age groups and most people smoked between 45 and 64 years. Slovakia was in the best situation in 2012 – approximately only 20 % of total population smoked in daily level.

Figure 7: Daily smokers of cigarettes by sex and age in 2012



Source: Author's compilation based on Eurostat database

Overall, we can identify some important differences among the V4 countries:

- In measurement based on outcomes (life expectancy and healthy life years) Czech Republic led the list – the rate of both life expectancy and healthy life years was the highest in Czech Republic and the lowest in Slovakia.
- However, when we examine the figures based on the drivers of healthy and unhealthy behavior, the situation significantly changes – the proportion of both obese people and daily smokers of cigarettes was in Slovakia in 2012. It would be useful to examine the newest data, however, Eurostat database includes figures only for 2012 in case of healthy and unhealthy consumer behavior. It is also true, that the differences can be influenced by other metrics (e.g. GDP per capita, net income of households etc.), however, this study examined only the health related figures.

Conclusions

Theoretical background summarizes the most relevant scientific resources in relation to the health awareness, life quality development and food consumption. Furthermore, the paper summarizes the most important correlations between the regional countries' quality of life related to gender differences. Data could be a general base of Hungary's life quality development. Based on the regional comparative analysis, it is clearly seen the health status of the population in Visegrad countries is not so bad, however, there are several opportunities to improve it with a well-designed and structured life quality development process. As the statistics shows women take more care to their nourishment than men.

In order to improve the quality of life it would be necessary to analyze, evaluate and change the population's consumer behavior related to health awareness – not only the food consumption factors, but also the healthy life factors. The key of change is the appropriate life quality development process by influencing the population's eating habits and reducing the main risk factors – the most important tasks are collected and summarized in the following list:

Food consumption factors:

- to decrease the consumption of fat and sugar -> it can reduce the cholesterol level
- to increase the consumption of vegetables, fruits and cereals
- to change our eating habits -> the population should reduce the quantity of unhealthy food and consume more quality food instead.

- Healthy life factors:
- to reduce the mentioned risk factors (such as smoking, high blood pressure, obesity etc.) in order to avoid the different chronic diseases by
 - increasing the physical activity of the population
 - decreasing the number of daily smokers or amount of smoking
 - decreasing the rate of overweight and obese people

References

- Acemoglu, D. and Johnson, S. (2006), *Disease and Development: The Effect of Life Expectancy on Economic Growth*, National Bureau of Economic Research, NBER Working Paper No. 12269
- BBC (2015), Unhealthy Britain: nation's five big killers, [online] [accessed 25 June 2015]. Available from Internet: <<http://www.bbc.com/news/health-21667065>>
- Busse, L., Blümel, M., Scheller-Kreinsen, D. and Zentner, A. (2010), *Tackling chronic disease in Europe. Strategies, interventions and challenges*, Copenhagen: WHO Regional Office for Europe
- Cancer Research UK (2009), *Design your own health campaign*, Aberdeen: Cancer Research UK
- Cella, D. F., (1994), Quality of life: Concepts and definitions, *Journal of Pain and Symptom Management*, 9(3):186-192
- Eurofound (2012), *Third European Quality of Life Survey - Quality of life in Europe: Impacts of the crisis*, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg
- Eurostat (2011), Report of the Task Force – Multidimensional measurement of the quality of life, [online] [accessed 5 November 2016]. Available from Internet: <<http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu>>
- Eurostat database [online]
- Freedman DA, Bess KD, Tucker HA, Boyd DL, Tuchman AM, Wallston KA (2009), *Public health literacy defined*, *Am J Prev Med*, 36(5):446-451.
- Hegyesné Görgényi, É. (2015), *Managing the health awareness knowledge via the advanced use of social media applications*, Unpublished dissertation
- Jane Wardle, Ph.D., Anne M. Haase, Ph.D., and Andrew Steptoe, D.Phil. University College London Maream Nillapun, Ph.D. and Kiriboon Jonwutiwes, Ph.D. Silpakorn University France Bellisle, Ph.D. INSERM U341 Paris, France
- KSH database [online]
- Nagy A, Káposzta J, Nagy H The role of Szamos marzipan in the hungarian tourism and gastronomy, *Agricultural Bulletin of Stavropol Region* 21:(1) pp. 47-50. (2016)
- Novotny TE et al. (2008). Preventing chronic disease: Everybody's business. In: Nolte E, McKee M (eds). *Caring for people with chronic conditions: A health system perspective*. Maidenhead, Open University Press:92–115.

- Nutbeam D (1998), *Health Promotion Glossary*, Health Promot Int, 13:349-364.
- OECD (2012), *Health at a Glance: Europe 2012*, Paris: OECD Publishing
- Simonds SK (1974), *Health education as social policy*, Health Education Monograph, 2:1-25
- Sørensen, K., Van den Broucke, S., Fullam, J., Doyle, G., Pelikan, J., Slonska, Z., Brand, H., & (HLS-EU) Consortium Health Literacy Project European. (2012), *Health literacy and public health: A systematic review and integration of definitions and models*, BMC Public Health, 12(1), 80
- Zsuzsanna Kassai, József Káposzta, Krisztián Ritter, Lóránt Dávid, Henrietta Nagy, Tibor Farkas: The territorial significance of food hungaricums: the case of pálinka. Romanian Journal of Regional Science 10:(2) pp. 64-84. (2016)
- Vafaei S. A., Görgényi-Hegyés, É. and Fekete-Farkas, M. (2016), *The role of social media and marketing in building sustainability orientation*, Management 2016 - International Business and management, domestic particularities and emerging markets in the light of research, University of Prešov, pp.433-438.
- WHO (1997), *WHOQOL, Measuring quality of life*, Division Of Mental Health And Prevention Of Substance Abuse, World Health Organization
- WHO (2005), Metrics: Disability-Adjusted Life Year (DALY), [online] [accessed 5 November 2016]. Available from Internet: http://www.who.int/healthinfo/global_burden_disease/metrics_daly/en/
- WHO (2016), Health Impact Assessment, [online] [accessed 5 November 2016]. Available from Internet: <http://www.who.int/hia/evidence/doh/en/>
- WHO (2016), BMI classification, [online] [accessed 5 November 2016]. Available from Internet: http://apps.who.int/bmi/index.jsp?introPage=intro_3.html
- WHO (2009), *The European health report 2009: health and health systems*, Copenhagen: WHO Regional Office for Europe
- WHOQOL Group (1995), *The World Health Organization Quality of Life Assessment (WHOQOL): Position paper from the World Health Organization*, Soc. Sci. Med., Elsevier, 41(10): 1403-1409

Izabella Oláh

METHODOLOGICAL CHALLENGES IN THE SMALL VILLAGES, HAMLETS AND PIGMY VILLAGES OF HUNGARY.

As already stated by ENYEDI (2004), territorial inequalities are caused by continuous territorial changes. These changes have an impact on economic growth and spatial development in the area as well as affect competitiveness and they have an impact on the living standards and living conditions of the population. Due to the fact that different places in spaces bear different characteristics, development can occur in different ways and directions (KÁPOSZTA – NAGY 2012; TÓTH 2016). This difference affects human, social, economic, infrastructural and environmental conditions. Regions can contribute to economic growth based on how well-endowed they are regarding to resources.

The issue is a very significant one due to the fact that these settlements account for more than half of the Hungarian settlements (in the year 2013 there are 3152 settlements in Hungary, 1734 with a population number below 1000), and occur in masses in some parts of the country. Based on 2013 data, these settlements have nearly 8% of the permanent population of the country.

In this paper, I am trying to summarize the methodological questions and difficulties encountered when examining settlements with a low population number during my research. Also, I present the way I managed to overcome these difficulties – and the fact that it has raised new questions.

Results

The categorisation of settlements based on their population numbers

Settlements can be grouped according to a number of criteria, including their size and population. Although this grouping is relatively simple and traditional, it raises a number of problematic issues. We first encounter the problem of deciding the boundaries between categories. Even in the case of the city and the village - the exact demarcation and delineation of these two settlements is not a simple task, not to mention deeper categorisation attempts. (On the other hand, the method mentioned above cannot be applied to all the settlements in the world, as in other parts of

the world there are significantly different settlement sizes, compared to Hungary) (SZÚCSNÉ - SZÚCS, 2007).

In addition to the above mentioned categorisations, there are much more complex delimitations that illustrate better the differences between the city and the village. Such is the approach to the central functions, which means that towns that have a central role than spatial division of labour can be regarded as cities, and thus have higher functions in other settlements. Thus, these settlements have a high importance, because they also provide settlements located in their surrounding areas. In relation to this approach, I share HAJNAL's (n.a.) opinion that nowadays this is not a very good categorisation. In fact, there are more settlements with urban characteristics for which this definition cannot be interpreted, such as sleeping settlements, resort towns, and market towns in the classical sense. The categorization based on the employment structure is also not really correct today as villages are specialized in agriculture and cities are specialized in other branches of industry. Today, however, most of the villagers work in one of the secondary or tertiary sectors, and the number of people employed by agriculture has declined sharply. However, it is easy to distinguish between architectural considerations - though it often does not provide a clear distinction (HAJNAL, n.a.).

Table 1 shows the main categorisations of settlements by population number. This table illustrates the lack of consensus on the distinction between settlements (in this case, villages) by population.

Table 1: Settlement category categorisation based on population number

Limit numbers in settlement categories (TÓTH 2002; PERCZELGERLE, 1966; etc.)	Settlement category name	Limit numbers in settlement categories (Terport n.a.; KSH 2014, JENEY 2014)
Between 1000-2000 inhabitants	small village	<i>Between 999-500 inhabitants</i>
Between 500-1000 inhabitants	hamlet	<i>Below 500 inhabitants</i>
Below 500 inhabitants	pigmy village	<i>Below 200 inhabitants</i>

Source: Own editing (2016) based on Terport.hu and TÓTH, 2002. 296.p.

(The part in table with italics was used during the investigation)

In the Hungarian literature two types of categorization can be found. According to one group of viewpoints (PERCZEL-GERLE, 1966, LETTRICH, 1975, NYITRAI, 1984, VÁGI, 1985; FLEISCHER, 1991; CSAPÓ, 1991, 1993; KŐSZEGFALVI-TÓTH, 2002), the maximum population number of hamlets is 1000 (Table 1).

The other approach, however, considers settlements of fewer than 500 inhabitants to hamlets (KÖRMENDI, 1976a; KÖRMENDI, 1976b; ENYEDI, 1980; BELUSZKY, 1984; ENYEDI, 1984b; SIKOS, 1990; HUBAI, 1992; DÖVÉNYI, 2003; OTK, 2005; G. FEKETE, 2007; BALOGH, 2008; VARJÚ, 2013; JÓZSA, 2014). The literature also calls settlements with fewer than 500 inhabitants pigmy villages (MOHOS, 1996; KŐSZEGFALVI - LOYDL, 1999; HORVÁTH, 2012, 2013). However, in one of the publications of the Central Statistical Office (KSH) (2014), the category of the pigmy villages is used in the analyses of settlements with less than 200 inhabitants (JENEY, 2014, TÉRPORT, na). The National Spatial Development Concept (OTK) considers hamlets as the smallest settlements (with fewer than 500 inhabitants), and it does not acknowledge smaller settlement categories (OTK, 2005).

In my opinion, a smaller scale categorization is more appropriate for settlements in our country. I also agree with the categorisation that says that the settlements below 200 are considered to be pigmy villages (KSH, 2014; JENEY, 2014; TÉRPORT, n.a). In my view, it is very necessary to examine this category, as these settlements with less than 200 inhabitants - as well as the ones with an inhabitant number between 499 and 200 - are growing among Hungary's settlements. In studies conducted on this topic (BALOGH, 2006; OLÁH - URBÁNNÉ, 2016; OLÁH - TÓTH, 2016), the number of settlements with a population number below 200 inhabitants increased by 2.5% compared to 1990 by 2013.

Accordingly, in my study, I have called settlements with a population number between 500 and 999 small villages; hamlets, if this number was between 200 and 499, and pigmy village, if the population number was less than 199. The spatial situation of the examined settlements examined (that is, the population number was below 1000 in both years, and they belonged to the same settlement category in both years) is shown in Figure 1.

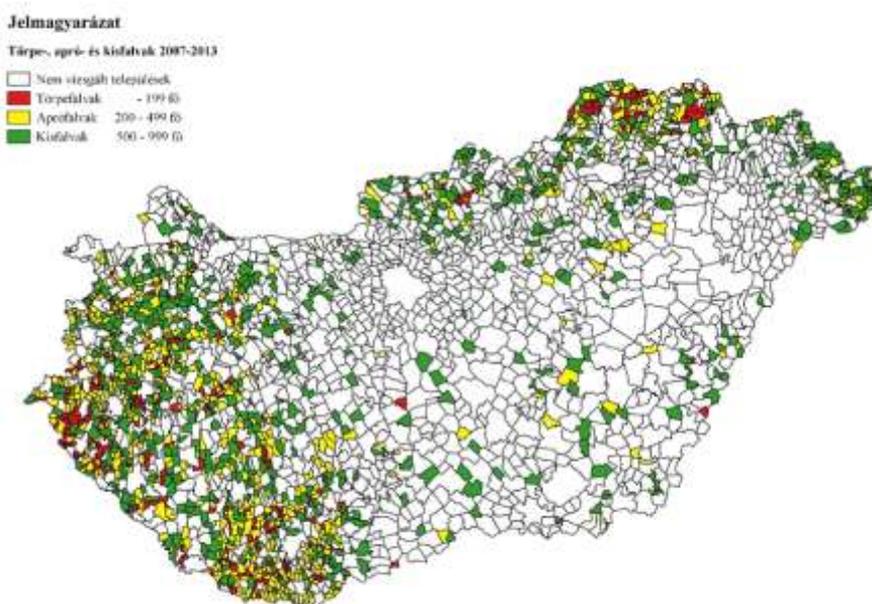


Figure 1: The 1612 settlements examined (2007 and 2013)
Source: Own editing, 2017.

The variables included in the investigation

Many challenges had to be faced regarding to the variables in order to conduct the investigation. For example, when the variables to be collected during the survey were not fully available every year, there were occasions (for example, the number of internet subscriptions) when I was forced to estimate their value. It was important for me to overcome the statistical difficulties by this method, in order to discover the obvious relationships between the variables under investigation. The change of the variable names from one year to the other was also a difficulty.

For example, such a dataset is the number of enterprises of the National Tax and Customs Administration (NAV) / Corporate Tax Declared Data / Year / Settlement Data Group, which is shown as a number in the database from 2011. When examining the number of internet subscriptions, I used the estimation method just like in the case of the number of public libraries. By averaging data series, I did not have to extract a single set of data from the examination simply because they were not available for each period. This method has been successfully applied in a similar study in a similar subject, by, for example, BRASILI et al. 2012 and JÓNA 2013.

The problem of incomplete data and limited availability was well-established at the beginning of the study. Most of the data sets that were to be included in the study were not available (and in many cases, could not be interpreted) at the municipal level - so I tried to exchange these variables with other, similar ones. Another major problem was that a number of issues (such as all areas of green space, protected natural areas, bicycle paths, etc.) that were to be investigated were either 0 or no data available. Here again, the necessity and meaning of the examination of some variables have arisen. (These are mainly due to the size of the settlement.)

The issue of calculating per 1000 inhabitants

In similar studies that have been carried out so far, researchers have chosen to use specific indicators, and I considered the analysis of the variables to be more appropriate. This is mainly due to the following reasons:

a) BELUSZKY et al. (1984) also mentioned that "in the field studies, for example, there is often a need to use specific indicators, especially for standardization tests, typing tasks. These specific indicators may distort if the relationship between the specific values and the measured phenomenon is not linear. (It is common for urban network surveys that the specific values for the institutional network for the smallest villages, due to the fact that the institutions are not being used, are similar to the values of large communities where the concentration of the institutions results in the increase of the specific values.) That is why the use of specific indicators is questionable in some rural areas (France, 1974). Also in the light of the subject and area of the study, indicators that do not carry relevant information due to their homogeneous distribution can be filtered (e.g. the proportion of radio and TV subscribers nowadays to indicate the level of living conditions today)" (BELUSZKY et al. 1984, pp. 93-94).

b) The settlement groups, in terms of the number of settlements, form relatively homogeneous groups. So, comparatively "same-weight" settlements were compared in the studies.

c) Examinations per 1000 people may become questionable logically, if the settlements in question do not reach the population number of 1000. It would be possible to conduct investigations per 100 or 10 people, but it does not seem to me to be a solution in this case either.

Based on these, the basic values of the variables were considered during my investigation.

Conclusions

The methodological issues discussed in this paper presented many opportunities in spatial research. I gave the following responses to the methodological challenges discussed above, along which the examination of settlements below 1000 inhabitants happened:

- In the definition of settlement groups by population number, I have named settlements between 500 and 999 inhabitants as small villages; hamlets with a population number between 200 and 499 and pigmy villages if this number was below 199.
- In periods when I did not have data available, I was forced to estimate them. Since it was only 1-2 values within a long time series, it seemed to me that this method was most suitable.
- When calculating data per 1000 inhabitants, I took into account the baseline values of the variables during the investigations.

It is also apparent from the abovementioned points that a number of methodological questions may arise in the research of settlements. In many cases, some territorial delineations and methodological applicability are unclear, an excellent example being the small villages, hamlets and pigmy villages. However, these seemingly difficult elements can be interpreted as advantages of researcher's freedom, which may open new opportunities for new investigations.

References

- BALOGH A. (2006): Az aprófalvasodás folyamatának főbb jellemzői Magyarországon. In: Földrajzi Közlemények CXXX. (LI.) kötet, 206. 1-2 szám, 67-79 p.
http://adtplus.arcanum.hu/hu/view/FoldrajziKozlemenyek_2006/?pg=73&layout=s
- BALOGH A. (2008): Az aprófalvas településállomány differenciálódási folyamatai Magyarországon. Savaria University Press, Szombathely. 105 p.
- BELUSZKY P. (1984): A kistalvokról – településtudományi megközelítésben. In: SÜKÖSD F. szerk.: Az aprófalvak közléte és ifjúsága. Kisz Baranya megyei Bizottsága, Pécs. pp. 72-91.
- BELUSZKY P. (1984): A kistalvokról – településtudományi megközelítésben. In: SÜKÖSD F. szerk.: Az aprófalvak közléte és ifjúsága. Kisz Baranya megyei Bizottsága, Pécs. pp. 72-91.

- CSAPÓ T. (1991): Kistelepülések térben és időben. In: KOVÁCS T. szerk.: Válság és kiút. Falukonferencia. MTA RKK, Pécs. pp. 88-96.
- CSAPÓ T. (1993): A rendszerváltás hatása a Nyugat-Dunántúl aprófalvas településeire. In: KOVÁCS T. szerk.: Kiút a válságból. II. Falukonferencia. MTA Regionális Kutatások Központja, Pécs. pp. 275-280.
- DÖVÉNYI Z. (2003): A településrendszer fejlődése és sajátosságai. In: PERCZEL GY. szerk.: Magyarország társadalmi-gazdasági földrajza. ELTE Eötvös Kiadó, Budapest. pp. 521-532.
- ENYEDI GY. (1980): Falvaink sorsa. Magvető kiadó, Budapest. 183 p.
- ENYEDI GY. (1984b): Az aprófalvak szerepe a társadalmi munkamegosztásban. In: SÜKÖSD F. szerk.: Az aprófalvak közéleté és ifjúsága. Kisz Baranya megyei Bizottsága, Pécs. pp. 16-22.
- ENYEDI GY. (2004): Regionális folyamatok a poszt szocialista Magyarországon. Magyar Tudomány, 2004 (9), pp. 935-941. <http://www.matud.iif.hu/2004-09.pdf>
- FLEISCHER T. (1991): Kistelepülések térben és időben. (=)Válság és kiút Falukonferencia (1991 április 18-19) MTA Regionális Kutatások Intézete Pécs 1991
- G. FEKETE É. (2007): A turizmus megjelenése és szerepe az aprófalvak funkcióváltásában. Észak-magyarországi Stratégiai Füzetek, 4. évf. 1.sz. pp. 21-54.
- HAJNAL K. (n.a.): A települések típusai In: Pirisi G – Trócsányi A (n.a.): Általános társadalom- és gazdaságföldrajz. <http://tamop412a.ttk.pte.hu/files/foldrajz2/index.html>
- HORVÁTH E. (2012): Törpefalvak helyzete a mai Magyarországon. – Csuták Máté (szerk) A falu. A vidékfejlesztők és környezetgazdák folyóirata. Nemzeti Agrárszaktanácsi, Képzési és Vidékfejlesztési Intézet. XXVII. évfolyam 4. szám, Budapest 49-58p.
- HORVÁTH E. (2013): Kicsik között a legkisebbek- A törpefalvak sikerének kulcstényezői. Doktori értekezés, Széchenyi István Egyetem, Győr, 2013.
- HUBAI J. (1992): Magyarország erőforrásainak geográfiája. Tankönyvkiadó, Budapest. 119 p.
- JENEY L. (2014): Falutipológia, falumorfológia. Eötvös Lóránt Tudományegyetem, Budapest, egyetemi előadás. jeney.web.elte.hu/telfr1511.ppt
- JÓZSA K. (2014): A magyarországi aprófalvak sikerességi tényezőinek vizsgálata, Doktori (Ph.D) értekezés, Szegedi Tudományegyetem, Szeged, 2014. p 168.
- KÁPOSZTA J. - NAGY H. (2012): Az endogén fejlődés és a lokalizáció gazdaságfejlesztésének összefüggései. 136-149.p. In.: FARKAS A. -

- KOLLÁR CS. - LAURINYECSZ Á. (szerk.): A filozófia párbeszéde a tudományokkal. Budapest: Protokollár Kiadó. 457.p.
- KÖRMENDI K. (1976a): Alaprajzi típusok. In: KULCSÁR V. szerk.: A változó falu. Gondolat Kiadó, Budapest. pp. 114-120.
- KÖRMENDI K. (1976b): Nagyságrendi típusok. In: KULCSÁR V. szerk.: A változó falu. Gondolat Kiadó, Budapest. pp. 91-113.
- KŐSZEGFALVI GY. – LOYDL T. (1999): Településfejlesztés, ELTE ötvös Kiadó, Budapest 162 p.
- KŐSZEGFALVI GY. – TÓTH J. (2002): Általános településföldrajz. In: TÓTH J. szerk.: Általános társadalomföldrajz I. Dialóg Campus Kiadó, Budapest – Pécs. pp. 385-448.
- KSH (2014): Települések a lét határán – Erősen fogyó népességű törpefalvak Magyarországon, 2014 április. p3 <http://www.ksh.hu/docs/hun/xftp/idoszaki/regiok/fogyonep.pdf>
- LETTRICH E. (1975): Településhálózat, urbanizáció, igazgatás. MTA Állam- és Jogtudományi Intézet, Budapest. 96 p.
- MOHOS M. (1996): Az ötszáz főnél kisebb népességű falvak szociálgeográfiai vizsgálata. – In.: VUICS T. (szerk.) Válogatott tanulmányok Magyarország társadalomföldrajzából. Egyetemi jegyzet, Pécs, pp. 15-41.
- NAGY H. – KÁPOSZTA J. (2017): A magyarországi régiók humán erőforrás potenciáljának vizsgálata az Európa 2020 stratégia tükrében, Közép-Európai Közlemények, 10: (1), pp. 86-98.
- NYITRAI I. (1984): Az ifjúság helyzete az aprófalvakban; a KISZ lehetőségei és feladatai körükben. In: SÜKÖSD F. szerk.: Az aprófalvak közéleté és ifjúsága. Kisz Baranya megyei Bizottsága, Pécs. pp. 40-48.
- OLÁH I. - TÓTH T. (2016): Characteristic Of Townships In Hungary In: Takácsné György Katalin (szerk.) Innovációs kihívások és lehetőségek 2014-2020 között: XV. Nemzetközi Tudományos Napok. 1704 p. Gyöngyös: Károly Róbert Főiskola, 2016. pp. 1231-1236. (ISBN:978-963-9941-92-2)
- OLÁH I.– URBÁNNÉ M. M. (2016): A kis- és aprófalvas térségek népességének változása hazánkban In: Takácsné György Katalin (szerk.) Innovációs kihívások és lehetőségek 2014-2020 között: XV. Nemzetközi Tudományos Napok. 1704 p. Gyöngyös: Károly Róbert Főiskola, 2016. pp. 1237-1243. (ISBN:978-963-9941-92-2)
- OTK (2005): Az Országgyűlés 97/2005.(XII.25.) OGY határozat az Országos Területfejlesztési Koncepcióról <http://www.vati.hu/static/otk/int/interaktiv.html>
- PERCZEL K. – GERLE GY. (1966): Regionális tervezés és a magyar településhálózat. Akadémiai Kiadó, Budapest. 445 p.

- SIKOS T. T. (1990): A lakossági infrastruktúra problematikája az aprófalvas térségekben. In: TÓTH J. szerk.: Tér-Idő-Társadalom. Huszonegy tanulmány Enyedi Györgynek. MTA RKK, Pécs. pp. 304-315.
- SZÚCSNÉ K. A. - SZÚCS I. (2007): Településföldrajz. Debreceni Egyetem Agrár- és Műszaki Tudományok Centruma Agrárgazdasági és Vidékfejlesztési Kar, Debrecen.
- TÉRPORT (n.a.): Településtípusok - A települések osztályozási szempontjai <http://www.terport.hu/telepulesek/telepulestipusok>
- TÓTH J. (szerk.) (2002): Általános társadalomföldrajz I. Budapest–Pécs. Dialóg Campus Kiadó, 485 p.
- TÓTH T. (2016): Kistelepülések gazdaságfejlesztése, In: SIKOS T. T. – TINER T. szerk.: Tájak, régiók, települések térben és időben. Tanulmánykötet Beluszky Pál 80. születésnapjára. Dialógus Campus Kiadó, Budapest. ISBN 978-615-5680-27-4 pp.451-461.
- VÁGI G. (1985): Az aprófalvak társadalmi szerkezetének változásai. In: SÜKÖSD F. szerk.: Az aprófalvak közéleté és ifjúsága. Kisz Baranya megyei Bizottsága, Pécs. pp. 165-174.
- VARJÚ V. (2013): Aprófalvak környezeti politikája. A FALU 28:(3) pp. 45-55. (2013)

RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND THE EFFICIENCY OF TOURIST COOPERATION

Introduction

Significant economic and social changes were made over the past decades which had a considerable impact on the peripheral and disadvantaged rural regions. Agricultural employment declined steadily across Europe and several negative trends (eg.: adverse human resource structure, lack of other job opportunities) have emerged in rural areas as its consequence, where residents were not able to adapt to the new economic and social conditions (Ritter, 2008). After 1990, the negative trends were becoming influential in our country as well so the spatial structure changed and the regional differences increased (Koós and Virág, 2010). Remote rural areas located far from developed regions were the biggest losers of the changes.

