EDITED BY: GÁBOR KOZMA

NEW RESULTS OF CROSS-BORDER CO-OPERATION
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The articles of this book have been written within the framework of HURO/0901/097/2.3.1/01 project. This project is co-financed by the European Union and European Regional Development Fund.

The content of these articles does not necessarily represent the official opinion of European Union.

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Edited by
Gábor KOZMA

Technical Editor
Erzsébet ERDELCSENÉ VIRÁGOS

Debrecen, 2011
Co-organisers:
The Department of Social Geography and Regional Development Planning of the University of Debrecen &
Institute for Euroregional Studies „Jean Monnet” European Centre of Excellence

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ISBN 978-963-89167-3-0

Kiadta: DIDAKT Kft., Debrecen
Felelős kiadó: a DIDAKT Kft. ügyvezetője
Nyomdai munkák: Center-Print Kft., Debrecen
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Introduction

The successful adaptation to the geographical circumstances and the good efficiency utilization of the geographical energy was enormous importance in the survival of the Hungarian people. In my opinion in the time of our people’s ethnogenesis (9-11th cent.) these questions were basically important. In support of the above statement I am going to survey in my essay the most important geopolitical and histo-geographical questions of the age of the conquest and the foundation of the state.

I have been concerning myself for more than half a century with the enigma that among those peoples who came from the east only the Hungarians survived and live in the Carpathian Basin now. According to our knowledge from the 8th century B.C. nomadic tribes (following the Cimmerians and Scythians) arrived from the eastern steppes such as the “world-conquering” Huns, the Avars, or the Pechenegs who attacked the Hungarians and finally the Cumanians and the Mongolians. About 20-22 invader or conqueror people came from Scythia (in the interpretation of András Dugonics from “Szittyal-land”) during two thousand years, but only the Hungarians managed to preserve their name, language and state. For this reason I consider the next sentences to be timely: “The idea of descent from great world-conquering ancestors might fondle our national vanity in a moment, but the consciousness is more elevating of that the Hungarian people is not the debris of failed great nations, but it fought its way up unaided, holding its ground, preserving national identity, unimpaired character in the sea of strange peoples, without any brother, on a historical stage where huge peoples and races failed everyday, came to nothing, loosing their languages, national consciousness what’s more their material life. The Hungarian people’s vitality, endurance has got a kind of evidence in this fact of which can raise better our national self-respect than false theory of any high-born. The reality, which we can face severely, in this sense, if we think it over, that is more beautiful than the dream” (G. Bárczi 1943).

The Hungarian (Magyar) conquest and the foundation of the state were determinant events in terms of our survival. As follows I am going to examine such geopolitical, historical and geographical facts which played important part in that enigmatical success after success which resulted in the Hungarian people’s survival.

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Nomadism vs. riverside quarters-change economy

Great part of the Hungarian people thinks that our ancestors, before the conquest, were nomadic herdsmen. The nomadism is a specific economic system in the huge desert and semi-desert areas of the Old World (Asia, Africa) as yet, but in Europe the importance of it already was low in the past too. (The permanent moving was typical mostly of the earlier way of life of the Nordic reindeer holder nomadic peoples, mainly the Lapps and the Nenets.) The stock-breeder nomadism worked in a well delimited area in the past and it works nowadays as well. In general its area coincides with those areas where the amount of rainfall is under 300 mm/year. In Europe suchlike arid and semi-arid area only can be found north of the Caspian Sea, at the mouth of rivers Volga and Ural. The migrant Hungarians didn’t pass this area before the conquest.

From Central Asia and the Turan Plain (up to and including the Mongolians and Tartars) a great numerous real nomadic peoples invaded into Europe, but the example of Avars, Onogur-Turkish people, Khazars, Pechenegs, Cumanians and Tartars shows, when these peoples arrived moister area – and the history gave enough time to them – these peoples adopted the quarters-change and later the settled down way of life.

The nomadic tribes, with their tents and animals which took wandering well, could cover big distances within a short time but the quarters-change peoples couldn’t move so easily. The farming bound them to the living quarters and there were many of their domestic animals (poultry, pig) which couldn’t bear the wandering. There was a decisive fact in the survival of the Hungarians that it was never a real nomad people. The nomad peoples because of the geographical circumstances and the economic system are few in number and in general if they subjugate a settled people during two or three generations their language will assimilate. The riverside quarters-change economy in comparison to the nomadism can keep much more people so it could effect the existence of a numerous population. For the settlement of the whole Carpathian Basin with Hungarians and for the language assimilation of the population was found here at least half a million Hungarian-speaking people was needed. By the way both Etelköz and Levedia would have been too small for half a million people who leads nomad life. (Figure 1)

The words of the Hungarian language which relate to food products, cultivation, and livestock farming respectively the origin of it words are the most important informing factors in respect of that early period for which didn’t have managed to find either written or archeological proof yet.

In the time of the development of the Uralian languages and the separation of Finno-Ugric, the people who belonged to this language group lived food-gathering, fishing, and hunting life. The primaeval words of the Hungarian language e.g. “bee” or “honey” relate to those foods which can be found in the nature and they can be obtained by the way of food-gathering – hunting. The word “beehive” which relate to the bee-keeping has Turkish origin and its reception took place much more lately.

Our ancestors influenced by an Old Iranian language speaking people (maybe Alan or Hun) got acquainted with the horse and horse-breeding in the supposed Hungarian original home at the south-eastern foot of the Ural Mountains in the age of Ugrian living together. Linguistics can prove that the ancestors of Ob-Ugrians together with our ancestors got
acquainted with horse-breeding but they were drifted northward in the direction of taiga while the ancestors of Hungarians moved to south-westward, towards Europe. The Ostyaks and Voguls cross-bred with the Mongoloid native population and they became similar to them in anthropological sense while in the Hungarians the European character became stronger during their movement westward.

The Turanian cultured Hungarians must have already become true stock-breeder people in Europe. Our ancestors became under the influence of the Bulgarian-Turkish people in the Central-Volga district, which changed their way of life and economy basically.

Zoltán Gombolcz in his work written about Bulgarian-Turkish loan words in Hungarian language (1906, 1912) revealed that the basic vocabulary of our language, relating to animal husbandry and farming, comes from the pre-conquest Bulgarian-Turkish language (e.g. bull, ox, steer, heifer, calf, ram, sheep, wool, pig, barrow, sty, stubble-field, barley, wheat, plough, sickle, harvest, sheaf, stack, barn, sprinkle, tailings, grind, grits, grape, strain, wine, hop, hemp, spindle, pea, fruit, pear, apple, etc.).

It may be presumed that the Hungarian people joined to the short life Onogur Empire, which was established under the leadership of the Bulgarian-Turkish people. The Bulgarian-Turkish people moved away from the Khazars (the Onogur Empire (AD 610-650) was routed by them) partly to the Lower Danube, partly to the Carpathian Basin and one part of them (along the Volga River) northwards. At that time the sons of khagan Kovrat (Kuvrat), the ruler of Onogur Empire (Old Bulgaria), left the territory of the Khazar Khaganat with their
peoples (hordes): Asparuh moved with its people to the Lower Danube, Bat-Bajan moved to the junction of Volga and Kama rivers, but Kuber with his people asked for admittance into the Avar Empire (about AD 670). Gyula László already considered this Onogur-Bulgarian immigration or rather the people who came to the Carpathian Basin at that time and introduced the griffin and tendril ornament here to be a Hungarian-speaking population. His theory, the dual conquest comes from this thing.

As opposed to the migrant hordes of Kovrat’s sons the considerable mass of the Bulgarian-Turkish people recognized the rule of Khazar and they became part of the Khazar Khaganat. The Hungarians got under the rule of an Onogur-Turkish people in the region of Volga and Don rivers in the 7-8th century and by this event our ancestors, beside the important cultural influence, gained a new Turanian type political system. In the region of Central Volga and Upper Don those tribes were organised under the leadership of Bulgarian-Turkish people that formed later the confederation of Hungarian tribes in Etelköz. Under the influence of Onogur-Bulgarians not only the Hungarians’ economic activity was changed and became real stock-breeder (quarters change) people of the steppe but its culture became wholly assimilated to the Turanian peoples’ one (Turkish peoples, Alans). We have the Turkish people to thank for our “mother tongue of music”, eastern tactics, and Turanian body of beliefs. (The Hungarian word Isten (God) comes from the name of khagan Istem who was the forefather of the Western Turk dynasty and was venerated like a god.) Contrasted with the Hungarians neither those Onogur-Turkish peoples who moved to the Lower Danube nor who settled down at the Volga River (now Bulgarians and Chuvash people) kept the memory of the Onogur Empire in their names. In the most European languages we are called a name of a people after the name of the Onogur (= ten arrows, ten peoples) confederation of tribes. It is true that the Byzantines called simply Turkish (turkoi) our ancestors who lived in Etelköz at that time and they didn’t differ at all in cultural sense (customs, clothing, tactics, etc.) from other “Scythian” peoples yet.

Animal husbandry – farming

In the course of the conquest about half a million Hungarians moved from Etelköz to the Carpathian Basin. This huge population could only survive in Etelköz – after 895 on the smaller area of Carpathian Basin – if, besides the grazing that had low productivity, it already practised agriculture on high degree, as well. Northwards of the Black Sea – we know it from Herodotus – there were some ploughmen among the Scythian and later those peoples who owned this area (like peoples organised in Turkish manner) had got summer and winter quarters as well.

The quarters change economy is a controlled yearly migration in the same way as the nomads’, however it means that the herdsman have to travel much shorter distance and the bigger part of the population doesn’t have a share in the migration yet. Although I don’t think it is lucky but this type of agriculture is often called half nomadic economy. While the nomad shepherding utilizes the geographical potentials of desert and semi-desert until the quarters change economy was the typical farming of the steppe where the annual rainfall was 3-500 millimetre. The relatively dense river system and the riverside gallery forests are important
geographical condition of this economy system. This type of agriculture is often called as riverside quarter-change economy system (Figure 2).

Figure 2: Winter and summer quarters in Etelköz

The Hungarian tribes settled near the bigger rivers in Etelköz where the possessed area could be divided between the leaders (úr) and the head of the clans (bő, bőseg) on the basis of river system. The permanent winter quarters settled next to the bigger rivers, near the ferries and fords; their inhabitants mainly came from the common people (ín, ínség). These people lived in the winter quarters, usually in poor houses, huts; they ploughed, sowed, and harvested around the winter quarters, they often cultivated kitchen-garden or even grape, they gathered hay. Mainly in winter they fished in the rivers.

The leaders of the clans with their families and servants (slaves) pursued transhumance. In spring they went with huge followers, numerous horses, cows and barrows along a tributary stream up to the big natural levees, the summer pastures where they pitched their tents. They spent the summer months with flock tending, war games, military education for the young and hunting. In autumn they came, along the tributary streams, down to the winter quarters where they lived in newly pitched tents (yurts) and made preparations against the cold. They drove the animals to the riverside gallery forests that provided shelter from bitter north winds. The more valuable livestock was also fed. In general the traders also came to the winter quarters from whom they took toll and ferry dues too. The colonies of craftsmen
also were next to the winter quarters. The followers of the leaders and the head of the clans consumed that food which was produced by the common people.

The animal husbandry played significant part in the economy of the Hungarians till the conquest, but it was neither in Levedia nor Etelköz the nomadic type of rearing of livestock. Beside the winter-summer pasture-change (riverside) animal husbandry the tilling of arable land, gardening, fishery, moreover the vine-growing – done by the numerous common people (insulae) – already was important economic activity here as well. These more intensive economic methods increased the producing capacity of the area considerably.

The numerous common people – under the rule of clans who served in the army – already lived mostly on agriculture in Etelköz too, and in the Carpathian Basin, under a wetter climate, the Hungarian people settled entirely within a relatively short time and became agricultural. After the conquest, the geographical conditions of Carpathian Basin were favourable to the development of agriculture and this helped the quick and relatively successful establishment of European feudal state.

Vacuum of power in the Carpathian Basin

The geopolitical situation that emerged in the Carpathian Basin at the end of the 9th century helped the success of the conquest considerably. The Hungarians went marauding from Etelköz – via the Carpathian Basin – to Western and Southeast Europe for decades (in the Vienna Basin we already have archeological relic from AD 840). The Hungarians (like mercenaries) often fought in alliance with Bavarian or Moravian and they must have known well the political-military relation of forces of the Carpathian Basin. The Avar Empire utilized the geo-strategic conditions of the Carpathians and the state of Avars – first in the history – covered the whole Carpathian Basin.

Although the rest of Avars still lived to see the Hungarian conquest the Avar Empire was destroyed by the Franks and Bulgarians militarily and in political sense. After the Avar Empire’s annihilation the marches of external power centres (Eastern Frankish Kingdom, Bulgarian Empire and Moravian Principality) reached the Carpathian Basin, but these states fell into pieces or declined by the end of the 9th century. The conquerors relied on that they were familiar with the place and by the help of this and the armed forces they drove the enemy out from the marches easily. In 907 in the Battle of Pozsony the Hungarians prevented the Bavarians’ and Moravians’ attempt from restoring the previous relations of power. From this date, throughout nearly one and a half century, our neighbours didn’t manage to launch considerable or successful attack against the growing Hungary.

The Hungarians’ armed forces

During the first centuries of the Khazar Khaganate the Hungarian tribes lived next to the Khazars and eastern Slavs subjugated by Khazars at the north-western border of the empire. The Hungarians’ armed forces were increased necessarily by the fact that, on behalf of Khazars, they collected taxes from the Slavs. In the 8-9th centuries the Hungarians already raided their neighbours and they became the greatest supplier of the Black Sea slave-trade. The population moved slowly towards southwest, Levedia, then into Etelköz, in which we
must see the loosening of subjection from Khazars. The raids which were executed on behalf of Byzantium and some Western European rulers gained bigger and bigger economic role. According to the Byzantines the Khazars built the huge fortress Sarkel because of the Hungarian armed forces on the bank of Don river.

The Hungarians had got one of the biggest and strongest armies in Europe in the time of the conquest. Dzsaihani, an Arab geographer, wrote about the Hungarians that the prince-general (gyula) could led 20 000 mounted warriors into action. This also means that after the establishment of the confederation of tribes in Etelköz, the lords’ (chiefs, leaders) armed trains were united in one hand by the end of the 9th century. This combat-ready army provided opportunity for the Hungarians to carry a quick and successful conquest out and for the neighbours the acceptance of the act of the Hungarian conquest from necessity. Beside the armed forces of Hungarian tribes the joined khabars’ soldiers represented considerable military force and already co-operated with the Hungarians on the eve of the conquest and generally fought as auxiliary forces under the leadership of Árpád’s son Levente. This Hungarian army was determinant armed force of Southeast Europe and because of this fact in the second half of the 9th century the Moravians, the Franks or the Byzantines took them into their services in wartime.

**Traversing the Carpathian Mountains, the Hungarian conquest**

From Etelköz, the westward roving Hungarians had already known almost for half a century the Carpathian Basin and they could see that as against the “open” Etelköz the Carpathian Basin is more favourable in respect of geo-strategy. We don’t know whether our forefathers planed the occupation of the Carpathian Basin because nowadays it cannot be decided yet. Anyhow, directly the Pechenegs’ surprise attack led to the conquest in which about half a million people participated. The Pechenegs’ armed forces were far behind from the Hungarians’: Dzsajhani, Arab geographer, estimated 5 000 people – quarter of the Hungarians’ – their army.

The envoys of Byzantium agreed with Kurszán and Árpád (two princes) that they would attack the Bulgarian (nádor) in 894. At the same time Svatopluk I, the ruler of Great Moravia, asked military help of Árpád for his war in Pannonia. In accordance with this agreement, while prince Levente – the eldest son of prince Árpád – with the khabar army overran Bulgaria, prince Árpád with the main body of the Hungarian army in league with the Moravians went to Pannonia and attacked the Bulgarians’ marches in the south. At this time the undefended people who stayed in Etelköz were attacked by the Bulgarians and Pechenegs. The Byzantine reports mention the loss of animals respectively the huge casualties. The attacked Hungarian tribes streamed and escaped, through the eastern and southern saddles and passes of the Carpathian Mountains, to Transylvania and the Upper Tisza region. Half a million Hungarians traversed probably 10-12 saddles and passes and piled in the eastern border of the Carpathian Basin then joined with the army of prince Árpád. This army encamped in the Upper Tisza region because Svatopluk I died and so the Pannonian military expedition was delayed.

The overstatement of casualties in Etelköz would be lapse as the Pechenegs’ main aim was the obtainment of the animals. (After the Pechenegs had been defeated by the breaking
through Oghuz Turks they lost their animals and first of all they wanted to retrieve this damage now.) The loss of women and children and in general the loss of masses of the families would have resulted in the extinction of Hungarian language. This didn’t result and we can conclude the smaller loss of population from this fact. The cemeteries of conquest show balanced age-compound and sexual rate.

After this the Hungarian military force occupied the Carpathian Basin in two stages (Figure 3). In the first stage (till 899) the conquerors spread in all directions on the Great Hungarian Plain where – contrasted with the narration of Anonymous – they didn’t knock against any serious fight.

![Figure 3: Hungarian occupations in the Carpathian Basin](image)

In 899 emperor Arnulf took the Hungarian army into his service to attack Berengar the Northern Italian king. Near Brenta River the Hungarian light cavalry destroyed Berengar’s army which was at least triple superior in number and with whom after this battle they made peace in 900; under the terms of the treaty the Northern Italian king engaged himself to pay permanent taxes. The Hungarian army returning home occupied Transdanubia then advanced westward and from the quarrelsome sons of Svatopluk occupied the Moravian marches and the western part of Upper Hungary in 902. After the Avar Empire it was the second time in the history when the whole Carpathian Basin got under the rule of a state power (the Principality of Hungary).
The neighbouring great powers’ weakening

The successful carrying out of the conquest and the Hungarians’ inveteracy in the Carpathian Basin was facilitated significantly by the fact that the neighbouring great powers became weaker by the beginning of the 10th century and their inner problems made impossible the successful intervention against the Hungarians.

In the east the Pechenegs occupied the Hungarians former quarters in Etelköz and their military actions were directed towards the Balkan and the Russians. The Pechenegs tribes didn’t make progress in the establishment of the confederation of tribes. Only a few soldiers were mobilized in those campaigns which were launched against the Principality of Hungary – later kingdom – and these were stopped with the eastern march and the efficient Hungarian frontier defence. Prince Taksony – it was a peaceful friendly gesture – asked a Pecheneg wife for himself. After this the Pechenegs’ peaceful settlement began in the Carpathian Basin.

The Slav tribes which lived north of the Carpathians – as compared with the Moravians – organised their power centres late so the Polish state which was founded and became stronger later only would threaten Hungary under the reign of St Stephen I (Hungarian: Szt. István).

In the 10th century two great powers (the Bulgarian – Nándor – Empire and the Byzantine Empire) fought with each other for their life on the Balkan. Finally the Byzantine emperor Basil II won the Balkan struggle by the effective help of our king St Stephen.

Arnulf, the ruler of the Eastern Frankish Kingdom was in league with Hungarians and he asked for their aid against king Berengar. But Arnulf died at the end of 899 and Pannonia was occupied after this. The Hungarians offered peace to the German king Louis the Child (the successor of Arnulf) but the clause of the conclusion would have been the acknowledgement of the conquests (Transdanubia, Moravia). The Germans didn’t accept this offer of peace and the regular yearly tribute. This indicated the beginning of a fourteen-year war between the Hungarians and Germans which almost plunged Bavaria into wreck. As for Hungarians the Battle of Pozsony was the outstanding success of this war when the Bavarian-Moravian army was totally destroyed in 907. (Traditionally this glorious victory is known as the Battle of Pozsony (or Battle of Pressburg), though the castle of Pozsony – German: Pressburg, Slovak: Bratislava – and the comitat too was built/established by the Hungarians later.)

After 913, the Bavarian prince Arnulf asked for peace from the Hungarians, moreover he relied on the Hungarians’ support in his fight against the German king Conrad. Thereafter Bavaria was in the league with the Principality of Hungary. The Saxon ruler, Henry I the Fowler asked for peace for nine years from the Hungarian raiders and he used this period for rallying his power. The Hungarian conquest intensified the crisis of the Eastern Frankish Empire and contributed to its total collapse. The strengthening of the Saxon dynasty and the establishment of the Holy Roman Empire (962) were important changes at our western borders.

Geo-strategic importance of the march

First time the Avars built heir empire on the geographical energy of the Carpathians. From Dévény (Slovak: Devín) Gate (which was viewed as the western gateway to the Kingdom of Hungary) to the Iron Gate (Danube) the 1500 km long mountain range of the Carpathians
surrounds the Middle Danube Basin watchfully giving possibility – supplementing with Sava river and the Lower Danube – to be born a country protected with natural borders.

After the conquest and the Battle of Pozsony (907) the Hungarians set up – using the mountainous-wooded range of the Carpathians – the external march-system which helped the defence of the country for centuries (Figure 4). The external march-system, which reached from Operencia (Ober-Enns, Ennersburg) and the glass mountains (= the glaciers of the Alps) to the steppe Etelköz, was a wide, unpopulated borderland which hindered and blocked with natural and artificial obstacles the enemy’s attack. Its main task was the containing, exhausting and the starving of the aggressors (S. Frisnyák – Gy. Csihák 2004).

The disruption of the march system was due to the Germans. Henry the Fowler and his successors, the Saxon emperors found efficient remedy for the Hungarians’ eastern tactics. After the ignominious flight at Merseburg (933) and mainly the defeat at Augsburg (955) the Hungarians didn’t launch campaigns to the west yet. The raider campaigns still continued towards other cardinal points for one and a half decade. Prince Taksony (especially his son Géza) strived for peace clearly with the western neighbours as well. But it was hard to carry out after that the Hungarophile Arnulf’s son assumed the authority over Bavaria and Carinthia in 967. Henry the Quarrelsome began to establish marquisates on the strip of land beyond the Hungarian marchland. Henry forced forward by building of castles, settlement of
settlers and forced the Hungarian marchland guards back. In 970 he established, in the occupied valley of Danube, as the eastern marquisate of Bavaria, Ostarrich (Austria) then in 973 he occupied the road Strata Ungarorum that led to the Adriatic Sea and he established here the Carniola marquisate. Géza was forced to yield the Vienna Basin in the 990’s. The narrowing of the western marchland was the result Géza’s peace policy who surely tried to avoid the war. This – because of the continuous discord of Henry the Quarrelsome – didn’t always succeed. Géza still managed to confirm the Hungarian-Bavarian relationship because he managed to make a permanent peace with the children and the successors of Henry the Quarrelsome. Its proof was that the Bavarian princess Gisela – one of Henry the Quarrelsome daughters – whose hand was asked in marriage for Géza’s son became the first queen of Hungary.

Breaking up of the tribal system

According to Byzantine records the Hungarian order of battle and the population also was typically divided into seven parts in Etelköz. The seven tribes were: Nyék, Megyer, Kürt-Gyarmat, Tarján, Jenő, Kér and Keszi. (Because of the getting of the magic number seven, two tribes – Kürt and Gyarmat – had to be united artificially.) At the same time, after the conquest, the settlements of the Hungarian tribes in the Carpathian Basin weren’t kept in written sources and the opinion which says that the conquering tribes didn’t settle in separated blocks down has been known for a long time. Several researchers, in the first place by the help of the tribal place-names – on the basis of an exclusive method – have tried to locate the tribal quarters in the Carpathian Basin. The substance of this method is that where the name of a tribe occurs probably this tribe mustn’t have had settlement and the settling down of those people who belonged to a tribe can be supposed there where their names don’t occur.

The names of the Hungarian tribes – as the names of settlements – occurred dispersedly, mostly forming groups in the Carpathian Basin. The name of a tribe can be found 20-50 places in the geographical names in general (Figure 5). Those settlements which names refer to the name of a tribe must have named after the tribal origin of that military stratum that lived there and it proves that the memory of the tribal origin still lived in the 10th century. The local geographical names in the case of the tribe Kürt-Gyarmat prove to me that the Principality of Nitra depended on the military force – beside the Khabar and the Székely – of this tribe considerably.

However the geographical names don’t prove the settlement in tribal masses in any instance either though in the practise of the Hungarian geographical naming – in the case of the name of the region – we find lots of examples (e.g. Kunság, Jászság, Székelyföld, Palócööld, Őrség, Hajdúság) when a region is named after an ethnic group or a related social group.
In my opinion this also proves that the tribal system became disorganized during the conquest and it couldn’t regenerate any more. After the Hungarians had gone over the 9-12 saddles and passes of the Carpathians they crammed in the Transylvanian Basin and in the Upper Tisza region in 895-896 – in second step – about half a million conquerors scattered on the Great Hungarian Plane between 896-899. In the third step – after 900 – the Bavarian and Moravian marchlands (Transdanubian, Western Upper Hungary) were occupied by the Hungarians. Taking possession of the whole Carpathian Basin ended about 907. Consequently the conquest happened in more steps and it lasted about one decade. According to Anonymous, who based his work on historical legends and popular tradition, the Hungarian conquest was the succession of those leaders’ conquests that were charged by prince Árpád and in the Szer meeting the conquered new homeland was divided on the basis of leaders’ merits. The oral tradition didn’t keep the memory either the tribal conquest or the settlement. This also proves that after the blood treaty – the forming one people – the tribal features lost their importance. The Szer meeting proves that the conquered land was divided among the leaders (urak) and their clans. The countries (uraság) which were created in this way formed the early Principality of Hungary.

On the other hand the geographical place-names prove the spreading of communities with tribal origins in the Carpathian Basin however another typical group of the geographical names (which derive from the names of princes, leaders) already prove the development of a
new configuration that is connected with the consolidation of the House of Árpád which succeeded the tribal system. The settlements were usually marked with the names of the owners of the quarters who were chief people (princes, leaders, heads of clans) so on the basis of the formed geographical names – especially in the case of the first generation – the states of quarters (after the conquest) can be reconstructed well. These geographical names instead of the tribal separation prove the fact of the developing feudal (“national”) unification.

The Hungarian microcosm

The peaceful occupation of the Carpathian Basin began after the Battle of Pozsony (907) which indicated the end of the Hungarian conquest. Almost five generations long period was allotted to the Hungarians for the occupation. Basically till the civil war (fight for domination between Otto and Aba Samuel) which started after the death of St Stephen significant foreign army didn’t manage to make a raid into the interior of the country. The march stopped the external attacks efficiently during almost one and a half century. Eventually Géza’s peace policy was successful however he had to yield the western marchland, which was unpopulated so its evacuation didn’t touch the Hungarian quarters. It is well-known that St Stephen won all of his wars and it also led to the peaceful increase of the population of the country. Both Géza’s and St Stephen’s fights for monarchy concerned the military class and scarcely were civil victims of these internal fights.

The period between 907 and 1038 played important role in the survival of our nation and language. The unification of the Hungarians began in Etelköz and the term “hétmagyar” (Seven Hungarians) already proves it. In the Carpathian Basin, during the decades followed the conquest, the rests of the Avars, as well as the Onogur-Turkish population who had once lived under the rule of Avars and the Slavs (tótok) who lived in Transdanubia in the Great Hungarian Plain and in Transylvania mainly assimilated to the Hungarians (Figure 6). The Khabars who joined to the Hungarians in Etelköz – according to emperor Constantine’s portrayal – already were bilinguals about 950 consequently their assimilation was at an advanced stage at that time. Inside the march-system altogether considerable Slav population lived – in a mass – on the northwest borders which had belonged to the former Moravian Grand Duchy as well as between the Drava and Sava rivers, in Croatia (Tótország).

However the Hungarian language became rich with lots of Slavic words in the period of coexistence in the 10th century. The assimilation with those peoples who were found here confirms the Hungarians’ Central European anthropological features. By the end of St Stephen’s rule the number of the population of his Christian empire reached the one million and the great majority of the population (80-90%) spoke our Hungarian language that was brought from the East. Consequently we didn’t share the First Bulgarian Empire’s fortune.
The House of Árpád’s monarchy

The linguistic-ethnic map of Europe was created on the basis of those states which were created by prominent sovereign centres in the Middle Ages. In spite of this it’s very difficult the civil nations, which live here nowadays, to be traced back to their medieval predecessors. Nowadays, in the Carpathian Basin, a number of civil nations (or fraction of nation) live, but among those only the Hungarians’ state can be traced back to its medieval predecessor in title without any problem. After the conquest, first of all the successful aspiration for monarchy of the House of Árpád have to see in this fact. The early Árpáds realized their monarchy consistently that is to say they successful prevented the attempts of the regional separations.

There was still dual principality in Etelköz, but the Hungarians’ historical consciousness forgot this fact quickly though Kündü’s son Kurszán’s descendants (Kurszán was a sacral prince) lived for centuries after the conquest. Anonymous’s Gesta already deals with only Árpád and his bestowals. Árpád, after the conquest, was the lord of the whole land (“hetedhét ország”). Those lords (who had got as huge lands as a country – “uraság”), with the exception of some of them (e.g. Ond, Huba) already were others like the leaders of the tribes.
in Etelköz. In time several of the lords (e.g. Szabolcs, Tar-Zerind, Lél, Koppány) were the members of the House of Árpád, but their extractions did not even rescue them (e.g. leader Koppány or Vászoly) if they endangered the monarchy.

Prince Géza must have begun to confirm the strong monarchy of the House of Árpád ("his hands were stained with blood") though written records didn’t preserve the details of the extension of his power. At the same time we know the extension of St Stephen’s power well and we know that he counteracted by force of arms the territorial separation attempts (Koppány, Ajtony, Gyula).

During the development of the sovereign power St Stephen placed his reliable men on the head of the new royal comitats (Csanád, Doboka, Pozsony, Szolnok). In the 10th century the majority of the comitats, which St Stephen mostly seized by force, still belonged to the power centres ("uruszág") of the leaders and the more important heads of the clans (Figure 7). The number of king Stephen’s newly founded – unprecedented – comitats was much less than the former one.

![Figure 7: Royal comitats in the early Arpadian age](image)

**Opening towards the West**

The Christian feudal Europe was built on the remains of the Roman Empire. The feudalism – and naturally the Christianity that constituted the ideological basis of this system – from the
beginning went its own way both in the West and in the East. The emergence of the cultural, dogmatic, liturgical differences such as the difference in the Church organization led to the schism in 1054. Anyway centuries before the mutual excommunication – mainly in the 9-10th centuries – the fight was on between Rome and Byzantium for convertible peoples. In Eastern Europe such military power centres appeared at that time which led to the foundation of states (Bulgarians, Czechs, Poles, Hungarians, Croatians, and Russians) and because of the geographical situation both Churches considered these peoples live under their authority. It was so in the case of the Hungarians who occupied the Carpathian Basin.

After the defeat at Augsburg the German pressure on the Principality of Hungary increased significantly and this could remind the leaders of the country of the mournful history of the Avars. The baptism, thus the joining to the Christian Europe offered way out for them. The Slavs, who were baptized under the influence of the German Empire, were also forced to accept the German political supremacy whereas the Bulgarians – who embraced the Christianity from Byzantium – could establish an independent organization of the Church. On the other hand in the forties, against the hostile Germans, emperor Constantine the Purple-born as the ally to the Hungarians urged the Byzantine mission in the direction of Hungary. Horka Bulcsú and prince Tormás (great-grandson of Árpád) baptized in Byzantium in 948 then gyula Zombor followed their example in 953 who sent for a Byzantine bishop, as well. Prince Fajsz must have baptized too and several of those Hungarians whose lands were on the southern parts of the country (e.g. Ond’s descendants). Many Greek rite churches were started to build mainly in the southern Hungarian regions in that time. In the period of the mission of Byzantine the Hungarian language took in the next words: priest, friar, crucifix, saint, and Christmas.

In 955 Taksony became the reigning prince and he was descended from that line of the House of Árpád whose prestige wasn’t destroyed after the defeat at Augsburg. At the same time, on hearing the defeat, emperor Constantine denounced the alliance with the Hungarians and he didn’t pay the yearly tribute any longer. In 957 Constantine invited the Russian grand princess Olga to Byzantium and he considered that the alliance with her is more perspective. In 958 either the leaders Apor or Botond didn’t manage to persuade the emperor to pay the tribute longer.

Prince Taksony who – because of the protection of the eastern borders – married a Pecheneg chieftain’s daughter, chose a third way for the sake of the European integration: he asked a bishop from Rome for the sake of the spreading of Christianity. Emperor Otto however had this bishop and his followers arrested.

Taksony’s son prince Géza played important part in the adoption of Western Christianity. After 970 Géza increasingly became the ruler of the country and thus he already asked a bishop directly from Otto. Bishop Bruno (who was sent by Otto) came from St Gallen and baptized Géza and his younger brother Béla. (Géza was given the name of István and Béla was given the name of Mihály.) After this the adoption of words altered in an interesting way in the Hungarian language. During the Western (German) mission the Carinthian-Slav (windisch-Wend) priests – they were the followers of the German prelates – were given the prosaic task of interpretation and evangelizing. Thus in the Hungarian language the second group of the Christian terminology come from the Slav (Wend-Slovene) language that was spoken in the eastern Alps in the 10th century; -, nun, confirm, Christian, divine grace,
tonsure, vespers, chant, etc. (The names of some day also can be thanked to the Wend missionaries: Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, Saturday.)

Géza sent a delegation, which consist of twelve noblemen to Quedlinburg to Otto. Otto’s vassals, the Czech, Polish, and Danish rulers appeared in person in the meeting naturally. The fact that neither Géza nor anybody from the reigning dynasty participated in the Christian rulers’ meeting can also be considered that Géza – with his country – wanted to belong to the Christian Europe but he strove to avoid the vassal dependence as well. Géza then his son St Stephen carried this aim out successfully and as a result of this the first king of Hungary didn’t ask his insignia, the lance and the crown from the German emperor but from the Pope, the ideal-spiritual ruler.

The Kingdom of Hungary is part of the Western Christian civilization

Prince Géza’s rule and the first two decades of St Stephen’s reign passed the successful work of the organizing the state and the internal and external fights for the establishment of the kingdom. The Kingdom of Hungary which was reinforced with the systems of feudal institutions after the end of the Bulgarian war (1018) became favourable foreign affairs situation. At this time Hungary was surrounded by two powerful empires, the Holy Roman Empire and the Byzantine Empire. The result of the peace policy was that both emperors – through marriage – became allies of St Stephen. The good relations with the West was ensured with his marriage for a long time; his wife Gisela was a Bavarian princess and her brother Henry II was German king and – from 1014 – emperor of the Holy Roman Empire.

St Stephen took Basil II’s side with good sense on the Balkan seat of war, as well. Upon Basil’s request St Stephen conduct a campaign to the Balkan and they defeated the Bulgarian jointly. According to the habit of the age they confirmed the militant alliance with marriage: St Stephan’s son prince Imre married a Byzantine princess who was near relative of emperor Basil II.

St Stephen’s kingdom – after the downfall of Bulgaria – became important strategic bridge between the two empires and it was in league with them which was confirmed with marriage. This made possible for St Stephen the opening a new (continental) pilgrimage to Jerusalem which connected his country to the blood circulation of the continent and hereupon Hungary became considerable element of the feudal Europe. The important continental pilgrimage which was built between the West and the East became important route for not only the pilgrims and ideas but for trade too and this made – after six hundred years – Pannonia (the Carpathian Basin and Hungary), that was considered to be lost from the beginning the great migrations, part of Europe again.

We can consider unique the simultaneous and strong German and Byzantine alliance because the difference between the Latin and Greek Churches had already deepened at that time (though the schism didn’t take place yet). St Stephen had got – but essentially prince Géza had got too – strong Latin ecclesiastical background, which made it natural that the Latin clergy (representing a part of the royal court) considered the Greek rite as slip and a real source of danger (those who opposed the prince’s supremacy e.g. Koppány, Ajtony, Gyula, usually chose the Greek rite). Diplomatic treaties which were concluded with the Pope and the two neighbouring emperors made the possibility for St Stephen’s Christian monarchy that
as an independent state become part of the (Western) European civilization. The medieval Hungarian state was born and its guiding principle in foreign affairs became that this state is part of the Christian Europe but it is independent from foreign powers.

References

CONTRIBUTION OF VARIOUS PROGRAMS TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF TOURIST ROMANIAN-HUNGARIAN CROSS-BORDER TERRITORIAL SYSTEM

Introduction

Starting from the concept of regional development having as main objective “the fulfillment of local and regional human necessities, of which the most important being the access to work, economical growth, the development of various production networks and services strongly integrated into the local and regional framework, the set-up of an environment favorable to development…..” (Benedek, 2004, 15-16), the suggested paper is approaching aspects related to ways of Romanian-Hungarian cross-border cooperation which support the development and implementation of tourism as well as the turning of the cross-border areas into territorial systems of high degree of functionality.

Various programs through European Commission funding the cross-border co-operation projects in order to promote socio-economic development and cohesion in border areas. The new European Commission policy for 2007-2013 expects to validate in this period about 50 programs structured around some major objectives related to competitiveness, employment and territorial cooperation.

Methodology

The methodology used in this paper (fig.1) is based on a quality and quantity analysis of the specific database and on field research on the inventory of the programs and the last year’s projects support of the tourism development in Romanian–Hungarian cross-border area.
Debates

Romanian–Hungarian Cross-Border Co-operation Frame started since 1996 the PHARE CBC Program which was extended to a border region between two candidate countries to EU integration (the period 1996-2003). It was followed by the cross-border co-operation program PHARE CBC, with Hungary-Romania Cross-border Co-operation Program 2004 – 2006, respectively 2007-2013, which is supposed to meet the challenges and opportunities of the cross-border area, by capitalizing the previous experience (e.g. "Protection and promotion of the meadows of Mures River") (fig.2).

The INTERREG IV C program is a co-operation area within the whole territory of the EU, with a total budget of 405 million Euro, of which Romania benefits from approximately 17 million Euro. One of the beneficiaries of the program we should mention the authorities in the field of tourism, protection and promotion of the cultural and natural heritage.

The South-East Europe program benefited from a total budget of 245 million Euro, of which Romania got 83 million Euro. There were created trans-national partnerships in fields of strategic importance, which included the field of management of natural resources and protected areas, with the purpose of improving the process of territorial, economic and social integration.

The Romanian–Hungarian Cross-Border Co-operation Program is continuing the cross-border co-operation programs Interreg IIIA in Hungary and Phare CBC in Romania, being implemented within a joint institutional structure by using joint funds, extending and developing the previous experience and results. The joint meeting of the Romanian and Hungarian governments on October 20th 2005 in Bucharest led to the identification of various directions of convergence of the National Plans of Development of Romania and Hungary and to proposals of initiating some joint projects of co-operation. Within the mechanisms of co-operation one can note the mixed Hungarian-Romanian Commission of cooperation in the field of tourism which co-works for:

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a.) optimizing the co-operation between public and business sectors; 
b.) the efficient use of human and material resources at cross-border level; 
c.) the development of a strategic Romanian-Hungarian partnership in the field of tourism.

Figure 2: Map of eligible area of Cross-border Cooperation Programme 2007-2013 and Hungary-Slovakia-Romania-Ukraine Cross-border Cooperation Programme

Within the afore-mentioned programs (fig.2) we should mention some completed or in-progress projects which contribute to the development and promotion of tourism in cross-border area. The completed project “The co-operation of the economists to the development of the Bihor – Hajdu-Bihar Euroregion” financed through the program PHARE CBC 2006/INTERREG IIIA Romania – Hungary (2006)” (Dodescu and Chirilă, 2009, 287) suggested the improvement of the co-operation of the economists in the Bihor-Hajdu Bihar cross-border area which could lead to the sustainable development of the area, the implementation of some interfaces with mountain resorts (e.g. Padis, Apuseni Mountains) and spas (e.g. Bâile Felix, 1 Mai, Romania, Hajdúszoboszló, Hungary), the improvement of students practice in the field of tourism, the development of gastronomy, the organization of
wine tourist itinerary on the Ierului valley (Bihor–Hajdu-Bihar), the setup of a centre for training tour guides etc.

The program “Development of joint tourist packages in the Hajdú-Bihar – Bihor Euroregion” (RO 2006/018-446.01.01.01.15) financed through the Phare CBC 2006/INTERREG III Romania-Hungary 2007-2008 (159,000 Euro) is a project that intends to provide joint standard services in the Euroregion, the project aiming at exchanging experience between specialists, at the same time joint tourist packages being developed for promoting the Euroregion tourist potential, tourism being regarded as a local growth engine raising the overall socio-economic level of life.

The project “The implementation of the feasibility study and the technical project for the Cyclotourism Lane in the Romania-Hungary cross-border co-operation area” (year 2006, 93,000 Euro) proposed the promotion of cross-border co-operation between the counties of Cenad, Hungary and Timiş, Romania, through the development of tourist infrastructure of transport and the improvement of the alternative tourism – cyclotourism.

Public local or regional administrations, by aid of various programs, are successfully contributing over the past years to the development of tourism through the conservation and promotion of traditions, especially in cross-border villages, activities which are combined with various types of exhibitions: art, gastronomy etc. (Tarpai, 2010, 229).

The project “The integrated centre of business development through promotion of tourism and of the regional culture of Alesd” (total project value 335,648.88 Euro) had as main objective the promotion and development of tourism in the town areas of Aleşd (Romania) si Kaba (Hungary), and the setup of a Tourist Info Centre in Aleşd. It was meant for the “implementation of a regional business centre as a tool for the development of business infrastructure in the field of tourism on the Crişul Repede Valley, having as main objective the implementation of specialized services for tourism entrepreneurs, by acting as a complementary factor for the already existing organizations of support of the development of private small and medium enterprises in the field of tourism”.

The project “Adventure, Comfort and Fun - Promotion of the tourist offer in Hajdú-Bihar, Bihor counties” (total project value 510,000 Euro), started through the co-operation between the Hajdú-Bihar County Council, the City Hall of Oradea and Bihor County Council, proposes the promotion of tourism in cross-border area through brochures, media and internet.

The project “Unity and diversity in the tourism of Bihor-Hajdu Bihar Euroregion”, CCI Bihor as beneficiary, has the following partners: The Agency of Development of Tourism in Hajdú-Bihar county and the Chamber of Commerce and Industry Hajdu-Bihar (Hungary). The result of this project is the brochure containing joint tourist packages including assets of natural and cultural heritage in the Bihor-Hajdu Bihar Euroregion that rejuvenates the leisure and business tourism. Part of the project was also the implementation of a tourism portal.
containing 370 photos of tourist area as well as of a distinctive tourist brand “Bihor-Hajdu Bihar, European tourist destination”.

As regards the perspectives of Romania-Hungary cross-border co-operation, part of the programme Romania-Hungary Cross-border Co-operation 2007-2013, the Ecumenical tourism is one of them, a recent proposal is for a joint Hungarian-Romanian project which aims at the improvement of the infrastructure and other facilities for tourists and visitors of the churches and monasteries in the regions of Western Romania and Eastern Hungary. The project intends the establishment of thematic routes for promoting the medieval churches with great cultural value but not yet introduced in the tourism circuit. The thematic routes are seen both as heritage tourist attractions, consisting of the medieval churches, currently protected by the law, and as a religious touristic route. Architectural and cultural heritage like no other in the region is promoted, adding a spiritual dimension to these thematic routes.\(^{13}\)

The County Councils of Timiș (Romania) and Csongrad (Hungary)\(^{14}\) intend to participate in a cross-border project which establishes the layout of joint tourist routes by promoting the main sights in Timișoara, Sânnicolau Mare and Periam in România and respectively Szeged, Mako and Gyula in Hungary.

The Vadu Crișului (Romania) Town Hall together with the Hajdúszezhőszló (Hungary) Town Hall and the Association of Hotel Owners filed in 2010 a new project, part of the aforementioned project (total value 550,000 Euro) which has as main objective the setup of a “business incubator of tourism at Vadu Crișului” and the implementation of a Tourist Info Centre at the main entrance to the thermal water pool in Hajdúszezhőszló.\(^{15}\)

The project „Joint development and integrated promotion of the rural thematic tourism in the Bihor-Hajdu-Bihar Euroregion” is a joint initiative of the Universities of Debrecen (Hungary) and Oradea (Romania). This project is focused on tourism development in the rural areas in the Bihor and Hajdu Bihar counties, based on integrated promotion and joint elaboration of competitive thematic tourist products. It is important for people and communities from both sides of the border to benefit economically from the existence of a rich tourist potential and from the tourism income. The project underlines the huge potential of the rural space from both sides of the borders (scenery, wildlife, natural, features, heritage/culture, traditional villages, monuments, churches and monasteries, local festivals, castles, popular myths, traditions, popular art, gastronomy) and how this potential could be turned into successful thematic tourist products and further, the best ways through which these thematic products can be promoted by using joint marketing tools, through coordinated, unfragmented transboundary efforts. Also, the project raises the local population awareness to the local tourist resources. Tourism could represent an important way for addressing the rural economic decline, providing important income to both the population and states' budgets, green jobs and a safe and clean environment.

\(^{13}\) http://www.westtv.ro/articolul/5310-Romania-si-ungaria-doresc-sa-dezvolte-impreuna-turismul-ecumenic.html


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Conclusions

The projects which support tourism development are based on real needs for socio-economic development on both sides of the border and offer real solutions in this way. The tourist potential of the Hungarian-Romanian border region is very important, the same problems being identified on both sides of the border: small dispersion of tourist activities, insignificant average tourist stay and the related spending (excluding shopping tourism), local destination are very little European and internationally known and finally a small share of tourism represent a sector in the economy. In order to address these deficiencies, the tourism development priority should be oriented towards building and promoting new and competitive thematic tourist products and developing new tourist attractions and destinations in the border region, that would stimulate the local border economy, helping the potential business tourism and raising the overall level and quality of life. Tourism can successfully fulfill the regional policy objectives in the Romanian-Hungarian cross-border area in order to balance the regional differences, economic growth, raise of living standard, diminished unemployment rate, environment protection and conservation, development of public services sector and easy access to it (Benedek, 2004). Joint development of tourism would increase the Hungarian-Romanian borderland tourist competiveness at the European Union level, stimulating at the same time regional sustainable development.

Acknowledgments: This contribution presents results from research projects: PN II 667/2008; HURO/0901/017/2.1.3. and was partially supported by the strategic grants POSDRU/88/1.5/S/53501, Project ID53501 (2009), POSDRU/107/1.5/S/80272. The authors acknowledge to anonymous reviewer for their thoughtful suggestion and comments.
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CULTURAL - EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES AT THE LEVEL OF THE DEBRECEN - ORADEA COMMUNITIES

The paper proposes, following the results of the sociological research applied in the cities of Oradea and Debrecen as part of the "To prepare a common future: Congestion Communities Debrecen-Oradea 700 000 (2020)", to highlight the cultural dimension education of the two communities, then try on the basis of existing realities and to propose joint development strategies of cultural education on both sides of the Romanian - Hungarian border and as target cities Debrecen and Oradea.

The project regarding The Debrecen – Oradea Cross-border Agglomeration, started in 2007, was designed for 2007-2020, planned for several phases of development and as a target population of 700,000 was proposed indicator (No of the population that wants to be reached at the cross-border congestion level of Debrecen - Oradea, which in principle should cover the cities of Debrecen and Oradea populations attaching the communities around the two municipalities in the county of Bihor, Romania and the County of Hajdu Bihar, Hungary.

The project "Thinking the Future Together: The Debrecen – Oradea Cross-border Agglomeration (2020)" has been conceived in five major stages of development as follows: 1) the public awareness stage, of policy makers and all stakeholders in such a project, in order to create the "critical mass" approach designed to support such initiative (2006 - 2007); 2) impact assessment phase of such a project (2007), in the city of Oradea; 3) Communities Strategy development for the Congestion of Debrecen-Oradea (SCADO) (2007-2008), 4) implementation SCADO (2009-2013), with 600,000 people target, 5) SCADO implementation (2014-2020) targeting 700,000 inhabitants.

The preconditions for the project mentioned above exist and are of three main types: historical - cultural, socio - economic and cooperation expertise.

From the cultural - historical perspective, that intersects with the cultural - educational dimension of the work, we can say that Debrecen and Oradea have developed along the history as separate communities, but additional. If Oradea was a city with a strong Catholic influence (this finding is one of the oldest Roman Catholic bishops and one bishop Hungarian Greek - Catholic who had a major impact in shaping the identity of the Romanians) and Orthodox alike, Debrecen was one of the cradles of reform in Hungary. If Oradea had more a political - administrative role, Debrecen shared the economic one. The communication between the two cities was easily achieved, due to the distance between the two cities, ethnic diversity (Romanian, Hungarian, Ukrainian, Schwabe, Slovakia) and religion (Greek - Catholic, Orthodox, Reformed, Israel).
By plotting the Hungarian border - Romanian, after 1920, the two adjacent towns and communities will suffer in their development. They will seek to converge to the central - political administrative structures, but will always be marked by the peripheral status. After 1990, the convergence process is re-launched, at the beginning it is a cultural convergence, then an economic one, and in recent years a policy by creating the Bihor - Hajdu Bihar Euro-region.

For the first stage of the project we used the method of research, sociological investigation, and as a research tool, the sociological questionnaire, addressing the three target groups: students, public, or people aged over 25 years, institutions, at the level of each city being applied 1000 questionnaires.

The research tool aims to capture the following dimensions specific to the two communities, during the research trying to emphasize the common cross-border elements (Ţoca, Popoviciu, 2010, p.92): cross-border communication, the purpose of visits, the community aspects of social life, major industries, institutions, organizations, the Project "To Prepare a Common Future: Congestion communities Debrecen - Oradea 700 000 (2010)", development directions of the Debrecen - Oradea communities, socio-demographic data.

After applying the instrument we have identified three questions specific to our field of interest, namely the cultural-educational dimension:

- Question 7 followed the trust in institutions of Oradea-Debrecen, that question will highlight the results of the state academic institutions in the two cities, namely University of Oradea and University of Debrecen
- Question 8 through which we wanted to surprise the interest in the Project "To Prepare a Common Future: Debrecen-Oradea Communities Congestion 700 000 (2020)" for joint development of cities of Oradea and Debrecen,
- Question 9, where for a harmonious development of relations between the cities of Debrecen and Oradea is considered to be necessary to implement
- The SWOT analysis of the Debrecen – Oradea communities

For question 7 of the research instrument there have been listed more representative institutions for Oradea and Debrecen, and for our study the representative institution for the cultural-educational field we have selected the University of Oradea and the University of Debrecen.

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Table 1: The responses of the three target groups on confidence in the University of Oradea and University of Debrecen, Source: Own elaboration
Figure 1: The reliability of the three target groups in the academic institutions: University of Oradea / University of Debrecen (cumulative percentages of grades of high intensity and very high) Source: Own elaboration

After responding to the three target groups by two academic centers on both sides of the Romanian-Hungarian border, where cumulative levels of high intensity, high, received the largest percentage being invested with the highest confidence for the community of Oradea the students' answers showed that to them the academic institution of Oradea represents the confidence rises up to 57.5% (by aggregating responses to high and very high levels), on the other side of the border in neighboring Hungary the similar target group similar cumulates a rate of 77.9%, as the Romanian part being the institution with the highest degree of confidence compared to the other institutions under investigation at this question.

One of the central questions of the research was oriented to capture the views on the draft on the Project "To prepare a common future: Congestion Communities Debrecen-Oradea 700 000 (2020)", for joint development of Debrecen and Oradea cities, building a question with three choices.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>&gt;25 years</th>
<th>Institutions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DA</td>
<td>Oradea</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>64.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Debrecen</td>
<td>51.7%</td>
<td>63.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NU</td>
<td>Oradea</td>
<td>13.1%</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Debrecen</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t know</td>
<td>Oradea</td>
<td>20.9%</td>
<td>25.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Debrecen</td>
<td>42.9%</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Answers of the target groups regarding the cross-border project of the communities Debrecen - Oradea, Source: Own elaboration
For the harmonious development of relations between the cities of Debrecen and Oradea it was proposed in the research instrument pre-coded questions, closed with a variety of options to pursue answers to a number of areas of development at the border and especially in the communities Debrecen - Oradea.

Among the directions pursued at this question we find: the opening of new border crossing points - building new roads to Debrecen, making points of information (economic, tourist, administrative, Euro-regional, transport, etc.), daily flights Oradea - Debrecen (bus, train), regular meetings between officials of both cities, training courses managers, experts and employees in Oradea (those of Debrecen) and in Debrecen (those from Oradea), the organization of mobility (exchange), teachers, students and pupils (Alina Stoica, Constantin Toca, 2010, p.71-73), development of common projects, organizing job fairs, joint meetings between experts from different fields of activity, other activities you think would be important to be developed for collaboration.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>&gt; 25 years old</th>
<th>Institutions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Oradea</td>
<td>Debrecen</td>
<td>Oradea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication points</td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td>37.4</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information centers</td>
<td>50.4</td>
<td>54.2</td>
<td>53.7</td>
<td>53.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily flights</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td>36.5</td>
<td>57.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Periodical meetings</td>
<td>32.9</td>
<td>45.4</td>
<td>45.3</td>
<td>46.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialization courses</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>41.4</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exchange programs</td>
<td>51.8</td>
<td>59.6</td>
<td>49.3</td>
<td>55.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Common projects</td>
<td>56.9</td>
<td>63.8</td>
<td>60.6</td>
<td>59.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job fairs</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>25.8</td>
<td>54.7</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experts meetings</td>
<td>40.7</td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>44.3</td>
<td>27.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: The answers of the target groups related to the development directions at the target communities' level, Source: Own elaboration
Through SWOT analysis we sought to capture two large cities of Debrecen and Oradea, namely internal and external dimension, on the first dimension strengths and weaknesses, for the second dimension communities opportunities and threats.

After collecting the data in the two target areas, in the three target groups were subjected to field research highlighted a number of representative indicators, where six have emerged in the larger interest at the level of Debrecen - Oradea communities.

But of the 6 criteria, the major dimensions, after the aggregation of answers from respondents, the cultural-educational dimension was the most representative, in this case being able to discuss the two cities (Debrecen and Oradea), strong from the cultural and educational point of view, having behind a rich history after which remained a number of invaluable cultural - architectural values and not least the presence of Debrecen University and the University of Oradea, two powerful academic centers at the local, regional, national, Euro-regional level but not in the last row European by opening the two academic centers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Oradea</th>
<th>Debrecen</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td>Cultural Objectives</td>
<td>Culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Buildings Architecture</td>
<td>Religion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Churches</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational</td>
<td>Academic background</td>
<td>Academic background</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-academic background</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neighborhood</td>
<td>Geographical position</td>
<td>Regional Point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frontier</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Custom/house</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport</td>
<td>Transport</td>
<td>Transport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Infrastructure</td>
<td>Infrastructure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modernization of the city</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 4: The major dimensions of interest in the cities of Debrecen and Oradea have been highlighted in the SWOT analysis, Constantin Țoca, Comparative SWOT analysis of the Debrecen –Oradea cross-border communities, in Media and European Diversity, Edited by Luminița Șoproni, Ioan Horga, Edition Bruylant, 2010*

Below we will emphasize the cultural-educational dimension of the two targeted cities, of course with the frequencies of specific indicators (no election) for their action through a SWOT analysis, surprising the internal dimensions (strengths) and external dimensions (opportunities, threats), in the cities of Debrecen and Oradea.
### Table 5: The SWOT Analysis for the cultural - educational dimension: indicators, frequency, Source: Own elaboration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strengths</th>
<th>Debrecen</th>
<th>Weaknesses</th>
<th>Debrecen</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Oradea</td>
<td>University, 108</td>
<td>Old buildings, 20</td>
<td>Culture, 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural objectives, 141</td>
<td>Cultural center, 19</td>
<td>The Fortress 1</td>
<td>Cultural events, 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Churches, 23</td>
<td>Research, 1</td>
<td>Culture, 1</td>
<td>Mentality, 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highschool environment, 11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Religion, 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic environment, 86</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Education, 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human resources, 12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Projects, 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buildings, 40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiculturalism, 11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University, 18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opportunities</th>
<th>Debrecen</th>
<th>Threats</th>
<th>Debrecen</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Oradea</td>
<td>Education, 11</td>
<td>The loss of culture, 5</td>
<td>Migration, 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross-border projects, 33</td>
<td>Culture, 5</td>
<td>The decrease of the students, pupils number, 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU member, 27</td>
<td>Regional center, 10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scholarships, 18</td>
<td>EU, 6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic environment, 6</td>
<td>Projects, 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture, 1</td>
<td>Cultural center, 4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University, 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Science, 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 3. István SÜLI-ZAKAR, The Role of the Euro-regions and Eurimetroscales in the Etheralisation of the Borders, in the Eastern Periphery of the European Union, in EUROLIMES, volume 7, Europe and the Neighbourhood, Spring 2009, p.144*
As it can be seen from the above map and Workshops and the overall objective proposed by Professor Istvan Suli - Zakar for Debrecen - Oradea Eurometropolis Cross-border, we can note from the general purpose: establishment of joint education – research – development – health tourism (innovative) cluster of Debrecen – Oradea, coincides with the direction of education - established cultural and sociological research after the SWOT analysis carried out in two neighboring border communities: Debrecen and Oradea.

Therefore the items that have been highlighted in educational and cultural level followed by the joint development at the community level Debrecen - Oradea we remember a few ideas.

Realizing of common projects and educational mobility for teachers, and In the direction of joint cross-border cultural projects - educational projects we can mention the funding bridge in Europe through the Structural Funds, Cross Border Cooperation Program Hungary - Romania 2007-2013, which has as a strategic goal: To bring the people, communities and businesses in the border area To facilitate the joint development zone of cooperation, based on specific key advantages of the border region, where we look at two main areas of interest: Priority 1 - Improve the key conditions of joint sustainable development of the cooperation area and Priority 2 - Strengthen the social and economic cohesion in the border region.

For Priority 2, where the overall objective of the priority axis is to enhance the economic competitiveness of the region through business development and improvement of human resources, and major areas of intervention that correspond to the direction of the cultural - educational development of the cities of Debrecen and Oradea, the can be listed the following fields (www.huro-cbc.eu.ro):

- 2.2. Promoting the cooperation in the C+D field and innovation; 2.2.1 Development of common infrastructure of research, 2.2.2 Realizing common projects of research, 2.2.3 Cooperation between the different areas implied in C+D, 2.2.4 Elaboration of studies, plans
- 2.3. Cooperation in the labor market and education - joint development of skills and knowledge; 2.3.1 Cooperation between educational institutions, 2.3.2 Cooperation in the labor market
- 2.5 Cooperation between communities; 2.5.1 Cooperation between communities

The mobility of teachers and students can be associated with a Lifelong Learning Policy which specific programs of Teaching Staff, Staff Training, investments that can help a joint development in the two universities in the region. We can take advantage of a very high confidence enjoyed by the two universities and the University of Oradea University of Debrecen, the cultural-educational expertise, and all other strengths identified in the common direction for cultural-educational development, the two academic centers would impose a common policy in conjunction with the possibility of accessing structural funds in different directions and that indicators should be sought in the direction of common development, we can mention: organization of common international conferences on various topics of common interest, identify common lines of research and innovation, exchange of specialists, experts, exchange of students for internships study, etc.

An effective way for educational cooperation, cross-border university is the European Confederation of Universities of the upper Rhine (Strasbourg, Mulhouse, Bâle, Fribourg-en-

A good example of good, functional and efficient practice, one example of the highly successful Universitas translimes which presents (Ioan HORGA, István SULI-ZAKAR, 2010, p.170a series of results which may form the basis of a common cultural- educational development in the two communities Debrecen - Oradea we mention the Euro-regional Studies Institute (Ioan HORGA, István SULI-ZAKAR, 2010, p.171-176).

References


István Polgár

HUNGARIAN HISTORIOGRAPHY BETWEEN THE CONCEPT OF “EUROPE WITHOUT BORDERS” AND AUTONOMY OF THE “SZEKLELS LAND”

During the 17th and 18th centuries the Carpathian Basin was known as one of the most troubled regions of Europe concerning ethnic and religious conflicts, insomuch that the ideological and social systems that ruled the region during the last century were not able to remove the existing tension between the different ethnic groups.

Sociologist Anna Fenyvesi considers that these tensions were aggravated and due to the new rigid borders which limited the successor states after World War I, in that they discontinued the old historical and cultural ties and traditional economic contacts pre-existing in the former Hungary in such a way that no Communist internationalism proved to be able to solve the problem.

She claims that since 1920, there has been a rupture between the geographic area of the Hungarian nation and the Hungarian people in that the Treaty of Trianon forced the third of the former Hungarian population to adopt the new minority status living in areas of the successor states. This situation constituted a permanent source of inflammation of the revisionist and irredentist movements.

Following the same idea, researchers Károly Kocsis and Eszter Kocsisné Hodos argues that the governments of the successor states cultivated nationalism and chauvinism among the majority populations through their policies. The Hungarian ethnic groups from their territories were treated as if they never existed, and the old Hungarian place names and hydronyms in that area were deliberately omitted from the maps and schoolbooks. These measures have led to greater ethnic segregation of the society (Kocsis, K. – Kocsisné Hodosi, E., P 1998).

In this context it was possible for Transylvania to become subject to arbitration in Vienna in August 1940, when a significant percentage of Romanians became again minority by incorporating to Hungary a territory of 16,792 square miles.

It is not accidental that a large part of the Hungarian historiography from 1990 continues also today to appeal to older concepts conveyed in the interwar period due to causes that have generated a state of permanent tension between Hungary and the successor states.

With relation to Transylvania the Romanian emigration theory in the Carpathian highlands is reproduced and the role played by this movement in overthrowing the ethnic balance of Transylvania. It is stated that in the period 1553-1603 the province saw a dramatic depopulation amid military events which disturbed the peace of this region of Europe that in 1604 the population of Transylvania could be estimated up to 300,000 inhabitants. With a sharper decrease of the Hungarian ethnic parties are nominated the parts of Cluj with -70%
and of Solnoc-Dobâca with -85%, while the number of Romanians here decreased only by 45%. It is also stated that in the middle of the sixteenth century, instead of missing persons would have been placed Romanian waves off the Chioarului Country and from Apusenii Bihorului and other Romanians came from Wallachia and Moldova because of the oppression to which they were subject in their countries.

In connection with the end of 1918, the Kocsis couple put the act of union of Transylvania with Romania in charge of the military occupation introduced by the Romanian army in Transylvania, in circumstances in which, according to the census of 1910, a total of 2.5 million inhabitants of the province, ie 46% were non-Romanians, of whom 1.7 million being Hungarians. Fenyvesi Anna estimates to 200,000 the number of Hungarians who left Transylvania after 4 June 1920 (Fenyvesi, A., P. 2005).

According to the Kocsis couple, the Romanian occupation would have determined during the period 1930-1941 a further weakening of the Hungarian population in Transylvania’s major industrial centres with up to 30% in Turda, 24% in Brasov, 20% in Arad, Deva and Petrosani and 17% in Timisoara and Aiud (Kocsis, K. – Kocsisné Hodosi, E., P 1998).

It is estimated to 800,000 the number of Romanians who came from areas outside the Carpathians in Transylvania after 1920 and a quarter million of those who came after 1945, the latter settling in the ‘industrial triangle’ formed by the cities of Brasov-Arad-Resita, whose economy requested the supplementation of the workforce.

It is further stated that in eight cities of Transylvania with a Hungarian major population and one of German-majority (Jimbolia) the ethnic ratio was changed in the communist period in favour of the Romanians, following the directives outlined in this regard by the Romanian Communist Party. There are named, in chronological order of the tilt of the balance in favour of the Romanians, the following cities: Cluj (1957), Zalau (1959), Balan and Reghin (1969), Oradea (1971), Huedin (1972), Satu Mare (1973) and Aleșd (1978) (Fenyvesi, A., P. 2005).

Anna Fenyvesi determines two historical events that led to the birth of the Hungarian diaspora, the first is the Treaty of Trianon, which resulted in the fact that three millions of people of Hungarian ethnicity were left outside Hungary, and the second is the anti-communist revolution of 1956 (Fenyvesi, A., P. 2005).

She also attributes the parenthood of the Csango from Moldova to the Hungarian nation. It is stated that they went to Moldova in two waves over the 14th and 15th centuries to defend the eastern borders of the Kingdom of Hungary against the invaders who came from the steppes of Russia and the Mongol Golden Horde. It is said that they have found Moldova in the stage of crystallization from Principality, whose bases were laid by a group of Romanian from Maramures who had come here earlier, originating from an area surrounding the land of Mezőség from where the Csango had gone.

Anna Fenyvesi states, however, that the population of the Csango ethnic group manifests hostility towards anything that might associate them with the Hungarians. This attitude explains why parents do not allow children to attend schools in Hungarian from Transylvania. The few Csango who understand the need for them to maintain ties with the Hungarians in Transylvania or in Hungary are ostracized by the rest of the community for their choice (Fenyvesi, A., P. 2005).

Following the Treaty of Trianon, Hungarians left outside the current borders of Hungary went through a process of changing their old status of belonging to a majority to the members
of ethnic minorities, also becoming the target of revengeful actions of Slovaks, Serbs and Romanians, states the Kocsis couple (Kocsis, K. – Kocsisné Hodosi, E., P 1998).