The process of globalization transformed the economic and social relations of rural areas significantly. The spread of global economy and the decrease in agricultural employment caused serious problems in rural areas. Bengs and Schmidt-Thomé (2005) found that all rural areas reacted differently to the processes appearing in the new situation (eg.: globalization of capital, privatization, transformation of international trade and migration). It became clear that in addition to the reassessment of previously established roles, it is necessary to explore new opportunities and develop cooperation in rural areas (Leader, 2001). The fierce international competition (see Swinburn et al., 2004.); impoverishment, the escalation of inequality (eg. Wade, 2003) or the homogenization of cultural values (Kirby, 2006), were significant challenges in rural areas.

In addition to globalization the importance of localization emerged and the role of local values and opportunities came to the fore in the development of rural areas. Starting from the 1970s it became necessary to develop a more complex rural strategy in addition to the socio-economic transformation of rural areas in Western Europe (Clout, 1993). Ilbery and Bowler (1998) insisted on discovering new land usage options, within which tourism and the opportunities related to it appeared. Ray (1998) also highlights the importance of local values and stresses that the development of agriculture alone is no longer sufficient to resolve the problems of the countryside, so new dimensions have emerged in the EU's rural policy (Heilig, 2002). The OECD's (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development) publication of 2006 noted that the most effective means of resolving

the rural areas' typical economic (low-quality services, underdeveloped infrastructural background) and social (aging, low education, high unemployment) backlog may be the developments based on endogenous resources (OECD, 2006). Endogeneity offers the possibility to the rural areas to react to globalization based on their local aptness (Kulcsár, 2006). I agree with the statement of Kóródi and Fehér (2012), that despite of the disadvantages (ie .: the disintegration of traditional agriculture-based economic and social relations, declining population numbers, migration of young people, growth of the proportion of elderly residents, infrastructural underdevelopment, the lack of quality services, unemployment, low levels of education) rural areas have many natural and cultural values to build on in the future.

The realignment of rural areas facing major economic and social problems is a common goal of Europe, so one of the priorities of the EU's rural development policy is the promotion of lagging, disadvantaged areas by developments based on endogenous resources. Economic diversity should be highlighted, within which tourism can have a significant role in the development of agricultural areas. In addition to the decline of agricultural employment multi-functionality became more and more important so during agricultural work such goods are created in parallel with food production, on which the development of peripheral regions can be built (Fodor and Gemma, 2011). Since the transition the touristic value of the rural landscape has been gradually appreciated (Forman, 2010). In rural areas, different social, economic and other problems are present and the personas often expect the development of tourism to dissolve negative trends. In my opinion, tourism really is a good option, but the development of other areas (human resources, quality of life, job opportunities, and infrastructure) should also receive attention. Based on this I considered it important to examine whether the eminent role of tourism in rural areas could be verified along statistical data.

In recent years, the development of sustainable and competitive tourism gradually came to the fore, within which the creation of a management oriented leadership structure based on destinations (receiving areas) got high priority. Fragmentation is typical in today's tourism market, in addition to numerous smaller businesses, the non-entrepreneurial communities (non-profit organizations, local residents, companies, public sector) also play an important role in the operation of the sector (Soisalon-Soininen and Lindroth, 2006). Cooperation between various actors is needed to successfully operate competitive tourism. The success is based on the development of a partnership with the existence of professional coordination with the appropriate

competencies and skills (Panyor et al, 2011). But creating financial stability and flexible organizational structure is also not a negligible term (Soisalon-Soininen and Lindroth, 2006). Destination management organizations represent the institutionalized forms of cooperation in tourism. Tourist destination management first appeared in practice in our country after we joined to the European Union. Both the National Tourism Development Strategy (2005-2013) and the National Tourism Development Plan (2014-2024) considered the establishment and strengthening of the domestic destination based institutional structure as a high priority task (Káposzta et al., 2016). The word destination originates from latin and it can be interpreted as a reception which is the territorial basis of tourism (Nyirád and Semsei, 2007; Carter and Fabricius, 2007). Many definitions are accepted for "destination". In international literature „destination" is also represented by some as a provider area of groups of products or services (Buhalis, 2000; Bieger, 2003) while others (Kaspar, 1992; Crouch és Ritchie, 2000) define it as the place of gaining experiences. In the hungarian literature Lengyel (2007) states that „destination" is reception area which can provide touristical products to visitors in a complex way. The concept of destination can be separated too according to whether we consider it as a touristic product or not. There are some (Bieger, 2003; Tasnádi, 2006), who define destination as a product, while others (Hu and Ritchie, 1993 in Presenza et al, 2005;. Buhalis, 2000) suggest that the destination consists of more products and services, thus, it appears as a combination of touristic products. Piskóti and his co-authors (2007) defined the essence of destination management the following way: *„The transformation of attractions located in a specific area into modular (freely combinable) products, their organization into networks, creating the product attached to the destination to be marketable and competitive and then selling it with the ambition of preserving sustainable development, increasing the development of a specific geographical area and the wellness of local inhabitants while reaching success on the tourism market" (Piskóti et al., 2007. 7. o.).*

Thus, destination management includes various activities (planning, partnership-building, coordination and marketing activities), which are necessary to carry out a management structure with adequate competences and financing. To make a region develop a complex supply, it is necessary to gather all participants together which could be done with creating cooperation based on destination management. A destination organization is able to bring together the stakeholders, and provide information and supply conditions, the development of elements, professionalism and market sales (Lengyel, 2007). Over the

past ten years, the development of destination management oriented, hierarchical organizational structure got high priority in our country. Lengyel (2007) theoretically outlined the domestic destination management system as a hierarchical organizational network based on four levels (local, regional, regional and state). Despite initial concepts and tender options the complete hierarchical organizational network did not develop, most organizations struggled with sustenance difficulties. Until 2016 there was no Tourism Act in Hungary, which would have regulated the system of tourism management, so different level tourist organizations operated defectively and often with territorial and functional overlaps. Over the past decade developing organizations did not affect only our country's most advanced touristic areas (eg. : Heviz, Lake Balaton, Siófok, Hajdúszoboszló, Buk), but also an increasing number of destination organizations were set up in rural areas dealing with a variety of economic and social problems. Along this the question could be raised about what the role of these associations were / is, and how efficiently could / do they operate.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

One of the main questions of the research was how uniform domestic tourism is, and that which municipalities are the most important tourist destinations. We set the exploration of the domestic regional inequalities as the aim of our research from a touristic point of view, and used the Hoover index for calculation. The deviation in the spatial distribution of two quantitative criteria can be measured with the Hoover index. The index shows how much percent of one studied socio-economic phenomena should be transferred between the territorial units to make it similar to the other studied trait, thus creating territorial equality (Nemes Nagy et al., 2005). We chose two base years for the research. The first was the year 2003, when the destination management oriented institutionalization was not yet announced officially, while the other year was 2012 because the town line statistical data was the most complete in that year and the destination organizations were already operating actively. A total of five indicators were selected from the databases of TEIR and KSH and they were compared to the permanent population of the settlements. We calculated the Hoover index with the involvement of Budapest as well, but due to its significant distorting effect we eliminated it from the final test. We wanted to examine the regional differences of domestic tourism, as well as the role of municipalities in tourism. We studied the tourism organizations' impact on rural regions and the measurability of

this impact in a national survey conducted amongst domestic tourism organizations. In the research we asked about the impact of these associations on rural areas and the detectability of the partnerships' effectiveness. First we analyze the regional disparities of domestic tourism on the basis of secondary data, then we present the partial results of our primary research as well.

RESULT

With the Hoover index calculation our goal was to show the suspected regional disparities of domestic tourism in 2003 and of 2012. We compared the spatial distribution of five touristic traits to the spatial distribution of the settlements' permanent population (Table 1).

Table 1: Spatial distributions (Hoover-index) in 2003 and in 2012 in Hungary, (%)

Index compared to the number of permanent population	Hoover index 2003 (%)	Hoover index 2012 (%)
total housing capacities of accomodations	68,07	65,37
total number of overnight stays	64,53	66,03
number of guests	58,59	61,99
number of catering facilities	16,46	18,80
number of operating companies in the national economic industry of hopitality and accomodation	18,99	17,47

Source: own research and editing, 2017.

It can be stated that there were no significant regional differences in the spatial distribution when the number of catering facilities and the number of operating companies in the national economic industry of hospitality and accommodation were compared to the number of permanent residents. All feature's Hoover-index remained below 20% both in 2003 and in 2012. Significant regional disparities were present in both examined years when the housing capacities of commercial and other (total) types of accommodations, the number of guest nights, the number of guests were compared to the number of permanent population of the settlements. The Hoover index grew in the case of these traits which means that the regional disparities increased between domestic settlements. Based on the research conducted with the involvement of Budapest, the largest regional differences were present in the case of Hévíz, Siófok and Hajdúszoboszló settlements so these were the most important tourist destinations both in 2003 and in

2012. It also can be stated that domestic tourism is still concentrated in Budapest, in the resort area of Lake Balaton and in major spa cities. The Hoover index calculations also showed that the disadvantaged rural regions belong to the weak and the weakest tourist destinations, so their performance in tourism is far behind the leading edge. The question arises in connection with the statements mentioned above, whether the destination organizations have any role in the life of rural regions and how the efficiency of their operations could be detected. In an earlier research Virág (2016) studied how the destination organizations see the impact of touristic associations in rural areas (Figure 1). 20% of the respondents think that the organizations have no or only a negligible impact on rural areas. The majority of those surveyed (80%) link some rural economic impacts to rural destination organizations, but the impacts' extent is not uniform. 20% of the associations assume significant effects, 33% of them consider the impacts to be smaller, while 27% of the respondents state that there are some effects, but those are not detectable in the rural economy (Virág, 2016).

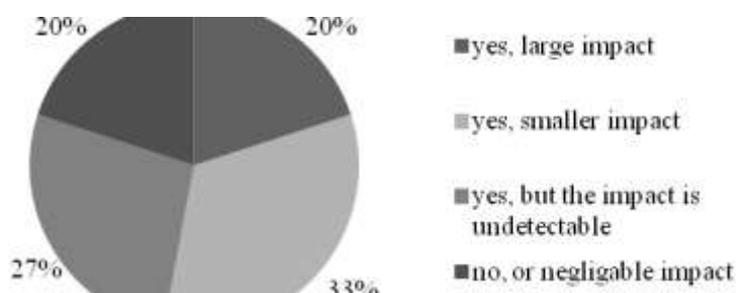


Figure 1: A destination organization's actual impact on the rural economy, (%)

Source: Virág, 2016.

Based on the previous results measuring efficiency got high importance of, so along this we studied how important do touristic organizations find the measurement of effectiveness within the organizations. None of the participants said that efficiency measurement is not important at all while 6% thought that it is less important. 61% of the respondents think it is important and 33% of them consider it a very important activity (Figure 2).

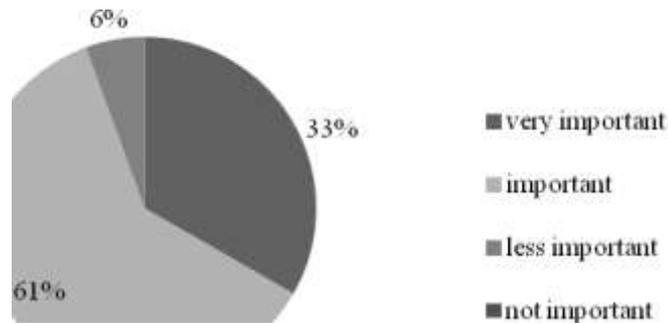


Figure 2: Importance of measuring efficiency within touristic organizations

Source: own research and editing, 2017.

It was also examined whether efficiency measurements could strengthen tourist cooperation and how feasible it could be. 11% of the participating associations argue that efficiency measurement has no amplification effect and is not feasible. 6% thought that efficiency measurement would not strengthen the unit, however, it would be necessary to do so. At only 5%, the view was that a measure of efficiency was a feasible task of membership enhancement. The largest proportion (78%) acknowledged the strengthening role of efficiency measurement, but hard to realize (Figure 3).

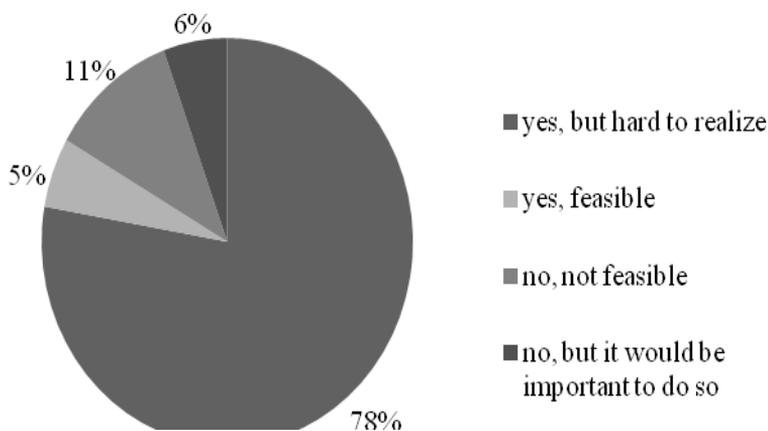


Figure 3: The cooperation strengthening effect of efficiency measurement

Source: own research and editing, 2017.

Finally, I examined how suitable are the different indicators to measure efficiency. The respondents had to evaluate the indexes on a scale from one to four according to their importance in efficiency measurement. For illustration I calculated the average for each index. For efficiency measurement purposes the satisfaction of tourists (3,89) and the number of partners in the TDM organization (3,78) the number of visitors on the organizations website and the number of languages used on website (3,72) were amongst the most important indexes, while the least important indicator was the proportion of active population (2.39) (Figure 4).

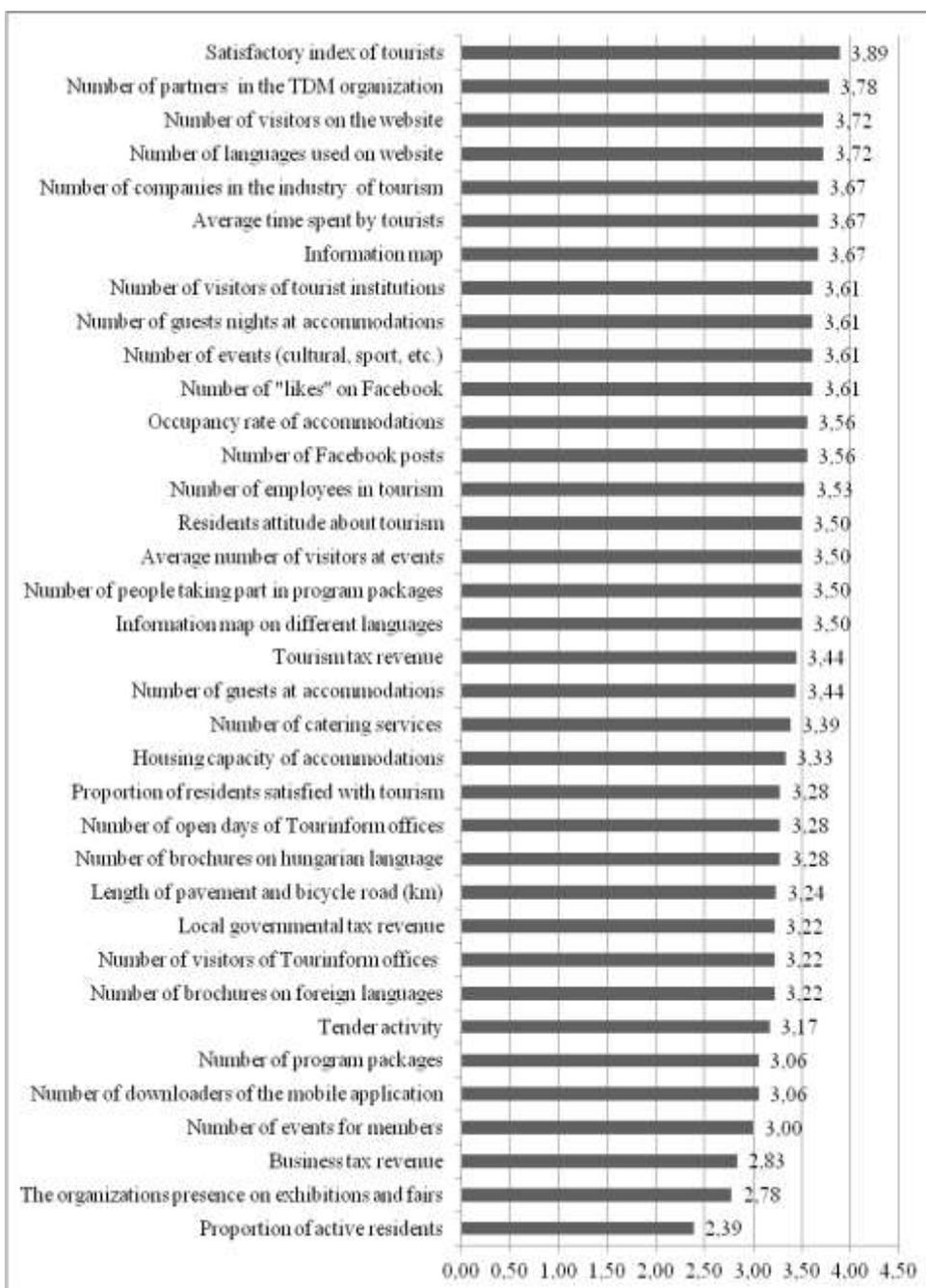


Figure 4: Average opinions about the appropriate indexes for measuring efficiency

Source: own research and editing, 2017.

CONCLUSION

The goal of the research was to review the performance of domestic tourism, the members willingness to cooperate within touristic organizations and to examine the impact of these organizations on rural areas and its traceability. Significant regional disparities were present in domestic tourism according to the touristic indicators both in 2003 and 2012. The Hoover index calculations showed that these regional differences increased between the examined years. Domestic tourism is still mostly concentrated in Budapest, in the resort area of Lake Balaton and major spa cities. The Hoover index calculations also showed that the disadvantaged rural regions belong to the weak and weakest tourist destinations, so tourism is far behind the leading destinations in these regions. Based on these findings the question was raised how the touristic organizations can affect the lives of rural areas, and how to demonstrate the effectiveness of these associations within the destinations. It was clear that the organizations have rural economic effects (80%), although its level is not uniform but it may be because no good method of efficiency measurement or opportunity was developed so far which could detect the complex activity. The majority of those surveyed (94%) found efficiency measurement important and the majority (83%) believe that efficiency measurements can strengthen the touristic cooperations, but they consider it difficult to execute. We examined how important do the organizations find the different indicators in terms of efficiency measurement. So far the partial results show that the most important indicator is the satisfactory index of tourists, while the least useful indicator is the proportion of active residents. Based on the results it can be stated that measurement of efficiency within tourist organizations is an important task which, in addition to strengthening the coherence of members, makes the effectiveness of the organizations clear to the members. Based only the statistical data the effectiveness of destination organizations cannot be verified, the involvement of primary data is a top priority in measuring efficiency so the creation of a complete system of indicators is needed.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS



The study was created with the support of the New National Excellence Programme (code number ÚNKP-16-3) of the Ministry of Human Resources.

REFERENCES

- Bengs C. - Schmidt-Thomé K. (szerk.) (2005): Urban-rural relations in Europe, ESPON Project 1.1.2 Part 1: Final Report. Helsinki: Centre for Urban and Regional Studies, University of Technology, 279 p.
- Bieger T. (2003): Management von Destinationen und Tourismusorganisationen. R. Oldenburg Verlag, München-Wien.
- Buhalis D. (2000): Marketing the competitive destination in the future. *Tourism Management*, 21 (1), pp. 97-116.
- Carter R. – Fabricius M. (2007): Destination management – an overview. UNWTO Conference, Creating competitive advantage for your destination, Budapest, 7 February 2007 <http://www.climateaudit.info/data/mask/TREN/TRen%203p13%20Branding/chart%20for%20thesis.pdf> (előadás anyag letöltve: 2014.07.15.)
- Clout H. (1993): European Experience of Rural Development. Report for the Rural
- Crouch G. – Ritchie J.B.R. (2000): Tourism competitiveness and societal prosperity. *Journal of Business Research*, 44., pp. 137-152.
- Fodor K. – Gemma F. (2011): A mezőgazdaság árbefolyásoló szerepe a falusi turizmusban (Price control role of agriculture in rural tourism). *A Falu*. 2011. február 8. letöltve: http://www.afalu.hu/cikkek/a_falu/a_mezogazdasag_arbefolyasolo_szerepe_a_falusi_turizmusban (2014.02.05.)
- Forman B. (2010): Borturizmus és a vidékfejlesztés (Wine tourism and rural development). *A Falu*. 2010. február 24. letöltve: http://www.afalu.hu/cikkek/borturizmus_es_a_videkfejlesztes (2014.02.05.)
- Heilig G. K. (2002): European Rural Development (ERD). Project Description. Laxenburg, Austria: International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis, 18 p.
- Hu Y. – Ritchie J.R.B. (1993): Measuring Destination Attractiveness: A Contextual Approach, *Journal of Travel Research* 1993. 32. pp. 25-34.
- Ilbery, B. – Bowler, I. (1998) From agricultural productivism to post-productivism. In Ilbery, B. (ed.) *The Geography of Rural Change* Longman, London, pp. 57-84.
- Kaspar C. (1992): Turisztikai alapismeretek (Basics of Tourism). KIT, Budapest. 157 p.

- Káposzta, J. – Nagy, A. – Nagy, H. (2016): The impact of tourism development policy on the regions of Hungary, *Regional Economy. South of Russia* 11. (1) pp. 10-17. ISSN 2310-1083
- Kirby P. (2006): Theorising globalisation's social impact: proposing the concept of vulnerability. *International Political Economy* (4) 632–655. p.
- Koós B. – Virág T. (2010): Nyertesek és vesztesek – A magyar településhálózat polarizálódása (Winners and losers - Polarization of the Hungarian settlement network). In: Barta Gy – Beluszky P. – Földi Zs. – Kovács K. (szerk.): A területi kutatások csomópontjai Pécs: MTA Regionális Kutatások Központja, 2010. pp. 32-54.
- Kóródi M. – Fehér I. (2012): A vidéki turizmus illúziói és realitásai (The illusions and realities of rural tourism). In: Csete L. – Fehér I. (szerk.): Agrár-vidékfejlesztési és élelmiszer-marketing trendek. Fehér István 70. születésnapjára emlékkötet. Szent István Egyetem, Gödöllő, pp. 160-168.
- Kulcsár L. (2006): Vidékfejlesztés (Rural development). (tankönyv - kézirat) Gödöllő: SZIE
- Leader (2001): Global Competitiveness of Rural Areas. „Rural Innovation”. LEADER European Observatory. 55 p.
- Lengyel M. (2007): TDM Működési Kézikönyv (TDM Operational Handbook). Heller Farkas Főiskola, Budapest, 212 p.
- Nemes Nagy József (szerk.) (2005): Regionális elemzési módszerek (Regional analytical methods). Regionális Tudományi Tanulmányok 11. kötet. ELTE Regionális Földrajzi Tanszék – MTA-ELTE Regionális Tudományi Kutatócsoport, Budapest, 284 p.
- Nemzeti Turizmusfejlesztési Konceptió (National Tourism Development Concept) 2014-2024.
- Nemzeti Turizmusfejlesztési Stratégia (National Tourism Development Strategy) 2005-2013. In: Turizmus Bulletin, IX. évfolyam, különszám, 2005. december, 56 p.
- Nyirádi Á. – Semsei S. (szerk.) (2007): Balatoni TDM füzetek (TDM Booklets to Balaton). Balatoni Integrációs és Fejlesztési Ügynökség Kht., Siófok, 108 p.
- OECD (2006): The New Rural Paradigm. Policies and Governance, Párizs: OECD, 164 p.
- Panyor Á. – Győriné Kiss E. – Gulyás L. (2011): Bevezetés a desztináció menedzsmentbe (Introduction to Destination Management). Keszthely, (elérhető: http://www.tankonyvtar.hu/en/tartalom/tamop425/0034_beve)

zetes_a_desztinacio_men_jegyzet/bevezetes_a%20desztinacio_menedzsmentbe_jegyzet.pdf, letöltve: 2014.03.10.)