Attila Benö and Sándor Szilágyi, after emphasizing that the 1,434,000 Hungarians who remained in Transylvania represents 10% of the Hungarians from all over the world, say that their numbers would decrease due to their departure from Transylvania because of the oppressive policy that Ceausescu's dictatorial regime led until 1989. In their view, the 2002 Romanian census data show that the process of denationalization of the Hungarians in Transylvania continues today because only 1,431,807 people of the 1,443,970 citizens who said they were speaking Hungarian, declared being Hungarians (Fenyvesi, A., P. 2005).

Anita Inder Singh believes that the Transylvanian ethnic tensions are aggravated by religious and social differences between people of the province, which, regarding the Hungarians, are aggravated by the constant concern of the government to assimilate them or to eliminate those who oppose from public life (Inder Singh, A., P. 2001).

However, the Kocsis couple finds that today's ethnic picture of Transylvania shows that there were no major changes regarding the spread and settlement of the Hungarians in relation to the situation in the eighteenth century, with the exception of the 1944 genocide and deportations of 1945-1948 (Kocsis, K. – Kocsisné Hodosi, E., P 1998).

Paradoxically, the signing of the Final Act of the Helsinki Conference of 1975, instead of bringing peace in the relations between Romania and Hungary, it has strained them more. President Janos Kadar's statement on this occasion regarding the status of the Hungarians in Transylvania has been interpreted as an insult by the governors in Bucharest (Barta, Gy., P. 2005)

A main factor in maintaining the national consciousness of the Hungarian minority during the communist era in the successor states was the church. This was possible not because the young Hungarians were not subject to the same atheist indoctrination process that was applied to the entire society, but because they perceived their own religion as a symbol of their national identity, although there were cases where some said they were atheists or not responded to the 1990 census.

Another factor involved in maintaining the national identity was the education of the Hungarian minority. The same statistical data from 1990 show that only 1% of the Hungarians in Transylvania were illiterate, compared to 3% of the Romanians, or that 2.4% of Vojvodina Hungarians were illiterate, compared to 4.9 of the Serbs.

This situation is made and on behalf of the up to 60-70 km proximity to areas inhabited by Hungarians to the Hungarian border, a position that "allowed them to look elsewhere than in a single direction" and assured purity of the language and traditions (Kocsis, K. – Kocsisné Hodosi, E., P 1998).

Tensions between the majority populations of the states in Central and Eastern Europe and the national minorities on their territory have been fuelled by the governors’ 1990 statements from Budapest, who held that "it is impossible for Hungary to maintain good relations with any country in which the Hungarian minority is discriminated" - and that - "Hungary assumes all responsibility for the fate of all Hungarians outside its borders and therefore will do everything it can to strengthen its ties with them". These statements were interpreted by the neighbouring countries as an expression of the reviving revisionism (Inder Singh, A., P. 2001).
Györgyi Barta interprets PM Jozsef Antal’s statement that he is expected to be "the prime minister of the 15 million Hungarians" as a figure of speech used by the politician to make known the opening of a new era in Hungarian foreign policy in relation to the neighbouring countries, especially in relations with Romania. The fact that Budapest's tone is sweetened during the browsing process of accession to the European Union and NATO, does not mean that Hungary would have played a card with two sides (Barta, Gy., P. 2005).

OSCE has the merit of having been actively involved in bridging these tensions. The efforts of diplomat Van der Stoel remain the reference in resolving and mediating the disputes of between the Russian minority in the Baltic countries, Ukraine and Moldova, the contribution that has brought the bilateral good-neighbourly treaty between Romania and Hungary or the way Meciar government cleared the need to protect the Hungarian minority in Slovakia (Inder Singh, A., P. 2001).

The normalization of the relations between Romania and Hungary was possible by Gyula Horn's coming to power in 1994, an event that marked the adoption of a new foreign policy strategy. As a president, Horn said he was the leader of 10.4 million Hungarians, ie just of those who lived within the borders of Hungary, considering that the problem of the Hungarian minority cannot be subject to an international agreement. In other words, Budapest has not encouraged any aspiration of autonomy of the Transylvanian Hungarian ethnic group and did not accept interference of the Democratic Union of Hungarians in Romania in preparation discussions of the treaty. The momentary interest of both states was that they can meet their integration requirements into NATO, the most important requirement concerning the inviolability of borders between the two (Inder Singh, A., P. 2001).

Andrew Felkay analyst believes that Hungary has missed an opportunity to obtain satisfaction of collective rights for Hungarian minorities, as given the extent of the NATO enlargement process, it could put pressure on the governments of neighbouring countries entered the race for membership (Felkay, A., P. 1997). Gyula Horn's position could not be amended by either the document adopted by the Congress of the organisations of the Hungarian ethnicities from the neighbouring countries, held on 4 July 1996, stating once again that the president is only concerned with the fate of the 10.5 million Hungarians who elected him and that the team led by them was not in favour of any revision of boundaries. Furthermore, the document reached the hands of nationalist circles in Slovakia and Romania which have operated in the negative. President Iliescu himself declared that autonomy cannot be accepted on criteria because this would lead to separatism, and the Foreign Minister of Slovakia took the view that 'autonomy' put forward by the Hungarian minority endangers his country's agreement with Hungary.

If the dangers raised by the Slovaks proved unjustified, the negotiations between Romania and Hungary have made significant progress during the six years since they were started. The situation changed radically after the visit to Bucharest in February 1996, of the U.S. Secretary of State Richard Holdbrook who requested early completion of negotiations between the two countries. The intervention of the American politician was interpreted in the Romanian pro-government press as evidence of conspiracy directed by Budapest against Romania through its lobby in the United States (Felkay, A., P. 1997).

Due to lack of administrative decentralization several Transylvanian towns that had previously enjoyed strong reputation of regional centres, economically and culturally, like
Arad, Oradea, Sibiu and Targu Mures have lost that capacity. Their return to its former status requires regional administrative reform. Unfortunately, we can see that in Romania not the fragmentation at the municipal level is respondent for the lack of progress, but the excessive centralization is the one that leads to inability to adapt a status to EU rules.

According to Hungarians analysts the way in which the Romanian counties were divided in the eight development regions established in the perspective of PHARE funds is not the most optimal, because at the project design, aspects regarding the historical-economic cohesion of the areas which constitute them were not taken into consideration. „The frivolous nature of this divide can be seen from the fact that some county residents, especially those in districts inhabited by Hungarians want to amend those borders that limit the concerned areas” – they conclude (Hajdú, Z., et al. 2007).

Instead, notes Györgyi Barta, Hungary is among the few European countries which enjoy an almost perfect ethnic and cultural unity (Barta, Gy., P. 2005).

According to Hungarian sociologists, three Transylvanian counties with a majority of Hungarian population might be an autonomous territorial entity with a population of 2.6 million inhabitants, where the Hungarian population, with its 1.1 million souls, would represent a rate of 59.2%. The birth of such an autonomous region has not been permitted so far by the Romanian authorities for fear that a "Szeklers’ Land" could soon turn into an independent state (Hajdú, Z., et al. 2007).

One of the major constraints that the states of the Danube River Basin are facing, recently entered the European Union, in the development of cross-border relations between them is generated by small steps taken toward decentralization of government. Except for Bulgaria, the Czech Republic and Slovakia, which since the communist era have assigned a wider autonomy to the territorial units, in Romania and Hungary things have remained almost unchanged, especially with regard to public finance management. Poland is only the one which has granted wide autonomy to the voivodates which constitutes it. This also affects ethnic and cultural relations between them, which achieve a very low level in comparison with what is happening in the West Hajdú, Z., et al. 2007).

While the population of western Hungary is attracted by the prospect of better paying jobs in the West, the southern and eastern areas of the country are dominated by illegal immigration of those in search of jobs offered by the black market, with negative effects to the local rural economy. The PHARE-CBC programmes so popular in the West have recently been present in the eastern border area, too but shyly. For example, the religious pilgrimage from Méhkerék-Salonta area was covered in March 1997 with a recreation between the two cities municipalities, an agreement that continued through an economic cooperation in agriculture. In this case it is a rehabilitation of the old hinterland affected once by the drawing of the frontier between Romania and Hungary (Henshall Momsen, J., et al. 2005).

Many other villages in eastern Hungary are also in a position to be seceded from the traditional sphere of influence they have exerted on their remaining urban centres in Romania. Despite the liberalization movement known by cross-border circulation, the level of the contacts between the rural populations of the two neighbouring areas remained relatively low and has focused on the restoration of family ties, as Romania is not perceived as a business market (Henshall Momsen, J., et al. 2005).
Except for Méhkerék village where the illegal work on farms of Romanian immigrants is well known, the proximity of the border is not much exploited by the Hungarians within the meaning of any economic advantage, except for owners of cars who fuel their cars at petrol stations in Romania (Henshall Momsen, J., et al. 2005).

Statistics show that with the entry of Hungary into the Schengen area, the possibility of visits and stays for occasional work there will slow down almost to the limits before the fall of communism or at least to mid-rate recorded immediately after 1990 (Fenyvesi, A., P. 2005).

On the other hand the number of illegal immigration will increase which is the result of insufficient cross-border traffic organization, characterized by the limited number of crossing points and complicated bureaucratic procedure of the Romanian legal framework, plus economic factors such as monetary instability and inflation in Romania. Even under these conditions the Romanian border area is more business friendly than other areas of the country, this is due to the large number of people who know Hungarian (Henshall Momsen, J., et al. 2005).

Béla Baranyi, one of the most prominent supporters of the idea of cross-border cooperation is of the opinion that the Trianon borders were the result of arbitration agreements executed by the victorious powers, after which, without being taken into account the ethnic, cultural and economic aspects and nor interpersonal relationships, development prospects of all areas near the new border were effectively undermined, the serious consequences of the act being visible now, as well.

These would include those related to the difficulty of dialogue among the factors interested in the regional development of cross-border areas, given the climate of hostility and mistrust that has been established between Hungarians and their neighbours after the First World War. Therefore, says the author, normal relations between the Hungarians dwelling on both sides of the borders of Hungary have been blocked for more than two decades of current drawn borders, contact between them was only beginning to recover from the '60s through little local traffic permitted by the local authorities of neighbouring states, but the situation is meant to undermine a micro-regional economic development.

Political developments in Central and Eastern Europe in the late '80s, resulting in the collapse of the Iron Curtain, led to a relaxation of interstate relations and a review of the state’s role in managing historical, political and economic issues of the cross-border micro-regions, especially in the long-awaited administrative units of the former Lower Hungary (Alföld) where the borders were the least affordable. But this raised the most signs of distrust of the neighbouring states' governments, due to the large number of ethnic Hungarians left on their territory from Trianon, whose contact with their brothers in Hungary was often perceived as a threat to their territorial integrity.

On the other hand, the integration, of Hungary in the "Schengen area", 1 May 2004, Hungary is likely to defer for a period of time the solving of liberalization of the Hungarians’ movement in Romania in the European Union and at the same time to strictly manage the movement of the border with Ukraine, now become the Union's eastern border.

In other words, the Schengen Convention raises hindrances to the free movement of people and goods across borders and delays the recovery of good neighbourly relations between states around Hungary. It also delays the reconstitution of the former existing
traditional areas before Trianon, such as Uzhgorod, Mukachevo, Beregszásy, Carei, Satu Mare, Oradea, Arad and Timisoara, those which coalesced around them economic, social, cultural and ethnic interests of those who lived within their jurisdiction, maintaining the so-called marginal status, or "peripherisation", of some human communities condemned in this way in return. They are the well known disadvantaged areas.

We can now talk about the phenomenon of "peripherisation" for the entire 1367 km common border with Ukraine and 448 km with Romania which intersects the eastern Hungarian Plain, illustrated by the 119 settlements in the outlying counties of Hajdú-Bihar and Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg, as shown by studies conducted during 1998-2002 (Baranyi, B., P. 2004).

The solution that should be followed to resolve the situation would be to surrender to the constraints imposed on the current border regime, rigid and separatist, through the so-called process of "spiritualization" of borders through cross borders cooperation in the fields of culture and sport, education, and then trade and economy, the concerned areas being connected at a very low level to international economic changes.

In the light of the single currency area enlargement, the role of Euroregions' development increases, having the chance to be prepared institutionally under economic, social, cultural and environmental aspect at the moment of integration through cross-border connections.

The concept of Euroregion was born in the West in 1957, with the establishment of the Common Market, and expanded with great rapidity. It has taken root in Central and Eastern Europe, too currently with over 100 inter-regional cooperation agreements on a diverse range of issues. Under these conditions the frontiers decrease their institutionalized nature for the benefit to facilitate the functional aspect. Positive examples are offered by proven feasibility of the Euroregion Košice-Miskolc or of the macro-Euroregion Danube-Kris-Mures-Tisza, with the subdivision Bihor–Hajdú-Bihar.

The principles behind these successes are likely to be followed by other micro-regions and municipalities in the areas fragmented by the Trianon border route for the sake of the common benefits that exceed the national sentiment. Hungary developed at its eastern border three macro-units of cross-border cooperation, initially on environmental issues, with prospects of broadening the thematic spectrum. It is about the Carpathian Euroregion, founded in 1993, the Euroregion Danube-Kris-Mures-Tisza in Szeged founded in 1997 and "Interregion".

The Carpathian Euroregion, with its structure, has unique features. Firstly it would be that it has coagulated on traditional, bilateral relations, among the participating countries, and that it consists of five riverain states, all former socialist ones but not all of the members of the European Union, and that it is fully operational as a whole without the participants losing territorial identity of the countries to which they belong to (Baranyi, B., P. 2004).

With its 161,000 km² and a population of 16 million inhabitants, this Euroregion achieves a medium-sized country, a feature that raises some functional issues of cooperation between the 20 administrative units which constitutes it.

The other great euroregional unity, the Danube-Kris-Mures-Tisa is also a large area on 77 thousand square kilometres with a population of 6 million people it does not raise the same issues because of the ethnic, historical, political, economic and social motivations grown in the population since the time of the Dual Monarchy. It is about the Hungarian counties of...
Jász-Nagykun-Szolnok, Csongrád, Bács-Kiskun, Békés, the four Romanian counties of Caras, Timis, Arad, Hunedoara, and the province of Vojvodina, between which a closer forms of cooperation runs, which go beyond the principle of territoriality.

Contacts between them takes the form of consultative forums in which collaborative projects and their integration are presented in interconnected structures such as those relating to infrastructure development on sections Békés-Arad and Csongrád-Timis-Vojvodina. These meetings, however, are not exempt from frictions and disruptions, as happened in 2003 when Jász-Nagykun-Szolnok County decided to withdraw from the structure of the Euroregion.

Romania's accession to the European Union has abolished the old hindrance from the eastern border of Hungary turning it into a bridge which facilitates socio-economic and technological trade between Central and Eastern Europe as well as facilitates the contacts of the Hungarians outside Hungary with their brothers, including through cross-border micro-partnerships (Baranyi, B., P. 2004).

Such entities are already on the eastern Hungarian border, the relationship Nyíregyháza-Uzhgorod, then Berettyóújfalu-Debrecen-Oradea and Szeged, Arad, Timisoara and Subotica, all centres that focus around them the interests of the concerned residents.

On the northeastern portion of the border the efforts have begun since 2000, between representatives of Szatmár-Bereg county, Satu Mare and the Ukrainian ones from Transcarpathia perfecting in this regard a trilateral document that is based on bilateral agreements between the governments of the three neighbouring states on economic, cultural issues, tourism, education, environmental protection, infrastructure development and encouraging inter-ethnic relations. Currently there is a joint inter-municipal cooperation underway between the urban centres Uzhgorod-Nyíregyháza-Satu Mare.

In 2001 the cross-border organization Bihor-Hajdu-Bihar, which includes several cross-border sub-regional micro-organizations as the Cities Development Association, founded in 1998, with the centre at Biharkeresztes or Pepper Centre. The 2002 a memorandum was signed between the two parties in Debrecen and Oradea and promulgated by the local councils of the two neighbouring counties.

The two organizations are aimed at the rebuilding of the old links existing between urban centres Debrecen and Oradea before Trianon and thus between the Hungarians and Romanians on both sides of the border, micro-region Hajdú-Bihar-Bihor covering an area of 14,000 km square in which 1.2 million souls live. They are also aimed at cooperation at municipal level, the Hungarian side being present with 82 municipalities, and the Romanian one with 95 municipalities and the rehabilitation of the historic role of regional coordinator of Oradea, both for Romanians and Hungarians of the former province both split by Trianon.

This was possible on the northern border of Hungary through the micro-region Miskolc-Kosice, in other words, around some urban centres of polarization of the local people's interests. For a long term, similar functions can take other major cities such as Budapest, Debrecen, Szeged, Uzhgorod, Satu Mare, Oradea, Arad, Timisoara, through some institutionalized forms of cooperation in a variety of fields. In the south-eastern frontier, the role could be played by the centres Szeged and Békéscsaba on the Hungarian side, respectively, Arad and Timisoara, on the Romanian side (Baranyi, B., P. 2004).

The idea of organizing the Carpathian Euroregion came from the research carried out by various economists, agronomists and sociologists who have found that there is a difference in
the development of the territorial administrative units located on both sides of the border. About an improvement of their situation we could not speak until the 90s, but as their economies have started to become competitive, the organization of cross-border collaboration systems become more and more stringent.

The aim of establishing the Carpathian Euroregion was therefore providing the participating countries an appropriate organizational framework of the interstate cooperation in the direction of faster economic development and at the same time to clot the neighbourhood relations of the population by removing tax barriers and differences in finance, beneficial facilities of cross-border investments. The main obstacles encountered in this process are those related to weak financial and bureaucratic system of the participating states, and to the excessive centralization which made the local authorities be largely dependent on government agencies, bad habits that have hit Western countries in the past (Süli-Zakar, I., P. 2004). From such considerations on 14 February 1993 the Carpathian Euroregion was founded in Debrecen (Interregion).

The first territorial administrative units in Romania joined the Carpathian Euroregion in late 1993, when the management Satu Mare and Maramures counties submitted requests in this regard to the Euroregional Council. Their membership, however, was short, the act was not sanctioned by the central government, so they had to be limited to observer status. After the change of government in Romania the two counties have regained their membership in 1997, during which five other Romanian counties: Bihor, Salaj, Botosani, Suceava and Harghita submitted applications for membership.

Currently, the Euroregion covers an area of 160,000 square kilometres inhabited by a population amounting to 16 million, with a density of 98.9 people per square kilometre (Süli-Zakar, I., P. 2004).

In the development prospects of the Carpathian Euroregion István Süli-Zakar believes that they depend on national policies of each country but also regional ones, and not least their funding level, three scenarios being possible:

The pessimist one would have tied the extension of socio-economic crisis in the region and thus a delay in its development.

The realistic scenario would be that in which the partner states would follow the Western model, under which they would care to attract foreign capital to develop technology centres and would be concerned with better utilization of internal resources so that the process does not lead to a polarization of the economy around the big cities but to a dispersion of it on the territory.

Finally, the optimistic scenario would be that in which the borders would rather assume the role of approximation than of separation and thus it leads to a tightening of the socio-economic relations of cooperation and hence strengthens the food industry sector, the transport sector, the first that would contribute to a rapid economic growth and sustainable development that would ensure the region's international integration.

The author points out that there have already been registered some notable results in the Carpathian Euroregion that are close to reaching a realistic scenario, in this regard being exemplified the case of the urban centres of Debrecen, Košice, Prešov, Rzeszów, Lwów, Nyiregyhaza, Baia Mare and Uzhgorod, suitable to realize their connection to the mechanisms of the European Union. He said that in the past eleven years many initial
suspicions were overcome and connections were made in various resorts of the culture, education, arts through chambers of commerce, universities, etc., and that the future will certainly belong to the Euroregions in achieving development and integration objectives of the areas they comprise.

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THE IMPACT OF BORDER-ZONE LOCATION ON SPATIAL FEATURES OF SZEGED’S TRADE

Introduction

Earlier, the majority of border-zone research usually interpreted any space as a sum total of its settlements, meaning that researchers focused on regions, zones or border zones. It was only a few academic works that attempted to investigate the impact of border zone location on the inner space and on the structure of individual settlements.

Taking this issue as a starting point, one of the major issues of our research was to find out how border zone location can transform life within a town and to what extent it can influence its socio-economic spatial characteristics. According to our hypothesis the development of the inner space in a town is considerably influenced by its border zone location. It does not only determine major urban developmental trends, but it influences the town’s spatial features as well. Border zone location has an impact on the choice of places of businesses by multinational trading companies and service providers, it transforms the spatial structure of retail businesses, and it has an impact on the ownership and on the profiles of businesses as well.

In relation to this general topic we seek to find the answers to the following questions. Which elements of urban space are primarily influenced by border zone location? Which areas are primarily used by people, who come from the other side of the border? What other factors have an impact on spatial features? How does border zone location transform trade relations within a given urban space?

In this presentation the spatial features of retail trading in the town of Szeged will be surveyed. In addition, the location of those shops and businesses will be mapped, which rely on foreign customers in their overall business strategy. Further, we will investigate in it which service or trade areas are influenced the most by this factor.

Towns and the research into border zone location

The research into border zone location has become more intensive since the 1990s, a fact, that can be explained by the radical changes in the political systems of the countries of Eastern-Central Europe. As a starting point it was presumed that border zone location changed the development of borderland areas in one way or another. In the next phase of our work it was empirical research that came into the foreground. Statistical analyses and questionnaire-based surveys were conducted in relation to the Austro-Hungarian (Aschauer, W. 1995), Romanian-Hungarian (Pál, Á. 1996), Yugoslavian-Hungarian (Pál, Á. 1997) and the Slovak-Hungarian border zones (Molnár, J. 2002). The aim of these investigations was to explore relevant economic processes, and, as a result, researchers concluded that border zone

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location can be advantageous if a developed area borders on another, relatively developed one. On the other hand, if underdeveloped areas are located on both sides of the border, that is ‘poverty meets poverty’, or, there is a huge difference between the two areas in terms of their level of development, then border zone location is disadvantageous, it is rather to preserve peripheral characteristics. In line with this view, the majority of settlements in the vicinity of the Austro-Hungarian border have started a promising development. In relation to the country’s other borders it was only the big cities, that, by functioning as important service centres (shopping, health care, banking, to mention but a few areas), were able to draw benefit from their location.

Throughout the research period it was a major problem to give a precise definition of border zones. The notion of border zones was first used by state security organs to denote settlements of utmost importance with a view to national security. (Hajdú, Z. 1988) Later it was the settlements in the vicinity of the country’s borders that were classified as border zone settlements. (Erdősi, F. 1988) Sometimes it was public transport that was taken into consideration when identifying border zone settlements (Szónokyné, Ancsin G. 2000).

When considering the towns within the group of border zone settlements, it was primarily the bigger cities in the vicinity of the country’s borders that were useful and beneficial for the inhabitants living across the border. There were cases, when, despite the fact that some of these cities are relatively distant from the border itself, they featured all the advantages of border zone location. Thus, smaller settlements in the border zone (villages and small towns) tended to have peripheral characteristics and demonstrated the negative aspects of border zone location. Consequently, border zone location in itself does not coincide with border zone benefits. Advantages are more likely to appear in bigger cities, even in those cases, when they can be found in relatively more distant areas.

On the basis of our observations it can be presumed that the cross-border influx of people influenced and modified urban spaces. This feature can be explained by the differences in prices, the choice of goods (shopping tourism), sometimes by historical traditions. These previously mentioned characteristics are all factors that had a tremendous influence on life in border zone cities.

**Research methodology**

Answers to theoretical questions have been given through examples, taken from the town of Szeged, since this is the Hungarian town that lies the closest to the country’s border. The research into town structure has shown the location of certain parts of the town with differing functions, as well as the characteristics of local communities and their economic characteristics. The development of Szeged - in addition to its main function as a gateway to the Balkans - was mainly influenced by the events in former Yugoslavia during the past decades. (Hegedűs, G. 2005) It has been proven that the so-called ‘runaway capital’ played an important role in Szeged’s economy; it was used to start new local businesses, buy property and it was deposited in Szeged’s banks in the form of savings. Trade in Szeged on the one hand has had its long historical traditions, but it is a significant pillar in modern local economy as well. (Nagy E. et. al. 2003)
It is obvious that these changes were not homogeneous in their development. Cross border capital and joint enterprises preferred certain parts of the town, and, at the same time, they neglected others. The research into shopping customs also raised interesting questions. Szeged’s ‘shopping tourism’ does not show any homogeneity. So, the question rises, while foreign shoppers prefer the hypermarkets operated by multinational companies, which are those local shops they frequent? Are these shops located in the vicinity of the border, or, are they near the main roads (avenues and boulevards)? Is there any other underlying rule or principle in the background?

In order to find the answers to these problems, questionnaire-based surveys were conducted. The interviews took place in the fall of 2005 and the interviewers – geography students of the University of Szeged, Gyula Juhász Faculty of Education -had been specifically trained for their interviewing jobs. The first step was the mapping of shops, which are located in the given area. The area included in our research consisted of a two-street wide strip of blocks, which were located along Szeged’s main roads (avenues and boulevards). The suburban areas of New Szeged, the downtown areas and the new housing estates were not included in our research. (Figure 1)

The 'shops' we considered were retail and/or service businesses, including food stores, specialised stores, gas stations, pubs, hotels, restaurants, cafés, private schools, private medical and dental surgeries, tourist and ticket offices. Banks, insurance agencies, schools, operated by the local government, eateries belonging to international chains (Burger King), or larger supermarkets or hypermarkets (Plus, Penny, Cora etc.), markets and market stalls were not considered.
Our questionnaires contained questions concerning the appearance of bilingual boards and notices within the shops, the number of employees speaking two or three languages (Serbian, Romanian, Hungarian), the existence of cross-border links in the form of joint ownership or trade or other forms of cooperation, and the proportion of foreign (Serbian or Romanian) customers. There were cases when it was impossible to fill in the questionnaire (the shop was temporarily closed). In these situations registration forms were filled in, in which the data were based on observations.

Within the framework of the survey, a total of 456 questionnaires and registration forms were filled in and processed. They were coded and digitally processed using Microsoft Excel. The database was then summarized and analyzed. The shops and businesses were classified according to types. Their location and types were mapped, too. Figure 2.

The majority of shops belonged to the category of small size, so-called ‘garage shops’, occasionally they represented medium size shops. There were only a few larger ones in the database. We also found out that only a few shops were opened in order to replace old ones, and also there were only some, that had changed their profile. Considering the total of 456 shops, 153 (33.5%) were frequented by customers from across the border. In 13.6% of all shops the assistants spoke Serbian, a fact that clearly indicated that these businesses intended to attract Serbian customers. It was in 169 shops that the shop assistants spoke some other foreign language, most often English or German. These languages were followed in popularity by Romanian and Italian. It was only in 10 shops where customers could find some written texts in Serbian (a signboard outside, or shopping-related display cards inside). These shops all sold cars or, spare parts for cars or, alternatively, they serviced cars.
It was more than 34% of all shop owners who said that they regularly served Serbian customers. This figure was almost identical with the figure we concluded from our survey results. The proportion of customers in relation to all customers in these shops was 5.76%, although, their distribution was uneven considering the individual shops. There were some shops, in which the proportion of Serbian customers exceeded 80%. In several shops 50-60% of all customers came from Serbia. At the same time there were shops, in which the percentage of Serbian customers was below 1%. The most important motivation for Serbian customers to come and do their shopping in Szeged was the wider range of goods available for them, the higher quality of service (better and faster) and the special discounts given to them. Most Serbian customers can be classified as loyal customers. They were from the nearby towns of Subotica, Senta, Novi Sad, Kikinda or Hungarian Kaniza. Customers from smaller settlements than these were rare.

According to shop owners shopping tourism has mostly been on the increase, it was only occasionally that it stagnated. This development can be considered as an unexpected benefit, since with the stabilization of the Serbian political situation, customers from across the border, were not forced any longer by circumstances to do their shopping or to use services in another country. When we looked into the reasons for the increasing number of foreign customers, we concluded, that it can be explained by the growing popularity of special discounts, easy access to shops and services, higher quality of goods, marketing and advertising and the special needs of resettlers (people who have properties or businesses in both countries). Those shop owners, who complained about stagnating business, blamed it on the appearance of Serbian competitors, and the diminishing demand for certain goods in post-war economy. The local arrangement of these shops shows some regularities. In contrast to what we had expected, they were mostly not to be found in the vicinity of Szabadkai Road or Petőfi Avenue, places, which streets in the town, which are geographically close to the border. Instead, shops seemed to appear in a concentrated form along the main roads, leading into and out of the town. Consequently, transport in town was found to be related to a form of transit and shops and businesses seem to build on this feature.

Spatial differences in Hungary

The Figure 3. clearly shows the regional differences within the country, a feature, which will be further detailed by other maps. In addition to the East-West dichotomy the inner peripheries and the backward areas along the Nógrád-Békés axis are also to be seen.

The Figure 4. demonstrates that the formerly described regional differences become more emphatic. It is also evident, that in the border zone areas the proportion of services is higher. (It also means that retail trading has an increasingly important role here). On the basis of the number of active corporations per 1000 inhabitants the regional differences also become evident.
Figure 3.: Gross income serving as basis of the personal income tax per tax player by micro-regions, 2008

Figure 4.: Gross domestic product (GDP) per capita, distribution of gross value added by main industries, 2007
In addition to underlying regional differences this map also demonstrates the network of relationships between border zone areas on both sides of the border. (Baranya and Csongrád Counties are remarkable from this point of view).

A direct relationship is seen in this map between unemployment rate and the level of development in a region. The educational background of inhabitants and the spatial development of the region are also interrelated. In more developed regions unemployment rate is lower and concerning the educational background of inhabitants, they usually represent a higher level of education in more developed areas. (For those people who are employed in retail trading, a significant employer in underdeveloped regions, only lower qualifications are needed. In border zones the zone of attraction may expand.

**Figure 5.: Unemployment rate of population aged 15-74; distribution of registered job-seekers, 2008**

**Summary**

In summary the hypothesis can be proven that border zone location plays a significant role in Szeged’s retail trading and services. Cross-border trading has stabilized, despite the fact that the benefits deriving from it, have diminished. Also, it can be concluded, that the shops catering for cross-border customers can be found scattered along the city’s main transit roads and they are not confined to the areas which are near the country’s border.

Our conclusions cannot be considered complex or final. We were not able to have access to representative samples, consequently, we were able to work only with metadata taken from statistical databases.

Considering private enterprises we were able to obtain a more complex picture. On the one hand there was an inverse proportionality between the level of development and the
number of shops, managed by private entrepreneurs. When considering the proportion of food stores there was no inverse proportionality. (Exceptions: Central Hungary and the northern Great Plain). The reasons are multifold. There are many people who have no other job options than founding their own private business. Also, there are no job opportunities in smaller settlements (network of settlements, small villages, and other factors). Other factors include the following features: more specialized shops in the touristic regions (Southern Transdanubia, Southern Great Plain, and Northern Hungary are outstanding regions). The number of specialized food stores run by private entrepreneurs was higher.

References


INTRODUCTION OF THE KNOWBRIDGE PROJECT AND ITS RESULTS

General introduction of the project

The creation of the cross-border regional innovation strategy has been expected to play an important role in enhancement of the interregional and international cooperation and competitiveness. The creation of the common cross-border RIS represented rather exceptional opportunity to test and overcome the border barriers, to strengthen transnational and regional co-operation in the field of R&D and innovation and to exploit the existing capacities in a more efficient, integrated way. The bilateral RIS was under the preparation in the frame of „North Hungary and Košice Bilateral Regional Innovation Strategy Project - NORRIS“ funded by EC within the 6th FP. Identification of the branches of common interest has been followed by surveying companies, leading to comparison of regional business environments, encouraging trans-regional learning and exploiting the existing capacities. Also, within the cross-regional innovation strategy, three join projects have been chosen for future support:

- Forming of Regional Innovation Agency – Regional Innovation Centre association,
- The establishment of a Science Park – High Tech Park association,
- The establishment of a Renewable Energy Interregional Cluster.

Until now, advancement invoked from the cross-border innovation strategy can be validated by the single activity – an initiative to build up cross-border research-driven cluster in the area of renewable energy sources funded under 7th FP Regions of knowledge (project acronym KNOWBRIDGE) to be finished in 2012 (EU external financing again) (P. Burger et al. 2010). The starting date of the project is June 1, 2009, its duration is 36 months.

The KNOWBRIDGE project brings a chance to increase the capacity and strengthen the research potential of two cross border and convergence regions (Košice self-governing region in Slovakia and Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén region in Hungary) by supporting the development of new innovative cross border research-driven cluster in the area of Renewable Energy Sources (RES) and associating research entities, enterprises and regional authorities.