- Piskóti I. – Hidvéginé Molnár J. – Pataki S. – Schumpler H. – Gulyás I. (2007): Desztináció-menedzsment lépésről-lépésre (Desatination Management step by step). Módszertani füzet desztináció-menedzsment szervezetek létrehozásához és működtetéséhez az Észak-magyarországi Turisztikai Régió példáján – munkaanyag. Eger – Miskolc, 43 p.
- Presenza, A. – Sheehan, L. – Ritchie, J.R.B. (2005): Towards a model of the roles and activities of destination management organizations. *Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure Science*, 3, pp. 1-16.
http://www.academia.edu/1009194/Towards_a_model_of_the_roles_and_activities_of_destination_management_organizations (2015.01.02.)
- Ray C. (1998): Culture, Intellectual Property and Territorial Rural Development. *Sociologia Ruralis* (1) 3–20. p.
- Ritter K. (2008): A helyi fejlesztés esélyei – agrárfoglalkoztatási válság és területi egyenlőtlenségek Magyarországon (Opportunities for local development - agricultural employment crisis and territorial disparities in Hungary). *Területi statisztika* 48. (5) pp. 554-572.
- Soisalon-Soininen, T. – Lindroth, K. (2006): Regional Tourism Co-operation in Progress. In Lazzeretti, L. – Petrillo, C. S. (Ed.): *Tourism Local Systems And Networking*. Elsevier Science & Technology. Oxford. pp.187-196.
- Swinburn G. - Goga S. - Murphy F. (2004): A helyi gazdaságfejlesztés kézikönyve. Gütersloh: Bertelsmann Stiftung; London: UK DFID; Washington D.C.: The World Bank, 107 p.
- Tasnádi, J. (2006): Turizmus az Európai Unióban és Magyarországon (Tourism in Europe and in Hungary). Magyar Kereskedelmi és Ipari Kamara, Budapest, 98 p.
- Virág Á. (2016): A turisztikai együttműködések gazdasági szerepe (Economic role of tourist cooperation). *Studia Mundi – Economica* Vol. 3. (2) pp. 115-124.
- Wade R. H. (2003): The Disturbing Rise in Poverty and Inequality: Is It All a "Big Lie"? 18-46. p. in Held D. - Koenig A. M. (Szerk.): *Taming Globalization: Frontiers of Governance*. Cambridge: Polity Press, 208 p.

Mónika Urbán-Malomsoki, Kitti Némedi-Kollár, László Péli

A PRIMARY ANALYSIS OF DEVELOPMENT OPPORTUNITIES IN MEZŐKÖVESD

Introduction

Mezőkövesd is the center of the region, which is located 48 kilometres from Miskolc, and 21 kilometres from Eger. The transport infrastructure is well-established (M3 highway passes by the town, Budapest-Miskolc-Kosice railway-line passes through the city, the Tisza River in close proximity), but the existing airport does not operate, the nearest functioning airport is 100 km farther away.

The town is a major tourist destination; a very important spa (Zsóry Bath) is located in the city, as well as many other special tourist destinations. From these Eger is the most prominent - as the cultural, historical and culinary destination; as well as the Lake Tisza - as a major ecotourism destination, but the Bükk Mountain and Hortobágy are in close proximity as well.

Mezőkövesd, as the center of Matyóföld, is extremely rich in folk art, folk tradition. Matyóföld is also the birthplace of the world-famous Matyó embroidery, which also won Hungarikum title.

Materials and methods

The basis of the investigation was provided by the town of Mezőkövesd, as a settlement with significant tourist attractions. The primary investigation was based on a questionnaire survey among the local population, which was carried out in April and May, 2016. During that time, 663 pieces of paper-based questionnaires were filled out. The survey took place on work days, from morning to evening, in order to reach as many segments of the population as possible.

It was an important principle during the survey to find respondents from different areas (districts) of the town, from different age groups and from different other demographic groups as well.

The questionnaire contained 24 complex questions (sometimes with sub-questions), which were categorised into 6 themes. These are the

- ecological questions,
- the built environment,
- the economic environment,
- tourism,
- human resource, and
- the personal details of the respondent.

The questionnaire contains three main question types. One is the open question, by which we intended to learn the personal opinions of the respondents. The other one is the combined question, in which the respondent can choose from predefined questions, but after that there is an option to give other answers as well, in order to ensure that the respondents can give various answers to the questions. The third main question type is to rank (evaluate) the questions on a scale of 6. The number 6 was chosen, because this way there is more chance to get relevant answers from the respondents; their answer will always be either more negative or more positive, and never neutral. This method was used mostly in the cases of subjective questions to ensure that the opinion of the population will be uncovered perfectly.

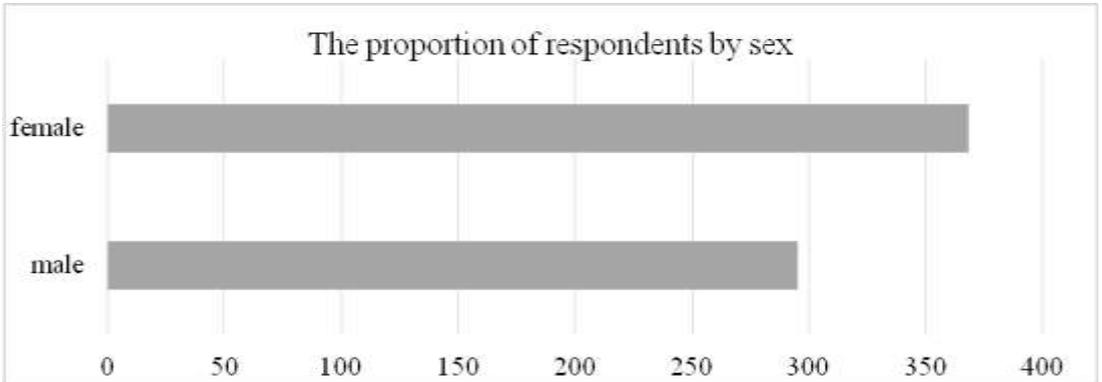
The results gathered by this methodology are presented through a score-based evaluation as well.

The questionnaires were processed by using mathematical-statistical methods.

Results and discussion

Our questionnaire was filled out by 663 people. The sex ratio in these research: 295 men and 368 women responded to our questions.

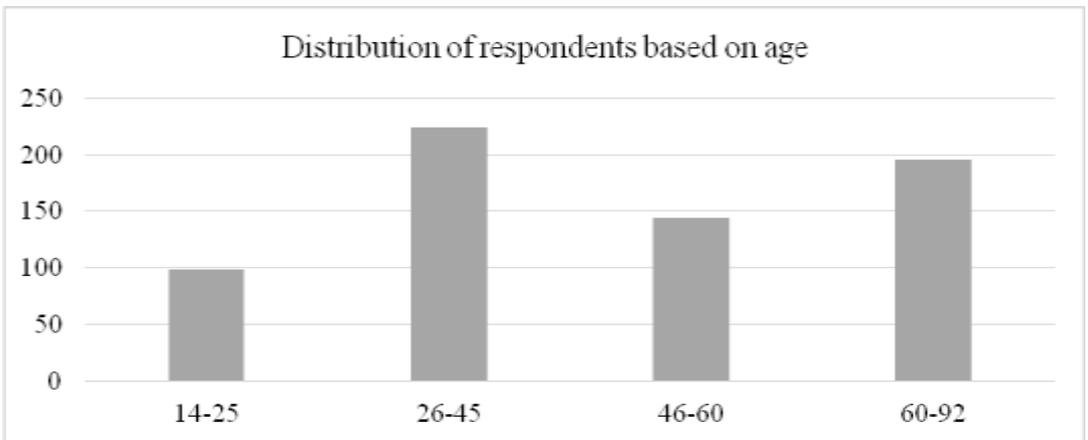
Figure 1: The proportion of respondents by sex



Source: Own editing based on questionnaire data, 2016.

The second figure shows the number of respondents by age.

Figure 2: Distribution of respondents based on age



Source: Own editing based on questionnaire data, 2016.

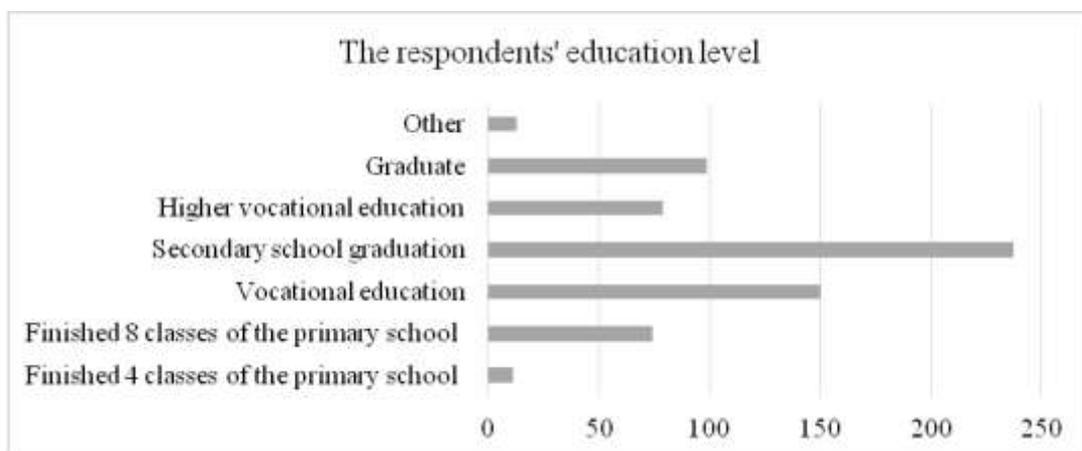
The youngest age group was between 14-25 years who are 14.93% of the total sample (99 people). The biggest proportion is the middle-aged group, which gave 224 responses to our questionnaire which is 33.79 %.

The third group was between 46-60 years; in other words those who stand before retirement completed 144 questionnaires. Finally, the group with age above 60 years. From this group 196 people answered our questions, and with 29.56% of the answers they are the second largest group.

Considering that we did the questionnaire on weekdays, the completed questionnaires represent all age groups well.

Figure 3 shows the distribution of the 663 respondents based on the level of education.

Figure 3: The respondents' education level



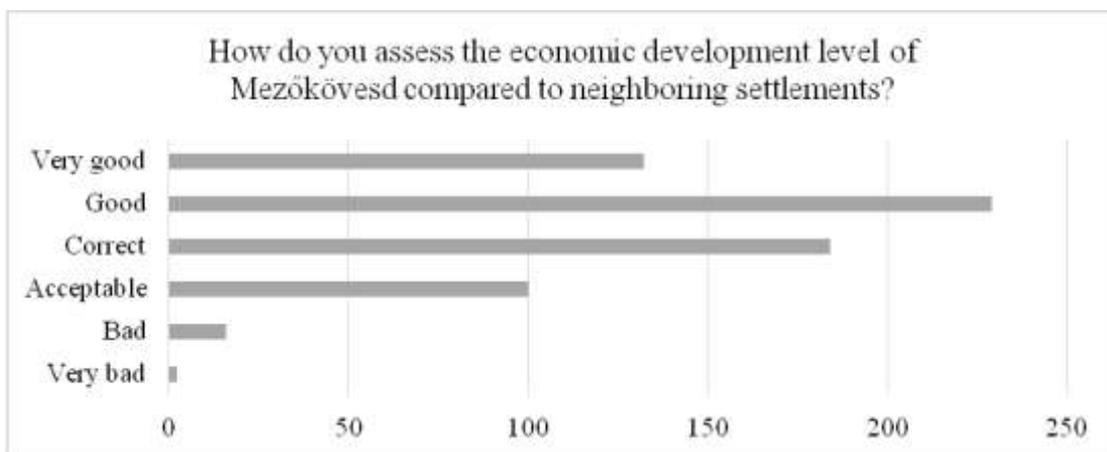
Source: Own editing based on questionnaire data, 2016.

The two groups with the lowest number of units were the one which only finished 4 classes of the primary school and „other“ group (with even lower education level). These groups remained below 2% in both cases. The group with eight classes of primary school contains 74 people (11.16%), and 79 people (11.79%) have a certificate from higher vocational education. The second biggest group is the vocational school graduates, which contains 150 members (22.62%). The number of graduates is a little lower than this group (99 people, 14.93%). Most of the respondents - one in every three respondents – has secondary school graduation, 237 people (35.75%) member of this group.

After the presentation of the general characteristics of the interviewed sample, we illustrate the economy-related results of Mezőkövesd.

Starting off the economic issues, we discussed how local residents perceive the development of their city in relation to neighbouring settlements. The results of the investigation are shown in Figure 4.

Figure 4: How do you assess the economic development level of Mezökövesd compared to neighbouring settlements?



Source: Own editing based on questionnaire data, 2016.

Only a negligible percentage, 0.3% and 2.3% of the respondents gave the answers „very bad" or "bad". These respondents are typically retirees and job seekers. However, 37.5% of those who gave the answer "bad" were students, so these responses were not the results of living in difficult situation, most common for pensioners and jobseekers.

15 percent of respondents gave the answer "acceptable", which is exactly 100 people. An interesting fact is that 62% this group consists people with bachelor or higher education levels.

The second largest group was the respondents giving the answer "correct". It consists of 184 people, ie 27.7%. Looking deeper into the composition of the group, it was discovered that the percentage of non-

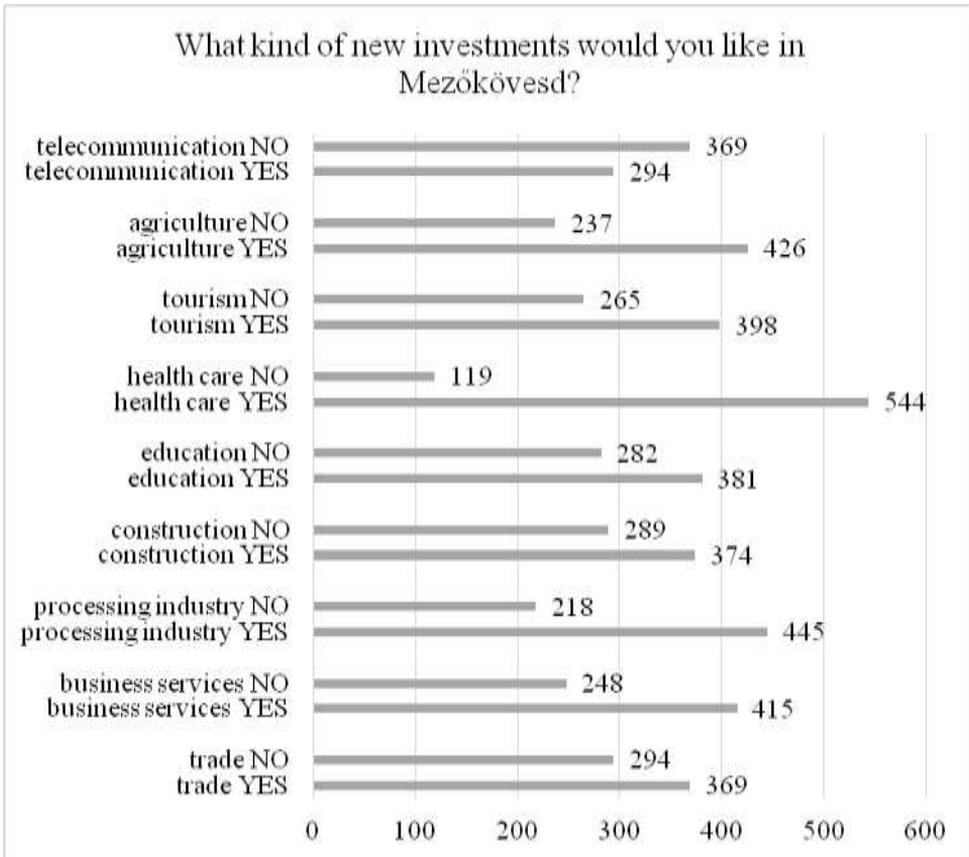
working-ages respondents was high within the group; 42.4% of the group is made up by retired people and students. The income per capita in this group is higher than in the previous one (61 600 HUF per capita on average).

The largest group gave the answer "good", which means that roughly one in every three respondents falls to this category (34.45%, or 229 people). Most of the respondents (about 62.6%) are from the working age population, although the data also reveals that the average age is very high in this section (56.4 years). On the six-point scale this is the second-best category, and therefore we have a good reason to believe that the income of this group is higher than the earlier. We believe that our assumption is correct, because it is almost HUF 65 000 per capita.

The best possible answer ("very good") was chosen by the third largest group - nearly 20 percent (19.9% - 132 people) thought that Mezőkövesd has the strongest economy compared to the surrounding communities. Not surprisingly, the average age is the lowest in this group, not much more than 40 years, and this group has the highest income per capita, it is almost HUF 70 000.

In this paper we made an attempt to find out – by evaluating recent years and the current situation – that what kind of new investments should the inhabitants prefer in their settlement. Figure 5 illustrates the answers to this question.

Figure 5: What kind of new investments would you like to see in Mezőkövesd?



Source: Own editing based on questionnaire data, 2016.

With the previous questions we sought to find out how satisfied the respondents are with the economic results of the past period and with the current situation; now we are looking at the areas where the greatest need for improvements is. The first sector was trade, where 56% of respondents felt that trade was needed to further develop. They thought mostly about retail networks of Mezőkövesd, especially non-food products. Among young respondents, this response was extremely high, saying that the trade in clothing and fashion products needs to be improved.

In the second section, the range of economic services should also be developed according to 62.5 per cent of the sample. When talking about economic services, the interviewees mentioned primarily the IT development, innovation development, project development and tourism development. The improvement of renewable energy development and financial services accounting services were also mentioned.

The largest share of support has been given to the processing industry, which has received over 67% support, so two from three interviewees would support such progress. This amount of support is not a coincidence, as it is evident from the introduction, because Mezőkövesd is perfectly suited for the food processing industry. It lies in the northern part of the Great Plain, with outstanding transport infrastructural capabilities, ideal for acquiring raw materials and transport of finished goods.

56% of the questionnaires would support the development of construction investments. In this case, the respondents were not necessarily thinking of building new buildings, but rather of reconstructing existing ones, preserving their condition, and improving them. According to many, the construction of the largest construction project to date, the Zsóry Baths, has been solved or resolved, as 2-3 large-scale hotels have been built in recent years near the spa.

In the case of education, improvements are also needed, according to 57% of the respondents. Primary education can be said to be good, in addition to elementary school education at several locations, arts, music, dance, and arts and crafts education are also implemented. There are secondary grammar schools, secondary vocational schools, and numerous vocational training courses in the city. Development is best described here in the form of vocational training tailored to market needs, and the training of a tertiary education institution promotes such development.

Healthcare development received the largest support, for it was more than 82 percent of respondents who reported that immediate investments are needed in the sector. Respondents would like to see significant improvements in terms of basic services, but also wish that the accessibility of the various specialist clinics to be considerably improved. Just as in the development of the Mezőkövesd hospital. Some respondents emphasized the need for investment in dental care.

Perhaps the most interesting issue is the development of tourism, as in the last few decades, most of the development and investment have taken place in this sector. Its important position is absolutely accepted, since the economy of Mezőkövesd - a nationally important bathing resort - is one of the most important pillars of tourism. Accordingly, respondents support such developments, 60% believe it is necessary, while 40% believe that support from other sectors is more important.

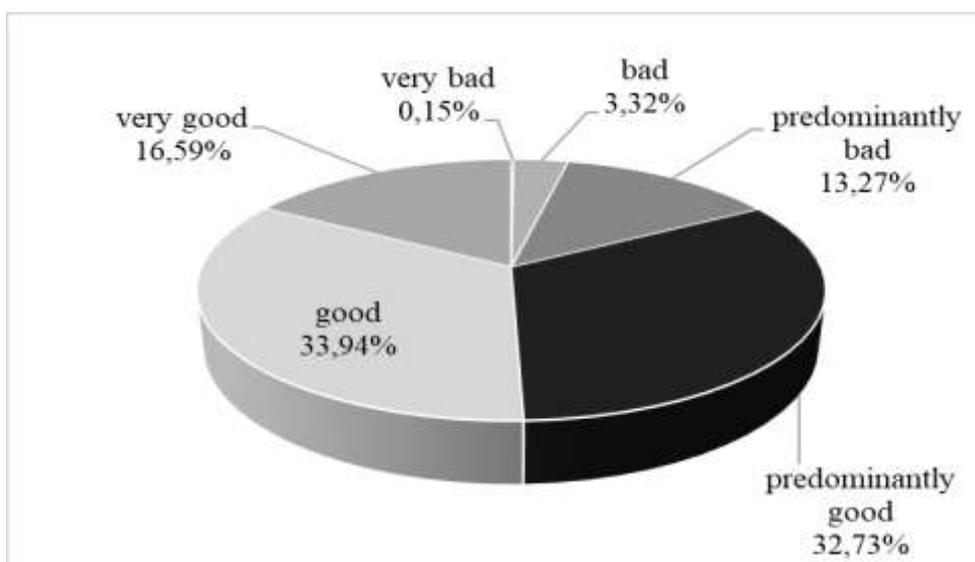
Agricultural investments, mostly related to food processing developments, would be supported by 62% of respondents. The coordinated development of agriculture and food processing is a fundamental goal not only to produce raw materials, but to add value to the local economy by using local labor force.

It is interesting that only one item was rejected by the respondents in the development of an area, which was the telecommunications sector, where nearly 56% said no development was needed in this area. Respondents can be divided into two large groups on this issue based on age structure; the younger generation responded that it is necessary to develop and expand existing telecommunication infrastructure according to today's needs. Adult and elderly people typically do not support this type of investment, claiming that the level of existing telecommunications services (television, internet, telephone, etc.) is sufficient for them.

As a first step of investigating opportunities in tourism, we wanted to investigate how the inhabitants think about the town's tourism activity. As seen on Figure 6, the local population is generally satisfied with the local tourism. On the scale of 1 to 6, the two least favourable answers were given by only 3.47% of the population. 13.27% said that tourism is predominantly bad, while 32.73% said that it is predominantly good, and 33.94% stated that tourism is good in Mezőcsát. 16.59% gave the "very good" vote to this question. Based on the answers, we can establish that 83% of the respondents gave positive answers.

In case we use scoring, and very bad scores as "1", while very good scores as „6", than, based on calculating the average of these numbers, the tourism of Mezőkövesd scored 4.47.

Figure 6: How do you assess the tourism of Mezőkövesd, generally speaking?

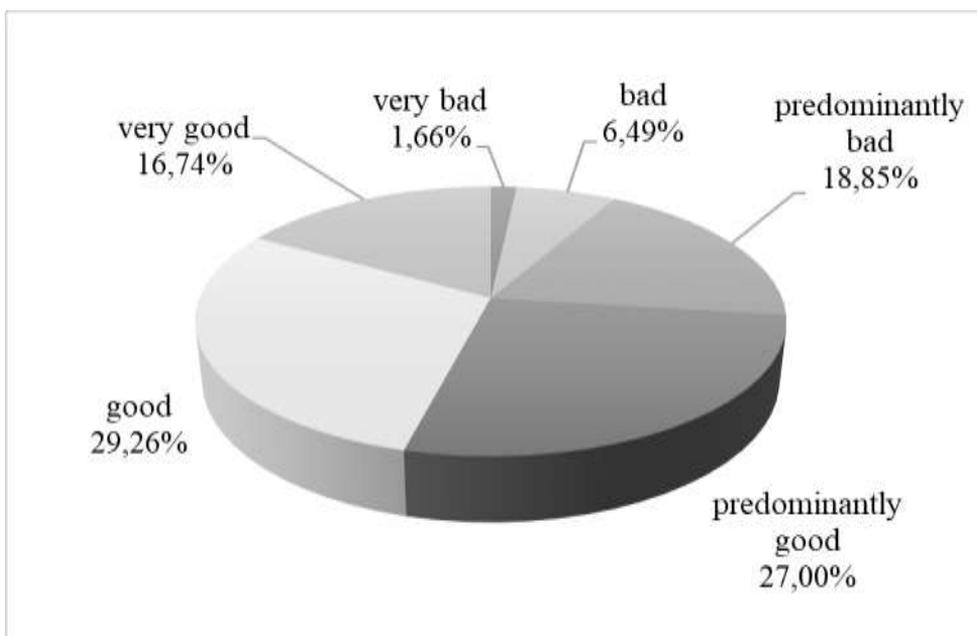


Source: Own editing based on questionnaire data, 2016.

Besides the general evaluation of tourism, we have investigated how the people viewed the state of tourism-related infrastructure.

The most important element of this category in the view of the people visiting this town, is the quality and quantity of accommodations.

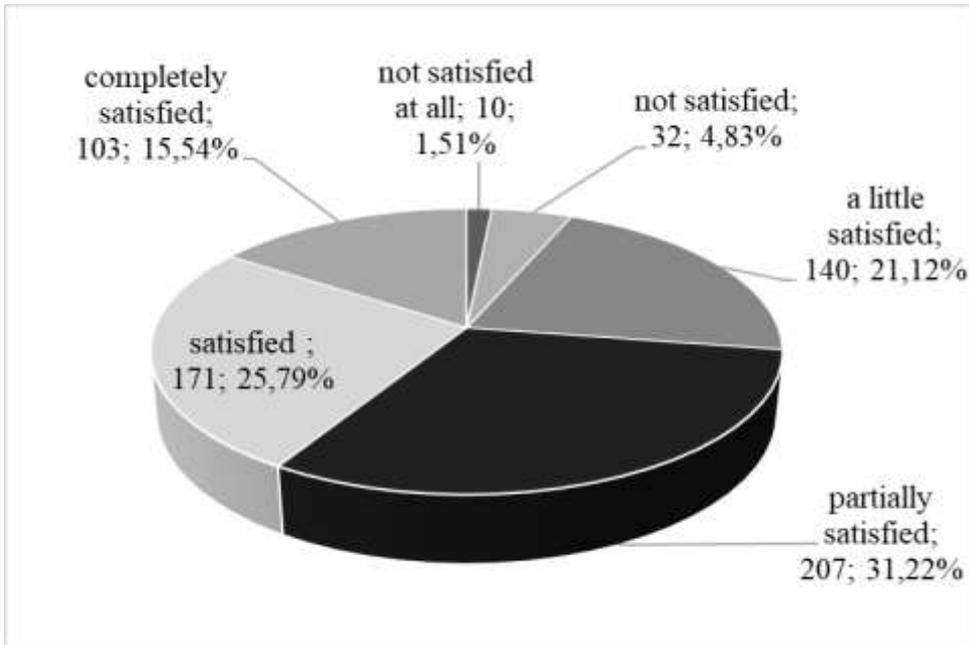
Figure 7: How do you find the accommodations from the view of people who visit the town?



Source: Own editing based on questionnaire data, 2016.

Figure 7 represents well that there is a distinct similarity between the opinions about accommodations and tourism generally. Opinions are somewhat lower about accommodations; however, the average score of this subject was 4.26-os. The percentage of people who gave the "predominantly good", "good", and "very good" answers was 73%.

Figure 8: How satisfied are you with the physical state of the houses in Hadas district?

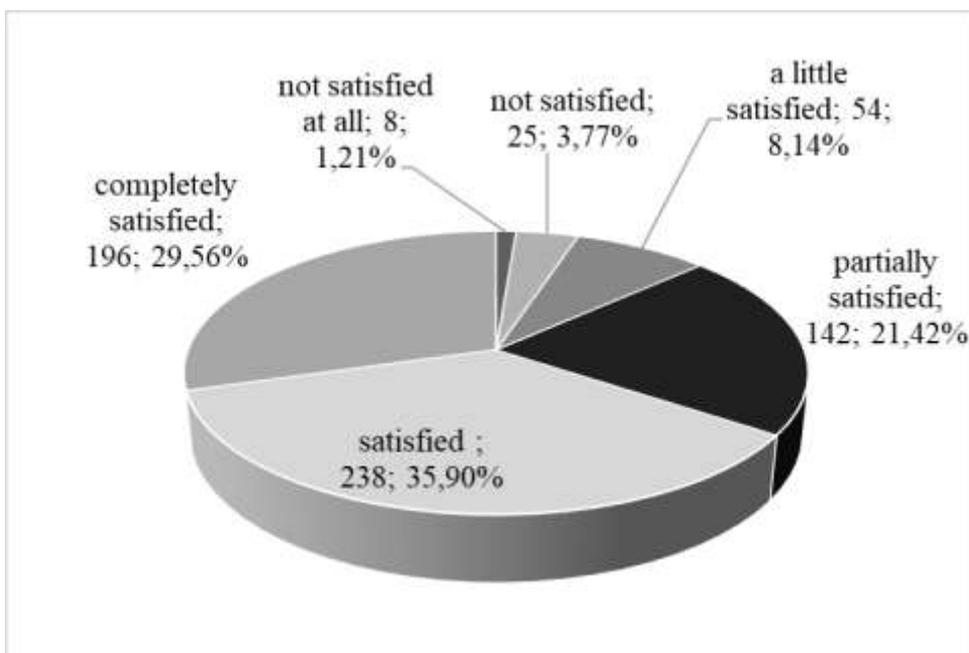


Source: Own editing based on questionnaire data, 2016.

The monuments, museums, places preserving and showcasing folk art have contributed much to the attractiveness of the Hadas district of the settlement. Therefore, the questionnaire contained questions about this part of the town as well, about the houses of the district, respectively.

It was found that the houses and lands of that district are positively assessed by the population. Figure 8 shows that 74% of the respondents thought that the houses there are of above the average physical state.

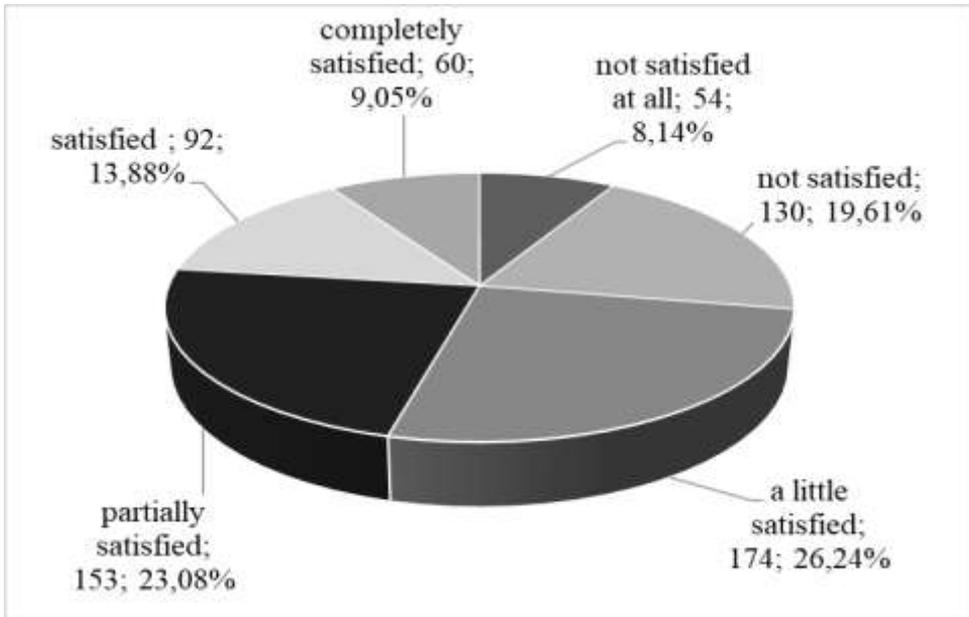
Figure 9: How satisfied are you with the physical state of the town centre?



Source: Own editing based on questionnaire data, 2016.

Besides Hadas district (and Zsóry), the main area that attracts tourists in the town is the centre. One of the highest scoring, most favoured elements in the database containing the results, was the physical state of the town centre. 86.88% of the respondents thought that the town centre is above average quality. Figure 9 showcases that almost 30% of the respondents are completely satisfied with the town centre, while 36% are simply satisfied, and 21% are not satisfied.

Figure 10: How satisfied are you with the leisure venues and entertainment opportunities?



Source: Own editing based on questionnaire data, 2016.

It is always desirable for a touristically attractive settlement to offer leisure venues, in a cultural environment. Unfortunately, based on our survey, the leisure venues (and entertainment generally) in the town are not sufficient. Figure 10 points out that the population is medium satisfied with them. There is a significant number (26.24%) number of people, who are predominantly not satisfied, and 23% is the proportion of those, who are predominantly satisfied; this means, that approximately half of the population thinks that the local leisure venues could be better.

By using the scoring method, the quality and number of leisure venues was only 3.42.

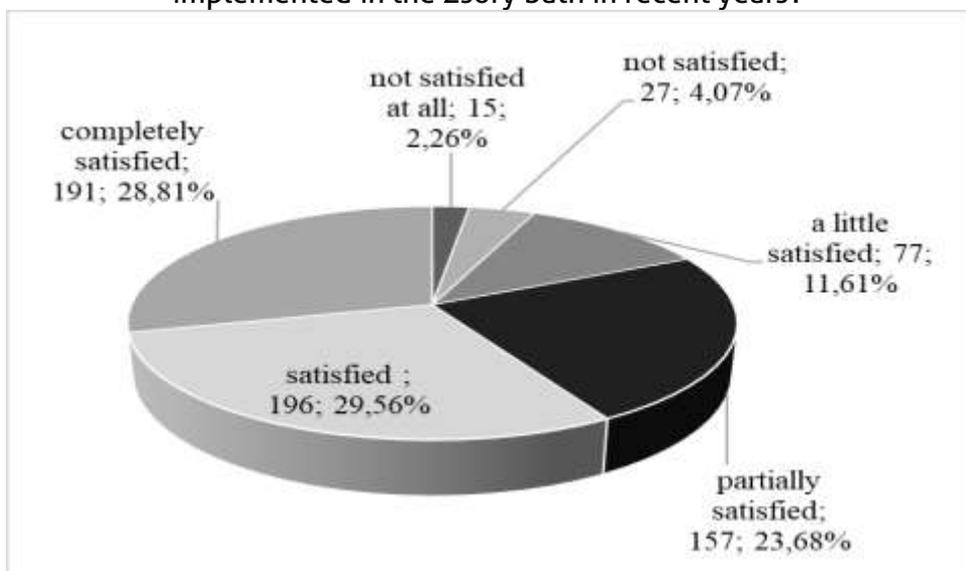
By going into the details of the responses we could see that the higher scores were given by the age group above 40.

Besides the services, the public cleanness was also investigated. This subject matter scored 4.04, which represents a general satisfaction. Only 10% of the respondents said that they were not satisfied, or completely not satisfied with it.

The situation is not that good related to public safety. 11.46% of the population believes that crime rates have been significantly growing in recent years, and only 9.8% thought that crime rates dropped. Judging by the average responses, we can establish that 54.6% said that crime rates have increased, and 45.4% stated that they have dropped in the town.

Besides the cultural values of Mezőkövesd, the Zsóry bath has a very a significant tourist potential, due to the fact that it provides services for tourists in the whole year. Therefore, the survey was conducted along two topics. Firstly, the respondents were asked to form opinion about the implemented development activities, and then they were asked about how often do they use the bath's services.

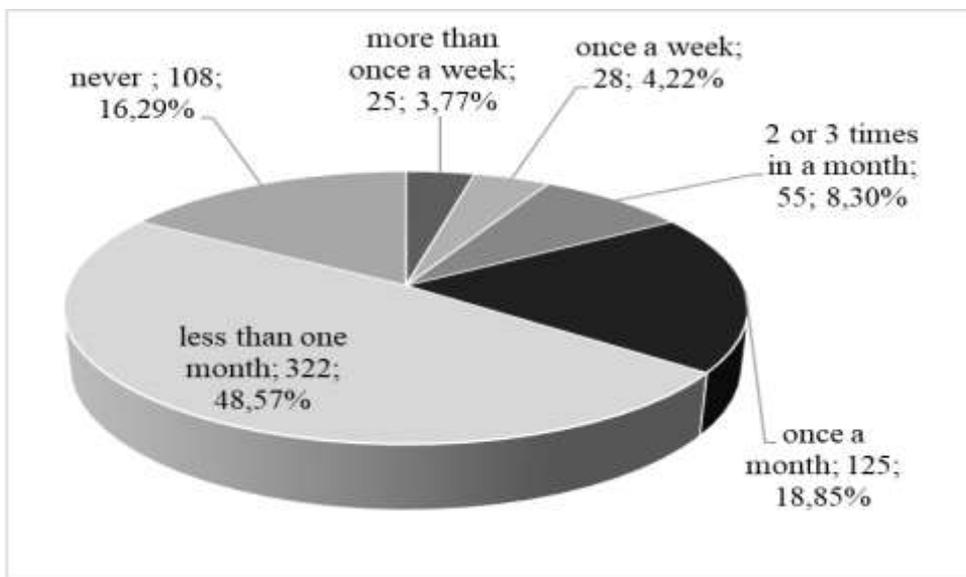
Figure 11: How satisfied are you with the development activities implemented in the Zsóry bath in recent years?



Source: Own editing based on questionnaire data, 2016.

Judging by Figure 11, the population is very satisfied with the recent development actions, which were implemented related to the bath.

Figure 12: How often do you visit the Zsóry Bath?



Source: Own editing based on questionnaire data, 2016.

The evaluation of the bath-visiting habits brought very interesting results. Figure 12 points out, that only 3.77% of the locals visits the bath more than once a week; 4.22% goes to the bath once a week, and 8.3% visits it 2 or 3 times in a month. 18.85% of the respondents visit the bath once a month, but 48.57% goes there even more rarely, and 16.29% never visits the local bath.

By analysing the relationship between visiting the bath and personal data, it was found that those who do not visit the bath consist of older- or less educated people. There were many physical workers and single persons among them as well.

The regular visitors of the bath are predominantly of the younger generations.

Conclusion

Many studies deal with the description of rural areas (Czabadai, 2016; Kassai–Ritter, 2011; with its economy (Káposzta 2014; Nagyné Molnár, 2010; Péli – Káposzta - Urbán-Malomsoki, 2016; Ritter 2014), breakout points (Topa, 2015), and with its supply of tourist attractions (Káposzta-Nagy-Nagy, 2013; Urbán-Malomsoki – Péli – Péter, 2016). The majority of the studies conclude that the development of rural areas, their elevation from the periphery is simply not possible.

In spite of that, based on our primary research, we could see that the population of Mezőkövesd evaluated positively the development path of the town, from a touristic point of view, at least.

It means, that the majority of the respondents are satisfied with the tourist attractions and tourism-related supply of Mezőkövesd, „Matyófold”. They also consider physical condition of the accommodation, the town centre, and other tourist spots good. Besides the local monument, the respondents deemed satisfactory the physical condition of the town centre and the buildings and sidewalks of the Hadas district.

Considering the fact that Zsóry bath, which is situated in the Western part of the town, could be a separated tourist attraction, it received special focus in the investigation. It was found, that the population of the settlement deem the reconstruction works of the bath positive, and they are glad that development activities took place there. They also believe that Zsóry is a cardinal tourist spot for the town.

It was also found, however, that although the town provides special discount for its inhabitants when using the bath (www.mezokovesd.hu), only a small proportion of the inhabitants visit use the recreational services of the bath. Many of them – it became obvious for us during the survey – are neutral towards the bath. They know about its existence, and they are glad that it is improving, but they do not visit it, due to the ticket prices and because they do not believe they need it.

Considering the fact that the health- and mental health state of the population is always very important for a settlement, we recommend that the bath be opened for the local population in off-season, for a lower price, when the number of tourists from other regions is lower. It would also be good to organise a joint programme for the opening of the bath, which would attract those population segments, which

basically do not visit it. This would ensure that more people would learn about the positive effects of the bath, and also that there would be larger demand generated towards the bath.

Another important result of our investigation was that almost the whole sample deemed the local leisure venues and entertainment opportunities negatively.

When a tourist can find proper accommodation, cultural values, recreational opportunities related to thermal baths in a town, they also probably wish to visit facilities providing entertainment in the area. We recommend establishing and developing leisure venues and other entertainment facilities in the town, which would attract different age groups in the weekends, but also on weekdays in the tourist season.

To sum it up, it can be established that the tourism potentials and attractions of Mezőkövesd are satisfactory, the quality and number of attractions is good, but there is an urgent need for developing local entertainment facilities.

References:

- Czabadai L. (2016): A methodology for positioning tourism in rural development In: Vladimir Trukhachev (szerk.) Sustainable development of tourism market: international practices and Russian experience. 132 p. Stavropol: Stavropol State Agrarian University, 2016. pp. 22-27. (ISBN:978-5-9907780-7-8)
- Kassai, Zs. – Ritter, K. (2011): Helyi vidékfejlesztési programok a hátrányos helyzetű vidéki térségekben. In: Gazdálkodás, 55 (4), pp. 337-346. ISSN 0046-5518.
- Káposzta J. - Nagy A. - Nagy H. (2013): Territorial distribution of the touristic funds in the Hungarian regions In: Szendrő K., Soós M. (szerk.) Proceedings of the 4th International Conference of Economic Sciences. Kaposvár, p. 89. (ISBN:978-963-9821-62-0)
- Káposzta, J. (2014): Major spatial economic coherences of regional differences, *Gazdálkodás* 58:(5) pp. 399-412.
- Nagyné Molnár, M. (2010): Settlements- and settlement-networks; Szent István University, Gödöllő, SZIU Publishing Office, 4-39 ps
- Ritter, K. (2014): Possibilities of social farming in local economic development, In: Takácsné György, Katalin (Ed.), The transition, adaptive agriculture and rural: XIV. International Scientific Days: Gyöngyös, pp. 1261-1270.

- Topa Z. (2015): The impacts of motorway investments on regional development, In: Witold Jedynek, Jaroslaw Kinal (szerk.) Selected aspects of socio-economical changes in a post-modern society. 152 p., Rzeszów, pp. 107-117. (ISBN:978-83-7996-211-2)
- Urbán-Malomsoki M.-Péli L.-Péter B. (2016): The analysis of touristic opportunities in Mezőkövesd, In: Challenges in the Carpathian Basin: Integration and modernization opportunities on the edge of Europe (13th Annual International Conference on Economics and Business) pp. 441-451., (ISBN:978-973-53-1901-4)
- Péli L.- Káposzta J.- Urbán-Malomsoki M. (2016): The analysis of the economy and development opportunities of Mezőkövesd, In: Andrea Csata, Báborka Eszter Bíró, Gergely Fejér-Király , Ottilia György, János Kassay, Benedek Nagy, Levente-József Tánczos (szerk.) Challenges in the Carpathian Basin. Integration and modernization opportunities on the edges of Europe: 13th Annual International Conference on Economics and Business, pp. 738-759. (ISBN:978-973-53-1855-0)
- www.mezokovesd.hu (12. January 2017.)

Lilla Áldorfai Czabadaj, Zoltán Topa

SPRAWLING CITIES VERSUS GREEN AREAS – MITIGATING THE NEGATIVE EFFECTS OF URBAN SPRAWLS

Introduction

The main theme of this paper is urban sprawls, which are not as widespread in Europe as it is, for example, in the United States. The main reason behind this is that European cities are generally more compact than their US counterparts, which makes the formation of urban sprawls more difficult. But what exactly are urban sprawls?

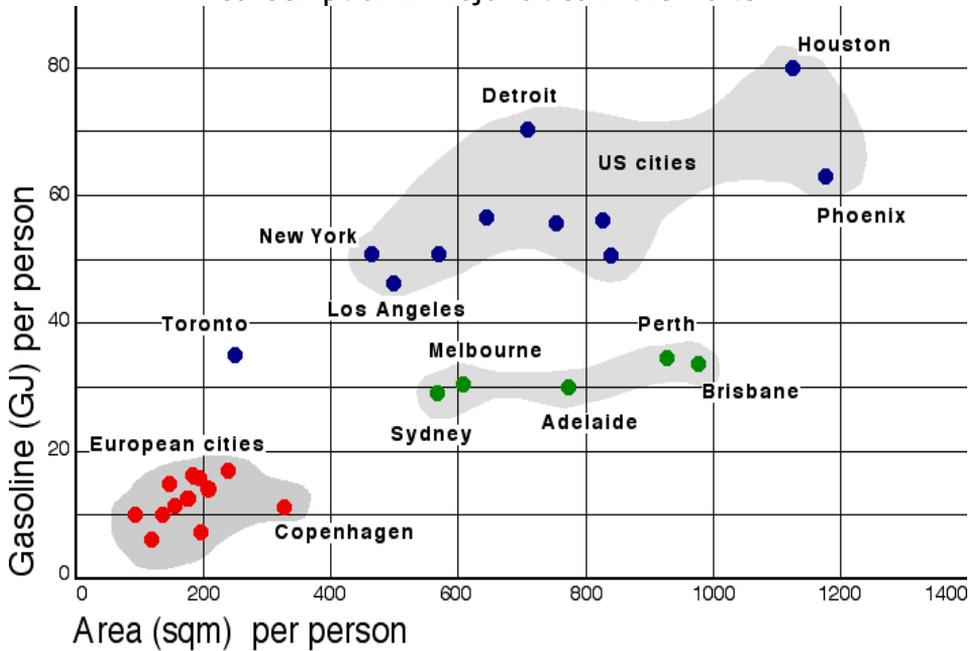
Every settlement has areas with different functions: shopping districts, residential areas, tourist districts, office districts, etc., which have certain distance between them in space and time. According to the European Environmental Agency (EEA), sprawls are the physical patterns of low-density expansion of large urban areas, under market conditions, mainly in the direction of the surrounding agricultural areas (EEA, 2006). The viewpoint of Frumkin (2002) is quite similar, since his definition is also centred on the theory of how cities extend in the direction of rural areas in a low-density pattern and different forms of land use, such as housing, retail stores, offices, industry, recreational facilities, and public spaces. Furthermore, these areas are kept separate from each other, with the separation enforced by both custom and zoning laws. There have also been academics (Díaz-Pacheco – García-Palomares, 2014; Ewing, 1997; Galster et al, 2001) who focused on urban sprawls consisting of large housing areas; therefore, their definitions concentrated these types of sprawls. However, they shared the other main aspects of these phenomena in their definitions with the previous two documents, about low-density patterns and about the fragmentation of urban space, respectively.

To counter the negative effects of urban sprawls first their cause must be established. Urban sprawls are not entirely new challenges, and there is considerable literature dealing with this subject. Population changes are major drivers behind this phenomenon (Liu – Jiang, 2011; Brueckner, 2000; Nechyba – Walsh, 2004), but they are not the only ones. Most academics agree that there are some main reasons behind this phenomenon, and some of them are presented below. Two of the many reasons could be derived from structural conditions (fragmented local governance) and policies such as infrastructure subsidies

favouring outlying locations (Pendall, 2003). It is quite obvious that an area targeted by the central or local governments to be developed and financial or legal steps is taken in this direction, too, will have a better chance to prosper than other regions. If the local government, however, is not capable to regulate the growth rate and the shape of the supported area, the development may be uneven and uncontrolled, leading to the creation of areas difficult to maintain.

The EEA (2006) also mentions uncontrolled growth and inefficiencies in development. This could be a solid reason behind urban sprawls, and it must be countered. In Europe the European Regional/Spatial Planning Charter (Council of Europe, 1983) describes the major Europe-wide objectives that policies for spatial planning should be based on, and one of its key directives is about sustainable land use patterns, which also indicates the problems of low-quality planning. Keserú (2005) and Gutfreund (2004), however, pointed out another possible cause: motorway investments (this was also supported by the EEA study in 2006). In Denver, the central area of the city experienced a serious depopulation, while the surrounding settlements simultaneously increased their population number. The authors agreed that the change was induced mostly by the expansion of the highway network reaching Denver (Gutfreund (2004) adopted by Keserú, 2005). The latter finding is also very likely, since building motorways (e.g. increasing accessibility) allows the inhabitants of a city to reach the centres (with job opportunities and services) in a shorter time, thus encouraging them to move further from the centres to find more peaceful and clean environment. If we take a look at Figure 1, we can see that the higher the population density is, the less gasoline people use.

Figure 1: The relationship between population density and fuel consumption in major cities in the world



Source: Newman – Kenworthy, 1989

It means, that the lower the population density is (as exemplified by some selected US cities), the more sprawling the city is, the more fuel the inhabitants will use. And this leads us to one of the effects of urban sprawls.

Possible negative effects of urban sprawls

As we could see it above, the population of large cities with lower population density usually uses more cars (higher fuel consumption levels), than more compact cities. This means for us many things. First of all, based on the assumption above, sprawling cities lead to serious environmental problems (air pollution, noise, particle pollution, etc.). Car dependency means that people will use cars to go shopping, to work, to study, to visit recreational areas or to attend administrative issues, and the situation becomes even worse if we consider that these areas usually lack proper public transportation systems.

Urban sprawls contribute to air pollution a great deal. The European Union created the EUROPE 2020 strategy to counter challenges, such as climate change, and one of the its objectives are to reduce greenhouse

gas emissions by 20% compared to 1990 levels. In this case some countries (for example, the V4 countries) were in a good situation, because of their relatively low carbon emission levels (which they could further decrease in some cases) (Káposzta – Nagy, 2015), but other, industrially more developed countries need to face greater challenges in this issue. This statement is especially true if we consider how urban sprawls seem to correlate economic development levels (the more, the higher).

Beside the environmental issues, car dependency causes health problems, and not only due to the increasing pollution, but due to the fact that they lose any chance to walk, potentially leading to obesity, living in a unifunctional area (which fact interestingly contradicts one of the basic reasons why people move outside the cities – namely, to live in a healthier environment). Also, using cars instead of public transportations makes the formation of communities more difficult.

The formation of communities is also hindered by the fact that these areas usually lack cultural attractions, parks, theatres, and other facilities that could provide opportunities for people to get together.

When conscious urban planning is lacking and outward growth occurs too quickly, serious infrastructure investments need to take place in these areas. These infrastructural elements have initial costs, and later maintenance costs, which may require higher taxes, so the local government can satisfy the needs of the inhabitants.

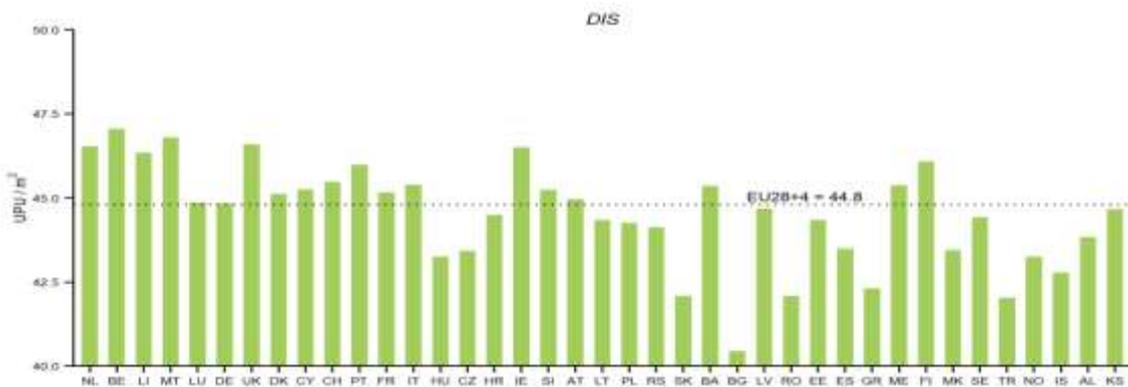
Finally, but very importantly, growing cities sometimes take away land from valuable rural areas, decreasing the green surface, which contribute to cleaner air and could provide recreational opportunities, not to mention their role in food production.

In the next chapter a short case study of Hungary will be presented. The country has huge agricultural areas and a quite special spatial structure, which does not seem to be threatened by urban sprawls in the classic sense. However, it is very likely, that, if not exactly traditional urban sprawls, but similarly harmful urban processes can occur in larger Hungarian cities.

The situation in Hungary

Since this paper aims to identify ways to mitigate urban sprawls, the authors considered it important to talk about the situation of their home country, which happens to be not yet affected by urban sprawls. Figure 2 demonstrates the differences in the level of urban sprawl between and within European states. It is based on calculations which use 2009 data from the Copernicus Land Monitoring Service High Resolution Layer (HRL) Imperviousness.

Figure 2: Urban sprawl by country and within countries (2009)

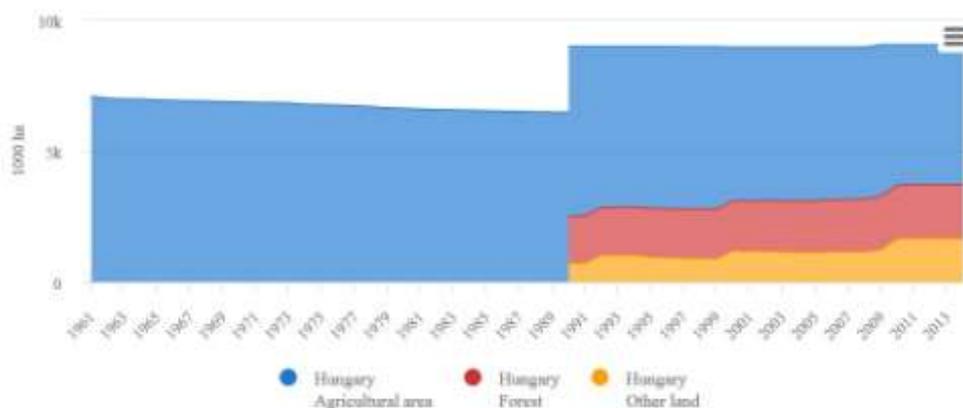


Source: Copernicus.eu, 2015

According to the figure, the most "sprawl-endangered" countries in Europe are the Netherlands, Belgium, Lithuania, Malta, the United Kingdom, Ireland and Finland. From the V4 countries Slovakia is in the best situation, followed by Hungary and the Czech Republic, while Poland is in relative risk.