The KNOWBRIDGE project is focused on the enhancement of research driven cluster in the area of renewable energy sources (RES) in two cross border regions Košice Self-governing Region in Slovakia and Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén County in Hungary. Specific project objectives are primarily focused on analysis, mentoring, integration of research agendas and definition of Joint Action Plan.

The KNOWBRIDGE project is one of the three agreed initiatives of the cross-border HU-SK region. That implies support of regional authorities, interest of the private companies

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operating in the RES branch and interest of the research and development institutions, which is a good basis for triple helix concept (www.knowbridge.eu).

The main objective of the KNOWBRIDGE project is to increase the capacity and to strengthen the research potential of two cross border and convergence regions (Košice self-governing region in Slovakia and Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén region in Hungary) by supporting the development of new innovative cross border research-driven cluster in the area of Renewable Energy Sources (RES) and associating research entities, enterprises and regional authorities (www.knowbridge.eu).

**KNOWBRIDGE project specific objectives are:**

- to develop Join Action Plan (JAP) for cross border research driven cluster in order to increase regional economic competitiveness through research and technological development activities in the area of RES in cross border context;
- to foster cross border cooperation and to increase the overall capacities of regional players in Northern Hungary and Eastern Slovakia by enhancing science and technology based development in cross border context;
- to maximise the benefits of research infrastructures for cross border and regional economic development;
- to improve links and enhance common partnership of regional authorities, research entities and business community in national and European initiatives in two cross border regions;
- to promote development of specific goals for regional and cross border RTD policies;
- to exploit synergy between regional, national and Community programmes for research and economic development in cross border environment and to maximise the potential for a successful involvement of regional actors in European research projects;
- to enhance trans-national, including cross-border and inter-regional mutual learning of regional actors in developing research driven clusters;
- to mentor regions with a less developed research profile by more experienced partners through mutual exchange of experience and best practices;
- to promote reduction of CO2 emissions in two cross border regions;

**The main project outputs are as follows:**

- Project website
- List of benchmarking indicators
- Leaflet on KNOWBRIDGE project
- Report on best practices and trends in the area of national and regional economic and technological development focused on RES sector
- Methodological toolbox for analysis and benchmarking
- Printed newsletter I
• List of data needed for benchmarking process
• Methodological toolbox for JAP and BP preparation
• Report on best practices and trends in the area of national and regional RTD support policies; financial tools and approaches for RTD funding
• Leaflet on energy solution for households
• Report on RTD, RTD infrastructures, R&D institutions and business entities on regional level with direct impact on selected sector
• Report on energy efficient technologies
• Report on technological development in RES sector
• Report on best practices and trends in the area of knowledge creation, transfer between business entities through networking
• Proceedings from the 1st international conference
• Report on energy solution responding to SMEs specific energy demands in the region
• Report on capacity for knowledge creation, transfer and use in RES sector
• E - Newsletter I
• Report on research in the area of energy-efficient technologies and renewable energy technologies
• SWOT analyses in RES sector
• JAP for cross border cluster in RES sector
• Leaflet on research driven approach to regional development
• Printed newsletter II
• Proceedings from the 2nd international conference
• Mutual learning models
• E - Newsletter II

The Consortium members are the followings:

• Kosice Self-governing Region (coordinator)
• Technical University of Kosice
• University of Miskolc
• Agency for the support of regional development Kosice
• Vychodoslovenská energetika a.s.
• Solarklima, s.r.o.
• ZTS Vyskumno-vyvojovy ustav Kosice, as.
• NORDA North-Hungary Regional Development Agency
• Miskolc Holding ZRt.
• ENIN Környezetipari Klaszter
• Nagy-Ferenczi Kft.
• Envirolink Northwest Ltd. (UK)
• Fundacion CARTIF (Spain)
The potential of the renewable energy sources in the examined areas

Solar energy
Solar energy has certainly the biggest potential in the territory of a cross border cluster (Košice self-governing region in Slovakia and Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén region in Hungary). Solar energy is used by means of active solar systems to generate heat or electricity (www.knowbridge.eu).

Geothermal energy
Geothermal Energy has high potential as well. Geothermal waters in the area have lower temperatures between 45°C and 130°C, therefore these are suitable especially for heating. The all-important of them is the Košice basin (Ďurkov) with potential of about 300 MW. There are preparations underway to make use of the energy to heat the City of Košice, with a connection to the city central heat supply system (www.knowbridge.eu).

Biomass
Biomass has very significant potential in both regions. It is comprised of materials of plant and animal origin, fit for energy utilisation. Biomass is considered in terms of CO2 emissions to be a neutral fuel, since only as much CO2 is released in burning it as is received by the plant while growing. There exist projects and research in the following areas by the source of origin (www.knowbridge.eu):
- forest biomass - fuel wood, branches, stumps, roots, bark, sawdust,
- agricultural biomass – grain and rape straw, hemp, animal excrements, wastes,
- wood-working industry wastes – cuttings, shavings, sawdust,
- municipal refuse - solid combustible waste, landfill gas, sludge gas.
High-grade biomass products are:
- Solid fuels – wooden chips, pellets and briquettes
- Gaseous products – biogas – it is largely methane, the rest is an environmental-friendly excellent fertiliser.
- Liquid biofuels – bio-oil – is made in particular of oilseeds and fully substitutes for diesel fuel and bio-alcohol (ethanol) – used as an admixture to engine petrol.

Hydropower
Hydropower can technically be used with the highest conversion efficiency of all energy sources (over 90%). Hydroelectric power plants make use of the hydropower potential of the streams, which is a product of the average streams and heads of a given stream section. The rate of return on hydropower investment is about 20 years, which brings about a disinterest to develop such sources. The purchase prices are expected to be shortly adjusted upward, thereby giving fresh impetus to the development (www.knowbridge.eu).

Wind energy
Over the recent years the wind industry has seen a tremendous development with power rising over 30% year-on-year. Modern wind turbines produce a minimum noise and are also acceptable by the surrounding area. Both regions have moderate wind energy potential (600
GWH/y) as compared to seaside countries. There are few suitable sites in this country to install wind turbines, where winds average at least 5 m/sec (www.knowbridge.eu).

The gained results of the project at half time

As I stated the project started in June 1, 2009. The consortium partners get in touch with each other. The first important thing was to establish a communication channel therefore was a common project webpage created (www.knowbridge.eu). There were organised several workshops for the consortium partners in Kosice and in Miskolc too. Following this, target groups of research have been defined as follows:

1) Companies dealing with RES on supply side
2) Companies dealing with RES on demand side
3) Regional and local governments
4) Universities, R&D institutions and institutes
5) Regional Advisory centres
6) Non profit sector

Next and maybe more important dimension of research was to investigate the quality and willingness of the actors as regards their potential contribution to the cluster formation and effectiveness. An important issue is the starting point basis of existing cooperation among different actors within the region and particularly the cross-border interactions. The several initial hypotheses on R&D fundamentals for RES were set up and tested (P. Burger et al. 2010).

Three primary research tools were used:

- Questionnaire survey.
- Semi-structured interviews
- Focus groups

Questionnaires, interviews and focus groups were aimed to cover information gathering in the following areas:

- Identification of the dominant and prospective RES fields,
- Identification of regional actors in RES, their position, orientation and innovation level in the regional and cross-border territory;
- Regional knowledge and technology creation, learning, transfer and sharing,
- Position of RES sector in the regional economy,
- Multi-source financing RES activities,
- Regional social capital – cooperation and trust, partnerships and networks,
- Interest and possible contribution to cross-border RES cluster formation.

Two focus groups in each region were organised, getting together professionals on both technology development in RES and economic development and networking. The research have been undertaken in KSR from April till July 2010, altogether 51 institutions dealing with RES took part (P. Burger et al. 2010) and in Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén county from March till August 2010. and the number of the participant institutions was 63.
After the survey and the primary data collection the Technical University of Košice and the University of Miskolc have to make 3 reports in 3 different topic. These topics are the following:

- Report on RTD, RTD infrastructures, R&D institutions and business entities on regional level with direct impact on selected sector
- Report on technological development in the RES sector
- Report on capacity for knowledge creation, transfer and use in the RES sector

The reports have been completed and the comparison of the two selected regions also have been done.

There have been already organised 2 study visit: one in Manchester and one in Valladolid (II. KNOWBRIDGE NEWSLETTER 2011).

- The First study visit was in Manchester between 25th and 28th of May 2010, hosted by the ENVIROLINK. The main goal of the visit was to seeing and learning more new informations about the wind energy and cluster making in the area of RES.
- The Second Study Visit of the Knowbridge project took place in Valladolid on the 24th and 25th of November 2010. During the two days the partners of the consortium had the opportunity to visit several institutions that were of the interest of the project.
The first set of institutions visited was based at the Boecillo Technology Park in Valladolid, very close to the premises of Cartif. At this point, the idea was to devote the Study Visit to Solar and Wind energy, leaving biomass and hydropower for the next planned Study Visit to be developed next year (II. KNOWBRIDGE NEWSLETTER 2011).

Under the elapsed time (22 months) the consortium issued 2 newsletters, 1 leaflets to households and one international conference was organised by the University of Miskolc.

Now, the project is in the 22th workmonth and it’s the time for the preparation of the Joint Action Plan for cross border research driven cluster and organising the second International conference on renewables. Hopefully we can tell about positive results of the project after the 36th month in June of 2012.

The publication supported by the HURO/0901/097/2.3.1. project.

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www.knowbridge.eu
THE NEW DIMENSIONS IN CROATIAN-HUNGARIAN INTERREGIONAL RELATIONSHIP

Introduction

For all the countries it is essential to have good and diversified connections with their neighbours. In case of Hungary to build up good relationship with its neighbours, to establish stable economic and political circumstances have especially important role, as we have significant minorities living in the neighbouring countries. After the change of the system in 1989 Hungary introduced its new foreign strategy, turning towards the European Union and the NATO, as well as having good neighbourhood policy. One of the most important priorities of the latter is to build diversified and friendly bilateral relations with the newly developed or restructuring neighbouring states. The Southern region needed special foreign activity and sensibility as there had been several and enormous changes. There used to be just one neighbouring country, Yugoslavia broken into seven parts up till now, and Hungary has common borders with three of them, i.e. Slovenia, Croatia and Serbia. According to this new geopolitical situation, Southern Hungary shares the longest common border – 355 km – with Croatia. On the bases of this situation one of the priorities of Hungarian foreign policy is to renew and strengthen the bilateral relations with the country having announced its independence in 1991.

In this new geo-strategic situation, deepening and widening the relations with Croatia plays a crucial role. One of the historic momentum having led to the special relations of the two countries is the Hungarian-Croatian personal union between 1102 and 1918, which established the common historical roots. Though, during the centuries-long cohabitation the system of the state itself had gone through severe changes, the relations had been peaceful as long as till 1848. Those economic, social and cultural relations and customs having developed during this period all accumulated to the further development of our ties after 1991.

Political relations

The Hungarian-Croatian relations have been continuously developing since the change of the system, excluding some minor stops during the 1990s in the Tuđman era. Although both countries tried to deepen their relationship ever since 1991, it is inevitable that the most important issue of Croatian foreign policy remained obtaining its territorial integrity up till 1998, when the last missing territory, the Baranya triangle was annexed to the country. Establishing the independent statehood one of the priorities of Croatian foreign policy became good neighbourhhood policy and inter-regional relationship, strengthened by both countries constant ambitions to join the European Union and the NATO.
In the year of the establishment of the first Hungarian government after the change of system the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia still existed, but straggling with her inner structural problems, its total disintegration had not been expected. Even the international community persisted on Yugoslavia’s territorial integrity and did not support any secessions in the first half of 1991. However, after the unilateral declaration of Croatia’s and Slovenia’s independence followed by bloody events, some balanced and slow but promising development towards disintegration. It is reflected in the EC declaration of Yugoslavia of 27 August 1991 standing up for Croatian borders’ integrity and rejecting any border changes in a violent way. Yet in case of the Croatian international borders of the new state corresponded with internal federal borders as it existed at the time of independence. (Trifunovska, S. 1994)

Almost at the same time when the international community changed its opinion concerning the Yugoslavia issue, on 21 June 1991 Géza Jeszenszky, Hungarian foreign minister during his official visit to Yugoslavia visited Zagreb as well. He not only opened the Hungarian Consulate General in the Croatian capital, but he also held talks with influential members of the Croatian political elite about widening bilateral relationships. At that time Yugoslavia still existed. When the Yugoslav wars started Hungary was not in an easy diplomatic situation, as the Hungarian government should have insisted on Croatia’s rights to self-determination, in addition we had to take into account the interests of Hungarian minorities living in Serbia. Tuđman Franjo’s official visit to Hungary symbolised the end of the deadlock. On the one hand the Croatian president guaranteed the rights of Hungarian minorities living in Croatia. On the other hand Hungary recognized the Croatian minority and guaranteed the right to collective participation in public life, having the right to nurture their own culture, use their own language, study in their own language and give their names in their own language. Considering that Serbia did not deny the Croats’ rights to self-determination, and the fighting had taken place in order to unify all the Serbs, Hungary – in parallel with the European Community – recognized the independent Croatian state on 15 January 1992. (Jeszenszky, G. 2003).

Three days later, on 18 January the Consulate General in Zagreb received the status of the Embassy of the Republic of Hungary. On 16 December 1992 the basic document of Hungarian and Croatian bilateral relations was introduced, i.e. the Agreement on friendly relations and cooperation between the Republic of Croatia and the Republic of Hungary. Taking into account the most dominant bilateral contracts between the two countries the followings could be mentioned: Agreement on cultural, educational and scientific cooperation between the Government of the Republic of Croatia and the Government of the Republic of Hungary in 1994, Agreement between the Republic of Croatia and the Republic of Hungary on the protection of the Croatian minority in the Republic of Hungary and of the Hungarian minority in the Republic of Croatia signed on 4 April 1995, and Protocol on state succession by the Republic of Croatia in respect of bilateral international treaties concluded between the SFRY and the Republic of Hungary came into effect on 22 April 1996.

The number of high-level visits has been increasing year by year, including the presidential, prime ministerial and foreign ministerial level exchange of views and joint government sessions. All the post-communist Hungarian governments favoured to maintain the contacts at the highest level, indeed the opposition also supported the ruling parties to
increase the intensity of the Hungarian-Croatian relations. It is proved by traditional Hungarian-Croatian joint government sessions, and agreements defining the main fields of cooperation.

On the occasion of the first joint government session of the Republic of Croatia and the Republic of Hungary on 26 January, 2006 in Budapest the parties have agreed to sign nine agreements. It was concluded that the annual joint government session is of high political and economic importance, and contributes to the affirmation of the regional, as well as the European policy. Both sides confirmed the exceptionally good relations between the two countries and pointed out Croatia’s significant progress in acceding to the Euro-Atlantic integration, in which Hungary has been offering comprehensive political and expert assistance ever since. The then Hungarian Prime Minister, Ferenc Gyurcsány and his partner Ivo Sanader agreed on opening a Seasonal Consular Agency in Split, and on coordination for holding together the 2012 FIFA World Championships as well as on signing the joint declaration on cooperation in energetic interconnection of Croatia and Hungary. The two sides made a decision on cooperation in the development of alternative energy resources, as well as the construction of the liquefied natural gas terminal by the Croatian coast. The importance of the continuity of cooperation in economy, tourism, environmental, science, cultural and infrastructure projects has also been emphasised. Hungary and Croatia mutually support young minorities in each others countries in the field of training and recreation in their motherland. According to their agreement the Hungarian police have been assisting the work of their Croatian colleagues during the summer time in coastal regions preferred by Hungarian tourists since 2006. The parties signed memorandum of understanding on cooperation in the field of information society and e-business and on further strengthening the bilateral relations in line with economy. The experts of the two countries decided to produce the Hungarian-Croatian and Croatian-Hungarian dictionary. On the bases of the first joint government session in Zagreb, the Croatian-Hungarian Chamber of Commerce have been established in May 2006, focusing on cooperation of the Hungarian and Croatian small and medium-sized enterprises in order to exploit new networking and investment opportunities. (Lőrinczné, B. E. 2009)

The second joint government session was held on 17 May, 2007 in Zagreb. The session decided upon the intensification of infrastructure development, namely building the border crossing bridge on river Mura on the Letenya-Goričani highway on the pan-European corridor V/b. The parties stressed the importance of building the new electric transmission line between the two countries, the establishment of twenty "Hungarian e-point" in the territory of Croatia, and supporting the small and medium-sized enterprises. The another important field of cooperation is environmental protection and nature conservation focusing on the Danube-Drava National Park established along the Danube and Drava rivers, covering an area of some 50,000 hectares and the Kopácsi meadow National Park, where through INTERREG programme two of Danube branches, and three of Drava branches were rehabilitated. Both sides emphasized the importance of continuing the cooperation in cultural and educational field, as well as the establishment of the Hungarian Department at Strossmayer University, following the common work on dictionaries and Croatia's joining the "Pécs, European Capital of Culture 2010" project. Due to the excellent previous experiences of cooperation, the reopening of the Seasonal Consular Agency in Split between 15 June and
15 September was agreed upon, as well as on the cooperation of the police services mentioned before. Both sides confirmed Croatia’s significant progress in acceding to the Euro-Atlantic integration. Related to this Hungary offered comprehensive political and expert-level assistance: Hungarian consultant helped the Croatian EU-negotiator, and the programme called “the EU comes home” was introduced on the bases of which Hungarian experts held training sessions. (KÜM 2008)

The third joint government session was held on 17 September 2009 in Barcs, Hungary, where twelve documents were signed, three of which were interstate agreements. The foregoing discussions of the meeting could be grouped around the same themes as the previous two ones, such as cooperation in the field of energy security, transportation and environmental protection, cross-border relations. Both sides devoted special attention to cooperation in the field of energy: the intergovernmental agreement was signed on co-operation on the use, maintenance, reconstruction and removal of operating disturbances on the Adriatic pipeline, on co-operation concerning the pipeline for the transport of hydrocarbon, which will be built between the two states, and on the construction, use and removal of operating disturbances on power lines that pass above the common state border. A declaration was adopted on more efficient utilization of renewable energy and the reduction of energy dependence, in which cooperation between the Hungarian and Croatian oil companies Mol and INA plays a determining role. The EU NETS project connecting the two countries pipelines, allowing the transmission of the liquefied natural gas from the Adriatic Sea. The session confirmed the importance of cooperation in the field of transportation. On the bases of this a meeting point for highways has been set up between Branjin Vrh and Ivandarda (demarcation of a border crossing point). A joint letter of the Croatian and the Hungarian Prime Ministers to the President of the European Commission was also signed regarding their support to the Bosnian section of the Pan-European Corridor V/c. The cooperation has intensified with regard to the protection of the natural wealth of cross-border areas and environmentally significant areas of the Mura, Drava and Danube rivers, with the aim of setting up a cross-border biosphere reserve compliant with the UNESCO Man and Biosphere Programme. Related to this, at the 3rd joint government session of the two countries’, the Joint Statement on the Establishment of a Croatian-Hungarian Mura-Drava-Danube Cross-border Biosphere Reserve was signed. The Agreement entered into force on the establishment of the Trans-border Regional Forum for Coordination consisting of an umbrella body to bring together representatives of all the participants of cross-border cooperation, both from the national and the local level, in order to promote and enhance cooperation. (Magyar 2010, KÜM 2010)

The meeting further promoted cooperation in the field of consular affairs, local self-government, justice system, healthcare, tourism, water management, defence, protection and rescue, e-Government and agriculture. Both prime ministers confirmed that Hungary and Croatia are examples of how good neighbours should live side-by-side, cooperate and build a future together. The then Hungarian Prime Minister, Gordon Bajnai greeted Croatia and its government as a new NATO ally and as the candidate country closest to the European Union accession. All these issues are supported by Hungary in international politics. (Government 2010)
Supporting Croatia’s EU accession have always been one of the priorities of Hungarian foreign policy, the issue have even been promoted by the opposition. This was also confirmed by the Hungarian Prime Minister, Viktor Orbán in his meeting with the President of the European Council Herman Van Rompuy in Brussels (17 November 2010), presenting the agenda of the Hungarian Presidency of the Council of the European Union in the first half of 2011. The Hungarian administration has vowed to further boost bilateral relations with Croatia on all levels to help both countries exploit each other’s potentials to the maximum extent. The Hungarian Government has also promised to give maximum support to Croatia in its bid to join the European Union and to complete accession negotiations with Croatia during her Presidency. (Central 2010)

Péter Győrkös Hungarian Ambassador to the EU (former Ambassador to Zagreb) also underlined that “Ending Croatia’s European Union negotiations by the summer of 2011 is one of the priorities of the Hungarian presidency in the first half of next year. Croatia can serve as an example that will show EU citizens that expansion is an asset to Europe. Its membership would also show other states in the area that accession is possible if conditions are fulfilled.” (Croatian 2010)

Summarizing the most important issues between two countries based on the above mentioned arguments, five topics worth to be underlined: cross-border relations, environmental protection, improvement of transportation system, common energy programmes, and energy diversity as well as cultural relationships.

Firstly we have to stress the importance of cross-border relations as the country shares a common border of 355 km with Croatia, in addition, thousands of ethnic Hungarians live along the Croatian border. Unfortunately, this rural region is peripheral with high unemployment rates, low investment capacity and increasing regional disparities. As a result of this, the development issues in the Hungarian-Croatian cross-border relations are priorities on both side, and appear on many different dimensions as the European, international, macro- and micro-regional, county and inter-settlement level. (Hajdú 2005) Strategic border cooperation implements the widening of economic-, cultural-, environmental- and cross-border issues.

The second major issue is cooperation in the field of environmental protection. The border region’s main characteristic feature is that it runs along the River Drava, flowing into the Danube. The region has extremely valuable environmental treasure which should be protected within the common programmes. The most important sign of this was in 2009, when Croatia and Hungary established a Trans-boundary UNESCO Biosphere Reserve in order to protect their shared biodiversity hotspot along the Mura, Drava and Danube Rivers – one of the world’s biologically richest and most threatened ecosystems.

Not to mention the joint work on infrastructure projects, notably the completion of the Budapest-Zagreb-Rijeka highway as part of the Trans-European Corridor Vb. The Görícan border point for pedestrian crossing, the new Mura Bridge on the Hungarian side of the border has been opened. The construction of motorway sections of Corridor Vc, a major transport route connecting the Hungarian capital and Croatia’s Southern port of Ploče, passing across Eastern Croatia and neighbouring Bosnia and Herzegovina establishing great opportunities.
Energy issues have always been on top priority as such Hungary and Croatia are keep on seeking new links. The cooperation in some energy projects, such as the delivery of liquefied natural gas from a terminal in the Adriatic to Hungary and the interconnection of the two countries' power supply systems, as well as in issues making everyday life easier for citizens. The cooperation between Hungarian and Croatian oil companies Mol and INA plays a determining role for both countries.

Last but not least, bilateral cultural relationship is also to be mentioned. The existence and the culture of the Croatian minority living in the Republic of Hungary and the Hungarian minority living in Croatia mutually enrich the cultural values of the two countries. As a result of the realisation of this, both governments support and encourage the satisfaction of the cultural demands of these national communities, through the ensuring of their minority rights stipulated in legal regulations, and the mutual protection of their cultural and historic heritage, and their creative activities. Hungarian cultural associations operating in Croatia are active participants in the representation of Hungarian culture in Croatia and of Hungarian-Croatian cultural co-operation. (Lőrinzné, B. E. 2010)

**Economic relations**

Comparing with other Western Balkans countries the economically more advanced Croatia’s accession to the European Union certainly does not entail any disadvantage for the Community. In spite of this, the Hungarian-Croatian economic and trade relations might be difficult to unfold, and it is strongly restrained by the fact, that the structure of the products is very similar, namely food and construction service products, paper, iron, steel and petrochemicals, and to less extent printing and wood products.

The intensity of trade relations has been increasing only for a few years. Hungary's accession to the EU was a turning point in this respect, as the free trade agreement between Croatia and Hungary contracted in 2001 has been replaced by one between Croatia and the EU. Croatia abolished customs duties and quantitative restrictions on EU products on 1 January 2007 that gave a new boost to increase Hungarian export.

The two countries' bilateral relations have developed dynamically in recent years. Bilateral trade has increased more than five-fold since the turn of the century and is characterized by Hungarian surplus. From Hungary more than 1,100 companies are exporting goods to Croatia in recent years and 400 import from our Southern neighbour.

The main feature of Hungary's export to Croatia is that all goods have increased rapidly over the past few years. In case of the processed products the major export goods are machinery, energy sources, food products and raw materials. Nearly the third of the export is given by machinery, namely cars, mobile phones, television sets, video players and various home appliances, office and gardening equipment, which are partly used locally and partly re-exported. The most important energy sources’ are electric energy – most of which are only in transit –, petroleum and bitumen. The high proportion of oil export is due to the strategic partnership between INA and MOL. More than a quarter of energy sources’ export contains processed products, such as chemical goods, plastic, metallurgical products and paper goods. In the field of chemical products most of the Hungarian export towards Croatia are highly processed pharmaceuticals and cosmetics. As about food export, highly processed products
have remained dominant, such as flour, sugar, processed vegetables, fruits and mineral water. The cereals, mainly maize, barley and sunflowers have priorities among herbal products, while in case of livestock, egg and dairy products dominate. (Scherczer K.-Závoczky P. 2008, ITD Hungary).

Tourism in Croatia is a well-developed industry. Concerning the number of tourists, Hungary achieved the 8th place in 2009, while regarding the number of guest nights has got the 9th one. Despite the fact that in 2009 the number of Hungarian tourists’ arrival in Croatia slightly decreased, while the length of time spent there increased. Respecting the full terms of tourism in Croatia in 2010, Hungary stands on the 9th place in commercial accommodation and the ship itself, but in case of private accommodation the first time examined in 2010 we share the 4th place together with Austria. Examining the non-commercial accommodations and ships, nearly 317.5 thousand Hungarian guests turned out last year, and they spent there 1,744 thousand nights altogether, which data compared to last year show 2% decrease in tourist arrivals, but 3% increase in the number of guest nights. In case of private accommodations, where the owners are to announce themselves and their guests – 15.3 thousand Hungarian tourists arrived and spent there 118.7 thousand overnights. The Croatian Central Bureau of Statistics, made the first report about boat tourists in 2010, and Hungary achieved also the 9th place in this category. According to their summaries in the marine accommodations 12.4 thousand guests arrivals, and 72.4 thousand nights have been realised by Hungary. (Statistički 2010)

Regarding the capital investment, the Croatian FDI is hardly present on the Hungarian market, and Croatia was able to implement only a few larger transactions such as Agrokor buying the Fonyódı Mineral Water Company and the Baldauf ice cream factory in 2004, or the Magma company establishing two toy and sport shops. The Hungarian investors, however, perform well in the Croatian market, and they have been among the first ones in recent years. In the period between 1993-2009 Hungary with EUR 2.3 billion was the 4th largest investor in Croatia, and countries that preceded us were Austria (EUR 6.3 billion), the Netherlands (EUR 4.4 billion) and Germany (EUR 2.7 billion). However in 2009 – mainly due to the world economic crisis – a significant slowdown in FDI inflows to Croatia was realised. Compared to previous years, it decreased by 55.2%, altogether with EUR 1.8 billion.

According to the Croatian National Bank, most of the capital – EUR 733.9 million – came to the trade sector, while into the financial sector EUR 658 million has flowed in. The biggest investors are the Netherlands (EUR 1.08 billion) and Austria (EUR 420 million), while Hungary obtained the third place with its EUR 155 million investment. The majority of investment continue to be focused on service industry, commerce, tourism, banking industry and privatization. However, greenfield investment – essential for the structural change of the Croatian economy – represent a too low portion.

Over the past several years, many Hungarian investment was realized, and not only big investors, but also hundreds of smaller companies gained ground in the Croatian market. The most successful investors are MOL, CBA, OTP, Dunapack Trigránit and Fornetti. The line was opened to the MOL purchasing USD 505 million worth shares, a 25+1% stake in Croatia’s national oil company INA in 2003. In a further privatisation process, MOL increased its share to the current 47.155%, with the government's shares being reduced to 44.836% and institutional and private investors holding 8.009% of the shares. In 2006, INA
and MOL launched a joint exploration project in the Slatina-Zaláta area designed to secure new volumes of natural gas. Among the investment outstands Zalakerámia purchasing Inker of sanitary ware factory, Duna-Drava Cement Ltd., which is operating 6 Croatian concrete mixers, and Dunapack, making EUR 23 million investment into corrugated paper manufacturing green-field plant in 2004, employing 140 people. The Croatian Nova Banka – renamed OTP Banka Hrvatska in September, 2005 – was acquired by the OTP Bank Group in March 2005. OTP Banka Hrvatska, the 8th largest bank in Croatia, has its headquarters in Zadar, and it is the market leader in the Istria peninsula. As of 31 December 2009 OBH’s consolidated balance sheet total was HUF 469.3 billion, giving the Bank a share of 3.3% in the Croatian market. In the course of 2009, gross loans rose to HUF 318.5 billion, and thus the Bank’s market share was 3.4% at the end of the year. Deposits from customers at year-end were HUF 337.9 billion, representing a market share of 4.2%. (OTP banka)

The Hungarian majority owned TriGranit – the 4th largest property development company in Europe – is well positioned to participate in the expanding real estate market. TriGranit’s first development in Croatia, the EUR 250 million of the 180 thousand square meter Arena Centar in Zagreb Lestina shopping district, was opened in November 2010. It is a success story of the CBA expansion in Central and Southern European countries such as Croatia, as well as the establishment and extension of Fornetti network. In recent years, increasing attention has been given to investment related to tourism and services, among which the most successful and rapidly expanding one is the Dalmatia Holiday Ltd. The company in 2002 acquired Tribunj marina concession with a capacity of 270 boat for 32 years, in 2003 the Primošten hotel complex and the Kremik port 350 accommodating 350 yachts, then Jelsa Hotel and the Hotel-Ploce on the island of Hvar. Not only the Dalmatia Holiday Ltd, but also many small and medium-sized Hungarian enterprises are building apartments and hotels along the seaside.

As a result of the improving economic relations, the Hungarian-Croatian Chamber of Economy was established in 2006. This institution plays a crucial role in promoting closer economic cooperation between operators, enhancing business ties and investment. In the latter area the Bureau of Foreign Trade of the Hungarian Embassy in Zagreb provides support, while the private company, @konto was also created. (@konto 2007, Sült 2007, Bakács 2007)

**Strategic border cooperation across the Hungarian-Croatian border**

The Hungarian-Croatian border region underwent severe changes in the past. However, it has been relatively stable since the end of World War I, when the present borderline was established between Hungary and its Southern neighbour. After Croatia’s independence, the borders without any changes have been opened, which means 355 km long borderline, most of which follows the River Drava. Since then strategic border cooperation has emerged along the border such as PHARE, INTERREG, IPA Cross-border Cooperation Program as well as euroregions.

The Hungarian-Croatian cross-border cooperation started in 2003 within the framework of INTERREG PHARE programmes. In parallel the Hungary-Croatia Pilot Small Projects Fund has been established. One of the success stories is Murania Euroregion covering some
territories on the tri-border, which could join the 2003 pilot program as well as the IPA program of 2007-2013. Through the pilot program non-profit organisations implemented 17 projects and they learnt how to use future INTERREG funding opportunities. The other type of cooperation was PHARE External Border Initiative Program supporting flagship projects along the borderline. Thanks to these two projects, the construction works of the bypass road near Harkány, and renovation of Miroslav Krleža Hungarian-Croatian Educational Centre were realised.

The Slovenia-Hungary-Croatia Neighbourhood Programme 2004-2006 (NP) introduced a partnership between Slovenia, Hungary and Croatia. It has a great opportunity externally, such as CARDS/PHARE for Croatia, as well as internally, such as ERDF EU financial sources from the same program. In the first round 28 projects were implemented representing an amount of EUR 5 857 379 involving partners both from Hungary and Croatia. Two of them were trilateral projects, establishing broader partnership, i.e. Slovenian-Hungarian-Croatian partnership. In the second round of call for proposals, Hungarian applicants introduced 179 projects, 103 of which had Croatian partner. On Croatian side there were 112 submissions, 32 of which to be realised together with Hungarian partners. The amount of funding available in Hungary was EUR 6 078 840 and EUR 6 000 000 in Croatia. As a result the experience gathered by these cross-border programs newly acquired skills appeared which contributed to more adequate, precise and of higher quality projects in the period of 2007 to 2013. (Neighbourhood 2004)

On the bases of previous programs within the 2007-2013 the Hungary-Croatia IPA Cross-border Co-operation Programme has been implemented by the European Union financial mechanism. The eligible area lies on the South-Western border of Hungary and North-Eastern border of Croatia. The areas eligible on the Hungarian side are the NUTS III counties of Zala, Somogy and Baranya. On the Croatian side, in addition to border counties – Međimurska, Koprivničko-Križevačka, Virovitičko-Podravska and Osječko-Baranjska – four other counties – Varaždinska, Bjelovarskobilogorska, Požesko-slavonska and Vukovarsko-
srijemska – participate in the on-going program. The eligible territory of the two countries involved is altogether 31,028 km$^2$.