Although we can observe that the main form of land use in Hungary is still agriculture, the country is in the process of urbanisation. Figure 3 shows us changes in land use patterns in Hungary.

Figure 3: Land use patterns in Hungary between 1961 and 2015 (1000 ha)



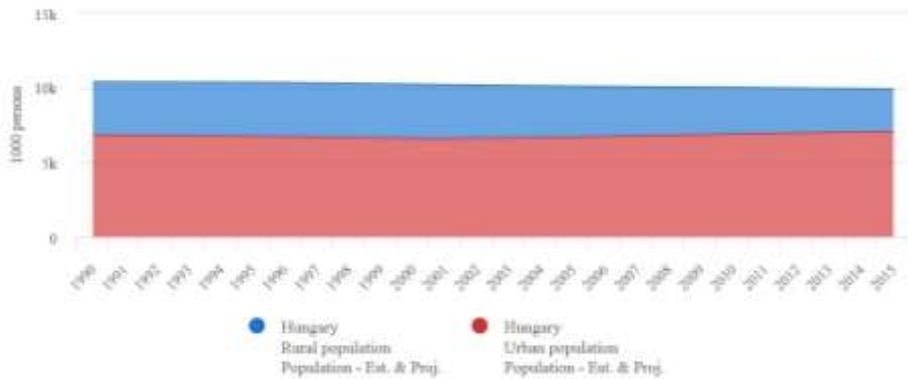
Source: FAOSTAT, 2017

We can see the proportion of agricultural area has been decreasing since 1961, and while there was no data between 1961 and 1991 about forest- and other lands, the figure shows that the proportion of other lands (e.g. built-up areas) has been increasing.

Despite the large rural land stock, the Hungarian population is highly urbanised, as showcased on Figure 4.

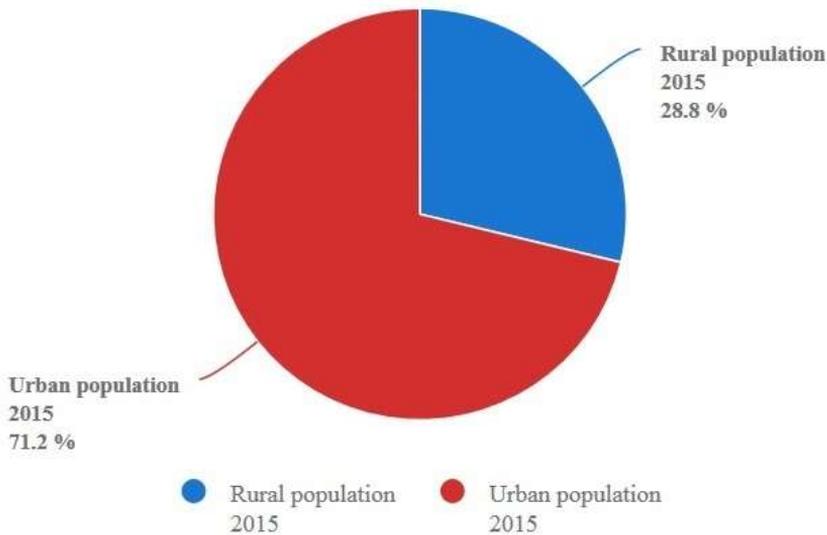
While between 1990 and 2001 the urban/rural populations were in relative balance, the proportion of urban population started to grow in 2002. Figure 5 provides more concrete information about the proportions of the two groups.

Figure 4: Rural and urban population in Hungary, between 1990 and 2015 (1000 persons)



Source: FAOSTAT, 2017

Figure 5: Rural and urban population in Hungary in 2015, %



Source: FAOSTAT, 2017

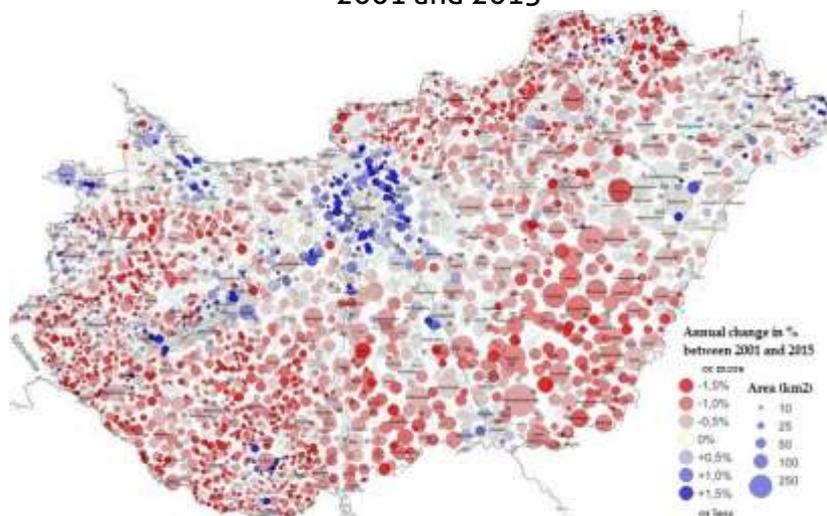
Based on the figure we can establish that Hungary was highly urbanised by 2015 with its urban population reaching 71.2%. This data, and the fact that urban population is growing (in Hungary, and worldwide as well), it is rightful to consider the threat of urban sprawls, especially considering the special nature of the spatial structure of the Hungarian settlement system. However desired it would be, the country is heavily

centralised, the capital (Budapest) being its most significant city. In fact, from the roughly 10 million inhabitants of Hungary, approximately 1.7 million lives in Budapest, while only about 800 thousand people live in the next five most populated cities. There are many historical, political and economic reasons for this, and this situation is not possible to change anytime soon.

Beside the overgrown nature of the capital, another great problem regarding to the spatial structure is the differences between the Western and East parts. Namely, that the parts of the country being closer to the Western border perform much better considering many economic indicators (GDP, GVA, etc.) than their Eastern (or Northern and Southern) counterparts. Some regions of the country are very disadvantageous. According to Némédi Kollár and Neszmélyi (2015), the least developed micro - regions are on the periphery of the country, and the reasons behind their disadvantageous nature are the low quality of human resource, the high rate of migration, bad infrastructure and social problems. Therefore, those who can, try to leave these areas, and they either leave the country, or move to a larger settlement, mostly Budapest, due to the fact that in Hungary the capital can provide the most jobs and services.

Figure 1 demonstrates a very important process in Hungary, which is also a sign of the formation of urban sprawls. We can see that most of the country is losing its population, while some more advantageous regions (mostly on the Western side or around larger towns) gain more inhabitants. However, it is clear that in the case of Budapest we cannot see that the city itself is growing, rather the population growth of the area surrounding it, and considering the literatures reviewed earlier in this paper, it makes a lot of sense: people would like to benefit from the services the city can provide, but refuse to live in the more crowded and polluted centres. Instead, they move close to Budapest, were they can enjoy greener environment and more peaceful life, commuting to the city every day.

Figure 1: Population changes in the Hungarian settlements between 2001 and 2015



Source: Népszéég.com, 2016

We could see above, that there are many negative effects caused by fragmented urban fabric created by uncontrolled growth. Hungary is not yet affected, but it can be in the future. The next section is about some possible ways to counter these effects.

Strategies to tackle the problem of urban sprawls

Basically, we can categorize the task to be done to tackle urban sprawls into two groups: prevention and adaptation. First, we will discuss prevention. One of the top reasons for urban sprawls is the lack of conscious planning. However, there are many things urban planners can do to prevent uncontrollable growth. Oueslati et al. (2015) found that land around cities with potentially high agricultural value can halt city growth. The reason behind this is that highly productive lands maintain or increase land values, making outward growth more expensive. Therefore, supporting agricultural production with high value added can help decreasing growth, and it has other positive impacts, too.

Another solution could be to make city centres more attractive to people, by incorporating the principles of smart growth into development. More green areas, better public transportation, multifunctional districts and attractive housing solutions, are good examples for achieving this goal. Sag and Karaman (2014) pointed out that the main objective of smart growth, in the context of tackling urban

sprawls, is to revive the city centres. Indeed, trying to revitalize older infrastructure or finding new functions for them is like cleaning up the city; getting rid of the problem of underutilized buildings and infrastructure, while keeping holding back the growth of the city, making it more compact.

Compactness, less fragmented urban fabric is also a desirable goal, since people move to cities to access many services and find jobs they are qualified for or which satisfy their needs. Therefore, consciously planning the growth of the city, taking into account the advantages of multifunctionality, while trying to avoid crowded city structure, is also a possible way to prevents sprawls to form.

Adaptation should be based on the same main principle (conscious planning), because the best way to stop uncontrolled growth is to gain back the control over the city area. However, it is more difficult, when we already have a sprawl to tackle.

The focus of every development attempt is the welfare of people. To ensure this, decision makers need to provide improvements in the population's life, which helps them becoming more satisfied with their city. One step is to establish a good public transport system. The ideal transportation system can be characterized by:

- reliability and regularity,
- reasonable pricing,
- favourable network cover,
- intermodality – ensuring good connections between different means of transportation,
- comfortable and safe travel.

Besides public transportation, walkability must be ensured as well. Walkability, sadly, is not a much discussed topic, although it affects the daily life of the population heavily. People should walk safely and comfortably anywhere in a settlement, since eventually everybody needs to walk to some extent to reach their destinations.

Finally, sprawling areas should be, if possible, transformed into more diverse, more multifunctional areas, for example, by establishing community development facilities. The focus of this idea is that too much car use can damage the environment, people's health and community ties as well. Therefore, people should be supported in

satisfying their social and other needs as close to them as possible. Naturally, by doing so new (and perhaps costly) infrastructural investments will be needed; however, when thinking strategically, long-term benefits should outweigh short-term ones.

Conclusions

There are significant differences between the regions of the world, and the primary cause is population flows (Káposzta, 2014). Population flow is a process that can be amplified by motorway and other road development. In many countries, for example, in Hungary, it was found that there is a strong correlation between the motorways and high development level of the centre areas (Péli, 2015). However, population flow, such as flow from the centres to the surrounding areas could cause significant problems. One of these problems is the urban sprawl. Growing urban areas (and urban population) would not pose as a great threat by themselves. However, if the problem is left unchecked and escalates, there can be serious consequences, because it may lead to uneven development patterns.

It was found that these parts of the cities consist of areas being relatively far from each other, thus increasing car dependency, so the residents of such areas need to use cars to go shopping, to reach their workplaces or to visit destinations of recreation (which they could otherwise do by walking or cycling, for instance). Also, public transportation is difficult and expensive to maintain in these areas, so car dependency and negative environmental impacts are also further increased by them.

The authors offered some suggestions based on the reviewed literature, the review of the Hungarian situation and their own professional experience. The most important suggestions are:

- promoting conscious urban planning,
- reviving city centres, making them more attractive,
- focusing on multifunctionality,
- improving public transportation and walkability and
- keeping in mind the principles of smart growth and compactness.

These are only a few suggestions for urban planners, and it is easier said than done. However, thinking on long-term is our responsibility in order to ensure liveable cities for the future generations as well.

References

Journals, books and studies

- Brueckner, J. K. (2000): Urban sprawl: diagnosis and remedies. *International Regional Science Review*, Vol. 23, no. 2, pp 160-171.
- Díaz-Pacheco, J., García-Palomares, J. C. (2014): Urban sprawl in the Mediterranean urban regions in Europe and the crisis effect on the urban land development: Madrid as study case. *Urban Studies Research*, vol. 2014, article ID: 807381.
- European Energy Agency (2006): Urban Sprawl in Europe. The ignored challenge. Joint Research Centre, European Environment Agency, Copenhagen. 60 p.
- Ewing, R. (1997): Is Los Angeles-style sprawl desirable? *Journal of the American Planning Association*, vol. 63, no. 1, pp. 107–126.
- Frumkin, H. (2002): Urban sprawl and public health. *Public Health Reports*, Vol. 117, pp. 201-217.
- Galster, G., Hanson, R., Ratcliffe, M. R., Wolman, H., Coleman, S., Freihage, J. (2001): Wrestling sprawl to the ground: defining and measuring an elusive concept. *Housing Policy Debate*, vol. 12, no. 4, pp. 681–717.
- Gutfreund, O. D. (2004): 20th-century sprawl – highways and the reshaping of the American landscape. Oxford University Press, Oxford, 231 p.
- Káposzta, J. (2014): Területi különbségek kialakulásának főbb összefüggései [The main dimensions of regional disparities]. *Gazdálkodás*, 2014, no. 58, pp. 399-412.
- Káposzta, J., Nagy, H. (2015): Status Report about the Progress of the Visegrad Countries in Relation to Europe 2020 Targets. *European Spatial Research and Policy*, 2015, no. 22, pp. 81-99.
- Keserű, I. (2005): Owen D. Gutfreund: 20th-century sprawl – highways and the reshaping of the American landscape. *Tér és Társadalom*, vol. 19, no. 1, pp. 167-170.
- Liu, X., Jiang, B. (2011): A novel approach to the identification of urban sprawl patches based on the scaling of geographic space. *International Journal of Geomatics and Geosciences*, Vol 2., no. 2., pp 1-15

- Nechyba T. J., Walsh R. P. (2004): Urban sprawl. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, Vol 18, no. 4, pp 177- 200.
- Némedi Kollár, K., Neszmélyi, Gy. I. (2015): Aspects Of Spatial Economic Processes Of Disadvantaged Areas In Hungarian And International Perspective. *Romanian Review of Regional Studies: Journal of the Centre for Regional Geography*, 11:(2), pp. 3-18.
- Newman, P., Kenworthy, J. R. (1989): Gasoline consumption and cities: a comparison of US cities with a global survey. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, Vol 55. no. 1, pp. 24-37.
- Oueslati, W., Alvanides, S., Garrod, G. (2015): Determinants of Urban Sprawl in European Cities. *Urban Studies* 52, no. 9, pp. 1594-1614.
- Péli T., Neszmélyi Gy. I. (2015): Territorial differences of rural cities and the development of transport infrastructure in Hungary. *Romanian review of regional studies*, 2015, no. 2, pp. 51-66.
- Pendall, R. (2003): The limitless city: a primer on the urban sprawl debate. *Journal-American Planning Association*, 69/1., pp. 99-99.
- Sag, N., Karaman, A. (2014): A solution to urban sprawl: Management of urban regeneration by smart growth, 54th Congress of the European Regional Science Association: "Regional development & globalisation: Best practices", 26-29 August 2014, St. Petersburg, Russia

Websites

- Copernicus.eu (2015): Copernicus services contribute to EEA report on the state of the EU Environment. Available from: <http://newsletter.copernicus.eu/issue-10-april-2015/article/copernicus-services-contribute-eea-report-state-eu-environment>. [Downloaded: 2016.02.03.]
- FAOSTAT (2017): Country indicators – Hungary. Available at: <http://www.fao.org/faostat/en/#country/97>. [Downloaded: 2017.03.03.]
- Nepesseg.com (2016): Magyarország népessége (The population of Hungary). Available at: <http://nepesseg.com/>. [Downloaded: 2017.04.03.]

ASPECTS OF THE USE OF RENEWABLE ENERGY SOURCES IN HUNGARIAN RURAL SETTLEMENTS

Introduction

For most of the people being environmentally friendly means having a lifestyle that are better for the environment. This means we have to define ourselves and have to take small steps towards the Earth so we can make this planet a better place for our communities and generations in the future (Being environmentally friendly 2016).

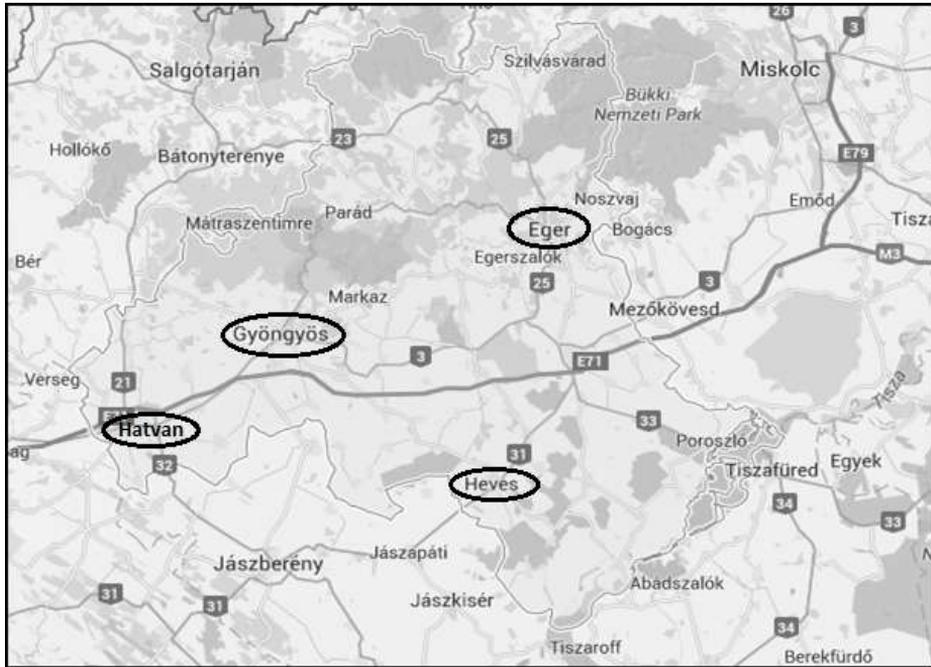
The basic question is how the renewable energy as a means of education to environmental good practice to life can help us by the help of some settlements as example in Heves county.

If we want to find the answer to this question we can think of the following options which would be good choices to start with: Pay off in the long run to consume less energy for example in the household like installing LED lights or use effectively the natural skylights. Other ways can be the water conservation, become less reliant on cars and rather walking more, eating locally grown vegetables, buying recycled products (for example paper bags, paper cup, synthetic material, etc.) or use fewer chemicals (Begley 2008).

Even we can join environmental groups to combat different kinds of air pollution like carbon dioxide or the greenhouse gas which are the main pollutants that are warming the Earth (Wengenmayr and Buhrke 2012).

In this study our aim was to investigate how the population will be able to live being environmentally friendly through the example of some settlements of Heves County by the help of the renewable energy.

Figure 1. The location of Heves County on the map



Source: Own work on the basis of <http://www.google.hu/maps/place/Heves/>, 2016

The importance of become environmentally friendly

In the aspects of the future it is the interest of all to become environmentally friendly. The renewable energy can be a good way to help in this lifestyle. At the moment we can use the following renewable energies:

- *Solar energy:* Inexhaustible and cheaper than the other kinds of renewable energies. The solar energy now powers everything from portable radios to homes, stores and neighborhoods. Our researches prove that in Heves County this is very common in towns and villages by usage. Great examples are Visonta, Abasár, Gyöngyös, Eger or Egerszalók (Sembery and Tóth 2004).
- *Wind energy:* Wind energy costs about the same as electricity from new coal- and gas-fired power plants, and also it's pollution-free. It is rarely used not only in Heves County but overall in Hungary yet. The main reason can be that the circumstances are not good enough to use this kind of energy effectively.

- *Biomass energy, cellulosic ethanol:* Biomass is organic matter derived from living, or recently living organisms. Biomass can be used as a source of energy and it most often refers to plants or plant-based materials. Plant materials, such as wood, corn, and soy also included but in Heves County it is still not typical (Kovács 2010).
- *Biogas energy:* Biogas typically refers to a mixture of different gases produced by the breakdown of organic matter in the absence of oxygen. Biogas can be produced from raw materials such as agricultural waste, manure, municipal waste, plant material, sewage, green waste or food waste. In case of Heves County there are some municipalities like Hatvan, Kiszána, Markaz, Karácsond, Recsk, Gyöngyös, Gyöngyöspata and Gyöngyöstarján which are using biogas energy (Source: own research 2016).
- *Geothermal energy:* Reservoirs of steam and hot water beneath the earth's surface hold enormous potential as a renewable energy resource. Hungary geothermal energy assets in the subsurface rocks formed during the geological eras provide heat content.
Our country belongs to the group of countries with favorable geothermic.
It has better rate than the world's average level in geothermal gradient, high water-bearing rock mass is present in large quantities at one time. In case of Hungary could be good opportunities to use this renewable energy but it still does not have the right technology and the financial resources. Efforts are already planned for the future usage from 2016 to 2020 thanks to the tenders of European Union (European Union 2020 renewable energy targets 2016).
- *Hydropower:* Derived from the energy of falling water or fast running water, which may be harnessed for useful purposes. While water is a renewable resource, rivers themselves are not. Hungary technically usable hydropower potential of approx. 1000 MW, which goes beyond the production of electricity actually recycled or recovered hydropower potentials. The percentage distribution roughly as follows: Duna 72%, Tisza 10%, Dráva 9%, Rába-Hernád 5%, Other 4% (Source: Vízenergia hasznosítás Magyarországon 2016).

- *Off shore wind, wave and tidal energy:* Offshore renewable energy holds great promise, and can be developed in a way that protects our ocean resources. Since Hungary does not have any sea we cannot use the benefits of this kind of energy.

Gathering enough financial resource also can help to increase the positive attitude living eco-friendly. By the help of tenders it is possible to deal more about the environment because it grants the financial resources to the settlements. These tenders are also trying to help in:

- Village renewal and development
- Creation and development of micro-enterprises
- Encouragement of tourism activities
- Preservation of rural heritage (Kassai – Ritter, 2011).

Material and Methods

The aim of our primary research was to gather as much information and opinion about the main topic which is how we can become environmentally friendly by the help of the renewable energy. I examined some municipalities in Heves County where we can find this kind of efforts.

We used standard questionnaires as a method. A standardized questionnaire guarantees that the same monitoring process applied to each respondent. It is a very effective but simple way to gather primary research. As a first step it was important to ask from the respondents whether they know the meaning of renewable energy. Based on the opinion of respondents we also wanted to know which renewable energy can help the most to develop the environmentally conscious lifestyle.

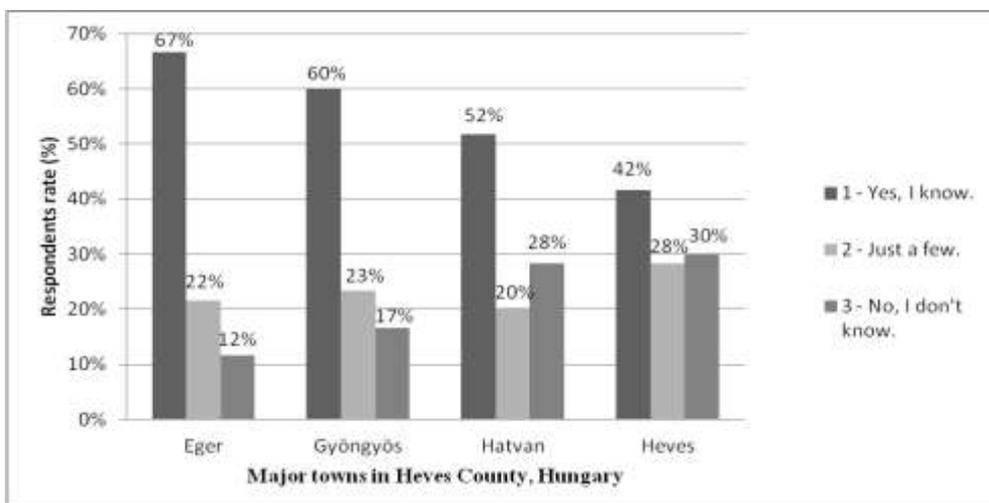
Results and Discussion

To know more about the environmentally friendly lifestyle it was necessary to ask in the questionnaire whether the population of the major towns in Heves County know what the renewable energy really is. We prepared the survey in four major towns in Heves County which are Eger, Gyöngyös, Hatvan and Heves.

From every town 60 person filled the survey (total 240), in this way we was able to separate the answers by 3 different types: 1. They mostly know the meaning of renewable energy (Yes, I know). 2. They only know

just a few things about renewable energy sources (Just a few).
 3. They do not know much or do not know anything at all about renewable energy (No, I don't know).

Figure 2. The percentage of respondents regarding the knowledge and definition of renewable energy (2016)



Source: Own research and compilation on the basis of primary questionnaire, 2016

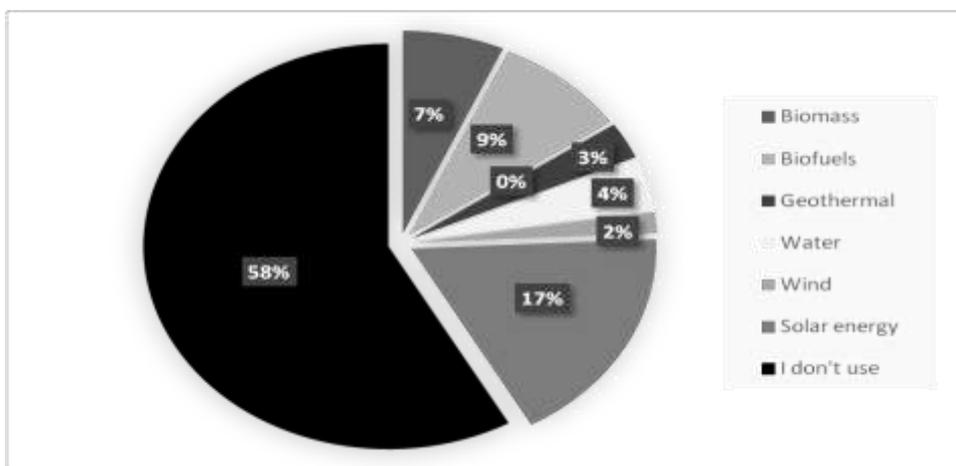
Based on Figure 2 we can see that Eger has the highest respondents rate on answer one, which means 67% of the respondents mostly know what is the definition of renewable energy. Compared to Hatvan or Heves it has a high knowledge rate. From the 60 respondents each town only 22% of them know just a few things about it and 12% of them do not know anything about the meaning of renewable energy. In case of Gyöngyös the knowledge about the definition of renewable energy also high, exactly 60% which is also a high rate.