The eligible area is predominately rural and natural, the underdeveloped position and the common natural heritage along the rivers Drava and the Danube provide rich basis for cooperation. According to this the vision of the program is „successful cooperation region of joint heritage”. Thus the long-term objective for the period 2007-2013 Cross-border Cooperation Program is the facilitation of culture and knowledge based development on the basis of successful management of natural and cultural heritage and intense socio-economic interactions between the two sides in the eligible area. In the programme two priorities with a number of potential intervention areas have been identified. The first priority is Sustainable Environment and Tourism divided into two major strategic aims such as (1) sustainable and attractive environment and (2) sustainable tourism in the Mura-Drava-Danube river area. The second priority is cooperative economy and intercommunity human resources development. The aim of this priority is the facilitate economic ties, including cross-border RDI activity, business contacts, cross-border employment opportunities, promoting the establishment of educational and cultural connections, as well as bilingualism in the Hungarian-Croatian border region. (Hungary 2006)

The other type of strategic border cooperation is the euroregion concept, which has huge history as the first one has been working for more than 30 years. 5 euroregions can be found in which Croatia and Hungary have common projects, namely the Alps-Adriatic Working Community, Euroregion Danube-Drava-Sava, Drava-Mura, Mura-Drava and Murania (latter is described earlier).

The Alps-Adriatic Working Community was founded in Venice on 20 November 1978. By today the Alps-Adriatic Working Community counts 10 members from five countries: Baranya, Burgenland, Friuli-Venezia Giulia, Carinthia, Croatia, Lombardy, Slovenia, Styria, Vas, Veneto. The Alps-Adriatic territory covers a total area of 180,603 km$^2$ and is home of about 26 million of people. There are 5 official languages of the Working Community: German, Croatian, Italian, Hungarian, Slovenian, and the annual budget for common projects is EUR 98,000 (2010). From the beginning of its foundation in 1978 the Alps-Adriatic Working Community formed a vivid meeting forum at the interface between East and West. Cultural and linguistic diversity is a clear characteristic feature of the Alps-Adriatic Working Community, being sort of a “Puzzle of regions”. The main concept of the Alps-Adriatic idea is bringing together young people by the main idea “One way – one goal”. The Alps-Adriatic territory covers an area of 180,603 km$^2$, with a population of approximately 26 million people (Alps).

The Danube-Drava-Sava Euroregion links Hungary, Croatia and Bosnia and Herzegovina. The Danube-Drava-Sava Euroregion was established on 28 November 1998, when its statute was signed in Pecs. Since its foundation some new members joined the Euroregion, so that nowadays this trans-border regional union spreads over the area of 28,284 km$^2$, encompassing 2,243 settlements, with a total population of 2,454,091 people. The region is formed by 11 NUTS3 level regional units (counties and cantons), and 713 NUTS4-5 units of local self-management. The basic goals of the trans-border association are to use and exploit natural resources together on the bases of common geographic connection between the members, to make historical connections and relations stronger between the
members of this regional association, to improve the position of national minorities and to take part in international and regional projects (Duna).

In order to improve bilateral relations there were some attempts to create smaller euroregions. They were all organized by Zala county or the municipalities located there. The first such initiative, which later proved to be insufficient was Drava-Mura Euroregion founded on 14 September 2001 by the cities of the Slovenian-Croatian-Hungarian tri-border. As the cooperation did not work, in October 2004 the Mura-Drava Euroregion was founded by Međimurska, Zala and Somogy counties (Kocsis 2002).

The publication supported by the HURO/0901/097/2.3.1. project.

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THE HUMAN AND CRIMINAL GEOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF BODROGKÖZ

Introduction

In the study the society of the historical Bodrogköz (the Hungarian and Slovakian side) will be analyzed. In the research area, the situation is very unfavourable because of its borderland location were difficult to cross the border, and because of its periphery of the society and the traffic. There are 28 settlements on the Slovakian part of the border, called Upper-Bodrogköz, among the rivers Bodrog, Latorca and Tisza. The Hungarian side of the border, called Lower-Bodrogköz, with 21 villages and two towns (Cigánd, Sárospatak). The authors deal with the following factors: the changes of population’s number, migration, aging index, ethnical distribution, education, service supplement of the settlements, criminal characteristics.

When a political frontier does not run on a natural border, it can divide areas that rely on same resources of nature, humans, and economy etc. The settlements of these bisected areas had to rebuild their relationships, the border people had to make new centers and form new catchments areas, but sometimes these cannot work successfully.

Research methodology

The method is based on statistical census data and a questionnaire survey. It was asked 500 households from Upper-Bodrogköz and 1250 households from Lower-Bodrogköz (Molnár, J – Siskáné Szilasi, B. – Kocsis, K. – Kulla, M. - Dická, J. 2008).

In the study we only deal with the known part of criminality, therefore the analyzes does not include the latent crime. Due to the speciality of the criminal statistics we use the mean of the years from 2001 to 2009. For the comparison of the settlements the criminal datas are counted for 100,000 residents.

Known crimes are the most basic index of criminality. Number of known crimes are influenced by the penal statutes and the trust earned by the investigation authority. It is important to know, that the crimes are registered according to the place of commitment.
The human geographical characteristics of Bodrogkőz²⁶

The population’s number of the settlements in Upper-Bodrogkőz was 1257 persons and in Lower-Bodrogkőz 1025 persons in average in 2005. The most populous town is Királyhelmec (Kráľovský Chlmec) in the Slovakian side with 8000 persons and in the Hungarian side are two settlements (Tiszakarád and Cigánd) which population’s number is above 2000.

From 1990 to 2005 was typical a natural decrease in the Upper-Bodrogkőz about 33 % of settlements. At the same period we can say that in the Lower-Bodrogkőz was dominant process the natural decrease by cases of 16 from 23 settlements too.

Migration gaining was in the Slovakian side by the settlements, which are near Kassa (Košice). Gaining was in the Hungarian side by 7 administrative units too, there was damage by 9 settlements, but by others in the Lower-Bodrogkőz were not any changing.

In the analyzed area the age structure is relative fair, the number of the youngers is higher than the number of the old persons.

The changing of the economical activity is not very good in the Bodrogkőz, when we compare the year 1980 and 2001. From 1990 unemployment appears, so the employment’s rate sinks under 50%. In the case of the women the rate of the dependents decreases. The number of inactive earners increases connection with the ageing (figure 1.).

![Figure 1. The economical activity of Bodrogkőz (MOLNÁR, J 2008)](image)

²⁶ Acknowledgements
The authors gratefully acknowledge the Supplementary INTERREG III/A of the HUSKUA Neighbourhood Program for the support of this work.
In case of the *ethnical structure* we can say, that the number of the persons, who admit themselves Hungarian, was 61,597 from the whole Bodrogköz (73,038 persons) in 2001. 44,2% of this lived in the Upper-Bodrogköz, who lived the 30% of gypsies. We suppose at least 7000 persons, who consider gypsy in the Lower-Bodrogköz in 2001. Their rate was 19% of the whole population in that time (*Molnár, J – Siskáné Szilasi, B. – Kocsis, K. – Kulla, M. - Dická, J. 2008*). They live especially in a high rate in the South-Eastern side of Bodrogköz from centuries. The most gypsies lived in Cigánd, and was a higher rate in Tiszakarád and Sárospatak in 2001. The highest rate correlated with the whole population number was in Lácacséke (24,8%), Tiszacsermely (21,7%), Semjén (21,1%), and Tiszakarád (19,1%).

There are significant differences between the settlements depending on how many institutionalised activities there are and at what level, and what kind of activities are there which can be qualified as central. At the same time, the old town-developing elements lose its significance, and they are replaced by newer ones (*Ehleiter J. 2002*). On the basis of the aggregate values of the individual base functions we divided the Bodrogköz settlements into 5 categories (*Szilasi Siskáné, B. 2008.*).

The indicators we used were the following (*Figure 2*):

1. educational base function: kindergarten, primary school, secondary school at the settlement
2. service function: post office, library at the settlement
3. cultural function: community centre at the settlement
4. commercial function: supermarkets and other (clothes, industrial goods) shops at the settlement.

*Figure 2. The distribution of the settlements in Bodrogköz based on service supplement (Szilasi Siskáné, B. 2008)*
There are three settlements (Sárospatak, Kráľovský Chlmec, Pribeník) with major provisions, these have other services besides the base functions, and they are at a higher level within the settlement hierarchy. Settlements with good provisions have all the facilities listed above except for the secondary school.

In the middle group we can find those settlements, where some of the base functions are missing. The last two groups (weak or partial base functions) include settlements, where one or more of the above mentioned indicators were completely missing. This means that they do not even have such an elementary function as education at the settlement. It can be concluded that the role and structure of the settlements are constantly changing, their functions are modified, common operation is more accentuated and there is a pressure for cooperation due to central measures.

The criminal geographical characteristics of Bodrogköz

The examined settlements belong to the Police Department of Sátoraljaújhely and Sárospatak. There is one police office (in Sárospatak) and two police stations (in Ricse and in Cigánd) in the area.

This part of the study analyzes the settlements of the Lower-Bodrogköz only, because the collecting of the criminal datas of the Slovakian side is in progress. The different legal definitions, procedures and supply of data collecting systems make the international comparison difficult (Kertész, I. 1999). Comparing the criminal situation of the two country, while the amount of known crimes per 100.000 residents in the 1990’s was 3200 in Hungary, there was 2300 in the same period in Slovakia, so there is a relatively lower criminality in Slovakia than in Hungary, according to the datas of the Ministry of Interior of the Slovakian Republic (www.civil.gov.sk).

Among Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén county’s police departments, the Police Department of Sátoraljaújhely (as mentioned above, the bigger part of the examined settlements belong to its competency) has the second largest mean of known crimes per 100.000 residents (PiskótI., Zs. 2011). Analyzing the means of the settlements it has to be noted, that if the crime datas of Lácacséke, Ricse and Dámóc are taken out from the calculation, the criminality of the police department would be under the average value of the county (2 717). 35% of the settlements have higher mean, than the county.

Regarding to the known crime datas Lácacsáke (24 076), Ricse (10 925) and Dámóc (6 948) have the highest values. In these settlements the means are at least two and a half times higher, than the county mean, but concerning Lácacséke the difference is 900 %. In these three settlements, the crimes against property take more than 90 % of the whole criminality. Zemplénagárd, Révleányvár, Karos, Felsőberecki and Györgytarló have the most favorable known crime means (Figure 3.).
The next important criminal index is the number of the known perpetrators. It is registered by the residence of the perpetrators. By examining the map (Figure 4.), we can see, that the values do not follow the rate of known crimes. The reason of the difference is that the number of perpetrators is influenced by the exploration rate and the accumulative perpetration.

Regarding to the means of known perpetrators, Lácacséke, Alsóberecki, Viss and Zalkod are in the worst situation. Lácacséke’s mean (6 116) is outstanding from the values of the another three villages: it is four and half times higher, than the county mean. Concerning this index near 60 % of the settlements have higher mean, than the county level.

Examining the different type of crimes, the largest part is the group of crimes against property (non-violent). The committing of such crimes is connected to the territorial distribution of criminal objects (Vavró, I. 1996).

The exploration rate of the crimes against property (especially theft and breaking and entering) is low in the most countries of the world. These kind of criminality is generated by the lack of basic needs in our country. There are people in our society, who live in so bad
conditions (among objective poverty, deprivation), that their needs can be satisfied only by committing crimes (Tauber, I. 1996).

On the other hand there is well-being crime, as the well-being puts the incomes to a higher level, but the needs increase faster, like the real opportunities (Heiland, H.G. 1983).

In the county level, the participation of crimes against property were 62 %, in the case of Lower-Bodrogköz were 73 % (Piskóti, Zs. 2011).

Because the crimes against property takes a large part of known criminality, their maps do not have many difference (Figure 5.). Regarding to crimes against property, Lácacséke, Dámóc, Ricse and Viss have the worst conditions. The first three settlements have minimum four times higher mean than the county level. Among these villages Lácacséke have the highest values: the crimes against property (not violence) per 100,000 residents is 21,935, which is thirteen times higher, than the county level. If we would take these tree
villages’ numbers out of the calculation, the mean of the Lower-Bodrogköz settlements were under the county mean.

The last analyzed criminal index is the violent and vandalism criminality (Figure 6.). These category was constructed by the criminology: it involves different crimes from the Penal Code, that have common method of commitment. These are homicide, kidnapping, robbery, vandalism etc. The participation of this type of crime is about 5 - 7 % (Vavrö, I. 1996). The examination of this part of criminality is important, because these crimes influence the safety-feel of the residents the most.

Figure 5. Mean of crime against property (non-violent) per 100.000 residents (2001-2009)

This is the only criminal index, which is not higher than the country mean (mean of Lower-Bodrogköz: 351, Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén county: 334). Examining the local values, Lácacséke, Viss and Zalkod have the highest numbers: that are at least twice higher than the county mean. It is interesting, that Felsőberecki and Györgyartóló have favorable conditions regarding to the known crimes and crimes against property (non-violent), but their means of
this category exceed the mean of Lower-Bodrogköz’s settlements. Ricse, that has bad numbers by the other categories, the violent criminality is one of the lowest ones like Vajdácska, Kisrozvágy, Nagyrozvágy, and Semjén.

Summary

Although the Bodrogköz has an uniform landscape, the human geographical characteristics are different on the Hungarian and Slovakian side.

It is obvious, that the human geographical factors influence the criminal geographical conditions, but there is not any uniform formula of these factors, which determine the local level of criminality. It is true conversely: settlements with high criminality do not have same social geographical giveins for certain. In the case of Bodrogköz the ethnical homogenity was the only factor, which correlates crime (the lower is the ethnical homogenity, the higher is the criminal indexes), but we have to mark and emphasize, that crime can not be explained by one factor.

Figure 6. Mean of violent and vandalistic crimes per 100.000 residents (2001-2009)
The publication supported by the HURO/0901/097/2.3.1. project.

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Anna Hamar – Péter Nikitscher

CROSS-BORDER RELATIONSHIPS IN THE WESTERN-TRANSDANUBIAN REGION

Introduction

The focus of our enquiry is the Austro-Hungarian borderland, especially the role of Sopron and its settlement ensemble in establishing and operating the relationship with the overarching border regions. We sought answers as to whether joining the European Union had changed the relationships and how the local governments of the town and its adjoining settlements used the opportunities that had emerged with the “elimination” of the border. The study is built on interviews and the analyzing of statistic data.

The introduction of the western cross-border region and the evolution of its position

The spatial structure of the previously formed cross-border regions were severed by the borders of Trianon, towns with significant populaces (Szombathely, Sopron, Köszeg) remained within Hungary while the settlements belonging to their urban fields became part of Austria. (NYUTI 2007). Up until 1990 both regions had been characterized as peripheral, whereto relatively insignificant investment and economic development measures were directed.

The territory of the Western-Transdanubian Region is 420.820 km², its populace approaches 450.000. Its more significant, central towns inside the county centres are Győr (130.478), Szombathely (79.438), Zalaegerszeg (61.705), outside of them are Sopron (59.685), Nagykanizsa (50.101) and Mosonmagyaróvár (32.605).

The swift development of the area, which had been considered as peripheral pre-1990, after the fall of the Iron Curtain was due to its relatively positive geographic position, capital investment from the west, its relatively highly qualified manpower and its traditions pertaining to production. The GDP per capita increased in the biggest degree in Budapest, followed by the county of Győr-Moson-Sopron and the other two counties of the region stand in a privileged position as well in the hierarchy in Hungary between 1994 and 2007.

On the Austrian side of the border lies the province of Burgenland, which came into being as a province and a separate region following the border alterations of Trianon from the detached territories of the counties of Moson, Vas, and Zala. The center of the province, the populace of which reaches almost 284.000, is Eisenstadt (Kismarton), the populace of which approximates 120.000, lies on the northern part of the region. Its settlement web is a region with very few towns. The two-thirds of its settlements have populations under 2000. The

27 Hungarian Academy of Sciences Centre for Regional Studies
28 Ágfalva, Harka, Fertőrákos, Kópháza, Nagycenk
The format of the international relationships of the western cross-border

Up until the First World War, the western border was the internal border of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy and remained freely permeable compared to the other borders even after the war. Following the Second World War, the border became part of the borders separating the two systems and became a border which was strictly guided by the above-mentioned Iron Curtain and a barrage. The hermetic seal, that had been formed between the two countries, determined the evolution of cross-border relationships, which started to become more intensive again in the 1970s and which gained an organized structure in the 1980s with the 1988 joining of the three border counties of Győr-Moson-Sopron, Vas and Zala to the Alps-Adria Association. The Phare-CBC program of 1995-2004 served to deepen this cooperation and form new ones, which guaranteed the organizational and monetary frames of the different settlement oriented, institutional and program oriented relationships (NYUTI 2007).

The first of the organizations participating in the cooperation of cross-border regions was the Hungarian-Austrian Committee for Territorial Administration and Planning (MOTTB), which was founded in 1985 and the main goal of which was exchange of information and the encouragement of orientation. The Hungarian-Austrian Border-Area Council (HRT) was founded in 1992 and drew up concrete suggestions for the regions on either side of the border. The so-called West Pannonia Euregion can be construed as the descendent of the council.

Due to the joining of Hungary to the EU, the Euregion became the frame cooperation of the INTERREG programs. In the past few years, euroregions have lost their intensity due to different financial balancing and the shift of the areal emphasis from county-based to regional. It is a fact that the cross-border influence of the projects and cooperative partnership were only realised on paper in a lot of cases, the cause of which might primarily be human factors and differently operating regulation systems on each side of the border (Vissi 2010).

The majority of the cross-border co-operations of the programming period of 2007-2013 takes place under the Austrian-Hungarian Cross-border Cooperation Program of 2007-2013.
Inter-settlement relationships

It was the opportunity to organize the expo of 1995 jointly that brought the cooperation of the municipalities of Sopron and Eisenstadt into being in the 1980s of the past century. It was the joining of Austria to the European Union and the procurement of EU resources that gave impulse to the relationship that had only existed on paper.

Sopron participated as the partner of Eisenstadt in the applications of cross-border programs, such as the PHARE CBC or INTERREG. However, the cooperation did not really bring change. Even though they had been hoping in vain that they might get resources, Soproners played an ancillary role throughout the procedure. The two cities institutionalized their relationship with the signing of a partner city treaty. However, the real expansion of relationships hardly moved forward in spite of the EU membership of Hungary.

The two local governments reached tangible results when it came to the development of cross-border water-supplies and the cooperation of the fire brigade. The co-ordination of the developments fell behind and the only attempt made at harmonization, which aimed to create a spatially coadjacent industrial belt at both sides of the border, was not realized either. Sopron does not possess the conception, apart from the phrase level drafting of the design documents, which would help it deepen its relationships. The forums and meetings organized for the mayors of the villages did not achieve the hoped for breakthrough either.

Lack of common interest, the different financial and economic situation of the Hungarian and Austrian local governments inevitably led to the weaknesses and formality of the institutionalized relationships, which were further worsened by differing legal regulations.

The culture of Hungary’s Croatian minority, which retained its continuity, and that of the German minority revived in the 1990s. Language was the only stable element of the cooperation that lead to the strengthening and expansion of the relationships of the cultural associations. However, national culture is not sufficient in itself to overarch the existing language barrier as only a fragment of the populace of Hungary’s villages is of German nationality. After the German relocation of 1946, Hungarian speaking families from all over the country settled into the relocated area. The unfavourable conditions of financing and the differing legal regulation hinder cooperation in the national education of kindergartens and schools.

Local governments cannot finance the interchange of teachers, joint continulative education, field trips, the German language lessons of the Austrian ‘travelling kindergartners’ from their own budgets. Financing is provided from EU resources or by dividing the costs between the cooperating local governments of the two regions.

The virtual border does not favour the strengthening of relationships either. The border of Trianon has remained unprocessed along with the revival of Burgenland’s villages, which were once considered poor, and the worsening of the situation of the Hungarian settlements. Mutual prejudice and the ‘poor relative’ effect hinder the organization of relationships.

The easy permeability of the border has facilitated the retention of connection between relatives, friends, civil organizations and the economic movements favourable for both regions. In spite of this due to the language and the strong control of the Austrian labour market, the border had fulfilled its filtering role up until Hungary joined the Schengen Agreement.
After Hungary had joined the EU, the townships jointly with the neighbouring Austrian villages reconstructed the cart-roads leading to border-crossings, which were not adequate for car traffic. Joining the Schengen zone led to conflicts. Austrian settlements, being afraid of the through traffic that would shower the villages and the increase of crime, closed the roads with boards and other physical objects. This fear was partially induced by politics and no statistic data attest it. There were some economic interests behind the opposition as well. The provincial, settlement co-ordinations alleviated the tension yet did not solve the rather significant clash of interests. Services built on the tourism of Lake Fertő profit from the opening of car traffic, thus making these services concurrent of the Austrian undertakings. The settlement of Mörbisch did not support the Hungarian EU application that would have served highway development in Fertőrákos. Only provincial political pressure could somewhat alleviate the unfriendly relationship which came into being between the two local governments.

In lieu of connective common interests which would deepen the relationship, EU projects and the connecting ability of the mayors became upvalued. The party affiliation of leaders influenced their cooperation along with personal aptitudes. However, it was the nature of the personal relationships of the settlement leaders that defined the strength and depth of cross-border relationships.

**Labour market**

Cross-border labour market relations are significantly one-sided and are restricted to Hungarians working in Austria. Only the owners of undertakings functioning in Hungary and the top managers of foreign companies come to work here in Hungary. They are paid according to Austrian wages.

The chance of getting jobs in Austria played an extremely important role in the spatial upvaluation of the borderland settlements, the advantages of which has been utilized by the inhabitants of the region ever since the early 1990s. Lack of language knowledge or informal channels were not the only obstacles of Hungarians working in Austria but the regulation of the Austrian state that protected its own labour market as well. Dating from interstate agreement of 1998, multiple obstacles have been created for Hungarian employees, hindering them from entering the Austrian labour market:

- Manpower limits: a quota system
- The nature of workplaces: agriculture, catering, commerce
- A spatial barrier: it relates to borderland provinces
- Temporal limits: working papers are only valid for six months, hindering the employee in fulfilling the criteria of continuous employment which is necessary for free employment
- The Austrian labour market did not open its gates before Hungarian employees even after Hungary joined the EU. However, the rigidity of the regulation system has been moderated due to lack of employees. Working papers are given after simplified procedures to those who work in rare skilled jobs. Rare skilled jobs largely cover each other on the Austro-Hungarian side. Out of the twenty rare skilled jobs of the Hungarian regional labour market, twelve are listed on the
Austrian list as well. The unfavourable influence of the Austrian labour market has already emerged in the economy of the region due to higher wages of the Austrian labour market. (Hárs 2009, Hardi 2005)

Table 1: The change of the number of cross-border commuters 1998-2007

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<th>Prolongation</th>
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<td>414</td>
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<td>2004</td>
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<td>148</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Regional Employment Centre of West-Transdanube
*Licensed personal employment car

The size of the contingent of borderland commuters was laid down as 2,280 persons in 2010 by the Austrian authorities.

There are people from every settlement going over to Austria in order to work but two settlements stand out. One is the once German speaking Ágfalva, which is traditionally related to Austrian villages, and the other one is the Croatian speaking Köpháza. 50-60% of the working age populace of these settlements works on the Austrian side of the border. The salient proportion of people working on the other side of the border strengthens language and ethnic affiliations along with the significance of the informal network of contacts and the importance of the physical permeability of the border (motor traffic).

Mayors of the villages estimate the proportion of illegal work to be 70-80%. Illegal employees usually undertake seasonal jobs, such as viticulture, catering or household work, which require one or two days of work a week or are limited to agricultural peak work, such as pruning grapes or harvest. Workers who acquire supplementary income live in a 25-kilometer radius from the border. Their network of contacts functions in borderland settlements and the expenses of work are favourably low.

Skilled workers constitute a smaller group of employees who can be found in the primary labour market. They commute daily and they did not only manage to find jobs in Burgenland as many of them work in Vienna. They are among the well-off citizens of the villages and they confront the leaders of the settlements on a regular basis. The higher wages of the Austrian labour market has initiated changes in the villages and the labour market of the region:

- skilled workers use public services and the infrastructure of the settlement, yet they do not contribute to its upkeeping. They pay taxes in Austria, so the local government does not receive any personal income tax from them. However, they are the ones who most consistently call the local government to account for the quality of the infrastructure and the lack of development;
the second generation employee has already appeared on the legal labour market. They are the children of skilled workers who provide reliable workplaces to their close relatives through their contacts;

the higher wages and the demand for rare skilled jobs have inevitably led to labour shortages in the region. Significant shortages can especially be noticed in the building industry but there are vacant positions in the region in commerce and services as well according to the register of the employment centre;

the labour shortage in viticulture during peak season is solved by employing plainsmen and Transylvanians whose wages are lower by 50% than those of Hungarians working in Austrian vineyards.

Austria is going to open its labour market to Hungarian employees in 2011. It is expected that these changes will devalue Burgenland, which is in the most unfavourable positions of all Austrian provinces, and that workers will prefer Vienna and Lower-Austria, which are easily accessible on the highway.

Economy and commerce

The economic relationships of Sopron and its vicinity are examined through Austrian based enterprises operating there, tourism and shopping tourism.

Chamber membership is not compulsory in Hungary so only a minority of Austrian entrepreneurs become visible through the organization. Austrian entrepreneurs often become unsettled due to the corruption of the Hungarian system, the ‘Balcanic’ administration, and the exploitation of the lack of knowledge of the Austrians, which becomes manifest in the unbelievably high fees that lawyers, bookkeepers and advisors charge them.

The economic advantage of the borderland situation lies in touristic opportunities. This is especially true about Sopron, the environment of which is its biggest capital. The number of foreign clients increased by leaps and leaps in Sopron in the 1980s. Their number was estimated at 300 in 1960 but by 1985, the number of foreign citizens who spent the night in the town exceeded 50,000 and the majority of these people were Austrian. The number of foreign citizens spending their night in Sopron peaked in 1990 with over 57,000 people spending the night but has been continuously dwindling with small fluctuations ever since.

The third level of economic relationships is shopping tourism which is the most active and most easily tangible level when it comes to the particular person. During the 1960s, borderland passenger traffic slowly started to commence and with it visits targeted at shopping increased with the ever easier entry opportunities of Western citizens during the 1960s. The most searched for goods by Austrians during the 1970s and 1980s were food and clothing articles, the main appeal of which was their quality and low price. The road toward Austria became open with the introduction of the free passport in 1988 and the plenty of choice among durable goods, their better quality and their lower prices represented an appeal which stirred the masses. This phenomenon became known as the so-called ‘Gorenje fever’.

Articles of food became appealing due to being cheaper than Austrian goods during the 1990s when the approximation of food prices occurred. Services of good quality became appealing too to Austrian citizens. This was the time when Sopron became known as the ‘city
of dentists’. The decrease in the importance of commerce continued and the importance of services was growing in the years of the millennium. Based on the results of the enquiry built on interviews and questionnaires, we can assert that the main appeal for Austrians are services, mainly the beauty services, dentistry, massage and plastic surgery nowadays and when using these services they also go shopping in retail shops. In lieu of a beauty industry there are probably less people coming over with the intent of shopping. Shopping tourism into Austria has become seasonal and its main motivation is a bigger choice of goods.

Shops and services satisfying the Austrian demand are concentrated in two places downtown. We can find a big amount of apothecaries, opticians, millineries, dentistry and beauty services on the traditional shopping street of the city, which has always played an outstanding role in commerce. The Korona shopping mall and Füredi esplanade open from the Castle District and were created in the 1990s by the thriving commerce. The shops and services of the shopping mall also aim to satisfy the demand of Austrian customers (Bertalan - Jankó - Nagy - Presits 2010). Millinery constituted the greatest part of retail services in the mall (35%). Beauty services constitute yet another significant part (29%). Almost 10% of all shop premises function as dentist’s surgery.

A rearrangement and concentration toward the west (the border) can be observed in the territorial location of the enterprises built on Austrian shopping tourism. Interspar and its vicinity, which was transformed from a once industrial territory and which concentrate retail and service units on a bigger scale, is another important location of retail concentration. Interspar was opened in 2005 and can be found on the way leading out of town. Sopron Place can be found on the side of the same road, which was built in 1998 and the main appeal of which is its beauty services. More than half of its visitors come from Austria.

![Figure 1: The retail and service attracted settlements of Sopron on the basis of the place of origin of the cars visiting the shopping malls and the population of the settlement.](image-url)
The departmental composition of retail trade is adjusted to Austrian demands. Thus, it differs significantly from towns with similar populations in its structure.

We gathered information regarding the retail and service attracted settlements of Sopron by listing the license plate numbers of visiting Austrian cars and analyzing their place of origin.\(^{29}\)

As can be seen from the map, the biggest amount of arrivals in Sopron are from the territorial unit of Baden, followed by those districts that are in a favourable situation from a transport geographic point of view. It is obvious that it is not direct geographic proximity but transport opportunities, that is highways and main roads, that play the most crucial factor in the formation of the attracted settlements.

**Summary**

Two regions of different development level and development dynamics meet at the border of Hungary. Burgenland is the least developed province in Austria and is traditionally more of an agricultural than an industrial region. Towns are scarce in that region. The Hungarian West-Transdanubian Region is one the regions that evolve the most dynamically and one that possesses one of the best development indicators within the country, yet its development indicators are still behind those of Burgenland. The different development levels, development dynamics and the structure of the economies of the two regions define cross-border cooperation opportunities and intentions.

The development speed of the West-Transdanubian Region, which exceeds the national average, is not exclusively the consequence of the Hungarian-Austrian borderland cooperation but rather the impact of foreign capital investment based on the exploitation by global capitalism of the favourable geographic position and transport opportunities. Agreements declaring cooperation and relationships are formal, they serve to attain different application resources. Real cooperation is rare. The main reasons for this are the differences in the regulation fields and decision-making systems of the two countries and the unbalanced state of the economic situation. The dominance of the Austrian party can be observed when it comes to EU application resources. It is the Burgenland organizations that provide the leading organizations of cross-border projects.

The capital attracting ability of Sopron is low in this structure because of its geographic location, which pushes out into Austria and the outdated development of the transport infrastructure. There has been no economic power in the area that has changed the dominance of the service system that came into being in the 1990s and was based on Austrian clients. The appearance of the beauty industry linked to the borderland plaza foreshadows that the traditionally urban retail service-providers will gradually lose market share.

In spite of the open boundary resulting from EU membership, neither the town, nor the villages could take any real advantage of the organization of relationships. The cooperation of the local governments is hindered by the lack of common interests, the different regulation

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\(^{29}\) The census was conducted in the most frequented places of Austrian shopping tourism, such as the Castle District, at Interspar and its vicinity, the parking of Sopron Plaza and Wabi Beauty Center on weekdays in the morning and late afternoon/early evening. (n=2078)
systems and last but not least the language barrier and the virtual barrier, which is powerful in both regions. The joint organization of public services is rendered impossible by the differing regulation systems operating in the two regions. The only more or less successful area of cooperation is the education of kindergartens and schools but the expenses can be secured only with the contribution of Austrian local governments or from the resources of EU applications.

Civil organizations managed to create successfully operating cross-border relationships. Their role in the community organization of villages is significant as they provide the more often than not only frame of cooperation between local governments.

The ‘disappearance’ of the borders has strengthened the chance of personal happiness in spite of the Austrian state’s regulation of the moving of Hungarians into the labour market. The difference in the level of wages between the two countries result in the one-sidedness of labour market relationships, which will probably go on to intensify with the expiration of the moratorium protecting the border.

The publication supported by the HURO/0901/097/2.3.1. project.
References


Bulcsú Remenyik

DEVELOPMENT OF RIVER TOURISM AND TOURISM OF THE BORDER REGIONS

The present study aims to reveal changes of the roles in tourism and tourism development opportunities of rivers in Hungary. The network of rivers in the Carpathian Basin shows a coherent system; the new borders after Trianon divided the consistent network into parts (in many places the state borders were defined by rivers), and therefore the possibility of the utilisation of rivers can only be solved together with our neighbouring countries. The guideline of this study is that the development of riverside tourism before the change of regime did not affect the areas along the state borders. However, with the termination of the state borders a new situation had arisen, so it would be practical to continue the development of riverside tourism together with our neighbours.

Riverside tourism is the development of the river and the areas along its shoreline. Furthermore, the development of reservoirs (Tisza Lake), backwaters (Lake Szelidi), islands (Margaret Island) and river terraces (terraces along the River Danube) belong to the definition of the tourism product. Riverside tourism in the Carpathian Basin has only a short history; however remarkable increase can be demonstrated in tourism figures, in the growth of holiday resorts, beaches, cycle route, hotels, water and ecotouristic establishments.

A development influencing riverside tourism in the 1970-1980s concentrated on the Danube Bend, the Gemenc areas, and the Central Tisza region. Joining the European Union and entering the Schengen Area meant a remarkable opportunity for the development of riverside tourism. The addition of the EU’s financial resources and the termination of borders stimulated the development of the riverside tourism along the Slovakian-Hungarian, Austrian-Hungarian and Slovenian-Croatian-Hungarian borders. Currently, potential for developments along the Drava and Ipoly are the most promising, but it would be worth clarifying the cooperative touristic opportunities and methods of utilising the water which can be found in Szigetköz and also in the water pipes of the Bős hydroelectric station. Besides the tasks mentioned above, (even though it is not part of the research) we could start to utilise the Northern-Hungarian rivers (such as Bodrog, Hernád, Sajó) as well. Hopefully, with the expansion of the Schengen Zone, riverside tourism of the Tisza, Maros, Körös and Szamos will also be brightened up as our rivers connect us, our towns and our cultural areas as a green axle.

In the western part of Central Europe (Germany, Switzerland, Austria and Slovenia), riverside and pond tourism have already become a leading tourism product since the 1970s. The rising popularity of ski tourism in the 1960s inspired the population of these countries to live an active lifestyle and that is why the product became a mass tourism product which can be described with the 4 Ss (Dávid L.-Jancsik A.-Rátz T. 2007): Ski, Slope, Snow, Sleep. The evolving active summer lifestyle in the countries turned the riverside and pond tourism into a

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mass tourism product which can also be described with the help of the 4 Ss: Sailing, Swimming, Summer, Surf. Both of these tourism products started developing in Hungary in the end of the 1970s too, and they became the leading tourism products in the 1980s. These products were able to reach out to the younger age groups (youth tourism), and waterfront and fishing tourism which were associated with them became the main segments of the tourism industry. The improvement of accommodation did not require large investments, because campsites were established along the riverbanks, where camping with tents and caravan tourism have become fashionable. Riverside tourism was developing best on the side of the Danube, the Tisza and the Körös rivers; and the bigger ponds such as the Balaton, Tisza and Velencei pond became the most popular spots of pond tourism.

In the 1990s, a series of national parks had been established in wet areas (Danube-Drava National Park, Danube-Ipoly National Park etc.), and the national parks placed those wet regions continuously under their control. Due to sustainable tourism development, ecotourism and rural tourism have become the main products of tourism. From the second half of the 1990s, a significant decrease in the number of visitors can be seen in the progress of tourism development along rivers (a similar situation can be seen in connection with pond tourism). The European Union began to support the previously flourishing tourism products with significant amounts, so they started to build visitor and exhibition centres, and the construction of bicycle paths along the rivers and lakes also started to boom. Cycling tourism became the main tourism product.

Due to the financial support from the European Union, bicycle paths are being constructed slowly along the major rivers (Danube, Drava and Tisza) and they join the European routes (EUROVELO) as well (Gyuricza L. 2008).

![Figure 1 Bicycle route along the River Drava (Danube-Drava National Park, 2010)](image-url)

The majority of the cyclists along the rivers visit those places for 3-4 days and they take part in a so-called „Csillagtúra”. They use mostly hospitality services out of all the available facilities, that is why they are accommodated in the hospitality units built mainly along the
shore. They use available services much more widely than for instance fishing tourists; however research shows that they take part in recreation and cultural tourism programs at a lower rate. The cycling tourists who were interviewed mentioned the following reasons for their visits: relaxing, uniqueness, cultural attractions and programs, areas close to their residence, wine tasting opportunities and weather. The presence of water has the highest value in their opinion; however they appreciated the newly built cycling paths too.

The other product, water tourism, is worth developing further but besides the classic water tourism, other active extreme sports (bungee, canopy) appeared as well.

Water tourism can be classified in 3 categories:

Hand-driven means of transport, primarily canoes and kayaks belong to the category of classic water tourism. Their direction is towards the downstream of the water (descending, flowing). Usually, they are associated with rivers; trips lasting for a couple of days and several harbour or stops are there along these tours. The classic tours on rivers have the highest number of attendants during the seasonal months of mid-June until mid-August.

Motor boat tourism has two versions: sport shipping and shipping tours. Sport shipping includes water skiing and jet-ski. These are usually linked to a smaller area, usually to storage for boats or ships, or to a port area where they let boats and ships flow on the water. The traffic of motor boats is affected mostly by water level and weather. The development of this tourism category depended on the growth of ports as these boats and ships are not able to reach and be tied up to any type of shore.
The greatest opportunities for leisure sailing are provided by excursion ships, event ships and probably cruise ships. The highest demand is for excursion ships which is limited to certain sections of the Danube, Drava and Tisza. The navigation is not really affected by weather and water level; however, it is linked mostly to warmer months (May-September) in terms of seasonality.

Opportunities for future development are connected to tourism-ecological developments. Tourism-ecology presents analysis of tourism with a modern approach, which examines the tourism of areas along rivers from three aspects (human ecology, regional ecology, settlement ecology). Regional tourism builds connection with active tourism, human ecology does the same with ecotourism and settlement ecology is in contact with cultural and heritage tourism. Active tourism and cultural and heritage tourism could be an eruption point, which could make riverside tourism popular again. More and more extreme tourism products attract the young age group to rivers that is why adventure parks are growing at a rapid pace in Western Europe. Hungary has 16 working adventure parks and another one will be opening in July 2011 along the Tisza. In the development of theme parks along the river, Austria is the leading figure; and for example they opened an Archaeological Park in the Donau-Auen National Park. Cultural and natural-thematic routes along rivers are spreading in cultural tourism. Thematic routes in relation with castle tourism (Loire Castles route) and wine routes (Rhine wine route), are the ones which are developing at the fastest pace, however the greatest amount of natural routes are becoming known as green routes. In the field of active tourism, cycling tourism is developing along the rivers in the most expedient way, Austria is leading in the European Union, but the construction of water tourism along the Rhine River shows the most active tendency. Ecotourism development are still attached to national parks (most of our rivers are protected by the Ramsar protection), and there are also valuable areas that can be found along the Danube, Ipoly, Tisza and Drava rivers in a European context.

Table 1: Socio-economic situation along the Hungarian rivers
(Tóht G. – Dávid L. –Bujdosó Z. 2010)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SECTORS</th>
<th>Inhabitant population (2000=100)</th>
<th>Migration balance for 1000 inhabitant, 2000-2008</th>
<th>Unemployment rate, 2008</th>
<th>Income per person, 2008 (national average = 100)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DRÁVA</td>
<td>91,4</td>
<td>-6,3</td>
<td>16,1</td>
<td>67,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOWER DANUBE</td>
<td>95,9</td>
<td>-1,1</td>
<td>9,0</td>
<td>85,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MIDDLE DANUBE</td>
<td>111,3</td>
<td>12,7</td>
<td>3,3</td>
<td>113,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UPPER DANUBE</td>
<td>102,1</td>
<td>3,0</td>
<td>3,8</td>
<td>116,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAROS</td>
<td>95,3</td>
<td>-1,1</td>
<td>8,2</td>
<td>72,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MURA</td>
<td>85,3</td>
<td>-1,7</td>
<td>11,6</td>
<td>75,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RÁBA</td>
<td>95,7</td>
<td>-1,4</td>
<td>4,9</td>
<td>99,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOWER TISZA</td>
<td>98,7</td>
<td>-0,4</td>
<td>6,0</td>
<td>92,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MIDDLE TISZA</td>
<td>94,6</td>
<td>-4,2</td>
<td>9,6</td>
<td>87,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UPPER TISZA</td>
<td>94,2</td>
<td>-6,2</td>
<td>16,4</td>
<td>68,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NATIONAL AVERAGE</td>
<td>98,3</td>
<td>0,0</td>
<td>7,1</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
If we examine areas along the borders and where it would be the most worthy to start the development of tourism along the river, then we need to point out the economically developed areas by all means. The following table shows that these areas have greater population density, the discretionary income of the inhabitants there, the tendency for travelling and the spirit of local patriotism is at a higher level as well.

Micro-regions beside the border are 29% of Hungary’s territory and the 21.9% of the total population according to the census of January 2009. Based on the most important statistical indicators, we can clearly claim that these regions are considered to be disadvantaged, because of low population density, considerable migration, high unemployment rate, low disposition for entrepreneurship, high inhabitant density and unfavourable income situation (Prideaux B. 2009). The territorial differences are much larger than the regional differences among the micro-regions along the borders than the other sub-regions and the national average. In the 2000s – similar to the national tendency – territorial differences significantly decreased in the micro-regions beside the borders however these differences are still considerable (KSH, 2010).

In conclusion, if we examine the relationship between the development of tourism along the river and the economic development then the Hungarian-Slovakian section of the Ipoly and the Danube, the Croatian-Hungarian section of the Drava, the Serbian-Hungarian section of the Tisza and the Romanian-Hungarian section of the White Körös are the most competent for further development in the future.

The publication supported by the HURO/0901/097/2.3.1. project.

References

NEW RESULTS OF CROSS-BORDER CO-OPERATIONS
THE GEOGRAPHICAL ENVIRONMENT OF THE HUNGARIAN ELECTRICITY INDUSTRY

Introduction

At the turn of the 1980s and 1990s, revolutionary political, social and economical transitions took place in the Eastern and Central European countries including Hungary. These changes also had a significant impact on the electricity industry.

The effects of globalisation increased, local economies became competitive and the demands of the European Union meant a great challenge. The structure of the industry has undergone transition and, along with this, a remarkable regional restructuring can also be observed, which are excellent fields of study for geographic research. The main objective of the work is to give an overview on the geographical environment of the Hungarian electricity industry in the post-transitional era in the light of the theoretical and practical energy policy models developed so far as well as in light of the energy processes characteristic in the European Union.

Based on the most relevant energy policy principles as well as on the socio-economically relevant events, the geographical environment of Hungary’s electricity industry and the changes taking place in it can be characterised as follows:

Supply security

When studying the energy balance of Hungary, it can be concluded that the so-called „energy scissors” are opening: since 1990, there has been a linear decrease in the level of energy production, whereas the value of import, since 1992 following a two-year decline, has begun to rise, being disadvantageous for supply security.

The country is poor in energy resources, and the import of fossil energy sources is becoming more and more significant. It is somewhat beneficial that the country’s electricity import is becoming diversified, and Hungary has adequate emergency capacities and strategic supplies. In the long term, the country can rely on the lignite of the Mátraalja and Bükkalja regions as well as on renewable energy sources.

In the public power plants of Hungary, both in 1990 and in 2005, the predominance of hydrocarbon-fuelled capacities can be seen; the installed capacity of lignite-fuelled blocks as well as that of nuclear energy and hydro-power is nearly constant (Figure 1.). The most significant decrease can be seen in the case of the black- and brown-coal-fuelled units, and in the former coal-fuelled units, biomass has become apparent exclusively or partially. In the national power-plants, smaller-sized installed capacities have been becoming increasingly
widespread, whereas among fuels, natural gas has been gaining greater predominance (with its proportion of use, in Europe, being higher only in the Netherlands).

When analysing the structural composition of electricity generation in the post-socialist era, the most significant growth of proportion is recorded for electricity generated from renewables, as well as a significant level of growth is observed for the proportion of electricity generated from natural gas and lignite (Figure 2.). However, a significant drop is experienced for brown- and black-coal, as well as for fuel oil, whereas a moderate one for nuclear power.
Hungary’s electricity system transfer network is only developed by the national company (i.e. Hungarian Power Companies Co.). Examples of major network development in the time period between 1989 and 2005 can mainly be found in the southern and western regions of the country, while in an international context, several new lines were opened towards Slovakia, Austria, Croatia and Romania (Figure 3.).

Figure 3. Hungary's High-Voltage Electricity Transmission System (31 December 2005) (new grids with broken lines)

Hungary’s international electricity trade has undergone significant changes. Between 1990 and 1994, the electricity exchange dropped by 75 percent, followed by a tendency of slow increase until 1999, then was doubled within a year (Figure 4.). Today, the volume of all trades approximates almost the level of the country’s net electricity generation.

Hungary, throughout the post-socialist era, has remained a net importer of electricity, i.e. its import of electricity exceeding the export.

Hungary is one of the largest importers of electricity in Europe, in many cases, the system is regulated by the imported electricity being a great threat to supply security. At the time of the change of regime, electricity was imported from the Soviet Union exclusively, whereas from 2000, the volume of import from Slovakia and the Ukraine is determinant, however, electricity is also received from Romania (Figure 5.).
Environmental protection

In order to secure ecological balance, during system stabilisation as well as in new developments, expenditures on nature conservation and environmental protection have become an integral part of developments, and as a consequence of the country’s international commitments, environmental regulations are (probably too) strict, inevitably resulting in the country’s deteriorating competitiveness. When studying air-pollution emissions of power-plants, a significant drop, especially in the case of sulphur-dioxide can be seen, whereas emission values have dropped most significantly in the case of dust (Figure 6.).

![Figure 4. Hungary’s International Electricity Trade](image-url)

The volume of electricity generated from renewables has indicated a significant increase, approximating 4.17% of the total production in 2005, with biomass being the most used renewable energy source used.
Organisational environment

A significant change regarding ownership and size composition of the companies can be seen: private ownership has become apparent and widespread, which, in addition to the decisively foreign and large companies, includes an increasing number of small- and middle-sized companies worsening the regulability of the system.
The Hungarian Power Companies Co. remains under exclusive Hungarian ownership, and is to be developed as Hungary’s national company group as conceptualised in 2005 agreed by the leading political players (Table 1.). Electricity suppliers are, however, almost exclusively in foreign ownership, thus the country’s electricity market is shared by three international monopolies (namely E.ON, RWE and EdF).

Market and legal environment

In order to establish market-conform legal and institutional regulation environments, a three-level system (of producers, transporters and suppliers) has emerged, as well as a legal background guaranteeing the proprietors’ safety has been built. The development of the energy policy is carried out by the Ministry of Economy (and its predecessors), while authority and regulation functions are fulfilled by Hungarian Energy Office.

Table 1. The Ownership Relations (31st December 2005)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company</th>
<th>State</th>
<th>Local government</th>
<th>MVM Zrt.</th>
<th>Other Hungarian investors</th>
<th>Foreigner investors</th>
<th>Altogether</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MVM Zrt.</td>
<td>99,87%</td>
<td>0,13%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAVIR Zrt.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AES Borsodi Energetikai Kft.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AES Tisza Erőmű Kft.</td>
<td>0,11%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>99,99%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bakonyi Erőmű Zrt.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3,94%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0,49%</td>
<td>95,57%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Budapesti Erőmű Zrt.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Csepeli Áramtermelő Zrt.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Debreceni KCE Kft.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dunamenti Erőmű Zrt.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMA Power Kft.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mátrai Erőmű Zrt.</td>
<td>0,59%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25,51%</td>
<td>1,27%</td>
<td>72,63%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paksi Atomőrőmű Zrt.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pannon Hőerőmű Zrt.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vértesi Erőmű Zrt.</td>
<td>41,29%</td>
<td>0,04%</td>
<td>42,91%</td>
<td>15,76%</td>
<td>0,00%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRODUCERS total</td>
<td>2,83%</td>
<td>0,23%</td>
<td>55,63%</td>
<td>4,87%</td>
<td>36,44%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DÉMÁSZ Nyrt.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2,77%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15,02%</td>
<td>82,21%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.ON DÉDÁSZ Zrt.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.ON ÉDÁSZ Zrt.</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.ON TITÁSZ Zrt.</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
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<tr>
<td>ELMŰ Rt.</td>
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<td>11,53%</td>
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<td>86,37%</td>
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<tr>
<td>ÉMÁSZ Rt.</td>
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<td>2,77%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>81,23%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUPPLIERS total</td>
<td>0,03%</td>
<td>3,71%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4,87%</td>
<td>91,39%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Economical environment

Transition from the vendors’ market to the customers’ market takes place, however, rather slowly as competition is implemented in a very small segment of the market, therefore vendors are still predominant within the sector. The average customers’ prices have been undergoing a significant increase in the post-socialist era. By correlation calculus performed, it was proved that in the forming of the electricity prices in the “Visegrád Countries”, there is a very close correlation in time, and it was also proved that the price of electricity mostly depends on the market influences of the European Union.

The publication supported by the HURO/0901/097/2.3.1. project.

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Statisztikai adatok (1994-2007) - Az MVM Rt. Közleményei
NEW RESULTS OF CROSS-BORDER CO-OPERATIONS
MEASUREMENT OF SOCIAL WELL-BEING AND COMPETITIVENESS AT REGIONAL LEVEL

Well-being research and regional economics

According to most experts economics is more than a collection of methods to examine characteristics and rules of economy; it is a science that aims to explain how economic activities contribute to the creation of prosperity. To prove that it is enough to mention that in 1776 Adam Smith made an inquiry into the wealth of nations. On the other hand the fact that countries or regions are more than just economies means one of the biggest challenges for economic science up to the present. As Paul Krugman wrote: “Economics is marked by a startling crudeness in the way it thinks about individuals and their motivations… Economists are notoriously uninterested in how people actually think or feel” (cited by Rutten, R. – Boekema, F. 2007). To better understand the real nature of economic development requires a multi-disciplinary approach which includes a more detailed view of the society and its members – the examination of societal well being is a step toward this goal.

The significance of the scientific investigation in connection with well-being can be justified from more than a few different aspects. In our point of view the most important of these aspects is the connection between well being and competitiveness. Competitiveness as a key concept of economics in the past decades encouraged the creation of several different aspects, methods of research and most of these approaches deal with the well being of citizens as a key factor. The standard notion of competitiveness is one of the most widespread and most acknowledged concepts in this field, by now it became a widely accepted theoretical definition which can be used by economic development policies by several international institutions and policy makers (about the different approaches of regional competitiveness see Lengyel I. (2007)). From our point of view an essential element of this concept is the way as it defines the ultimate aim of regional competitiveness and focuses on well-being as final goal to reach. As an example We can cite the European Commission’s definition on competitiveness: “the ability of companies, industries, regions, nations and supra-national regions to generate, while being exposed to international competition, relatively high income and employment levels” (EC, 1999, p. 75).

Various aspects of this connection between well-being and competitiveness were examined by researchers. According to the classical location theories natural resources, geographical closeness to the input and output markets and in connection with that the minimization of transportation costs determine the enterprises’ investment decisions, which form the basis of a regions economic performance (Lengyel I. – Rechnitzer J. 2004). As regards international economics, Adam Smith explained the specialization and development of regions with absolute advantages while David Ricardo’s explanation was the effect of comparative advantages. These advantages depend on the natural endowment of the regions.

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in the first place, knowledge and technology affected them in an indirect way only, as factors that improved the efficiency of work. The starting point of neoclassical growth theory is very similar from this point of view: it also emphasizes that not knowledge but the differences of the traditional factors of production are responsible for the different development levels of the regions.

The concept of knowledge based economy that became more and more accepted among researchers in the past two decades has a different starting point. In the framework of this notion human resources play a much more significant role than any time earlier. Clearly, if the “human factor” has a more important role, all other factors, which are connected to it become more important as well – like well-being or quality of life, these factors determine the state of human resources in many different ways. A special aspect of this new situation was examined by Robert J. Rogerson, who tried to find the connection between the economic success of cities and the quality of life of its citizens (Rogerson R. J. 1999). The author considered the ability to attract direct investment as an indicator of competitiveness and in his paper he focuses on the utilization of quality of life in place marketing. He found that there are clear links between the attraction of capital and quality of life and this indicator has already become a part of the promotional tools being employed by city agencies to make their location attractive. Traditionally place marketing is rather place-based than people-based but in his paper Rogerson tried to find alternative ways of conceiving of well-being of citizens.

Beside the above mentioned process, as a result of which the research of human resources play a more important role in economics, another new trend also contributed to the “popularity” of well-being research. This new trend is the growing significance of territorial disparities in regional sciences. The development of this field of research is quite similar to the development of well-being research. As a result of the efforts of a number of researchers worldwide the concept territorial cohesion has gained importance, little progress can be observed in terms of its measurement. We can still say that there is no recognized index or variables measuring territorial cohesion, unlike some other concepts in economics. As Farrugia and Gallina pointed out (Farrugia, N., Gallina A. 2008) the lack of an acknowledged measurement of territorial cohesion can lead to difficulties for everyone, who works in this field. Not having a measurement makes it difficult to deal with territorial cohesion in an analytical way it can also lead to difficulties when these policies should be implemented. Besides without having a system to measure and monitor territorial on a regular basis it will remain a rather ambiguous concept and the lack of a precise definition of the notion makes the situation of the researchers and decision makers even more difficult. In short, researchers have to rethink some of the traditional indicators used for spatial and regional policy, and had to find new indicators. Factors such as demography, accessibility, urban-rural relations or access to basic services are critical in understanding territorial disparities. At the same time quantifiable widely usable indicators had to be complemented. Further chapters of this paper will present a very similar process (focusing on the lack of proper indices) in the field of well-being research. But as a result of similar difficulties and similar aims, the indicators that measure social well-being can provide help for researchers, who intend to define the forms and sources of territorial disparities and vice versa.

Finally if we try to collect the reasons why well-being should be in focus of economic research we can refer to the work of Lars Osberg, who created the Index of Economic Well-
Being (IEWB). He emphasises that the measurement of well-being cannot be just a methodological issue, which is essential for a bunch of economists only, but it has some essential aspects for the society as a whole. He assumes that if people only cared about their personal well-being, and should make decisions about their own lives only, there would be no point to calculating any kind of societal well-being index. In fact we can presume rightfully that citizens are concerned with the community’s well-being as well and in this case we have the reason to deal with the well-being of the society, what is definitely not the same as the well-being of each individual in the society, although these two notions are not separable. Osberg’s motivation for his research is the idea that a better index of well-being may help not only politicians and decision makers, but also citizens to make strategic decisions regarding their future and the future of their nation, region, or settlement, to make better political and public policy evaluations, according to their own valuations of outcomes.

**Alternative ways of measuring well-being**

Despite of criticisms that were put into word in the past few years a lot of economists and policy makers still consider Gross Domestic Product to be a principal indicator of well-being. That is why we can observe that the growth of GDP is among the most important aims of policy in many countries. Nowadays the papers dealing with the issue of well-being, quality of life typically commence their analysis with emphasizing that GDP is no longer acceptable as main indicator of societal well being – while for several decades it was the practically the only indicator used by experts in this field. It is still the most widely used metric for surveying an economy’s performance. On the other hand GDP includes many items that do not contribute to the assessment of societal well-being: security expenditure, depreciation, income going to foreigners.

Figure 1 shows the structure of well-being starting with the concept of GDP as a core index, without some subtracted factors like income going to foreigners or consumption. This modified version of GDP used to be the starting point for measuring economic well-being, although even this version of GDP does not take into account other important elements for explaining well-being. GDP has a number of limitations that make it a problematic indicator according to several experts. From a merely economic point of view GDP, as shown in Figure 1 includes the replacement of depreciated capital, nevertheless depreciation does not improve. Another problem with GDP is that it measures income produced in a country but not how much income people in that country actually receive and how much goes to foreigners. From a broader point of view we can also criticise GDP counts monetary transactions only, while it misses many other activities that people value like housekeeping or child caring. The value of leisure time is not included either just like the values of natural environment like clean air and water. On the other hand GDP includes many items that do not actually improve societal wellbeing. Reconstruction efforts after a natural disaster are counted as a boost to GDP – even if it only contributes to the reconstruction of former condition. In general the measurement of government output is particularly challenging, because public services are often provided to direct users for free, or at a subsidised price, so it cannot be valued using market prices, that means that the assessment of public services output is based on the value of inputs.
That is why several experts began to challenge the dominance of this measure, pointing out its inadequacies. Probably the most spectacular stage of this process was the initiation of a special commission by President Sarkozy in 2008. The members of this commission, three respected professors were supposed to formulate a report on not only the problems of GDP but also the possible new methods of measuring well-being (Stiglitz J. E. et al. 2009). This act indicates that criticism on the traditional methods of measuring well-being is not just an issue of a few economists and other experts. The development of new, more appropriate methods became a goal of decision makers as well.

Figure 1: The elements of well-being
Source: Deutsche Bank Research

In the literature of economic and societal well being there are a number of composite indices, which differ in terms of the indicators and aggregation methods used. In case of Index of Sustainable Economic Welfare (ISEW) for example sustainable economic welfare implies the welfare a nation enjoys at a particular point in time given the impact of past and present activities. The Legatum Prosperity Index (LPI) consists of seventy-nine indicators, grouped into nine equally weighted domains, like economic fundamentals, democratic institutions, health, governance, social capital, etc (see http://www.prosperity.com). The Happy Planet Index (HPI) measures a country’s average “happy life years” per unit of ecological resources consumed. This index combines environmental impact with human well-being (see http://www.happyplanetindex.org). The Genuine Progress Indicator (GPI), which begins with standard personal consumption data and adjusts it to account for a number of
factors, including income distribution, unpaid work, the costs of crime and pollution, changes in leisure time.

Not surprisingly most researchers (most of them economists) focused on the core elements of the issue, the GDP and the economic well-being. We should however shortly refer to the other areas of well-being research, which are at least as important as the economic aspects. The alternative composite indices specified in the previous paragraph prove that in the past few years the non-economic elements of well-being are not ignored at all. The category “Living conditions” includes a number of different aspects, which could be assigned to two major categories: human resources (authors usually imply health and education in most of the cases) and environmental issues (in this case sustainability is the keyword).

Probably one of the most important questions in this field is the measurement of subjective well-being or happiness. It is a real challenge to researchers, partially because measurement of this element is clearly more complicated then any other part of well-being, where usual statistical methods do not work. Another problem is the so called "Easterlin paradox", which suggests that there is no link between a society's economic development and its average level of happiness and if it is true, it could undermine all efforts to scientifically measure subjective well-being. However Stevenson and Wolfers in their paper (Stevenson, B. – Wolfers, J. 2008) confirmed that there is a positive link between average levels of subjective well-being and GDP per capita across countries, and they found no evidence of a “satiation point” beyond which wealthier countries have no further increases in subjective well-being. Researchers involved in subjective well-being research agree that happiness (what is used as a synonym of subjective well-being in most of the cases) indicators add important information beyond that contained in the conventional economic and social indicators, and that they are therefore important in informing policy debates (Engelbrecht, H. 2007).

Probably the best-known alternative is the Human Development Index (HDI), which combines GDP per capita with two other indicators – literacy and average life expectancy. The United Nations publish the Human Development Report annually (www. http://hdr.undp.org), and this report includes among others a ranking of countries’ HDI indices. This index was originally elaborated to measure and compare human development level of developed and developing countries but nowadays it is widely used to compare not only countries, but also regions and micro-regions. In this short paper we cannot present the methodology of HDI in detail, but descriptions can be found in most of the cited papers (e.g. Smahó M. 2006, Husz I. 2002).

We chose Human Development Index as an example to present in this paper in detail not because we consider it as the best possible index of well-being but because it can be used to present the past and present of well-being research in Hungary. As we mentioned above it is probably the most acknowledged index in this field in the world and in Hungary as well. Studies that were published on the measurement of economic and social well-being in Hungary generally used HDI. Several authors have used HDI in to compare Hungarian human development index with international data and there are also papers, which try to use HDI to compare development level of different regions inside the country. The following summary is not meant to be comprehensive, we just highlight a few papers from the past years. We have to mention the name of József Nemes Nagy who used county data for his
analysis (Fóti K. 2000). Although their methodology was different from that of UNDP and international literature in a way that lowest and highest values are national minimums and maximums and not predefined international level values, the work of Obádovics and Kulcsár is an important milestone in the short history of Hungarian well-being research (Obádovics Cs. – Kulcsár L. 2003).

HDI is frequently criticized (together with other composite indices) because even if it uses logarithmic method, strong positive correlation can be observed between HDI and GDP per capita values in most of the cases. This problem is noticeable in Hungary as well, in the papers of Ildikó Husz (Husz I. 2002) and István Nagy (Nagy I. 2010); their findings shed light on the limitations of the usability of HDI. However other papers managed to “evade” this problem – they accepted the limitations of HDI but they did not try to interpret the values of the index as absolute measures, rather used HDI for comparison between the regions and micro regions inside Hungary and for international comparisons (Lipták K. 2009, Csíte A. – Németh N. 2007).

Conclusion

In this short paper we intended to highlight a few possible points where regional economics and well-being research can find common fields of interest. On the other hand we briefly presented a few methods of measuring economic and social well being but also emphasized that none of the numerous indices is accepted as an ultimate method of measuring well-being. Continuous efforts are made to establish a system, which meets the expectations of the scholars and the decision makers as well. We can highlight the “Global Project on Measuring the Progress of Societies” of the OECD as the most significant initiative. The Hungarian partnership in this project has already resulted in a collection of indices (A társadalmi haladás mutatószámrendszer) compiled by a group of Hungarian experts (see http://portal.ksh.hu/pls/ksh/docs/hun/thm/index.html). Since the early 2000s a few papers were published in Hungary on social well being, most of the Hungarian researchers focus on the examination of well being indices at regional and subregional levels.

In spite of the fact that both competitiveness and well being are among the most popular research topics there are only a few studies, which tried to find direct connections between theses two fields of research. If we consider the definition of competitiveness (that describes well being as the final goal of competitiveness) as a starting point, we should use this connection to establish a more appropriate composite index. I close this paper with one of the most acknowledged model of regional competitiveness, the so called Pyramid Model (Figure 2). This figure demonstrates the above mentioned connection and also indicates the factors, which are considered to be the footstones of competitiveness – and probably starting point of the measurement of well being at regional level.
The publication supported by the HURO/0901/097/2.3.1. project.

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THE SPATIAL ASPECTS OF THE RESOURCE-ALLOCATION OF THE REGIONAL OPERATIONAL PROGRAMMES

The relevance of the topic

Measuring the effectiveness of the regional policy is an even question and challenge for the experts of territorial planning. (*Growing Regions, Growing Europe 2007; Investing in Europe’s Future 2010*) Current study tried to give additional information about the spatial allocation and characteristics of the European development resources.

Significant developments were initiated and realized all over Hungary after the accession to the European Union in 2004. Though the current planning period 2007-2013 has not finished yet, the forthcoming following period requires concluding the experiences of the last few years and thinking about recommendations for the future.\(^{34}\)

The spatial effects of the regional operational programmes in the current study were investigated in the case of six Hungarian NUTS II regions (Central Transdanubia, North Great Plain, North Hungary, South Great Plain, South Transdanubia and West Transdanubia) that are convergence areas by the European regional policy. The seventh region of the Hungarian territorial nomenclature (Central Hungary with Budapest) is not involved in the category of supported European convergence regions this is the reason why it was not included in this actual investigation.

The debate and doubt about the successfulness of the utilization of the development resources had special emphasis concerning the absorption capacity of the Hungarian NUTS II regions. (*Kozma, G. 2006*) These regions represented significant intra-regional inequalities besides their low levels of development and these characteristics gave more motivation to investigate the issues of regional policy. (*Pénzes J. 2010*)

About the regional operational programmes

Operational Programme for Regional Development between 2004 and 2006

The European Commission contributed to the development of Hungary by co-financing the Operational Programme for Regional Development (OPRD) to the 2004-2006 period in the I. National Development Plan. This programme involved Community support for all of the Hungarian regions within the Objective 1 framework.

The OPRD had 4 priorities:
1. Developing the tourism potential of the regions (*Dávid, L. - Patkós, Cs. 2005*);
2. Developing regional infrastructure and the communal environment;

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\(^{34}\) The current study is a shorter version of a former paper accepted by the Regional Studies Association (see Molnár E et al. 2011).
3. Strengthening the regional dimension of human resource development;
4. Technical assistance.