The 23% of the respondents said they not really know the definition of renewable energy and 17% of them do not know anything at all about the meaning. Hatvan has different values because slightly more than half (52%) answered they know the meaning of renewable energy. Only 20% of them said they know something about it and 28% of them answered they do not really know what is the meaning of renewable energy.

Based on Figure 2 we can say in Hatvan and Heves should make more efforts because in the next few years the importance of renewable energy will increase greatly and they will be at disadvantage in development projects. The fourth is Heves where based on the answers of respondents 42% of them have knowledge about renewable energy and 28% know just a few things about its definition.

We were also curious whether the residents use the renewable energy resources and if so how is it divided in percentages. In Figure 3 can be seen six kind of renewable energy source and its dispersion among the users.

Figure 3. The percentage of respondents regarding the renewable energy usage (2016)

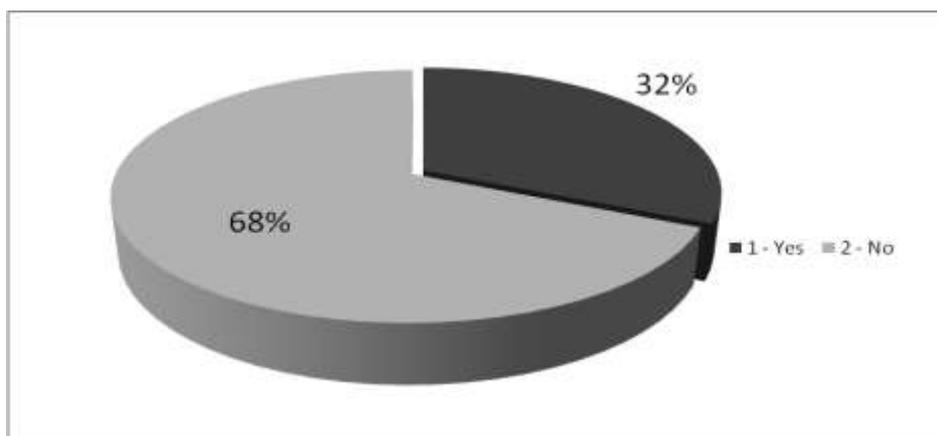


Source: Own research and compilation on the basis of primary questionnaire, 2016

Overall the most used energy source form is the solar energy including solar panels. This kind of energy used by the 17% of the respondents. The second most preferred energy is the biofuel by 9%, and the third is biomass by 7%. The interesting part is that not less than 58% of the respondents are not using any kind of renewable energy resource. Hence the government allows grand energy projects the residents not well-informed about these or they do not know how to participate to obtain advantage of the subsidy. This can also be the part of a basic issue why so many people still cannot live environmentally friendly.

We also wished to know whether the respondents of our questionnaire live environmentally responsible and have the right behaviour to fulfill this intention. *The question was: "Do you live environmentally responsible?"*

Figure 4. The percentage of respondents regarding whether they able to live environmentally responsible (2016)



Source: Own research and compilation on the basis of primary questionnaire, 2016

Based on the results of Figure 4 the 32% of the respondents answered they are able to live environmentally responsible and they have the right behavior. Roughly two-third said they are not living environmentally responsible or they do not have the opportunity to fulfill this behavior. It mentioned in the responses received to the questionnaire how they can live environmentally responsible.

Positive ways are:

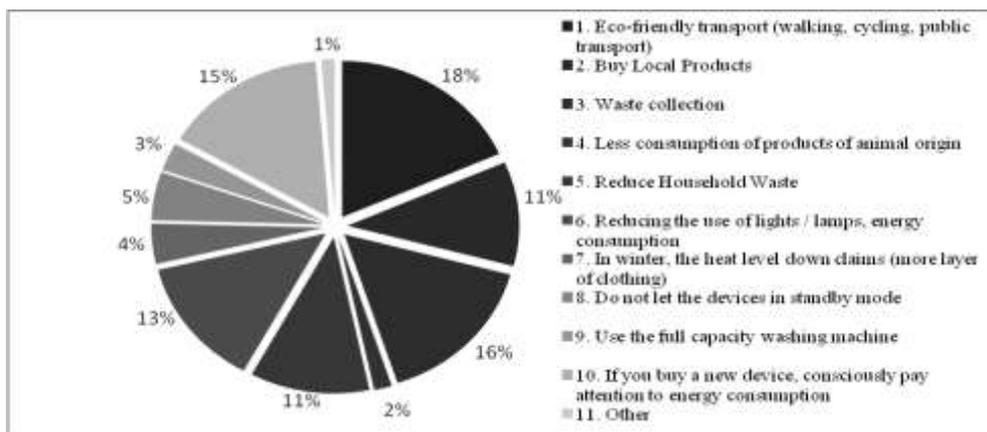
- The minimization of energy consumption;
- Improving the thermal insulation;
- Energy-saving lamps;
- Low-power car;
- Solar energy and geothermal energy utilization rate of increase;
- Selective waste collection;
- Taking only the necessary products;
- Increased use of public transport (*Source: own research 2016*).

The other 68% who do not live environmentally responsible life had the following reasons as the downsides of the renewable and green

energy: Buying solar panels are expensive; limited opportunities in occupied housing estates.

The overhead reduction recovers can only be recoverable after many years (in case of solar panels in some cases it can be 5-8 years, but mostly thanks to the improved technology now the lifetime of the new solar panels can be also 10-16 years). However, the technology is still expensive and not timeless so we have to consider carefully how we use the technology in the most efficiency way. Also we can talk about that the energy saving is not enough incentive (*Source: own research 2016*).

Figure 5. Methods which are the most effectively reduce the energy consumption and the environmental impact (2016)



Source: Own research and compilation on the basis of primary questionnaire, 2016

Figure 5 illustrates the opinion of 240 respondents who filled in the questionnaire about the methods which the most effectively reduce the energy consumption and the environmental impact in case of Eger, Gyöngyös, Heves and Hatvan towns which can be found in Heves County.

The result of Figure 5 shows that the Eco-friendly transport as method which include walking cycling and public transport has the highest rate of usability. It means the 18% of respondents answered that the Eco-friendly transport can effectively reduce the energy consumption and the environmental impact.

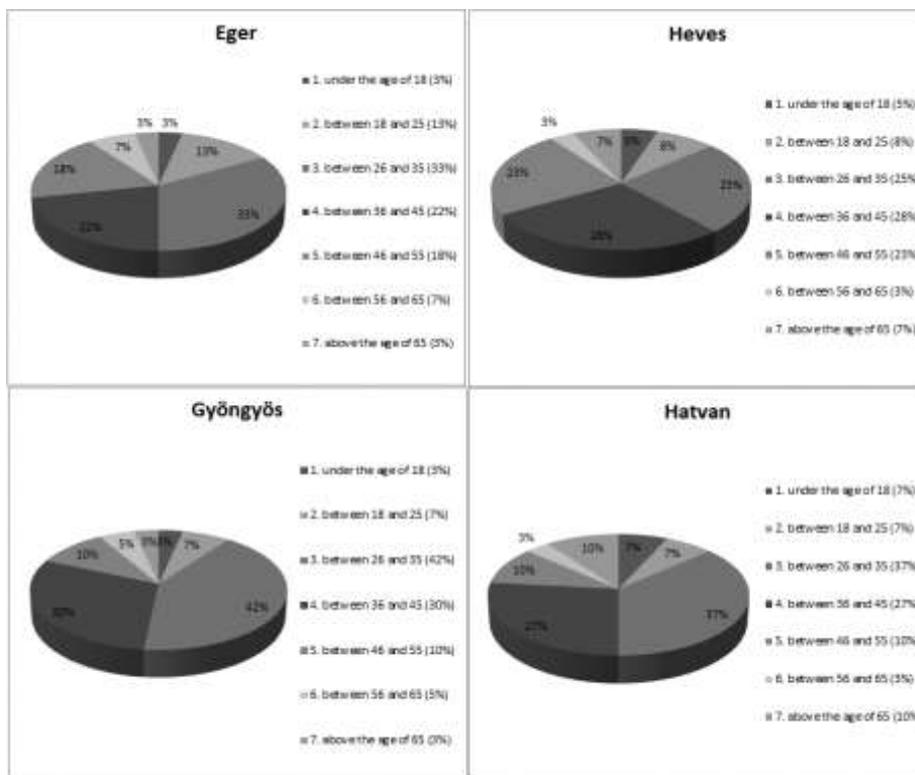
According to the respondents the second most effective method is the appropriate waste collection which is 16% compared to the 100%. In the future I plan to do more primary research about this slice because as far as we can judge in case of our experience in Hungary we still have issues in appropriate waste collection methods compared to other countries. The residents would follow the decree about the optimal waste collection but currently the solution is not comprehensive.

The third method is if we buy a new device we have to consciously pay attention to the energy consumption. The respondents' opinion shows this also has a high rate of importance (15%).

According to the survey the following devices belong here: refrigerator, television, microwave, blenders, toaster, cooker, all kinds of cell phone, notebooks, personal computers or other household devices.

Furthemore also important methods according to Figure 5 the reduction of the use of lights (13%) – which can cause the other major problem the light pollution. The next one is the buying of local products (11%) and the reduction of household waste (11%). If we consider how polluted the oceans are because of the waste production we have to face a very serious danger soon that we cannot turn back anymore. That is why would be important the environmentally friendly lifestyle.

Figure 6. The answers of respondents divided into seven different range by four town



Source: Own research and compilation on the basis of primary questionnaire, 2016

Based on the results of Figure 6 can be seen seven different range divided into four towns which are Eger, Gyöngyös, Heves and Hatvan. We asked 60 respondents from every town and we tried to compare the knowledge about the renewable energy and the environmentally friendly lifestyle. In case of Eger the most respondents were from the age between 26 and 35 which are 33% of the total respondents.

The least ranges were - under the age of 18 and above the age of 65 both range divided into 3% and 3%. The second town was Gyöngyös with the same aspects examined and in this case similar results can be seen however the respondents between the age of 26 and 35 were 42% of the total results. The third town was Heves but here the results were different. The most respondents were from the age between 36 and 45 with 28% of the total results followed by the age between 26 and 35 with 25%. The least range was the age between 56 and 65 with

3%. The last town was Hatvan where based on the most received results is the range between 26 and 35 with 37% and the least is the age between 56 and 65 with 3%.

Comparing the four towns we can state that most the respondents are from the range of the age between 26 and 35 in case of Eger, Gyöngyös and Hatvan. The least are above the age of 65 in case of Eger and Gyöngyös, and between 56 and 65 in case of Heves and Hatvan.

Conclusion

Human activity is overloading our atmosphere with carbon dioxide and other global warming emissions, which trap heat, steadily drive up the planet's temperature, and create significant and harmful impacts on our health, our environment, and our climate. Renewable energy is a critical part of reducing global carbon emissions and the pace of investment has greatly increased as the cost of technologies fall and efficiency continues to rise (http://www.ucsusa.org/clean_energy/our-energy-choices/renewable-energy/public-benefits-of-renewable.html#.V4elx6L-jGs).

Based on the above studies and primary researches it concluded that for Heves County of renewable energy as a concept, is not yet sufficiently widespread. In this study I focused on the major cities of Heves County like Eger, Gyöngyös, Hatvan and Heves. It can be concluded that the renewable energy as definition and as technology in Eger and Gyöngyös it has been used quite a high percentage like 67% and 60%. In case of Hatvan and Heves these percentages are 52% and 42% which means the respondents who answered the survey from these two towns do not know the definition of renewable energy well yet.

As regards the future it is a must to get more knowledge about renewable energy and about that also how it can help to live environmentally responsible life or change our behaviour if we still not live like this. We should take notice of how we can do more for the development of environmental awareness. Furthermore, internal resources are needed to help in development (Áldorfai and Czabadaï 2014).

We examined four major towns in Heves County where the 32% of the respondents of the survey already live environmentally friendly noticing really good options to help the environment for example the minimization of energy consumption or the solar energy utilization rate

increase. But on the other hand there are the other 68% of respondents who are not living environmentally friendly or just simply they do not have the opportunity to find solutions to live in this way.

We also investigated the range of the respondents divided into the four town where we were curious which age group is the most susceptible to reply to the knowledge about renewable energy. Based on the results Gyöngyös and Eger have younger respondents between the age of 18 and 35 but in case of Heves rather the middle age was answered to the questionnaire between the age of 36 and 55. Under the age of 18 and above the age of 65 I could not get that many replies as I wish for but in the future I have more plans to extend this research.

It is a must to encourage all people to choose to live in this way if they have the opportunity. This will not only serve their own interests, but also everyone including future generations as well who want to use the same environment (Laughlin, 2011).

References

- Áldorfai Gy. – Czabadai L. (2014): Helyi válaszok a globális kihívásokra, Acta Carolus Robertus 2014 vol 4(2), Károly Róbert Főiskola, Gyöngyös, pp. 9-18.
- Being environmentally friendly (2016): <http://www.conserve-energy-future.com/15-easy-ways-to-become-environmentally-friendly.php>
- Begley, E. (2008): Living like Ed: A Guide to the Eco-friendly Life, Publisher: Paw Prints, pp. 240
- European Union 2020 renewable energy targets (2016)
<https://ec.europa.eu/energy/en/topics/renewable-energy>
- Káposzta J. - Nagy H (2013):_Vidékfejlesztés és környezetipar kapcsolatrendszer az endogén fejlődésben, Journal of Central European Green Innovation (1) pp. 71-83. (2013)
- Kassai Zs. – Ritter K. (2011): Helyi vidékfejlesztési programok a hátrányos helyzetű vidéki kistérségekben, Gazdálkodás 55 (4), pp. 337-346.
- Kovács R. (2010): Megújuló energia kézikönyv, Publisher: Poppy Seed Kiadó, pp. 134.
- Laughlin, B. R. (2011): Powering the future: How we will (eventually) solve the energy crisis and fuel the civilization of tomorrow, Publisher: Basic Books, 250 West 57th Street, 15th Floor, New York 10107, pp. 224

Sembery P. – Tóth L. (2004): Hagyományos és megújuló energiák,
Publisher: Szaktudás Kiadó Kft., pp. 536

Union of Concerned Scientists, Science for a healthy planet and safer
world (2016):

http://www.ucsusa.org/clean_energy/our-energy-choices/renewable-energy/public-benefits-of-renewable.html#.V4elx6L-jGs

Varga-Nagy A. - Káposzta J. - Nagy H. (2017): Zöldturizmus a jövő
stratégiai iránya? Studia Mundi - Economics 4:(1) pp. 94-102. (2017)

Wengenmayr, R. – Buhrke, T. (2012): Renewable Energy: Sustainable
energy concepts for the energy Change, 2nd Edition, Publisher: Wiley-
VCH, pp. 170

Vízenergia hasznosítás Magyarországon (2016):

<http://www.greenstep.hu/index.php/megujulo-energia/vizenergia/item/52-vizenergia-hasznositas-magyarorszagon>

EXAMINATION OF SMALL VILLAGES, HAMLETS AND PIGMY VILLAGES

Discussion

The investigations of settlements in different types and sizes have a long history, which is largely influenced by the continuous change of economic, natural and human resources, but this issue is also important because of its complex effect on social and economic processes. The majority of the studies that have been carried out on this subject were aimed at exploring the problems affecting most of settlements. The subject of investigations was, in many cases, the fragile social structure, unfavourable social and demographic trends, aging population, migration, unemployment and adverse ethnic processes. In addition to causation factors, comprehensive processes based on historical features have been explored. Overall, the picture shows that the settlements with a population under 1,000 people in most parts of the country, with respect to population changes or factors describing economic processes, are at a disadvantage compared to their the rest of the settlements, and they have below the average values.

The importance of local spaces is partly due to the fact that all parts of the space have different facets and features - whether it is larger region, a county, a district, a city or village,. The challenge they must face can also be value. We just need to find the way to turn these problems to opportunities (TÓTH 2016).

Investigating the territorial capital in settlements with a population below 1000 is a very timely research direction. The examination of territorial capital has already been implemented by some of the Hungarian cities and micro-regions (TÓTH 2013, JÓNA 2013, GRÜNHUT 2014, BODOR 2014, RECHNITZER 2015, CZAKÓ-DŐRY 2016). Then, in the second quarter of 2017, a book on territorial capital exploration was published (DOMBI et al., 2017). However, complex territorial capital research focusing on the smallest settlements has not yet been established. The significance of this topic is due to the fact that these settlements account for more than half of the population of the Hungarian settlements (in the year 2013, from the 3152 settlements of Hungary 1734 had a population number below 1000). According to 2013 data, these settlements have nearly 8% of the permanent population of the country (767 035 people).

Therefore, we consider it important to investigate the settlements with a population below 1000 inhabitants. For the purpose of the investigation, we based our research on the domestic research attempts already done on this topic (TÓTH 2013, JONA 2013, HORVÁTH 2013), which have been modified and consolidated so that it can be applied at the settlement level we have observed.

Results

The settlements examined during the research have a population under number below 1000. During the investigation, we tried to determine the territorial capital that these settlements have accumulated and what characteristics they have. Our investigation covers both the characteristics and the characteristics of their accumulation. The research covers the years 2007 and 2013, which coincides with the start and end of the previous programming period. The two years examined are also interesting due to the fact that 2007 data may help to find out about the situation before the economic crisis, while the data from the year 2013 shows us the crisis-triggered reactions, the impacts and consequences. Although researchers have chosen to use relative indicators in similar studies that have been carried out so far, we considered the baseline values of variables to be more appropriate. Based on these, the baseline values of variables were taken into account when conducting the tests.

We broke down the settlements with less than 1000 inhabitants both in 2007 and 2013 into the three groups below (Table 1).

Table 1: The changes in settlement categories

Population number categories	Category name	The number of settlements belonging to the categories in both 2007 and 2013
... - 199	Pigmy village	318
200 – 499	Hamlet	665
500 – 999	Small village	629
Altogether		1612

Source: The authors' own editing based on Térport.hu (n.a.), 2017.

In our study, variables were arranged according to two main dimensions (Material and immaterial ones). The initial 53 variables, which examined

the investigated settlements from the economic, social, social, tourism and cultural, environmental, infrastructural and institutional aspects, dropped to 19 variables at the end of the selection. This selection took place in the initial phase of factor analysis. All the variables that did not have the correct information content for the test or overly correlated with other variables were filtered at that stage. Thus, the factor analysis, which was the first step of the examination, was carried out along the following 19 variables (Table 2).

As a result of the factor analysis, for the 3 distinct settlements groups five and six factors were defined for the two examined years. Since the investigated settlements show their most important characteristics along the cultural, tourism and social dimensions, we have analysed the remaining variables in the study from these aspects.

Table 2: The variables of the material and immaterial dimensions

Material	Immaterial
Housing stock	The population of the settlement
Total domestic income	The number of permanent out-migrations
The number of houses connected to the water system	The number of permanent immigrations
The number of guests nights spend in rural accommodations by foreigners	The number of births
The number of guest nights in rural accommodations	The number of deaths
The number rural accommodations	The number of personal vehicles at the end of the investigated year
The number of cultural institutes	The number of people participating in cultural events
The total number of registered unemployed people	The number of people between the ages of 0 and 17
	The number of people above the age of 65

Source: The authors' own editing (2017) based on the categorisation of DOMBI et al., 2017

In the second part of the study, we conducted a cluster analysis based on the factors of the settlement groups that had the same variable content in both examined years. In the case of pigmy village, this means 4 factors, while the other two settlement groups both account for 3 factors. Our primary purpose with apply this methods was to organise

the units into homogeneous groups. So the elements in each group are similar to the other members of their groups, but they are different from those of other groups. Using this multivariate method, we used classified the units. However, taking into account the limits of cluster analysis, it should be noted that the result of the test does not necessarily mean that this is the only good way for determining the characteristics of settlements with a population number below 1000, as the delimitation of clusters is entirely dependent on the variables in the study. In each case, the settlements were classified into 5 clusters. The group of settlements with outstanding values was not interpreted as a separate cluster, but as positive or negative examples. Thus, the settlements with outstanding values were placed in 2 of the 5 categories, while the other 3 settlement categories contain the rest.

Conclusions

The following results were generated during the factor analysis (Table 3). When analysis the villages belonging to the **pigmy village** category both in 2007 and 2013, four factors were created which had the same variable content in both years. These 4 factors have 10 variables, so slightly more than half of the variables in the survey are in the same place 2013, as in 2007. During the study, factors describing mostly social, cultural, and tourist and migratory situations were highlighted. Although a single factor has a number of variables (for example, some of them may belong to not just one factor), we believe that their way we named them can is logical and professionally well-founded.

The following variables are included in the "social" factor: total number of registered unemployed, population aged 0-17 years and number of live births. Although the number of registered unemployed could be interpreted as an economic factor, we believe that the presence of the social group is sufficiently correct and explained. The factor "tourism" includes the number of guest nights in rural accommodation, the number of rural accommodations and the number of guest nights spent by foreigners in rural accommodations. The factor called "migration" includes the data of permanent in- and outmigration. Although in a number of studies the balance of these two variables is taken into account, we still thought it worthwhile to treat them separately. In our opinion, besides the direction of the balance change, it is also important to see how the in- and outmigration changes, separately. The "cultural" factor is based on the number of participants in cultural events and the number of public cultural institutions.

Table 3: The factors of the settlement groups (in 2007 and 2013)

Settlement groups	Name of factor based on its content			
	<i>„Society“</i>	<i>„Tourism“</i>	<i>„Migration“</i>	<i>„Culture“</i>
... - 199 inhabitants Pigmy villages	X	X	X	X
200 - 499 inhabitants Hamlets	X	X	-	X
500 - 999 inhabitants Small villages	-	X	X	X

Source: The authors' own editing, 2017

In the case of **hamlets**, the variable content of the factors was different. There are 3 factors in this settlement category with permanent variable content. This group of settlements is also striking that most of the variables in the social, tourism and cultural dimensions were arranged in the same factor in the two study years. The 19 variables were sorted into 5 factors in the case of hamlets in 2007 and 2013. However, full match was only found in the above mentioned 3 factors. In the case of the other two factors, the mismatch was caused by only 1 variable moving to another factor in both cases. Thus, the number of factors with the same content in both study years is 3. The "social" group includes the number of in- and out migrations, live births, the population aged 0-17 and the number of registered unemployed. The "Tourism" group contains typically variables linked to tourism, "Number of guest nights in rural accommodations", "Number of rural accommodations" and "Number of guest nights spent by foreigners in rural accommodations". In the factor called "culture" consisted of the variables "Number of Cultural Institutions" and "Number of Participants in Cultural Events". In the case of **small villages**, there was matching in 3 groups. Although all three groups have been included in at least one of the settlement categories presented so far, they have not yet appeared in that

combination. The "Tourism" factor was created with the same variable content (with the "Number of rural accommodations", "Number of guest nights spent by foreigners in rural accommodations" and "Number of guest nights in rural accommodations"). The "Migration" factor, which contains the data of in- and outmigration and the "Culture" factor, which includes the "Number of participants in cultural events" and "Number of Cultural Institutions".

Factor coordinates created during the factor analysis were used for all three groups of settlements in the two years. The number of clusters was determined uniformly for each settlement group and for both years. After examining settlements with outstanding values in different areas, we decided to increase the initial cluster (which was originally 3) to 5, so that we can more accurately show the characteristics of the outstanding settlements.

Table 4 contains the cluster groups formed in the years under review. The bold type is the group of settlements with outstanding values, most of which have a lower number of elements than the rest of the group, but they have achieved a remarkable result along the lines of one or another factor, so they must be mentioned as positive examples. By investigating these settlements in the future, we can get closer to finding the recipe for success for small villages.

Table 4: The cluster groups and their names based on their territorial capital

Number of clusters	Pigmy villages – the group of settlements with less than 200 inhabitants	Hamlets – the group of settlements with a population number between 201 and 500	Small villages - the group of settlements with a population number between 501 and 1000
Based on 2007 data			
1	„Increasing migration“	„Changing society“	„Outstanding touristic potential“
2	„Outstanding touristic potential“	„ Sleeping society“	„Awakening tourism“
3	„Awakening tourism“	„Awakening culture“	„Improving culture“
4	„Outstanding cultural life“	„Outstanding cultural life“	„Active migration“
5	„Sleeping settlement“	„Outstanding touristic potential“	„ Sleeping environment“
Based on 2013 data			
1	„Outstanding cultural life“	„ Sleeping society“	„Outstanding cultural potential“

2	„Sleeping settlement“	„Awakening tourism“	„ Sleeping environment“
3	„Outstanding touristic potential“	„Outstanding cultural and touristic life“	„Outstanding touristic potential“
4	„Awakening tourism“	„Outstanding touristic life“	„Changing society“
5	„Social – migration activation“	„Changing society“	„Serving settlement“

Source: The authors' own editing, 2017.

All in all, it can be observed that in the development of factors, tourism and cultural factors are well separated from the rest in all three groups of settlements, and that separation is very similar to social and migration variables. The cluster analysis resulted in a group of settlements with 2-2 outstanding values for each of the three settlement categories. These clusters usually exhibited remarkably great results along their cultural and touristic characteristics. In the other 3 clusters, the characteristics of settlements are also determined by the values of this factor.