Community assistance amounted to more than EUR 359 million, out of the total budget of approximately EUR 476 million. (REGIONAL DEV. OP. PR. 2003)

**Regional Operational Programmes between 2007 and 2013**

In the recent programming period (2007-13) Hungary has been allocated 25.3 billion EUR for the development policy, while the Hungarian contribution will be 4.4 billion EUR. The main objectives of the Hungarian National Strategic Reference Framework (NSRF) – what named “New Hungary Development Plan” (NHDP) – were to sustain long-term growth and to increase employment. (NEW HUNGARY DEVELOPMENT PLAN (NHDP) 2007)

The objectives of regional development were conceptualised in different operational programmes for each NUTS II region in the programming period 2007-2013. The Hungarian regions – except for Central Hungary, as it was mentioned earlier – were entitled to receive supports from the ‘Convergence’ priority. This area meant 92 percent of the whole area and 75 percent of the population.

In the followings, the investigation was based on these six regional operative programmes of Hungary, because these conceptualised declaresly only spatial objectives. It could be stated, that there are no significant differences and regional characteristics between the objective systems. This fact was not particular, as only those subjects and topics could be involved that were not part of any kind of other sectoral operative programmes. Six considerable subject seemed to be formed by the subjects of the regional operational programmes. The allocation of resources by these showed that tourism and urban development activities gained the largest support. (Dávid L. et al. 2009) The latter subject – urban and regional development – meant the development only the settlements with more than 5000 inhabitants, because the smaller settlements (90 percent of the Hungarian settlements, with one third of the population) were supported by the rural development programmes. (Bujdosó, Z. et al. 2007)

**Table 1: Common development subject fields in the Convergence regional operational programmes in Hungary. (Source: National Development Agency)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Development subject</th>
<th>million EUR*</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regional economic development</td>
<td>691.1</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism development</td>
<td>1101.5</td>
<td>21.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport infrastructure</td>
<td>773.8</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development of human infrastructure</td>
<td>943.9</td>
<td>18.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban and regional development</td>
<td>1092.6</td>
<td>21.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental protection</td>
<td>278.6</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical assistance</td>
<td>182.3</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5063.9</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Co-financing by the EU and Hungary, at current prices, 271 HUF/EUR currency
The basis to allocate the resources among the regions meant the number of population and the development level of the given region beside the relevance of the listed subjects (Table 1). In the light of this, the most backward and most populous North Great Plain region had the right to utilize the largest amount of support (Table 2).

Table 2: Allocated resources among the regions by the operational programmes in Hungary. (Source: National Development Agency)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Million EUR*</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>West Transdanubia OP</td>
<td>545.6</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Transdanubia OP</td>
<td>597.6</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Transdanubia OP</td>
<td>829.6</td>
<td>16.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Great Plain OP</td>
<td>880.8</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Hungary OP</td>
<td>1063.2</td>
<td>21.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Great Plain OP</td>
<td>1147.1</td>
<td>22.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Co-financing by the EU and Hungary, at current prices, 271 HUF/EUR currency

The expected effects following the fulfilment of the targeted objectives were common in the programmes (listed among the references) that could be summarized as follows:

- Economic closing up of areas lagged behind;
- Strengthening role of regional knowledge centres;
- Decreasing spatial employment inequalities;
- Decreasing spatial educational and health inequalities;
- Framing transport capacities into the spatial demands;
- Encouraging of spatial restructuring.

Regional and settlement-level disparities of the utilization of application resources

More equal spatial distribution of resources appeared during the NHDP period between 2007 and 2010 among the regions than during the OPRD between 2004 and 2006. The different positions of regions were reflected by the LAU II microregional data of the allocation of resources as well. The microregions of Central and West Transdanubia received the lowest per capita supports and the highest values appeared in the microregions of North Hungary and Southern Transdanubia (the latter one in the NHDP) in the frame of the regional operational programmes of both periods. The disparities of the per capita values of the accepted supports on the level of microregions were enormously greater than that of in the case of the regions. The largest difference between the intra-regional minimum and maximum value could be observed in the three Transdanubian regions.

The largest disparities between the distribution of the population number and the amount of accepted supports (calculated by the Hoover index – see. Nemes Nagy J. 2005) appeared in the Central and West Transdanubia region that received relatively less support in both programming period. The most equal distribution could be observed in the North Great Plain region during the OPRD and in the North Hungary region during the current programming...
period. (Table 7) There was no significant correlation between the territorial distribution of the accepted supports and the development level of the microregions.

### Table 3: The values of accepted supports per capita and the intra-microregional disparities in the convergence regions. (Source: calculated by the authors from the database of ROPTER)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Support per capita (OPRD), EUR</th>
<th>Support per capita (NHDP), EUR</th>
<th>Minimum value of support in the percentage of the maximum (NSRF), %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>South Great Plain</td>
<td>50.80</td>
<td>364.04</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Transdanubia</td>
<td>65.74</td>
<td>503.06</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Great Plain</td>
<td>62.60</td>
<td>337.72</td>
<td>11.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Hungary</td>
<td>73.58</td>
<td>438.41</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Transdanubia</td>
<td>28.52</td>
<td>296.35</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Transdanubia</td>
<td>27.56</td>
<td>298.12</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 4: The values of Hoover index calculated by the population number and the accepted supports (in percentage), and the values of correlation coefficient calculated by the allocated resources and the development level of microregions in the convergence regions. (Source: calculated by the authors from the database of ROPTER)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Hoover (OPRD)</th>
<th>Hoover (NHDP)</th>
<th>Correlation (OPRD)</th>
<th>Correlation (NHDP)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>South Great Plain</td>
<td>31.6751</td>
<td>17.7073</td>
<td>0.174</td>
<td>-0.260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Transdanubia</td>
<td>32.8044</td>
<td>17.0283</td>
<td>-0.336</td>
<td>-0.207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Great Plain</td>
<td>29.6702</td>
<td>16.8960</td>
<td>-0.031</td>
<td>-0.187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Hungary</td>
<td>35.8772</td>
<td>12.9991</td>
<td>-0.136</td>
<td>-0.517</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Transdanubia</td>
<td>45.3173</td>
<td>21.2944</td>
<td>0.109</td>
<td>0.344</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Transdanubia</td>
<td>40.9118</td>
<td>18.9767</td>
<td>-0.210</td>
<td>-0.062</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Differences of the regional and microregional development mixes

As only one regional operational programme was created to the whole country for the period of the OPRD so regional disparities could not be observed. Though operational programmes were made by regional level in the frame of the NHDP Regional OP’s, the same priorities became basis for the regional development mixes (as a result of the centrally determined framework). There were differences concerning the weight of the priorities in the allocation of resources. The participation of the priority axes could be summarized as follows:

- economic development between 11 and 18 percent;
- development of human infrastructure between 15 and 23 percent;
- environmental development between 9 and 13 percent;
- improving transport conditions between 10 and 22 percent;
- urban and regional development between 13 and 24 percent;
- tourism development between 19 and 24 percent.
The development mixes calculated by the accepted supports had more differences in comparison with the prior plan about allocation. These differences were caused by the timing of supports and the regional disparities in the resource absorption capacities.

Figure 1: “Development mix” of microregions calculated by the development priorities based on the OPRD(2004-2006) (Source: by the authors from the database of ROPTER)

Figure 2: “Development mix” of microregions calculated by the development priorities based on the NHDP Regional OP’s (2007-2010) (Source: by the authors from the database of ROPTER)
There are significant differences between the development mixes of the microregions in the six NUTS II regions under the extent of cohesion objective concerning the two periods. The numbers of priorities that formed the frame for the allocation in the microregions are different.

The Regional Operational Programme (OPRD) included only four development axes. Almost one third of the microregions received accepted supports by only one priority and 30 percent of the microregions obtained supports by two priorities between 2004 and 2006. Ten microregions were in connection with 4 priorities. 15 percent of the microregions missed completely from the allocation of resources at the same time.

The regional operational programmes of the NHDP covered every microregion – in contradistinction to the OPRD. More complex development mixes started to achieve in each microregions as a reason of the increase in the number of development axes. Approximately 80 percent of the microregions were involved in 5-6 priorities. Not more than five microregions could be found in which developments were initiated by only 1-2 priorities.

The complexity of the regional operational programmes of the NHDP reflected in the difficult identification of the primarily dominant development priority in the microregions (Figure 1). Dominant priority could be found in more than 90 percent of the microregions during the former period between 2004 and 2006. Almost 25 percent of the microregions could be defined with the dominance of the development of human infrastructure and more than 20 percent of the microregions were characterized with the high ratio of tourism developments compare to the average percentage of the allocated resources in the convergence regions.

The dominance of one priority could be observed in 55 percent of the microregions regarding the regional operational programmes of the NHDP (mostly the development of human infrastructure and the tourism development had above average participation) (Figure 2). Development mixes with two or more priorities became more frequent in the microregions. The combinations of the development axes were characteristic in the case of almost one third of the microregions. More dominant development axes appeared in more than 10 percent of the microregions (the distribution of the five development resources were almost equal in the case of two microregions). Dominant priority axes with significant above average participation could not be defined in the case of approximately 25 percent of the microregions.

Certain correlations were traced between the development mixes of the microregions and their population number or development level. Generally the microregions with high number of population had support from various development priorities both in the case of the OPRD and the Regional OP’s of NHDP. However the development level showed larger correlation with the differences between the dominant development axes. The development of the human infrastructure was more frequent among the underdeveloped areas, while economic and tourism developments were initiated mostly in the case of the developed microregions during both of the periods. These structural differences were in connection with the disparities concerning the characteristics or the capacity of resource absorption of the microregions. Applicants with creative ideas and own resource were typical the case of the latter one and investments spread by solidarity purposes targeted to improve the quality of public services
(mostly the construction or renewal of the physical infrastructure) were dominant in the case of the former one.

**Conclusions**

In the current study, the effects of regional operational programmes for the period 2004-2006 and 2007-2013 (exactly until December 2010) were investigated on the NUTS II Convergence regions in Hungary.

The document analysis pointed out that not only the uniform regional operational programme during the first period could not take the differences between the regions into consideration, but the spatial and sectoral objectives of the regional operational programmes in the NSRF did not differ from each other.

The spatial objectives contained elements in conflicts with each other and the unambiguous definitions for the spatial categories were missing in lots of cases.

The preference of the underdeveloped regions could be traced by the per capita values on the regional level, but the microregional analyses did not represent significant correlation between development and the utilization of resources within the regions.

There were smaller and larger differences occurred on the microregional level regarding the proportion of given subjects in the development mixes. The complexity of the development mixes showed correlation with the population number of some microregions. Economic and tourism developments were overrepresented among the developed microregions, however the dominant role of the development of human infrastructure appeared with larger prevalence in the case of the backward areas.

The results tend to represent the priority of consideration of the utilization regarding the accepted resources against the more determined validation of the spatial and sectoral aspects.

The publication supported by the HURO/0901/097/2.3.1. project.

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Katalin Csománé Tóth35

**PROJECT MANAGEMENT IN REALIZATION TO TENDERS**

I write my thesis on project management and tenders. I present briefly the definitions of a project and project management, methodologies and the role of project management in realization to tenders.

In my opinion an efficient project management is one of the most important factors for a successful project. Therefore I present the process of tenders.

**What is a project?**

There are different definitions of a project. Let’s see some.

„A carefully-prepared plan, especially one for a new product or for a new business activity” *(Longman Dictionary of Business English, 1996)*

„A project is a temporary endeavor undertaken to create a unique product, service or result.” *(PMBOK Guide, 1996)*

In all definitions we can see the unique goal or product and the defined period.

„Temporary means that every project has a definite beginning and definite end. Unique means that the product or service is different in some distinguishing way from all similar products or services.” *(PMBOK Guide, 1996)*

The tender project is a unique, complex challenge, having a defined beginning and end, having a defined resources or expenditures for a defined goal. A tender project has more constraints than any other projects. The supporters (EU, Hungary) have requirements for the applicants.

**What is project management?**

„A control or organization of people, a business, a department of a firm, a project or a process: financial, information, product, retail, staff management.” *(Oxford Dictionary of Business English, 1995)*

Management in all business and organizational activities is the act of getting people together to accomplish desired goals and objectives using available resources efficiently and effectively.
Management comprises planning, organizing, staffing, leading or directing, and controlling an organization (a group of one or more people or entities) or effort for the purpose of accomplishing a goal.

The temporary nature of projects stands in contrast to business as usual (or operations), which are repetitive, permanent or semi-permanent functional work to produce products or services. In practice, the management of these two systems is often found to be quite different, and as such requires the development of distinct technical skills and the adoption of separate management.

“The skills involved in managing a project. Project management is now a recognized area of management theory and places special importance on teamworking, since projects tend to involve situations where reporting arrangements are not clearly defined and procedures need to be established.” (Longman Dictionary of Business English, 1996)

Project management is the discipline of planning, organizing, securing and managing resources to bring about the successful completion of specific project goals and objectives. The primary challenge of project management is to achieve all of the project goals and objectives while honoring the preconceived project constraints. Typical constraints are scope, time, and budget. The secondary – and more ambitious – challenge is to optimize the allocation and integration of inputs necessary to meet pre-defined objectives.

Project management has been practiced since early civilization. Until 1900 civil engineering projects were generally managed by creative architects and engineers themselves. It was in the 1950s that organizations started to systematically apply project management tools and techniques to complex engineering projects.

Traditionally, project management includes a number of elements: four to five process groups, and a control system. Regardless of the methodology or terminology used, the same basic project management processes will be used.

Major process groups generally include:

- Initiation
- Planning or development
- Production or execution
- Monitoring and controlling
- Closing

Tender project management usually follows major phases or stages (with various titles for these), including feasibility, definition, project planning, implementation, evaluation and support/maintenance.

There are a lot of things to realize a successful project. One of them is to use a project management methodology.
Project Management Methodology

There are several Project Management standards, such as:

Universal
   A Guide to the Project Management Body of Knowledge
   PRINCE2, PRojects IN Controlled Environments.

Specific
   Project Cycle Management, the methodology of the European Commission

Technologic methodology
   They are not important for me now.

PMBOK

In 1969, the Project Management Institute (PMI) was formed in the USA. PMI publishes A Guide to the Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBOK Guide), which describes project management practices that are common to "most projects, most of the time." PMI also offers multiple certifications.

A Guide to the Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBOK Guide) was first published by the Project Management Institute (PMI) as a white paper in 1987 in an attempt to document and standardize generally accepted project management information and practices. The first edition was published in 1996 followed by the second edition in 2000.


The PMBOK Guide is process-based, meaning it describes work as being accomplished by processes.

   Processes are described in terms of:
   • Inputs (documents, plans, designs, etc.)
   • Tools and Techniques (mechanisms applied to inputs)
   • Outputs (documents, products, etc.)

The Guide recognizes 42 processes that fall into five basic process groups and nine knowledge areas that are typical of almost all projects.

PRINCE2

PRINCE2

PRINCE2 is a structured approach to project management, released in 1996 as a generic project management method. It combined the original PROMPT methodology (which evolved into the PRINCE methodology) with IBM's MITP (managing the implementation of the total project) methodology. PRINCE2 provides a method for managing projects within a
clearly defined framework. PRINCE2 describes procedures to coordinate people and activities in a project, how to design and supervise the project, and what to do if the project has to be adjusted if it does not develop as planned. PRINCE2 is a *de facto* standard developed and used extensively by the UK government and is widely recognised and used in the private sector, both in the UK and internationally. It embodies established and proven best practice in project management.

**PROJECT CYCLE MANAGEMENT**

Project Cycle Management is a term used to describe the management activities and decision-making procedures used during the life-cycle of a project (including key tasks, roles and responsibilities, key documents and decision options). In 1992, the European Commission adopted the “Project Cycle Management” (PCM), a set of project design and management tools based on the *Logical Framework* method of analysis, which was already widely used by many donors, including several Member States and encouraged by the Development Assistance Committee of the OECD. The manual was subsequently updated in 2001, shortly after the publication of the EC’s most recent Development Policy document (April 2000). A decision was made in early 2003 to update the PCM manual again, now referred to as the “2004 PCM Guidelines.”

The 2004 PCM Guidelines have been prepared to support ongoing improvements in the quality of EC development assistance. Quality is defined primarily in terms of the relevance, feasibility and effectiveness of the programmes and projects supported with EC funds, including how well they are managed.

More specifically, these Guidelines aim to support good management practices and effective decision-making throughout the project management cycle – from programming, through to identification, formulation, implementation and evaluation. The Guidelines aim to promote consistency and clarity of approach, while allowing for the operational flexibility required of a dynamic and diverse external assistance programme.

The project cycle has six stages, each stage links with the preceding one and leads forward to the next one. PCM integrates the stages of the cycle so that issues are examined systematically. This system makes the project concept and context in which it operates clear and visible and therefore enables better monitoring and evaluation.

The stages of the project cycle provide a structure that ensures that:

- problem analysis is thorough
- stakeholders are clearly identified and monitored
- quality assurance is built in
- objectives are relevant to problems and clearly stated
- outputs and objectives are logical and measurable
- beneficiaries’ strengths and weaknesses have been identified
- assumptions are taken into account
- monitoring concentrates on verifiable targets and outputs
- evaluations identify 'lessons learnt' and integrates them into the cycle for similar succeeding projects
• sustainability is defined, not essentially by 'organisational continuity', but primarily by the continuous 'flow of benefits'

![Project Cycle Management Stages](http://mdi.com.pk/training/programs.php?programid=75)

Normally this methodology is used for tender projects.
Regardless of the methodology employed, careful consideration must be given to the overall project objectives, timeline, and cost, as well as the roles and responsibilities of all participants and stakeholders.

**Project Management Software**

One of the tools which is supported by project managers is a Project Management Software. There are many software tools that make project management much more effective and efficient, such as
MS Project
Knowledge Tree
GanttProject
DotProject
OpenProj
TriProject
The assistance by IT tools extends to fix the basic project idea, make the task list, make the project budget, control the fulfilment, support the team-working, risk-analysing.

When we use a software, we have to mind some factors, such as:
- You have to use the suitable software,
- Don’t use too difficult IT tools
- Applied software must be user friendly.

Internal vs. External Project Management

The organisation should decide whether to apply an internal or an external project management team.

Internal project management
The team consists of regular staff or a special expert, as an employee.

External project management
The organisation hires a special firm to manage the project. It is a service for the organisation.

The calls for proposal formulate some requirements for the members of the projects management team.

The team consists of a project manager, a financial manager, a professional leader and a project assistant.

Each staff member must have the necessary experience and qualification for the implementation of the activities of the project.

The calls for proposal usually order internal project management, and they sometimes allow external project management.

I will examine this area in the near future.

Realization of tender projects

There are several phases to realize a project financed by EU tender.

1. Preparation of the project
The project management team makes the application and the team’s responsibility is to administer the ready tender.

2. Winning the tender
We have to prepare and sign the subsidy contract and coordinate the fulfillment, make the Project Progress Reports, and ensure the outdoor monitoring.

3. Achievement of the goals

In this phase there is a project closure, sustaining the result of the project. The sustainable period is usually 5 years after the project closure.

The project management team’s scope of duties and responsibility includes the management of the previous tasks.

Project management can be successful if the goals of the project are realized by deadline, in the frame of available resources and in good quality. The project management can be evaluated after the project closure.

What is a successful project management like?

Project management should use methodology, project management access, and IT tools in a correct way.

I will examine the role of project management in tender projects in my next research.

The publication supported by the HURO/0901/097/2.3.1. project.

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THE SITUATION OF RURAL HUNGARY – RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN HUNGARY

Introduction

It was proved in recent years that in order to improve conditions in Hungary and to reduce problems intensifying after the regime change greater attention has to be paid to the development of rural areas and to sort out the problems of people living there. It has to be cleared whether the tensions of agriculture or that of people living in rural areas should be reduced or solution can be reached by treating both. Increasing concern is presented by the lack of jobs in rural areas and the intellectual, physical and mental deterioration of unemployed people. Countryside means not only agriculture, however, rural development cannot be imagined without sustainable and modern agriculture. Agriculture could be the production base of the rise of the countryside, however, it cannot have exclusive role. Complex development is required with sub-region development programmes realized by the improvement of education, infrastructure and by the organization of innovation and production. These programmes have to respect industry, agriculture, services and science realistically (Kerek Z., Marselek S. 2009). Preservation of natural resources, their sustainable utilization, development of agriculture and the countryside are increasingly important, closely connected strategic tasks in the 21st century. Provision of good quality and safe food, landscape maintenance, preservation of drinking water reserves, soils, flora and fauna and the good state of the environment together with setting up the requirements of rural life and local public services are found among the most important government targets all over Europe (Ángyán J. 2010).

Occurrence of rural development in Europe

The term of rural development occurred in greater frequency in both the literature and the media from the 1970s. Its occurrence is the result of several factors (Illés I. 2008):

- **Fundamental change of agriculture and the countryside in the developed world.**
  The period between the 1950s and the 1970s was the time of a structural change faster than ever before in the developed world, especially in Western Europe. Number of people employed in agriculture was reduced drastically, masses of people moved from agriculture and from villages. Threat of depopulation of rural areas emerged. Remaining agriculture could only be sustained with the help of increasing national and European support and it would have been completely non-competitive in the world market.
Orientation and method change of regional policy. A fundamental change occurred in the regionally policy paradigm in the 1970s. Local initiations instead of central measures, small and medium companies instead of mega investments, development of services and infrastructure instead of industry were focused. Small rural areas fit into the new paradigm. Rural development was born when small, local initiations and collaborations received greater weight in regional development as a whole. The term rural development was associated from the beginning with the idea of local collaboration and extraction of local possibilities and resources.

Better understanding of environmental and ecological issues and the increase of their political and public role. Agriculture is the activity and the countryside is the place that have the most immediate connection to Nature. Rural development in this way gives greater role to sustainable development, ecological and landscape preservation aspects.

We can state that rural development is the interdisciplinary field between regional policy and agricultural policy, however, due to the major transformation of the countryside it mainly belongs to regional policy and regional development today.

Definition of rural areas

Target areas of rural development are clearly rural areas. It is emphasized in the publications of the European Union that the definition of rural areas is difficult, it is almost impossible to determine the appropriate factors for its identification. The EU considered the united definition of rural areas at EU level impossible as European rural areas are so diverse that they cannot be defined contenting everyone (Kovács T. 2003). There are several accepted definitions nowadays (European Union, European Charta of Rural Areas, OECD, EUROSTAT, etc.). One of the most widely used is the definition of the OECD:

The population density criterion is used for statistical units, villages, i.e. settlements are classified into rural and urban categories according to the 150 people/km\(^2\) dividing line. Then regions are considered based on the ratio of the population of settlements classified as rural or urban.

- *predominantly rural area* where ratio of people living in rural areas is higher than 50%
- *significantly rural area* where ratio of people living in rural settlements is 15-50%.
- *predominantly urbanised area* where ratio of people living in rural settlements is lower than 15%.

Comprehensive definition of rural areas has not been created in Hungary either. No exact terms or index numbers applicable for any case are used. Rural areas are characterised, on the

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37 OECD: Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
one hand, by special functions that are associated fundamentally to agriculture and to the natural environment, however, unique characters given by particular areas are used in increasingly widening scale although in their organizational systems the smaller, more transparent economies are accepted. On the other hand, special type of space and environment usage can be recognised in rural areas the traces of which include looser settlement structure, less concentrated building distribution in space. The village, the area of traditional peasant society and agricultural production transforms gradually and it is replaced by a new settlement form different in appearance and more diverse in functions. Close-to-natural lifestyle and mentality, thus interdependence, community relations, co-operation networks are worth mentioning. Finally culture, unique characters depicting the scale of values that may appear in the language, in architectural specifics, in the settlement structure, in the specialities of consumption and nourishment or in the spatial concentration of various social groups and layers (Rechnitzer J. 2010).

**Rural development**

Rural development is the realization of political views and ideas. Development objects can be reached with elaborated concepts, programmes and associated resources, institutions and management. Rural development involves deliberate measures the targets of which are the following (Rechnitzer J. 2010):

- increasing the competitiveness of rural areas in order to maximise their contribution to economic development;
- establishing possibilities for those living in rural areas to live at the life standard of the national average;
- protection and development of the natural environment;
- keeping rural population and reducing their migration;
- increasing the income of producers;
- extending the scale of employment possibilities balancing the decrease of agricultural employment;
- protecting and improving the quality of rural life.
Problems and possibilities of rural Hungary

Considering the twenty years of political, social and economic regime change it seems clear that significantly greater changes occurred in the society and economy of rural areas than in the case of greater towns. The process of rural change started rapidly following the regime change, however, this process was not part of the development of the areas. Both the negative and positive processes were triggered by the social and economic regime change inducing fundamental social changes within a short period of time. In this challenge some settlements, regions and sub-regions failed while others were successful in these variable twenty years thanks to a well chosen strategy (Szörényiné 2010).

Major factors resulting in the loss of the self-adapting capability of Hungarian rural areas transformed after the regime change are the following according to Sándor Lukács Gergely (2010):

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• Collapse of agriculture
• Termination of complementary activities in agricultural factories
  (400 thousand people employed in rural agriculture lost their job)
• Due to the far-east goods dumping appearing in the industry of the country without any
  transition and to the complete lack of domestic market protection the small scale
  industrial production and the homecraft co-operative sector went almost completely in
  bankrupt.
• Domestic textile industry almost completely vanished
• Lack of protection of domestic small and medium companies
• Privatization processes demolished domestic large companies
• There is no new rural industrial policy
• 1.5 million jobs were closed in Hungary
  (this hit rural areas in two third ratio)
• Low employment average
• Efficiency of the closing up programmes so far is low

According to Irén Szörényi-Kukorelli (2010) the factors of successful rural areas are
capability for economic structural change and the local economic space capable of making
decisions. The latter is only characteristic for areas that have own economy. In small towns
and villages the operation of locally owned small companies is important because the basis of
development based on local decisions is the local economy. Further element of success is the
balanced social structure, i.e. thriving middle-class. Only such local society can provide the
establishment of income generating capability of the settlement that induces consumption and
demand for services. Openness mentioned before as a very important success factor in the
case of rural areas means not only the establishment of outer connections of the economy but
the establishment of off the interrelationship of the entire community and the population
groups as well. Rural tourism requires openness towards visitors, extension of
interrelationship at both individual and social levels. One of the most important aims of the
LEADER is building relationship network. And finally, the increase of income and
employment that is only a vision in Hungarian economy and in its units today. It is a fact,
however, that in settlements where employment rate is higher and where the employment
capability of the local economy is good economy szereplők and local government decision
makers can find common interests agree in the direction of development easier.

According to Ferenc Glatz (2010) fundamental factors of the success of Hungarian rural
areas are good geographical conditions – primarily traffic and location close to labour and
market – together with natural and local resources. of course human ingenuity, creativity,
diligence and collaboration. Thus the success of local rural development can be found in the
presence of active men and in the recognition and utilization of local conditions.
Programs helping rural industry

The National Regional Development Concept accepted in 1998 does not define but mentions the “areas of agricultural rural development”, however, no concrete recommendations are given regarding their development. Rural policy was put to government level in 1998 when the Agricultural and Rural Development Ministry was formed. The leadership background (independent department) together with the institutional base (regional rural development delegatory network, REVI) and the financial base (Rural Development Fund) were created in order to realize political aims. The process was intensified by that the establishment of the SAPARD programme preparing the joining of Hungary to the European Union was started. In 2001 the National Development Plan was started to be created in which the Agricultural and Rural Development Operative Programme and the LEADER Experimental Rural Development Programme were launched. Rural policy received a significant momentum, inducing at the same time significant professional debates as the balance and especially interdependence of regional and rural policies were not favouring rural policy (Rechnitzer J. 2010).

The SAPARD programme in the European Union was started in 2000. One of its targets was to help the establishment of the institution network that would be capable of receiving rural development sources following our joining the European Union and to support financially concrete rural development measures.

The Agricultural and Rural Development Operative Programme (ARDOP) defines three development directions, priorities: founding competitive basic material production in agriculture, development of processing and selling agricultural products and development of rural areas. SAPARD targets, development directions are carried on by the ARDOP.

The National Rural Development Plan includes rural development measures financed by the Guarantee part of the European Agricultural Orientation and Guarantee Fund. Appoints the objectives enabling the sustainable development of rural areas and the measures helping their realization.

The aims of the LEADER programme include sustainable and innovative utilization of inner resources via realizing integrated local rural development strategies, improvement of rural life quality based on local solutions, inspiring sustainable and competitive new local procedures considering agriculture, forestry, food industry, strengthening of the rural economic potential, sustainable utilization of cultural and natural values and the development of human services and local communities (Lukács 2008).

The New Hungary Rural Development Programme include the strategic aims of the Hungarian rural development Programme for 2007-2013 and the frameworks for their realization. The strategy is intended to provide the required development possibilities for developing agriculture, preserving rural environmental values, preserving the economy of rural areas and for the cohesion of the rural community. Consequently it determines the directions and aims of agricultural and rural development, defines the method, measures and financial resources of realizing them (Kerek Z.-Marselek S. 2009).

39 SAPARD: Special Action Programme for Pre-Accession Aid for Agriculture and Rural Development
Hungarian spatial policy and spatial statistics also use the spatial statistical classification system of the European Union separating five levels, the so-called NUTS\textsuperscript{40} levels. It is widely accepted that the level of rural development in Hungary has to be the sub-region (NUTS IV) (Kovács T. 2003).

\textbf{Future aims of rural policy}

In 2005 the European Union recognizing the importance of rural policy – and in order to collaboration between members of rural areas (civil people, politicians, professionals) – established the European Rural Network prescribing for its member states to form its national organizations until 31\textsuperscript{st} December 2008. This created a new measure of rural policy and the possibility of a new type of policy in Europe and in Hungary.

The \textit{Hungarian National Rural Network} was formed on 2\textsuperscript{nd} December 2008. It has a double task. To carry out a national rural policy and to harmonize local rural development actions to bring organizations and individuals active in rural development together. As a member of the national rural policy it expresses its views regarding national rural political issues, pays attention to European rural policy and following the interests of Hungarian rural areas as well it prepares recommendations for decision makers regarding rural development programmes. It co-operates with the political elite: existing government, parliamentary opposition, national civil organizations and scientific institutions (Glatz F. 2010).

The future aim of Hungarian rural policy should be the realization of an integrated rural development programme that provides chance of improvement for a wide range of social groups via the joint development of natural resource-management and the agricultural and non-agricultural rural companies. In the meantime the programme has to provide possibilities

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{characteristic_fields_rural_development_programmes.png}
\caption{Characteristic fields of rural development programmes \textit{Source: Kulcsár (1999)}}
\end{figure}

\textsuperscript{40} NUTS: Nomenclature des Unités Territorials Statistiques
to sustain our natural values, landscapes and a liveable environment, to generally improve the factors determining the life quality of those living in small settlements and to re-establish the respect and attraction of rural life. The most important elements of this comprehensive target system that are directed by the development efforts of agricultural, environmental and rural policy are the following (Ángyán J. 2010):

1. protection and extension of rural jobs;
2. keeping population, re-settling the demographic balance;
3. increasing the competitiveness of our agricultural and food industry;
4. guaranteeing food safety and supply, reducing defencelessness;
5. protection of water bases, soils, flora and fauna and landscapes; increasing environmental safety;
6. energy supply, energy security based on local resources and systems; reducing defencelessness;
7. improving rural life quality, placing rural economy on several bases;
8. re-establishing the close relationship between the town and its rural surroundings.

The publication supported by the HURO/0901/097/2.3.1. project.

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ANALYSING GEOGRAPHER TRAINING IN THE FACULTY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY, UNIVERSITY OF DEBRECEN

(DISCUSSING THE RESULTS OF A QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY IN THE TOPIC WITH SPECIAL REGARD TO THE EMPLOYMENT GRADUATED STUDENTS)

Introduction

Higher education institutions can investigate the value of the degree given by them by the help of regular or occasional questionnaire surveys. The present paper following a brief theoretical introduction discusses the results of former surveys in the University of Debrecen and then the results of my own questionnaire survey is presented with special regard to information related to employment of former students.

Importance and methods of student opinion systems

Carrier tracking enables educational institutions to survey the employment possibilities of their students, what they miss from their training – or what they think to be unnecessary – what is regarded to be beneficial – and what is disadvantageous – in the trainings. These questionnaire surveys (occasionally supplemented by deep interviews) provide useful information for universities and colleges (and for decision makers on higher level) on the quality of the training and its usefulness on the labour market.

Results of such surveys enable institutions to adjust training and degree requirements, to make modifications in accordance to the actual demand of the labour market.

Apart from these, today the majority of the higher education institutions operate a so-called “student opinion system” in order to gain information on the opinion of the present students regarding their own training. However, this is operated only formally with an “ad hoc” character in many cases only to meet the requirements of certain regulations (quality assurance, e.g. in the University of Debrecen: “students’ opinion on trainers’ work regulation”) or prescriptions (e.g. introduction requirements of quality assurance systems). These provide only minimum results frequently due to low activity of students. Students have no interest in filling in the forms, they believe that their opinion “counts for nothing”.