References

- BODOR Á - GRÜNHUT Z. (2014): Dilemmák a területi tőke modelljének alkalmazhatóságáról: A társadalmi tőke problémája Camagni elméletében TÉR ÉS TÁRSADALOM 28:(3) pp. 3-17. (2014)
- CZAKÓ K. - DÖRY T. (2016): A területi tőke koncepciója és a városi vállalkozáskutatás In: Tér és társadalom 30. évf. 1. sz. (2016.) pp. 18-36 <http://www.epa.oszk.hu/02200/02251/00062/pdf/>
- DOMBI G.-HORVÁTH Á.-KABAI G.-FODOR-KUN E.-OLÁH M.-SÁPI Z.-SZABÓ P.-TÓTH B. I. (2017): A területi tőke és magyarországi dimenziói, Balatonfűzfő: Nyilvánosságért és Civil Társadalomért Alapítvány (NyiCiTa), 2017. 424 p. (ISBN:9789631280487)
- HORVÁTH E. (2013): Kicsik között a legkisebbek- A törpefalvak sikerének kulcstényezői. Doktori értekezés, Széchenyi István Egyetem, Győr, 2013.
- JÓNA GY. (2013): A területi tőke kistérségi jellegzetességei. Doktori (PhD) értekezés. Enyedi György Regionális Tudományok Doktori Iskola, Gödöllő https://szie.hu//file/tti/archivum/Jona_Gyorgy_ertekezes.pdf
- KÁPOSZTA J. - NAGY H. - KOLLÁR K. (2010): Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén és Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg megye leghátrányosabb helyzetű kistérségeinek települési szerkezeti, foglalkoztatási jellemzői az EU csatlakozás óta eltelt időszakban, TERÜLETI STATISZTIKA 13:(6) pp. 641-658.

- RECHNITZER J. (2015): Területi tőke szerepe a városfejlődésben – A Győr kód. MTA RKK, Pécs, kézirat
- TÓTH T. (2016): Kistelepülések gazdaságfejlesztése, In: SIKOS T. T. – TINER T. szerk.: Tájak, régiók, települések térben és időben. Tanulmánykötet Beluszky Pál 80. születésnapjára. Dialógus Campus Kiadó, Budapest. ISBN 978-615-5680-27-4 pp.451-461.
- TÓTH B. I. (2013): A területi tőke szerepe a regionális és városfejlődésben – Esettanulmány a magyar középvárosok példáján. Doktori értekezés. Nyugat-magyarországi Egyetem. Sopron.

QUALITY MANAGEMENT TOOLS IN EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

Introduction

Measurement of the quality of work of educational institutions is important not only for the director and staff, but also for parents and pupils deciding on the choice of an educational institution. The purpose of "quality measurement" is to diagnose the real state of an educational institution - identify the positive and negative characteristics of the institution, its good and weak points, and prepare a recovery plan for dysfunctional elements. Persons who are involved in measuring the quality of work of an educational institution should be positively oriented towards this task, as it can only bring benefits to improve the quality and effectiveness of teaching.

In the now obsolete ordinance of the Minister of National Education in 1999, the term "measuring the quality of school work" is defined as follows: "Measuring the quality of school and institution work is an organized and systematic analysis and evaluation of the school or institution's compliance with the requirements of its tasks, taking into account the opinions of students, parents and teachers"(Kordziński 2004: 5-6).

The concept of total quality management (TQM) created William Edwards Deming and Joseph Juran in the 40s of the twentieth century. At the same time, there was an increased interest in improving the quality of work in organizations. According to TQM, every element of the organization and its environment affects the quality of work. The essence of complex quality management is the involvement of employees and executives, the pursuit of the fulfillment of customer needs by combining the organization's goals with customer goals, concentration on facts, and self-improvement. In an organization that follows TQM principles, it is crucial to implement teamwork culture and to communicate beyond organizational units (Elsner 1999). Measurement of the quality of work according to the E. Deming's cycle (P-D-S-A) is as follows: (1) plan (2) do (3) study, (4) act . Every change in the organization should be preceded by an analysis of the current state, planning of the next steps and methods of measurement, and familiarizing employees with the planned changes. The next stage is the pilot implementation of small scale change and, most importantly, the impact of the implementation of the changes. The end result in the Deming cycle is the creation of new standards of action. (Wyrębek 2009).

Comprehensive management of the quality of the organization is primarily aimed at the user, in the educational institutions for pupils and parents. Students and parents are the subject of TQM, customer of educational institution. Education is in this context a service provided by teachers. The TQM tools that can be used in educational institutions (to improve teaching quality, address educational problems, improve the functioning of the organization, or enhance its attractiveness in the educational services market) include the: 5Why method, the Ishikawa diagram, the Pareto-Lorenz analysis Kaizen, PDC (S) Deming cycle, QFD method, key success factors analysis, five-force method, benchmarking, SWOT analysis, relationship diagram, relationship diagram and arrow diagram.

Application of quality management tools in educational institutions

5Why Method

The purpose of the 5Why (5W) method is to determine the root cause of the problem. Its founder, Sakichi Toyoda, argued that finding and removing the source of the problem is crucial if the organization is to work effectively. Failure to eliminate the actual cause of the problem, but only to remove the resulting defect or inconvenience, raises the problem in the future. There are two aspects to consider when analyzing 5Why: (1) why the problem has occurred and (2) why it has not been detected (Łuczak, Matuszczak-Flejszman 2007). The 5Why method should be carried out in three stages. Firstly, you should gather information about the problem, so ask questions about: what and when happened, what is the scale of the problem and what kind of threat poses the problem for the client, the user, etc. Second, you need to collect the working group, the people who know most about the problem that came up. The constructed group should describe the problem in detail. The final step is to carry out analysis and identify the source of the problem (Huber 2011). Based on the 5Why method, you can plan the corrective action and prevent future problems from happening in the future. Using the 5Why method the subject of the analysis is changes: from impact analysis, to causal analysis (Osładacz 2011). Zbigniew Huber (2011) also notes that although the 5Why method consists of asking five "why" questions, it is often enough to reach the source of the problem with four questions or, on the contrary, more than five questions.

Using the 5Why method in educational institutions can be useful at every level of the organization. Due to the fact that this method is easy and fast to use, can be used both by the management to find the cause of emerging problems (i.e. why not realized plans or school tasks, why the toilets are dirty, why the student broke his leg, why is there little

recruitment for the new school year, etc.) and by teachers to find out the cause of emerging educational problems (i.e. why students are beaten, why students smoke or drink alcohol at school) and teaching / learning problems (i.e. why a student does not understand mathematics, why the student did not do the homework, why the student did not read the book). Finding the source of the problem in the teacher and student relationship allows the teacher to understand the motivation of the student and the student to analyze his behaviour and draw attention to the causes and effects of the actions taken.

In the table 1. there is present the solution to the problem of "student did not do the homework" by 5Why Method. The task of five consecutive questions allows us to conclude that the primary reason for lack of a homework is the school bell. As Hubner (2011) notes, most of the root causes of the problem are situated in the system or work method, or in the work organization. To solve this problem one should consider the complete elimination of the school bell, which interrupts students' attention. At the end of the class the students could be informed by the teacher or by the clock in the classroom.

Table 1. The solution to the problem of "student did not do the homework" by 5Why Method.

Problem:	Student did not do the homework
Question 1.	Why did not the student do the homework?
Answer 1.	Because he did not save the homework in the notebook.
Question 2.	Why did not the student save the assignment in the notebook?
Answer 2.	Because he did not hear that the teacher is asking the homework.
Question 3.	Why did the student not hear the teacher?
Answer 3.	Because the bell rang and the student started talking / dealing with other things.
Question 4.	Why did the student start talking on break instead of focusing on finishing the lesson?
Answer 4.	Because the bell scattered his attention.
Question 5.	Why did the bell distract the student's attention?
Answer 5.	Because it is loud, long and drowns

the teacher. It also signals a break, and thus a period of relaxation and rest.

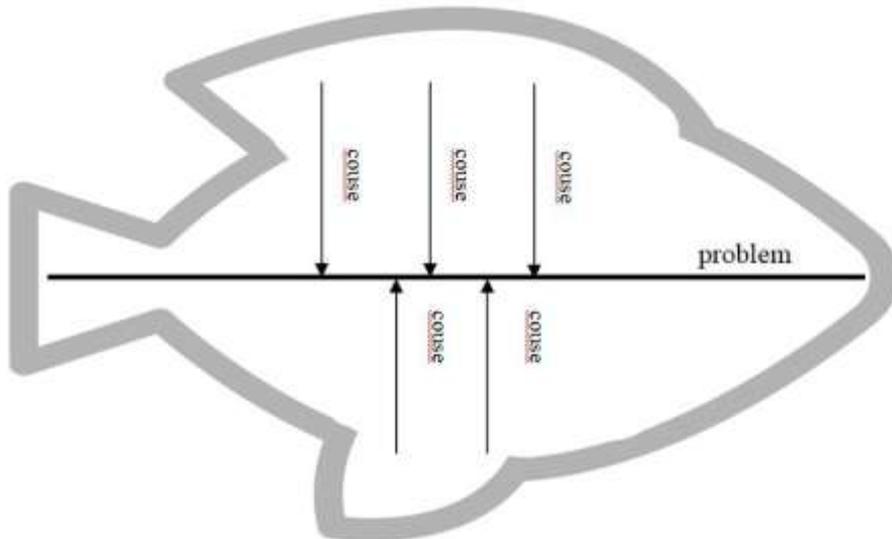
Source: author

Ishikawa Diagram

The Ishikawa Diagram proposed by Kaoru Ishikawa serves, like the 5Why method, for the analysis of cause-and-effect relationships. The most important feature of the diagram is its graphical presentation, which allows you to clearly communicate the link between causes that produce a particular effect. As noted Anna Mazur and Hanna Gołaś (2010) drawing the diagram is the team work, using heuristic methods. As a result, you get organized information and a comprehensive approach to the problem. The cause and effect analysis is accurate and gives you the opportunity to eliminate the causes of emerging problems by determining their location. The diagram visually resembles fish (Figure 1). The fish head symbolizes the problem (effect), the spine is focused on the cause, and the spear is the cause of the problem being analyzed. The causes of the problems were divided into 5 or 6 categories (5M or 5M + E, where E represents the environment), but depending on which area the Ishikawa diagram is used, you can add or change categories. Each category may be expanded to include more general and specific causes of the problem, so that it can be resolved (Settle 2011). The categories highlighted in the 5M concept are:

- (1) manpower - his qualifications, habits, seniority, well-being, job satisfaction;
- (2) method - instructions, procedures, specifications, standards, law, rules, know-how, technology, instructions;
- (3) machine - durability, modernity, precision, license, performance, precision, safety, working conditions;
- (4) material - elements, substitutes, semifinished materials, input materials;
- (5) management - organizational structure, working conditions, organization of work, shift (Mazur, Gołaś 2010).

Figure1. Ishikawa Diagram

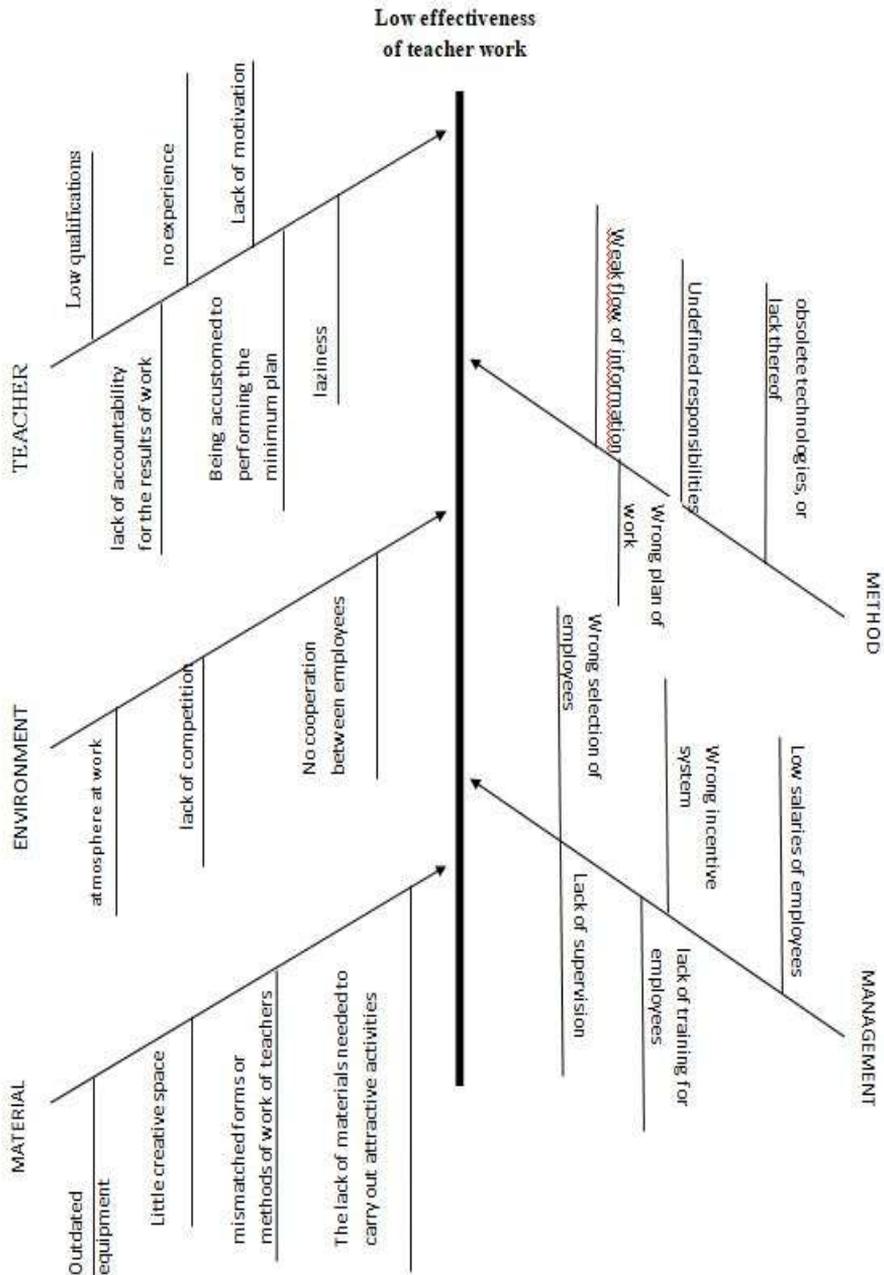


Source: own study based on 2011 Osiadacz

Solving the problem using the Ishikawa diagram goes through four stages. First, identify the problem that is recorded at the end of the arrow. Then the main groups of causes should be distinguished. To do this, you can use the 5M method or manually select categories. The next step is to identify the reasons for each of the featured categories. After drawing up the diagram, it should be analyzed in detail (Osiadacz 2011).

Ishikawa's Diagram provides the opportunity to comprehensively analyze the causes of the situation. Category separation and attribution can be used not only for remedial purposes (by management), but also for teaching purposes as a activating method (eg. highlighting the reasons for the main character's behavior, the causes of the World War II, etc.). The visually attractive form of the diagram gives the opportunity to work with the youngest children in kindergarten. Figure 2 shows an example of an analysis of the problem of low teacher efficiency, based on five categories.

Figure 2. Ishikawa Diagram – The reasons for the teachers low efficiency at work

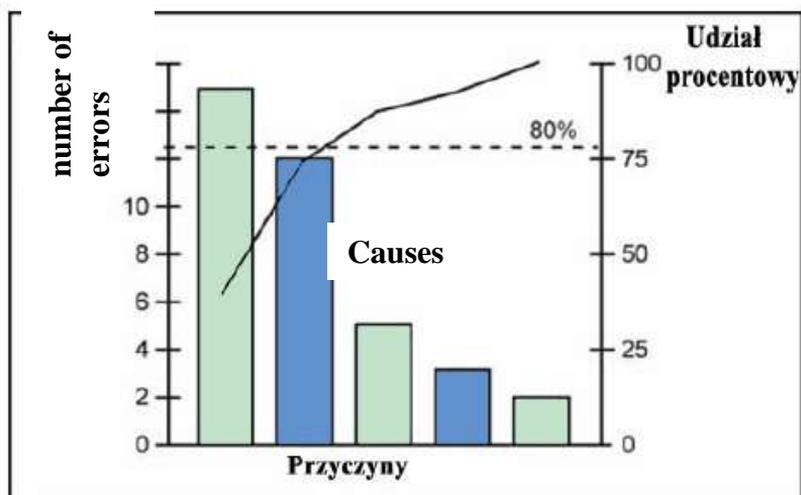


Source: author

Pareto Diagram

Pareto-Lorenz's analysis serves to distinguish things and phenomena important from non-essential. Vilfredo Pareto during the analysis of income distribution in Italy, observed that 80 percent of the wealth of the whole country is concentrated in the hands of 20 percent of the population. Consequently, he created the 80/20 rule, which means that 80 percent of the goods are accumulated in the hands of 20 percent of the population. The V. Pareto principle can also be understood in such a way that the smaller part of the outlay results in the greater part of the results, the less part of the cause causes the greater part of the problem. The Pareto-Lorenz analysis makes it possible to select those that generate the most problems for improvement. By doing so, the analysis will result in the correct choice of actions that will bring the organization's greatest improvements and payoffs, and will allow the failure of activities that would not significantly improve the company's performance (Osiadacz 2011). Pareto-Lorenz analysis has five stages. In the first stage, the group assembles a brainstorming session, which results in collecting data about the analyzed phenomenon. When collecting data, it is important to indicate how many times the cause of the phenomenon has been identified. The second step is to rank the causes by frequency. In the third stage, the collected data on the bar chart should be presented: the causal values and percentages should be marked on the vertical axis; the reason in descending order should be marked on the horizontal axis. The fourth step is to apply the cumulative percentages to the graph (the line formed from the combination of points that correspond to the cumulative values is the so-called Lorenz curve). The fifth step is to analyze the chart and identify the causes that should be eliminated in the first place. Figure 3 shows an example graph based on Pareto-Lorenz analysis (Governica.com).

Figure 3. Pareto-Lorenzo Diagram



Source:: Governica.com: Diagram Pareto

In educational institutions, creating a Pareto chart is a way for problem solvers (student teams, teachers) to work together. By graphically presenting the problem, the group gets information about what is the most important cause of the problem. Finding these causes, though based on empirical observations, allows you to find the sources of problems, as well as ways to eliminate them or minimize them. In education, the Pareto diagram is much more likely to be used to find and eliminate the causes of negative phenomena, less to reduce the costs of the institution. In educational institutions, the analysis of Pareto-Lorenz can be used to address some of the problems: low enrollment in primary school, excessive use of plastic arts in kindergarten, excessive destruction of school property, lack of motivation to work among teachers.

Creating a Pareto diagram to address the problem of low recruitment to primary school is as follows.

Step 1. Carry out brainstorming among teachers and write down the reasons for low recruitment along with the number of indications. In the case of a low recruitment problem, it would be more appropriate to conduct a short survey or interview with parents living near the school who have children between the ages of 6 and 7 (Table. 2.).

Table 2. Causes of low recruitment along with the number of indications

Causes of low recruitment	Indications
No court at school	7
Lack of modern technology (laptops, interactive whiteboards)	10
A briefly functioning lounge	10
To many students in the classroom	30
Small classroom	23
Catering in the canteen	12
Small playground for children	5
Old school building	2

Source: author

Step 2. Order the listed causes by frequency (Table 3).

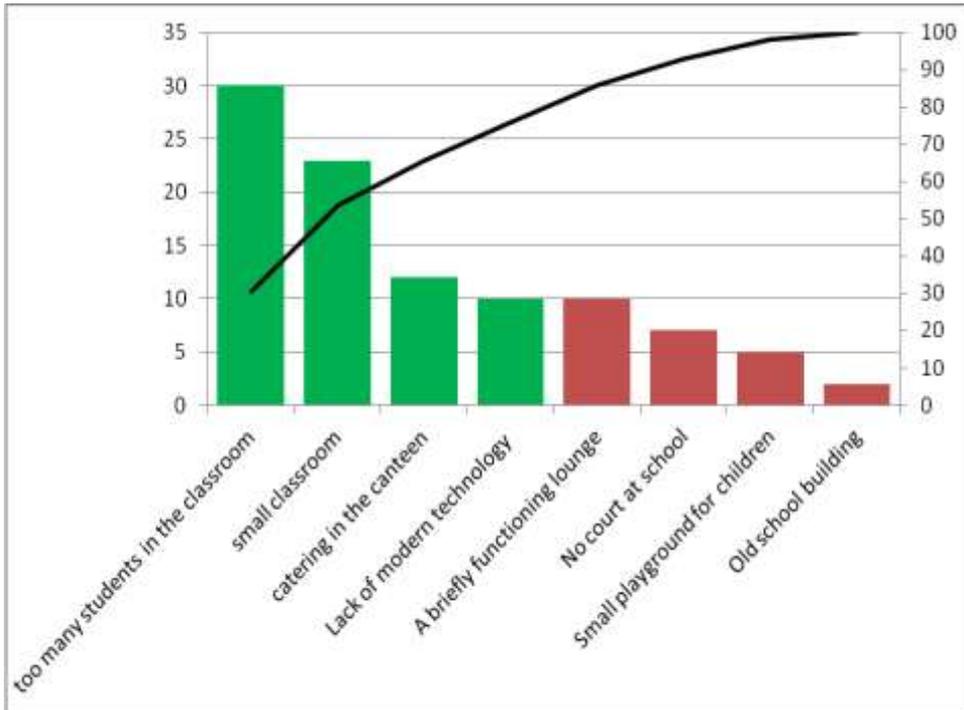
Table 3. Causes of low recruitment by number of indications.

Causes of low recruitment	Indications
To many students in the classroom	30
Small classroom	23
Catering in the canteen	12
Lack of modern technology (laptops, interactive whiteboards)	10
A briefly functioning lounge	10
No court at school	7
Small playground for children	5
Old school building	2
Razem:	99

Source: author

Step 3. Graphical presentation of the results. Creating a Pareto graph is possible in Excel (Chart 1.).

Chart 1. Low enrollment in primary school - Pareto diagram



Source: author

Step 4. This marks the line representing the cumulative percentage that is the result of adding more categories. It is marked on chart 1. black line.

Step 5. Analysis of the graph.

From Figure 1. it can be seen that the main causes of low recruitment to primary school are the first four problems: too many students in the classroom, small classrooms, catering in the cafeteria and lack of modern technology. The head of the school should focus on eliminating these problems in order to improve recruitment in subsequent years.

Conclusion

The article presents quality management tools in educational institutions, which are only a part of tools that can be used as part of total quality management. The presented tools (Ishikawa diagram, Pareto diagram and 5Why method) are used primarily to analyze the causes of the phenomena and problems. They can be used as methods of activating pupils, educational and didactic methods. Quality management tools are also helpful to the director, who manages

consciously educational institution, and who cares about the brand school and its finances. Systematic measurement and evaluation of the quality of school work is essential to make the institution more competitive.

Literature

- Elsner D., 1999: *Doskonalenie kierowania placówką oświatową. Wokół nowych pojęć i znaczeń*. Chorzów: Mentor.
- Governica. com, bd: *Diagram Pareto*.
https://www.governica.com/Diagram_Pareto.
- Huber Z., 2011: *Metodologia 5-Why*. <http://strefa-iso.pl/5-why/html>
- Kordziński J., 2005: *Mierzenie jakości pracy w oświacie*. Warszawa: WSiP.
- Łuczak J., Matuszczak-Flejszman A., 2007: *Metody i techniki zarządzania jakością. Kompendium wiedzy*. Poznań: Quality Progress.
- Osiadacz J., 2011: *Narzędzia identyfikacji potrzeb innowacyjnych w przedsiębiorstwach*. Wrocław: Polska Agencja Rozwoju Przedsiębiorczości.
- Wyřębek H., 2009: *Zarządzanie jakością w organizacjach edukacyjnych*. „Zeszyty Naukowe Akademii Podlaskiej w Siedlcach. Administracja i Zarządzanie”, 83, 237-250.

Witold Jedynek

THE COMMUNIST STRATEGY OF TOTAL ENSLAVEMENT OF POLISH SOCIETY ACCORDING TO POLISH BISHOPS

Introduction

Both German and Soviet occupation during the Second World War were most difficult for the Poles. The leaders of those totalitarian systems confederated in their efforts to wipe Poland off the Europe's political map. After the war, most pessimistic Polish suspicions came true. The Soviet army, once liberating the Polish land, became its occupier. While other nations celebrated the end of war and regaining their freedom, the Poles, who were first to fight the Nazis and then fought them on every front, lost a vast part of their homeland and remained under Soviet occupation. An excerpt from an order by Capt. Stanisław Sojczyński "Warszyc", who did not surrender and fought against the communist authorities, is a sign of those times. In the order, issued in January 1946 and addressed to the underground soldiers, he wrote: "Poland was given to us and its government was appointed as if we had not been waiting for six years of great struggle, for the war to end, as if we had done nothing, fought no one, as if we had not surpassed our sham benefactors in willingness to sacrifice and courage. On the sacred altars of Wawer, Auschwitz, Majdanek, Warsaw, forest battlefields, brutally suppressed towns and villages – the most dishonourable profanation took place: fake Poland was created, as if there was no real Poland in our hearts, fake Poland that sanctions all vileness, wrong and treason" [Cit. Machcewicz 2002:VIII]

The communists commenced the construction of a totalitarian state based on the atheistic Marxist ideology. The most difficult period for the majority of Polish nation was the Stalinist terror period, the tragic consequences of which lasted until 1956. The communist authorities gradually appropriated all areas of social life, and regarded the underground independence movement and Catholic Church as major public enemies. People inconvenient to the totalitarian regime were imprisoned and sentenced to most severe penalties, and the society was intimidated and repressed, while their family and personal life, as well as the public one, were controlled.

This study is aimed at presenting the strategy of total enslavement of Polish society by the communist authorities in times of the Stalinist terror. In his research, the author made an attempt at answering the following questions: in what did the strategy of total enslavement consist? What were its aims, phases and results? Who enslaved and what were their methods? To what extent did the society resist the enslavement?

The analysis of secondary sources was conducted. Church documents were of particular value. Those were the only officially published texts, where the strategy of total enslavement of the state, society and Catholic Church was presented and criticized (even in the Stalinist period). Thus, the pastoral letters and communiqués of Polish Bishops were thoroughly analysed, as well as the source materials referring to the Church and state relations. Historical studies were a valuable bibliographic supplement.

The enslavement of the state and society

During the first phase of their rule, the communists steadily and ruthlessly conquered the state and its institutions. In some regions of Poland, bloody and brutal guerrilla warfare was waged. Public security service, supported by the Soviet army, had an absolute military advantage over underground anti-communist organizations. New authorities, when taking over the state, used various methods of action: infiltration, provocation, regional suppression. Polish Bishops, with reference to the situation, stated that unrest within the country was a threat to both public order and the citizens' personal security. The Bishops defended the nation's right to peaceful development and disapproved of a dramatic internal situation, especially of fratricidal conflicts, political banditry and overwhelming terror claiming innocent victims. In their opinion, a civil war was waged in Poland. The authorities were legitimized by force, with the support of the Soviet army and against the will of Polish society. Not only the lives of individuals were under threat, but also of families. The communists, in their pursuit of order, were met with determined and armed resistance. So, they used brutal, ruthless, even barbarous methods of Soviet descent, since in the Bolshevik Russia the violation of personal liberty or killing without a verdict were common. The officers of UB (Security Office) had almost absolute power. Their investigation techniques were more than equal to those of the Gestapo. Apart from executing death sentences, they murdered an unknown number of people during investigation [Episkopat 2006b:51; Episkopat 1994d:38; Paczkowski 1999:352].

The Bishops deemed they had moral right to protest against the escalating violence. In their opinion, most condemnable was executing collective responsibility and committing mass murders, even on women and children, while demolishing farms and villages. Polish Bishops appealed for ceasing violence, assassinations and brutal retaliations to those responsible for violence escalation and subjecting their homeland to another calamity. The Bishops also defended people imprisoned and tortured by the communist security service. They accused the authorities of abusing the prisoners and depriving them of pastoral care. Investigations were unusually brutal, the prisoners were beaten and tortured, cells were overcrowded. In many cases, the authorities deliberately did not issue the sentence fast, but conducted public show-trials during which the defendants were humiliated by the specially selected audience expressing "people's hatred" towards banditry and reactionary underground. This, unprecedented in Polish history, violation of human rights and dignity had to – according to Polish Bishops – afflict the nation [Episkopat 2006b:51; Episkopat 1994d:38-39; Kurtyka 2002:XXXVII-XXXVIII; Cywiński 1990:43-44].

Taking over the state by the communists implied the use of not only violence and terror, but also manipulation and deception. Some prime examples of such operations were the rigged referendum (June 1946) and election (January 1947), as well as the vast network of confidential informants who invigilated all areas of social life. Suspiciousness and uncertainty permeated the atmosphere in work places. Every failure or fire in any factory was considered an act of sabotage or subversion and resulted in an arrest of employees. Urban residents were often accused of speculation, that is black market trade, or punished for "hooliganism". Many people served their sentence in labour camps

similar to concentration camps. Rural residents were also intimidated under the pretext of monitoring whether the decree on compulsory supplies of grain and meat was observed. Sometimes, not providing the supplies caused several thousand farmers from every voivodship to be arrested. Severe repressions were also aimed at rich farmers, the so-called kulaks. They were held in prison for weeks without investigation. Usually, they were severely penalized, and sentences included forfeiture of grain or livestock, or even property confiscation. They were found guilty of speculation, hooliganism or produce concealment and thus were not – according to the authorities – political prisoners. The Stalinist terror affected all social groups, as prisons were full of: members of the politburo, II RP (the 2nd Polish Republic) high officials, generals, AK (Home Army) officers, bishops and priests, partisans, farmers resisting collectivization, workers, and even youth writing anti-communist slogans on walls. One of the main goals of the red terror was keeping the society in the state of fright, promoting denunciation and disrupting social ties [Paczkowski 1999:353-359; Dominiczak 2000:18-23; Wilczur 1997:33-34]. Polish Bishops were aware that the communists, after taking over the state, would aim at intimidating and controlling the society. The first phase of the nation spiritual enslavement was destroying its moral foundation which provided the Poles with the feeling of internal freedom, though they were deprived of external one. The Bishops were worried about attempts to eliminate the universal Christian values from public life – values which in the past gave hope and help in times of captivity and defeat. By introducing denominational policy based on the society atheization, the communists attacked the bastion of Polishness and Catholicism, that is a traditional Polish family raising young generation in the spirit of

Christian values. By issuing, on 25 September 1945, a government decree introducing civil marriage and divorce, the communists wanted – according to Polish Bishops – to undermine and decompose the institution of marriage and family. The basic social unit was placed under the jurisdiction of the state which was supposed to be atheistic [Episkopat 2003f:3; Dudek i Gryz 2006:17].

In a special address, published after the decree was issued (that is on 7 December 1945), Polish Bishops wrote that the communists would like to subjugate all areas of social life to national law and that they initiated the process of nation enslavement with a unilateral regulation on the institution of marriage. They did this without observing the law of God, the religious and moral beliefs of citizens and the standpoint of the Church representing over 90% of the nation. The Bishops claimed that new marital law was imposed on the society, as it was prepared and issued without the nation's participation. What is more, canon law was not taken into consideration, nor were the religious beliefs of Catholic citizens, their marital ethic and mores. The marital law imposed on Polish society was based on an ideology unfamiliar to the Catholicism, Christian culture and values, and was aimed at abolishing traditional marriage and family. The Bishops, opposing the moral decomposition of Polish families and standing up for them, preached that the faithful should observe the rules of Catholic faith, and that regulations reducing marriage to a lax civil union and allowing divorce were not in good conscience [Episkopat 2003f:4-7; Episkopat 1994d: 33-35; Episkopat, 2006a:50].

Another display of nation enslavement was – in the Bishops' view – implementing the rules of materialistic Marxist ideology, which

was the only world-view acceptable in public life, in a communist state. The authorities knew that if they were able to destroy the Christian value system and conduct the nation atheization, then people would start to believe in the governing party which would become the one and unerring source of "the truth". The communists promoted materialism, which was supposed to provide happiness under the sun, but limited human needs to the earthly ones and rejected spiritual values. In such a system, man – according to the Bishops – was dependent on goods. The most important purpose of human existence was satisfying basic needs, and serving the state was the absolute value [Episkopat 2003g: 12-13; Episkopat 2003c: 47-48].

When warning the faithful of materialistic value system propagated by the communists, Polish Bishops reminded of its negative consequences. Perceiving man only as a material being and assessing their value according to their usefulness within a collective reduced their role in a communist state to that of an object. Furthermore, the Bishops thought that the materialistic value system contributed to the moral decomposition of man, family and society, as it unleashed base instincts and ill disposition [[Episkopat 2003g:14,17; Episkopat 2003d:41-42].

According to the Bishops, a display of society enslavement was an attempt at taking control over education and upbringing of the young generation. Upbringing which rejected the Christian values and promoted lay lifestyle, in the name of reconstructing consciousness, was popular and different from the tradition and culture of Polish nation. Public educational institutions persecuted care and educational centres run by convents, as well as private Catholic schools which –

according to Polish Bishops – were a test whether parents’ right to educate and raise children was observed. The authorities limited and then abolished teaching religion at schools, what decreased the effectiveness of moral upbringing as religion lessons were not only another subject, but also means of evangelization and an indispensable factor of a young person formation. Children of Polish Catholics were, against their parents’ will, raised not in a religiously neutral atmosphere, but in an explicitly anti-religious or anti-Christian one. In the Bishops’ opinion, the communists subjected children raised in public orphanages to atheistic indoctrination, too. They were deprived of pastoral care and knowledge of God. The Bishops reproached the authorities for their educational policy which was inconsistent with declarations and “at variance with natural and human rights, with rights resulting from Polish constitution and with a decree on the freedom of conscience and religion” [Episkopat 1994e:414; Episkopat 1994d:37].

With regard to the common practice of appointing people submissive towards the communist authorities, the Bishops believed that there was no equal treatment of citizens and civil liberties were not kept. Human rights were violated, limited or broken. The Catholics were under pressure to join political parties, the ideology of which was in contradiction with the rules of faith. This forced conscription into communist organizations was carried out under threat of dismissal, and both employee assessment and promotion depended on the party recommendation. The society enslavement was also the result of taking away its right to rest on Sundays and church holidays. The authorities aimed at creating a new custom of performing professional or community work on holidays. According to Polish Bishops, introducing unjustified activities on Sundays led to the loss of a holiday religious

character and to the disturbance of public peace necessary for providing rest after a hard workweek. Restricting civil rights manifested itself in state censorship and control over every area of public life. By supervising publishing houses and other displays of creative activity, the authorities controlled and enslaved both culture and science. Such actions – in Polish Bishops' opinion – were aimed at persistent and systematic destruction of "the extensive output of Catholic thought and culture, Catholic magazines and books" [Episkopat 1994e:416; Episkopat 2003e:36-37].

An attempt to destroy Polish Catholic Church

Once the opposition was eliminated and the society intimidated, the Catholic Church of Poland was the only institution not subjugated to the authorities. Attempts to force the Church to support the communist regime and its propaganda were not successful. When protesting against the enslavement of the nation, the Bishops appealed to the authorities to respect civil liberties, private property, law and order, and to eliminate police and party abuse from public life. After the rigged election of 1947, the Bishops expressed harsh criticism of the repressive and totalitarian policy of the government. They stated that man should not be enslaved by the state or treated like a slave. Man should not be rushed into supporting the governing party if it was not consistent with their conscience and beliefs. Regarding the rigged election, Polish Bishops wrote that totalitarian power had reduced a citizen to an object deprived of rights and actual participation in shaping the state, to the detriment of this institution. According to the Bishops, totalitarianism discredited the state, weakened the trust and created a gap between the authorities and citizens. The Bishops'

criticism of communism left no doubt as to on which side the Catholic Church was. One more time, the communists realised that the Church would never agree to be their torpid tool. Thus, since spring 1948, it was more often attacked and invigilated [Episkopat 1994f:79; Episkopat 2006c:52-53; Korcuć 2005:218-219].

When attacking the Church, the authorities picked an administrative and operational fight with the Catholic majority of Polish society. The policy of denominational repression was aimed at eliminating the influence of the Catholic religion on public life. Religious practices were hampered, the construction of new churches and parishes was hindered, church institutions and associations were dissolved, religion was eradicated from schools, the army and hospitals, all religious symbols were removed from public places. Civil rights were limited by forcing the faithful into joining the communist party, the members of which were compelled into desisting from religious practices and acting according to the rules inconsistent with Catholic faith. Dragging employees into the party structures was conducted under threat of dismissal and loss of pension or benefits. The possibility of promotion and the assessment of employee social value depended on party membership [Episkopat 1994b:136-137; Episkopat1994c:160-163].

The communists wanted to deprive the Church of its material, financial independence. Its property was confiscated as well as the property of church institutions involved in charity work. A typical example of robbing the Catholic Church, and the poor and the sick who benefited from its charity work, was taking over Polish Caritas and creating new structures, with a board appointed by the communists where the so-called "patriot priests" prevailed. By using priests loyal to the

authorities, divisions and disagreements were caused, and distrust within the clergy was raised. The "patriot priests" played a significant role in the disintegration of the clergy; they were forced to cooperate with the communists through pressure and blackmail. Many of them were in German concentration camps, others came into conflict with their Bishops, but the majority was priests who were coerced by the state administration. The priests and bishops who were pronounced disloyal to the state, were persecuted, imprisoned and sentenced in show-trials [Episkopat 2003b:73; Episkopat 1994a:207-210; Żaryn 2003:99-107; Żaryn 2004:24-25; Grajewski 1999:179-184].

The last straw which urged Polish Bishops to make a public announcement about the Church persecution in Poland was an attempt of the authorities to influence all church appointments, including bishops. The protest of the Bishops was issued on 8 May 1953, and went down in history as the "Non possumus" memorial. It was addressed to the then prime minister Bolesław Bierut, and an act of courage as it exposed the wrongdoing of the government which claimed to observe constitution and respect citizens' beliefs, but actually fought a deceitful and weakening battle with the Catholic religion. While presenting the main points of the state denominational policy, the Bishops listed all repressions and persecutions the Church suffered from the authorities. Polish Bishops protested against the government interfering with the Church internal affairs, and against limiting the citizens' right of freedom of belief guaranteed by the constitution. The Bishops claimed that Polish Church was deprived of means, which it used to have, necessary for its existence and development. All property was taken away – houses, Caritas charity centres, foundations, hospitals, schools, orphanages, nurseries, printing

houses, publishing houses, press; religion was removed from schools and establishing Catholic associations was forbidden, so laymen were deprived of their right to unite within independent church organizations. The Bishops also wrote of clergymen arrests, displacement of bishops, priests, monks and nuns, and of destroying Polish church administration on Recovered Territories even at the expense of Polish *raison d'état*. The authorities were accused of attempting to disrupt the unity of the Church by supporting "patriot priests", of interfering with church institutions' internal affairs, and of the Catholic laity disintegration by PAX Association. The communists' acts of lawlessness and deceitfulness mentioned by the Bishops depicted the situation of the Church within a system of belligerent atheism and Stalinist totalitarianism. Still, the Bishops reminded of their good will, readiness for dialogue, patience despite the wrong, and respect even towards the persecutors [Episkopat 1994e:413-427; Micewski 1994:30-31; Żaryn 2003: 134-136].

The memorial neither affected the denominational policy of the government, nor restrained repression, but rather resulted in its escalation. In September 1953, a show-trial of Bishop Kaczmarek began, who was sentenced to 12 years of prison. That same month, Stefan Cardinal Wyszyński, the Primate of Poland, was arrested. After his arrest, Polish Church changed its image and became the "Church of silence". No longer were there courageous and reassuring pastoral letters full of religious, moral and patriotic content. Polish Bishops declined to expose the communist regime attacks on church institutions. The dispirited and intimidated Bishops were reluctant to speak for fear of additional repression and public opinion criticism, which could not forgive their undignified behaviour after the steadfast

Cardinal Wyszyński was arrested. The silence of Polish Bishops in many issues important to the Church, and their support for the government propaganda subdued Polish society. It seemed that the Church of Poland hierarchy became overwhelmed by doubt, fear and impotence [Cywiński 1990:120; Żaryn 2003:133-134].

The three-year period of passivity, submission and silence ended with the events of 1956. The intimidated, humiliated and enslaved nation, especially the Catholic laity, revolted. For Polish Church, most important was the Pledge of Jasna Góra made in Częstochowa on 26 August by over 1 million of the faithful [Episkopat 2003a:2163-2165; Micewski 1994:154-155; Cywiński 1990:136-137].

Two months later, a principal turn in the life of Polish society happened. The nation broke the barrier of fear against the red terror and publicly demanded civil rights to be observed in the country appropriated by force by the communists. The society became aware of its great power which was suppressed by a bunch of atheists and communists. The tragic events of October 1956 were followed by the release of Cardinal Wyszyński. For the society and Catholic Church of Poland, the period of gradual liberation from the Stalinist terror began [Cywiński 1990:137-142; Roszkowski 1995:230-231, 240].

Recapitulation

The communist strategy of total enslavement of the state implied gradual taking over its institutions. The new authorities ruthlessly destroyed the independence movement, rigged the elections, used censorship, appointed own people, and inconceivably expanded the system of repression and surveillance. After appropriating the state, the

communists initiated the process of society enslavement by subjecting people to total terror. The citizens were to be intimidated, terrorized, disheartened and deprived of hope. The nation was weakened by abortion legalization and by controlling the education and upbringing of young generation. Total enslavement of the society was accompanied by an attempt to subjugate or destroy Polish Catholic Church, the only independent institution left. The communists limited its pastoral influence, disrupted church communities from the inside and tried to deprive them of material resources. Despite repression, even terror, Polish society resisted the communist strategy of total enslavement. It kept its identity, internal freedom, and universal Christian value system. The atheistic Marxist ideology as well as the materialistic and secular model of society were not accepted.

References

Church documents

- Episkopat, (2003a), *Jasnogórskie Śluby Narodu Polskiego, złożone uroczyście 26 sierpnia 1956 roku (Polish Nation Pledge of Jasna Góra, made on August 26, 1956)*, in: P. Libera, A. Rybicki, S. Łącki (ed.), *Listy pasterskie Episkopatu 1945-2000*, part 2, (pp. 2163-2166), Marki, Michalineum.
- Episkopat, (2006a), *Komunikat Konferencji Plenarnej Episkopatu Polski (The communiqué of Polish Bishops' Conference, Jasna Góra, Oct 4, 1945)*, in: J. Żaryn (ed.), *Komunikaty Konferencji Episkopatu Polski 1945-2000*, J. Żaryn (ed.), (p. 49-50), Poznań, Pallottinum.
- Episkopat, (2006b), *Komunikat Konferencji Plenarnej Episkopatu Polski (The communiqué of Polish Bishops' Conference, Jasna Góra, May 24, 1946)*, in: J. Żaryn (ed.), *Komunikaty Konferencji Episkopatu Polski 1945-2000*, (pp. 50-52), Poznań, Pallottinum.
- Episkopat, (2006c), *Komunikat Konferencji Plenarnej Episkopatu Polski (The communiqué of Polish Bishops' Conference, Jasna Góra, Sep 10, 1946)*, in: Żaryn (ed.), *Komunikaty Konferencji Episkopatu Polski 1945-2000*, (pp. 52-53), Poznań, Pallottinum.

- Episkopat, (2003b), *List biskupów polskich do duchowieństwa w sprawie "Caritas" (Polish Bishops letter to the clergy on Caritas, Kraków, Jan 30, 1950)*, in: P. Libera, A. Rybicki, S. Łącki (ed.), *Listy pasterskie Episkopatu 1945-2000*, part 1, (pp. 73-77), Marki, Michalineum.
- Episkopat, (1994a), *List Episkopatu do Prezydenta B. Bieruta w sprawie Caritasu (Polish Bishops' letter to president B. Bierut on Caritas, Kraków, Jan 30, 1950)*, in: P. Raina (ed.), *Kościół w PRL. Kościół katolicki a państwo w świetle dokumentów 1945-1989*, vol. 1: 1945-59, (pp. 207-210), Poznań, W drodze.
- Episkopat, (1994b), *List Episkopatu do Prezydenta B. Bieruta w sprawie sytuacji Kościoła w Polsce (Polish Bishops' letter to president B. Bierut on the Church situation in Poland, Dec 22, 1948)*, in: P. Raina (ed.), *Kościół w PRL. Kościół katolicki a państwo w świetle dokumentów 1945-1989*, vol. 1: 1945-59, (pp. 136-138), Poznań, W drodze.
- Episkopat, ((2003c), *List Episkopatu Polski do katolickiej młodzieży polskiej (Polish Bishops' letter to Polish Catholic youth, Kraków, April 15, 1948)*, in: P. Libera, A. Rybicki, S. Łącki (ed.), *Listy pasterskie Episkopatu 1945-2000*, part 1, (pp. 47-52), Marki, Michalineum.
- Episkopat, (1994c), *List Komisji Głównej Episkopatu Polski do Rządu w sprawie polityki laicyzacji kraju i obrażania uczuć religijnych narodu (The letter from Main Commission of Polish Bishops' Conference to the government, June 22, 1949)*, in: P. Raina (ed.), *Kościół w PRL. Kościół katolicki a państwo w świetle dokumentów 1945-1989*, vol. 1: 1945-59, (pp. 160-163), Poznań, W drodze.
- Episkopat, (2003d), *List pasterski Episkopatu Polski o osobistym poświęceniu się Najświętszemu sercu Jezusowemu oraz o Jego intronizacji w rodzinach (Polish Bishops' pastoral letter, Jan 1, 1948)*, in: P. Libera, A. Rybicki, S. Łącki (ed.), *Listy pasterskie Episkopatu 1945-2000*, part 1, (pp. 41-46), Marki, Michalineum.
- Episkopat, (1994d), *Memoriał Episkopatu do prezydenta Krajowej Rady Narodowej B. Bieruta w sprawie normalizacji stosunków Kościoła i państwa (Polish Bishops' memorial to KRN president B. Bierut on the normalization of Church and state relations, Warszawa, Sep 15, 1946)*, in: P. Raina (ed.), *Kościół w PRL. Kościół katolicki a państwo w świetle dokumentów 1945-1989*, vol. 1: 1945-59, (pp. 33-41), Poznań, W drodze.
- Episkopat, (1994e), *Non possumus. Memoriał Episkopatu Polski do Rady Ministrów (Non possumus. Polish Bishops's memorial to the cabinet, Kraków, May 8, 1953)* in: P. Raina (ed.), *Kościół w PRL. Kościół*

- katolicki a państwo w świetle dokumentów 1945-1989, vol. 1: 1945-59*, (pp. 413-427), Poznań, W drodze.
- Episkopat, (2003e), *Odezwa biskupów polskich do wiernych w rocznicę poświęcenia narodu Niepokalanemu Sercu Maryi (Polish Bishops' address to the faithful, Jasna Góra 1947)*, in: P. Libera, A. Rybicki, S. Łącki (ed.), *Listy pasterskie Episkopatu 1945-2000*, part 1, (pp. 33-38), Marki, Michalineum.
- Episkopat, (2003f), *Orędzie Episkopatu Polski do wiernych w sprawie instytucji małżeństwa (Polish Bishops' address to the faithful on the institution of marriage, Jasna Góra, Dec 7, 1945)*, in: P. Libera, A. Rybicki, S. Łącki (ed.), *Listy pasterskie Episkopatu 1945-2000*, part 1, (pp. 3-8), Marki, Michalineum.
- Episkopat, (1994f), *Postulaty konstytucyjne Episkopatu Polski (The constitutional postulates of Polish Bishops, Feb 26, 1947, Warszawa)*, in: P. Raina (ed.), *Kościół w PRL. Kościół katolicki a państwo w świetle dokumentów 1945-1989, vol. 1: 1945-59*, (pp. 78-81), Poznań, W drodze.
- Episkopat, (2003g), *Wielkopostny list pasterski Episkopatu Polski o panowaniu ducha Bożego w Polsce (Polish Bishops' Lenten pastoral letter, Warszawa, Jan 5, 1946)*, in: P. Libera, A. Rybicki, S. Łącki (ed.), *Listy pasterskie Episkopatu 1945-2000*, part 1, (pp. 11-19), Marki, Michalineum

Other publications

- Cywiński B., (1990), *Ogniem próbowane. Z dziejów najnowszych Kościoła katolickiego w Europie Środkowo-Wschodniej*, vol. 2: „... i was prześladować będą”, Lublin-Rzym, Wydawnictwo KUL.
- Dominiczak H., (2000), *Organy bezpieczeństwa PRL w walce z Kościołem katolickim 1944-1990. W świetle dokumentów MSW*, Warszawa, Dom Wydawniczy Bellona.
- Dudek A. – Gryz R., (2006), *Komuniści i Kościół w Polsce (1945-1989)*, Kraków, Znak.
- Grajewski A., (1999), *Kompleks Judasza. Kościół zraniony. Chrześcijaństwo w Europie Środkowo-Wschodniej między oporem a kolaboracją*, Poznań, W drodze.
- Korkuć M., (2005), *Fundamenty komunistycznej Polski 1945-1948*, in: W. Bernacki (et al.), *Komunizm w Polsce. Zdrada, zbrodnia*,

- zakłamanie, zniewolenie, (pp. 173-226), Kraków, Wydawnictwo Kluszczyński.
- Kurtyka J., (2002), *Polska 1944-1956: z dziejów agonii i podboju*, in: *Konspiracja i opór społeczny w Polsce 1944-1956. Słownik biograficzny*, vol. 1, (pp. XI-LVII), Kraków-Warszawa-Wrocław, Instytut Pamięci Narodowej.
- Machcewicz P., (2002), *Przedmowa (Foreword)*, in: *Konspiracja i opór społeczny w Polsce 1944-1956. Słownik biograficzny*, vol. 1, (pp. VII-X), Kraków – Warszawa – Wrocław, Instytut Pamięci Narodowej.
- Micewski A., (1982), *Kardynał Wyszyński. Prymas i mąż stanu*, Editions du Dialogue, Paris.
- Micewski A., (1994), *Kościół-państwo 1945-1989, 1st ed., Wydawnictwa Szkolne i Pedagogiczne*, Warszawa.
- Paczkowski A., (1999), *Polacy pod obcą i własną przemocą*, in: S. Courtois, N. Werth, J. L. Panne (eds.), *Czarna księga komunizmu. Zbrodnie, terror, prześladowania* (foreword by K. Kersten), (pp. 341-366), Warszawa, Prószyński i S-ka.
- Wilczur J. E., (1997), *Ojczyzna nie udziela urlopów, Nie przeminie z wiatrem...*, 1st ed., Warszawa, Agencja Wydawnicza Cinderella Books.
- Żaryn J., (2003), *Dzieje Kościoła katolickiego w Polsce (1944-1989)*, Warszawa, Wydawnictwo Neriton.
- Żaryn J., (2004), *Kościół w PRL. Najnowsze dzieje Polski*, Warszawa, Instytut Pamięci Narodowej.

NOTES ABOUT AUTHORS:

Witold Jedynak - University of Rzeszow

Henrietta Nagy - Szent Istvan University in Godollo

Adrienn Varga-Nagy - Szent Istvan University in Godollo

Laura Ardelean - University in Oradea

Vassiliki Pliogou - University of Peloponnese

Despina Karakatsani - University of Peloponnese

Oksana Krayevska - Ivano Franko National University of Lviv

Kata Amelita Gódor - Szent Istvan University in Godollo

Eszter Fodor - Borsos - Szent Istvan University in Godollo

Izabella Oláh - Szent Istvan University in Godollo

Ágnes Virág - Szent Istvan University in Godollo

Krisztián Ritter - Szent Istvan University in Godollo

Mónika Urbán-Malomsoki - Szent Istvan University in Godollo

Kitti Némedi-Kollár - Szent Istvan University in Godollo

László Péli - Szent Istvan University in Godollo

Lilla Áldorfai Czabadai - Szent Istvan University in Godollo

Zoltán Topa - Szent Istvan University in Godollo

András Szeberényi - Szent Istvan University in Godollo

Tamás Tóth - Szent Istvan University in Godollo

Mariola Kinal - University of Rzeszow

Jarostaw Kinal - University of Rzeszow

József Káposzta - Szent Istvan University in Godollo