Obtaining information on the opinion of current students is possible by “traditional” printed questionnaire and by on-line forms via the electronic registrar system (Neptun, ETR).

Human resources development is a fashionable area therefore numerous educational – training books/papers have been published. However, the majority of the publications discuss the significance of human resources development in general. There have been only a few scientific publications regarding the role of given subjects (or scientific fields). I would like

41 University of Debrecen – Department of Social Geography and Regional Development Planning
to contribute to these publications with analysing the role of geographer training – with special focus on training professionals for regional development.

**Role of human resources in regional development**

In the second half of the 20th century significant change in world economics happened. Period of “fordism” was substituted by “postfordism”. Emphasis was shifted from mass production to flexible production systems. Governments intervened in economic processes less-and-less frequently they rather attempted to create adequate regulation network. Some economic fields regarded to be of strategic importance such as iron and steel smelting, machinery, etc. became depreciated gradually. Simultaneously those fields that were based on human resources instead of financial resources like certain fields of services and some parts of processing industry (computer production, etc.) became more-and-more significant (Cséfalvay Z., 1999, Teperics K., 2003).

Considering the above it can be stated that the development of a region today is determined by the qualification and professionalism of the workers and not by the raw-materials available or by the number of labour. This means that adequate number and qualification of labour ensures the regional competitiveness of an area (Polónyi I. –Tímár J. 2001).

Thus primary task of regional development is to provide optimal conditions to human resources development. This means development or construction of public and higher education infrastructure together with creating adequate institutional and regulation background.

**Brief outline of changes in Hungarian higher education in the last centuries**

Regarding the most important changes in higher education in Hungary the followings worth mentioning:

- significant increase in the number of students in higher education (KSH, Riba I. 2008)
- integration processes of higher education institutions (Act LII of 1999)
- Bologna process – that can be characterised primarily by the credit system and the two cycle (BSc., MSc.) training (Barakonyi K. 2004.)
Figure 1: Higher education institutions in rural Hungary. (2011. 01. 01.)
Geographer training in Hungary in general

A new chapter was started in geography training in Hungary in the 1990s when geographer training beside geographer teacher training started in four major universities (Eötvös Lóránd University – Budapest, Janus Pannonius University – Pécs, József Attila University – Szeged, Kossuth Lajos University – Debrecen; then not much later this training was started in Miskolc as well).

With the introduction of the BSc-MSc system geographer training has two BSc trainings, geography BSc and earth sciences BSc (Nemes Nagy J., 2006, OFIK).

Brief outline of surveys regarding geographer training in the University of Debrecen

Two smaller researches were carried out in the University of Debrecen prior to my surveys (2008, 2009) in order to gain information on the carrier of geographer students:
2001, Geography Teaching-Education Subcommittee of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences (György Szabó)
2007, Department of Landscape Protection and Environmental Geography, Faculty of Science and Technology, University of Debrecen, (Réka Kata Bodnár).

Considering the two surveys, the first can be regarded as successful. Questionnaire form containing 6 points was sent to the students completing their studies in the given year and to those who received their degree within 2 years before. Forms were filled in by almost 57% of the students that can be regarded as very good.

In the contrary, the 2007 survey was completely resultless as only one person filled in the form.

Results of own questionnaire survey

A questionnaire survey was performed in order to obtain information on students’ opinion in the summer of 2008.

Three main question groups were to be answered by final year students:
- employment information,
- opinion on parent institute,
- connection to the university

I have asked 553 former and current students to fill in the questionnaire. 51.9% (287 people) of the students were women and 57.1% (266 people) were man. Considering their subject every specialization associated to the Institute of Earth Sciences were represented.

319 people filled in the questionnaire giving a very high rate (57.7%). 148 former students (136 of which received the degree) and 171 current students returned the forms filled in.

Evaluation of questionnaire – brief description of answers given to the questions

87.5% of the students with a degree are working. This rate is slightly lower that the data of the 2001 survey when 91% of the students with a degree said that they have a job.

Shortest time for finding a job was required for those geography teacher students who upgraded their college degree and for the normal geography teacher students. Longest time for entering office was required for landscape protector geographers.

Considering the question “economic role of the job of active workers” answers had to be chosen from given model responses. Answers given (regarding the four major subjects) are presented in Figure 3.
There were four potential responses to the question „How your current (last) job suits your degree?”. Answers given are presented in Figure 4.

Considering dissection by subject it can be stated that geography teacher students and regional and urban development geographer – geography teacher joint students found employment suiting perfectly their qualification (40% and 44% respectively). Similar results are given by the responses for the question “Your job suits your degree?” in the 2001 survey.

One of the last questions of the questionnaire was to express any (“positive” or “negative”) statement or opinion regarding training in the Institute of Earth Sciences. Students gave answers in high numbers stating recommendations and expressing “positive” and “negative” opinions.
Brief summary of the notes is the following (only the most important issues):

**Recommendations:**
- Focusing on practical training, increasing the rate of practical classes
- Alteration, intensification of training in foreign languages
- More GIS classes
- Changing, modernizing lectures
- More separate subject structure for geographers and geography teachers
- Much higher rate of economic classes in the training (this was mentioned immediately following the graduation of the first students: Dávid L. 1999)

"**Positive**” opinions regarding the training:
- Many sided – complex – training that can give the basis for completing other trainings and to be successful in different jobs.
- Geographical journeys – field trips make the student community more „familiar” and stronger than in the case of other trainings.
- Spatial view, regionality

"**Negative**” opinions regarding the training:
- More practical training would be required in the cases of regional and urban developer geographer and landscape protector geographer training.
- More teaching practice would be demanded by those completing geography teacher training.
- Graduated students think the ratio of informatic and European Union classes to be low.
- In the case of teacher students should be more prepared for the possibility of applying geographical knowledge outside the teacher carrier.

**Summary**

The present paper following a brief theoretical introduction the results of former surveys in the field are reviewed, then my own questionnaire survey is discussed. Based on my surveys the Institute of Earth Sciences, University of Debrecen obtained new information on the carrier of graduated geography students, however, further research is required.

The publication supported by the HURO/0901/097/2.3.1. project.
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Cséfalvay Z. (1999): Helyünk a nap alatt… (Magyarország és Budapest a globalizáció korában.) Our place under the Sun… (Hungary and Budapest in the age of globalization) – Kairosz Press/Growth Research Institute, Budapest, 227 p.


Act LII of 1999 on restructuring the higher education institute network and on modifying Act LXXX of 1993 on higher education

Central Statistics Office (Közponi Statisztikai Hivatal) – www.ksh.hu


National Higher Education Information Centre (Országos Felsőoktatási Információs Központ) – www.felvi.hu

Survey data of the Geography Education-Training Subcommittee of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences, 2001

Survey data of the Department of Landscape Protection and Environmental Geography, Faculty of Science and Technology, University of Debrecen, 2007
LOCATION OF THE GYPSIES IN THE NORTHERN GREAT
PLAIN AND NORTH HUNGARY REGIONS
(Mátészalka and Bodrogköz micro-regions as examples)

Introduction, the objective of the research

In this Study two really affected regions are reviewed as an example for the most recent problem of Hungarian society. Selection of these two regions was based on the results of my previous research, literature and census data and statement CIKOBI. Furthermore in more settlements of these regions the reassortment of the ethnic rates is expected. How do the affected communities try to handle this situation? Finding the answers I summerize the experiences of interviews with leaders in Mátészalka area.

Data were collected from more sources (MCKÖ, Gypsy Minority Self-Governments, Local Governments). As in Hungary the accurate number of gypsy population has not known because of several modes of survey and the bias of Hungarian society. The latter has got a great impact for the number of gypsy.

The socio-economic situation of the East-Hungarian mostly the North-East Hungarian area is regarded as peripheral. In this territory there are disadvantaged inner (Bodrogköz, Taktakőz, Közép-Tiszavidék, Bihar, Sárrét, Szatmár, Bereg, Cserehát etc.) and - partially withdrawn from the foregoing - outer (border) peripheries. (Territorial conflicts and their changes in periphery 2002)

Considering the rate of gypsy Bodrogköz is at the fourth place in the country. It causes that the natural rate of demography compared to the national is low. The positive migratory rate shows that those had already migrated from this area who could do that. Mostly the deprived, primarily gypsy may come here. (NEMES- NAGY J. 2005)

In the small area of Mátészalka “the Gypsy population is much higher than in the official statistics. In some settlements the proportion of Gypsy population may reach 30% . Moreover there are settlements where the half of population is Gypsy. (Documents of LHH Plan in Mátészalka micro-region 2009)

Data of Gypsies at the end of the 20th century

Municipal data of the local Gypsy population in the two regions at the Millennium

Before presenting the results of my survey it is important to show the results of CIKOBI collection of data from 1992 and of census from 2001.

In Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén county according to census data 1990 and 2001 there is seen approximately 1-1.5 % rise. In the chief town of Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg county the rate of
Gypsy population has been doubled and in other parts of the county it has been increased by 2%. (KÁLLAI E. 2003)

Municipal leaders said about the change of the number of Gypsy population in the last ten years (1992-2002) in their settlements. Two-third of respondents observed increase and only 6% of them thought the number of gypsies had been decreased. One-fourth of them did not observe any changes. (TÁRKI 2003)

Table 1: Results of two surveys I.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Település</th>
<th>CIKOBI 92 (%)</th>
<th>KSH 2001 (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fábiánháza</td>
<td>32,9</td>
<td>3,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fülpösdaróc</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Géberjén</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Győrtelek</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hodász</td>
<td>38,3</td>
<td>15,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Járámi</td>
<td>6,7</td>
<td>0,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kántorjánosi</td>
<td>39,3</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kocsord</td>
<td>7,4</td>
<td>4,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mátészalka</td>
<td>4,3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mérk</td>
<td>10,9</td>
<td>5,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nagydobos</td>
<td>14,5</td>
<td>15,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nagyecsed</td>
<td>22,6</td>
<td>15,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nyírcsaholy</td>
<td>10,8</td>
<td>14,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nyírkáta</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nyírmeggyes</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nyírparasznya</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Öpályi</td>
<td>12,7</td>
<td>17,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ököritőfülpös</td>
<td>19,2</td>
<td>7,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ör</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Papos</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rápolt</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>24,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Szamoskér</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Szamosszeg</td>
<td>8,8</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tiborszállás</td>
<td>1,6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vaja</td>
<td>7,8</td>
<td>3,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vállaj</td>
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<td>0,4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Results of two surveys II.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Település</th>
<th>CIKOBI 92 (%)</th>
<th>KSH 2001 (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alsóberecki</td>
<td>7,4</td>
<td>3,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bodroghalom</td>
<td>2,1</td>
<td>4,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cigánd</td>
<td>16,5</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dámóc</td>
<td>3,5</td>
<td>13,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Felsőberecki</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karcsa</td>
<td>6,1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karos</td>
<td>3,6</td>
<td>3,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kíroszvágy</td>
<td>9,8</td>
<td>1,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lácacséke</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>24,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nagyozvágy</td>
<td>3,5</td>
<td>0,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pácín</td>
<td>10,5</td>
<td>5,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Révleányvár</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ricse</td>
<td>14,3</td>
<td>14,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semjén</td>
<td>13,3</td>
<td>21,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tiszaacermely</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tiszakarád</td>
<td>20,8</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zemplénagárd</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3,4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results of research 2010-2011

In this chapter those results are shown which were surveyed in 2010 and 2011 January. One of the research aims was to study the micro-regions in the Northern Great Plain and North Hungary regions. Those settlements were emphasized which consider and deal with difficulties of Gypsies.

For estimating the accurate sample of Gypsy population proportion the data of the regional associations and notarial districts were used.

Proportion of Gypsy population in the micro-regions of North-East Hungary

Considered spatial perspective twenty micro-regions of fifty-six in the area belong to the most disadvantaged regions. This data perfectly verifies the problematic situation of the two regions. Especially as only thirteen micro-regions belong to that category from the other territories of the country. In these area there has still been increasing problem such as poverty, unemployment, lack of opportunities, enterprises and quality public services. These processes are particularly affected for the Gypsy population.

Figure 1: The most disadvantaged micro-regions in the two area (2010)
Source: National Development Agency

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44 Collecting of data of Northern Great Plain region in 2010 and of North Hungary region in 2011
Contrasting the 1st and 2nd maps there is seen that the micro-regions with the most gypsies of my research are almost entirely the same as that of LHH micro-regions by National Development Agency.

Distribution of Gypsies in the two regions are not uniform. Primarily along the border peripherical areas there is high numerical data. Considered peripherical situation the most problematic territories are the border areas of North-East Hungary. One of their aspects is backwardness of the closed areas. (BARANYI B. 2004) The most disadvantaged areas with small villages have not been capable to be reformed.

Those micro-regions in which there are the fewest Gypsy population are situated near to the chief towns of the counties. Its reasons are considered to be the higher development index and the social-economic expectations. The low rate of Gypsies is explained also with the high proportion of the non-Gypsy inhabitants and the expectations of turism.

2.2 Distribution of Gypsy population in the settlements of the micro-regions

In every settlements of Bodrogkőz micro-regions there live Gypsies. Among these settlements there are in which the proportion of Gypsies has reached 50% or more.
Table 3: Gypsy population in Bodrogköz micro-region 2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Település</th>
<th>Nép 2010</th>
<th>Roma (fő)</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alsóberecki</td>
<td>830</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bodroghalom</td>
<td>1475</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cigánd</td>
<td>3282</td>
<td>1050</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dámóc</td>
<td>399</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Felsőberecki</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karcsa</td>
<td>1980</td>
<td>396</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karos</td>
<td>533</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kisrozvágy</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lácacséke</td>
<td>388</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nagyrozvágy</td>
<td>727</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pácin</td>
<td>1542</td>
<td>432</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Révleányvár</td>
<td>556</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ricse</td>
<td>1825</td>
<td>821</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semjén</td>
<td>521</td>
<td>219</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tiszacsermely</td>
<td>691</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tiszakarád</td>
<td>2605</td>
<td>1050</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zemplénagárd</td>
<td>846</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altogether:</td>
<td>18719</td>
<td>5325</td>
<td>28,4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Based on own collection of data (2011 January)

Such as Dámóc (53%) and Lácacséke (50%). The highest Gypsy population is in Cigánd, Tiszakarád, and Ricse.

Comparing to the former data (CIKOBI-estimation and census 2001) my results verify that Tiszacsermely is the only village of 17 settlements in Bodrogköz micro-region which has recently had lower data. In cases of the other settlements my results are much higher than the former data.

In Mátészalka micro-region – except Nyírmeggyes – there are Gypsies. In two settlements – Hodász (62%) and Kántorjánosi (60%) their proportion is more than 50% of the population. The most Gypsy populated settlements are Hodász, Mátészalka, Nagyecsed and Kántorjánosi.
Figure 3: Gypsy population in the settlements of Bodrogköz micro-region (2011)  
Source: Based on own collection of data (edit. János Pénzes)

The data of the two previous survey are well below the results of research 2010 behind. Considering the Gypsy population of the two micro-regions it is shown that their proportion in every region is more than 20%.

Figure 4: Gypsy population in Mátészalka micro-region 2010  
Source: Based on own collection of data (edit. János Pénzes)
Table 4: Gypsy population in Mátészalka micro-region 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Település</th>
<th>Nép 2010</th>
<th>Roma (fő)</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fábiánháza</td>
<td>1733</td>
<td>520</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fülpösdaróc</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Géberjén</td>
<td>546</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>4,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Győrtelek</td>
<td>1630</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>36,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hodász</td>
<td>3399</td>
<td>2107</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jármi</td>
<td>1267</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>19,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kántorjánosi</td>
<td>2213</td>
<td>1328</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kocsord</td>
<td>2883</td>
<td>580</td>
<td>20,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mátészalka</td>
<td>17216</td>
<td>1900</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mérk</td>
<td>2118</td>
<td>847</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nagydobos</td>
<td>2194</td>
<td>550</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nagyecsed</td>
<td>6306</td>
<td>1900</td>
<td>30,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nyírcsaholy</td>
<td>2172</td>
<td>750</td>
<td>34,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nyírkáta</td>
<td>1816</td>
<td>650</td>
<td>35,7</td>
</tr>
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<td>Nyírmeggyes</td>
<td>2559</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nyírparasznya</td>
<td>970</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>27,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ópályi</td>
<td>2873</td>
<td>1020</td>
<td>35,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ököritőfülpös</td>
<td>1800</td>
<td>640</td>
<td>35,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Őr</td>
<td>1447</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Papos</td>
<td>837</td>
<td>90</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rápolt</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>40</td>
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<tr>
<td>Szamoskér</td>
<td>426</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>5,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Szamosszeg</td>
<td>1883</td>
<td>460</td>
<td>24,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tiborszállás</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vaja</td>
<td>3626</td>
<td>550</td>
<td>15,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vállaj</td>
<td>867</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Összesen</td>
<td>64259</td>
<td>15383</td>
<td>23,9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Based on own collection of data (2010)

The proportion of Gypsies of the two micro-regions is 24.95% of the total population, so it is about one-fourth of people who live there.

There marks out from the data that in 5 settlements of the two regions the proportion of the Gypsy population is between 40-50%. Considering the aspects of Gypsy demography it is stated that these villages will belong to those in which their population is above 50%.

In the two micro-regions there has shown the national trend. It means there are and may be territorial differencies in the number of Gypsy population.
Experiences of the empirical collecting of data

In summer 2010 I researched in the mostly Gypsy populated settlements of the Northern Great Plain region. During the interviews with the municipal leaders I gained a number of interesting information and experience.

Investigated settlements in Mátészalka micro-region

The previous survey showed that which settlements of the micro-region are adequate for empirical research too because of the Gypsy proportion. Based on it there were chosen Hodász (62%), Kántorjánosi (60%), Mérk (40%) and Rápolt (40%).

In the interviews with the Mayors there were four topics: demography position of settlements and the past, present and future of Gypsies who live there.

About the demography position of the settlements the mayors said that the reasons of more difficulties are migration, aging and increasing of the number of Gypsies population. One of these difficulties in Rápolt there was appeared in 1970s when there was no building permit because of the flood threat. In those years many young people moved from the village. In and around the other three settlements after the regime there were not workplaces. Therefore the non-gypsy young inhabitents moved to other places. Aging of settlements is also a significant problem. For instance in the kraut populated Mérk there had been 110 pupils in the first class in 1961 but that number was decreased for 19 pupils in 2010.

The second point of the interviews was about the past of Gypsies. In every settlement in the first part of the 19th century there were only a few gypsy families. Their surnames were Jónás and Bódi in Mérk, Rézműves and Farkas in Kántorjánosi, Lakatos and Rézműves in Hodász, Ötvös and Varga in Rápolt. After the world war II the Gypsies had traditional jobs, for instance making mud bricks, woodworking (except in Kántorjánosi), making spoon (in Rápolt) and a few families dealt with music. Then in the years of socialism the gypsies worked in Budapest, Nyíregyháza and Mátészalka. According to the mayors the change of the regime had positive effect for gypsies. They started business, took advantages of VAT refund and had undeclared work.

Recently the Gypsy population in these settlements is not solid but there are often conflicts between gypsies. One of its reason is that more gypsy families moved to them from the neighbouring villages. For instance, to Mérk from Nyírcsahoj and Nyírkáta, to Kántorjánosi from Ófehértó, Hodász, Vaja and Rohod, to Hodász from Hajdúhadház and Nyírvasvári, to Rápolt from the area around Fehérgyarmat.

For now one of the most important question is the situation of the schools and kindergarten. The proportion of gypsy children is above the gypsy population of the settlement.

The other main question was their employments. The leaders try to involve gypsies into the public work programs. For instance in Mérk the 80% of 160 gypsies take part in these works. But the mayors’s opinions are that the most gypsies do not have work discipline.
Table 5: Proportion of Gypsy children in school, kindergarten 2010/2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Settlement</th>
<th>Gypsy rate %</th>
<th>In school %</th>
<th>In kindergarten %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mérk</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kántorjánosi</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hodász</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rápolt(^{45})</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Data from Mayors

The fourth topic of the interviews was about the future of the Gypsies and the settlements. The local leaders consider that in the gypsy question other lines should be appointed. According to their opinions the relieves must be connected to conditions. The other problem is the EU supports which are not effective enough. Their opinions were the same about that the local leadership can see the difficulties more clearly and the local gypsies should find solutions in the most effective ways.

Summary – future plans

The two researched micro-regions belong to the most disadvantaged area. In these regions the proportion of Gypsy population is above the county and national average. It can be the source of many difficulties in the future. Thus there needs more research in this area. By all means from this survey there has come out that the treatment of Gypsy question determines the future of our country. It is important to find solutions for difficulties of living together and to decrease the social gaps between gypsy and non-gypsy inhabitants.

According to my experiences and interviews there is stated that those Hungarian settlements in which there is significant gypsy population stand to lose. Its reasons are the economic crisis of Hungary, unemployment and lack of adequate policing.

The publication supported by the HURO/0901/097/2.3.1. project.

\(^{45}\) From Rápolt the children go to educational institutions of Ókörítőfülpös. The data in the chart applies to children.
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BRIEF HISTORY OF REGIONALIZATION IN FRANCE

France is still the example of a centralized state for everyday people. Indeed, high rate of centralization has been a constant element of the French state and public administration for centuries. Regional efforts observable in the Middle Ages were always suppressed by the central power of France.

The Middle Ages /Ancien Régime

The French state has been strongly centralized since its formation. Many French researchers think that survival of France has been helped by the strong centralization of the power. France was formed following the partition of the Frank Empire in 843 around the centre of the royal estates of the Capeting House in Paris and its surroundings drawing in this way the silhouette of the later France. One of the main characteristic of royal administration was that it ceased nothing even if a new public administration system was created the old one remained untouched. This caused that until the Revolution several public administration systems in force simultaneously in France (Province./Rate province./Electoral province./different tax districts/Jurisdictional districts).

The Revolution /La Revolution

As early as 1787 a tax reform organised the county network that had the task to determine tax shares. One of the major achievements of the Revolution was the formation of the département, i.e. the county. Several unsuccessful attempts were performed in the 1770s and 1780s. Principle blocks in the way of reforms were the privileges of provinces that were swept away by the declaration of resigning the rights issued on 4th August 1789. In this way creation of the county network became possible. Constituent National Assembly established 83 départements (counties) in the country. Large historical provinces – maybe not accidentally – were cut into several parts and around 2-5 départements in average were formed in their area in accordance to the principle that any settlements of the county should be reached there and back by a day’s continuous ride. Boundaries of historical provinces were respected when counties were formed. The aim was to establish a modern administration. The act issued on 22nd December 1789 established 75-83 counties in the country and then the act issued on 26th February 1790 created 83 counties and the constitution issued in 1791 consecrated them and thus the public administration chaos so characteristic in France was swept away by the Constituent National Assembly.

They established system decentralized the power to some extent and the original aim creating the counties was to establish a real local self-administration according to the requirements of the age. According to the original plans, a council elected for 2 years would

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have led the counties. Representatives of the central power could have not sentence the counties but the Jacobins started and Napoleon completed the centralization of the counties. The act issued on 17th February 1800 stated that the central government names all the administrative organizations of the county. (Federalist revolution in 1793 was not against the county system but the overgrowth of the power of Paris.) This act served as the basis for the public administration system of France until the end of the III. republic. Region disappeared from France for 150 years and although numerous regionalist tendencies occurred, their ability to enforce interests against the centralist state was very limited.

Beginning of regionalization (XVIIIth century)

In this strongly centralized situation occurrence of regionalism was postponed until the time of World War I. Regionalism was induced by the demand for economic development in France therefore it advanced haltingly. Regionalism in modern sense occurred only in the middle of the 20th century in France. First steps towards regionalism were taken at the end of the 18th century. In 1871 the inter-county conference was institutionalized with the aim to give more effective solutions to problems occurring in several counties. This conference was voluntary as counties were not obligated to take part. However, the county system serving the central power became exploded gradually. In 1900 the Féderation Régional France (Regional Federation of France) was founded. Its founder and leader, Charles Brun recommended to create 20 regions with retaining the republic. These regions would have a certain extent of separateness (would have elected general assembly). He imagined the creation of regions with the elimination of the counties. Central power would have been represented by the prefect who would have supervised the decisions and measures of the regions as well. His ideas were not realized. Occurrence of regionalism was prolonged until the end of World War I.

First half of the 20th century (1900-1944)

In April 1919 the French government established a regional economic organization for fulfilling the tasks of military management. This alignment of 17 regional economic groups was based on the union of trade chambers of the counties forming the county. These regions are named Clémentel regions after their creator (Minister Etienne Clémentel). Their main task was to develop industry, trade and the economic life, they were not legal entities, they had no separate organization and they had no adequate financial support to meet the requirements of their tasks thus they cannot be regarded as real regions. In 1922 based on the 17 Clémentel regions, 19 economic regions were created that were legal entities and their responsibility in industry and trade was extended (associations of counties founded in 1926 were substituted by inter-county institutions in 1930 and this system was operated parallel to regions). In 1938 twenty economic regions were established with uniting the trade chambers forming the regions into a public institution (act issued on 14th June). Their task was to enforce regional interests by public power. During World War II the majority of regionalists backed the Petain system against insubordinates therefore after 1945 regionalism as a
political trend turned out to be “unpopular”. Unsuccessful regionalization attempt of the Vichy republic wished to form twenty regions based on the old French provinces (act issued on 19th April 1941). Despite its lack of success the act established the institute of region prefect. Economic, police and public functions were covered for several counties by the region prefects who were chosen from the county prefects (12 in the obsessed and 6 in the “free” areas). Police and economic intendants helped the work of region prefects. Undoubted benefit of the Petain system was that certain regions – even if for only a short time period – broke away from the influence of Paris. Certain level of separateness developed that was not lost following liberation either.

Second half of the 20th century (1944-1982)

Successor of the region prefect system was the system of republic commissioners established by the decree of 10th January – 6th June 1944. Task of republic commissioners was to coordinate and control the work of region prefects. In 1947 an act was prepared on handing the rights of prefects over to elected representatives but it was not submitted when as a result of a strike series throughout the country the institute of emergency administrative major inspectorate (21st March 1948 → I.G.A.M.E) the task of which was to keep order. From 1964 this task was covered by the region prefects. In the 1950s changes happened in economic development that had major influence on French regionalism and on creating the later French regions. The idea was raised to perform regional development in the framework of economic planning – control. As a result it was necessary to create regional economic control districts and their regional institutions. In 1955 counties were squeezed into 22 program regions in accordance with regional development policy (decree of 30th June 1955 → 21 regions + Paris). In the case of regional institutions, inter-county conferences (meeting of the prefects of the counties that formed the region) were established (decree of 7th January 1959) but there was no harmony in this regional dissection of the country. In 1958 the new constitution acknowledges the region, however, only as means of economic development (4th September 1958). In 1960 program regions of 1955 were substituted by 21 regional operational (action) districts, i.e. regional sub-districts (21 regions + Paris). Between 1955 and 1960 regions were formed mainly as a result of pressure from the EEC. These were organised on economic basis and every other aspects important in regionalization were subordinate. To the recommendation of Charles deGaulle the DATAR was established in 1963 in order to eliminate economic differences and to harmonize regional development. This was an organization between ministries and it was lead directly by the Prime Minister. Then decree No. 64/251 was issued entitled “on the structure of state administration in the regional district” (14th March 1964). This public administration reform established 22 regional public administration districts. The region was lead by the prefect, he was the only one with decision rights and he was the representative of the state. The prefect enforces economic policy of the state and has control and governing rights as well. Prefect of the central county of the region was also the prefect of the region itself. This reform forms no new regional authority with legal entity rights. This is in reality an administration deconcentration and not decentralization. Three new agencies were formed: The region prefect who is the representative of the state power and has decision and control rights; the regional
administration conference that is the assistant organization of the region prefect, its task was to help and co-ordinate the work of state public service in the region; and the regional economic and development committee that represent local interests in regional economic development (CODER). It has consultation rights and is entitled to submit recommendations for regional planning (decree No. 64/252). The region of Paris was reorganised in 1964 (decree of 10th July 1964). The new region was formed from 8 counties located in 3 areas along the Seine and Oise, the Seine and the Seine – Marne rivers: Paris Seine et Marne, Ivelines, Essonne, Hauts-de Seine, Seine-Saint Denis, Val-de-Marne, Val d’Oiro. Then from 1964 Paris have a special right as it becomes a county and a city together. (1932: Planning and development borders of the Paris region were 35km away from the city → 1941: Planning and development area of the Paris region were extended and transformed into county and district borders as well. → 1961: Paris capital region is established (decree of 2nd June 1961 that is transformed into the Île de France region (decree 6th May 1976) in 1976).

In 1969 president deGaulle submitted a reform plan that would have made the regions real administration units. The reform plan was rejected by a referendum (46.83%) and deGaulle resigned. Thus significant changes did not occur in the history of French regions until 1972. Except for the separation of Corsica from the region Provance Cote d’Azure. In 1972 at the time of president Georges Pompidou the region becomes a legal entity in the status of a public institution (act No. 1962/6. 5.). Its authority remained mainly economic and regional development (regional development and economic issues affecting the region). This measure can be regarded only as deconcentration as executive power remained in the hands of the prefect but he has to consider the consultation right of the newly formed Regional Council as well. Economic and social committee was also established that included the tasks of the regional economic development committee as well formed in 1964 (CODER). Regional administration conference became a consultation organization after 1972. The region was an economic-administration agency controlled by the state. Its tasks were preparing and executing economic plans. The region as a public institution has an own budget voted by the regional council.

Decentralization and regionalization – Deferre reforms

In the program of the socialist party winning the elections in 1981 reforming public administration had an important role. One aim was to start decentralization for which further three aims were set. Regions have to be transformed into territorial communities; elected executive boards have to be formed in the regions and in the states and state supervision has to be ceased. This reform package reformed all of the regional governments. Regions became fully territorial local government authorities as a result of decentralization but they operated as public institutions until the first regional election in 1986. Regions as a result of reforms became “adults”, i.e. had free self administration similarly to counties and settlements. Regional councils formed in 1972 were elected for 6 years by general and direct elections. Rights of county and regional general assemblies were extended in 1982, executive rights were handed to the presidents of these bodies therefore prefects had only control rights (act of 2nd March 1982). As a consequence of the Deferre reforms regions were transformed from public institutions into “regional governments”. In July 1982 role of regions in the field of
technological research development was decided and public administration classification of Paris, Marseille and Lyon was reorganised, i.e. districts were formed. Authority share among settlements-county-region was regulated by an act in 1983 (acts of 7th January 1983 and of 22nd July 1983). Regions’ responsibility: continuous professional training, skilled worker training, public education (lyceums), onshore fishing and the issue of marine cultures company. In 1984 the region receives rights regarding physical education and sport management (act of 16th July 1984). In 1985 reform of the election system planned long before was performed – changing the act of election was necessary due to the first regional election in 1986. Decrees regulated the issuing of mandates for members of the regional council. Regions have an authority block including all authorities regarding economic planning, economic activity and education.


In 2002, 20 years after the Deferre reforms the opinion was that French decentralization has to have a new direction. For this the basis was prepared by several acts on regional planning and regional development in the 1990s involving inhabitants as much as possible. These were topped by the modifications of the constitution in 2002-2003. Constitutional review act plan of 2002 wished to create a specific state model in order to intensify decentralization that declares decentralized organizations while it differs from both regionalized and federal states with that a decision making centre remains although decentralization is declared. This declaration has two important elements: subsidiarity and regional co-operation of equal parties. It was ensured that no public administration unit controls another one. The plan was accepted on 6th November 2002 and the constitution was modified in 2003. The first paragraph involved that the state was decentralized. Paragraph 72 was modified in several points (principle of subsidiarity was included into the constitution, situation of the representative of the state was solved, principle of not establishing authority without adequate financial measures was included in paragraph 72/2, no local government can regulate another one, however, co-operation is possible, i.e. this contained the right of trial and right of citizen petition was introduced as well). The part regarding overseas territories was also modified in chapter XII. Modifications were accepted on 17th March 2003. In that year further four constitutional acts were accepted and regions received new authorities regarding economic development and professional training. However, the issue of Corsica still waits for settlement.

Summary

Regionalization and parallel decentralization in France achieved significant success in the past 50 years as not only economy but political power was decentralized as well. However, central power still remains strong. Cities in the French hexagon function as counter balances against Paris regarding economy. Role of départements was reduced in the favour of regions both in public administration and in economy. The region has proved to be successful as a separate regional unit. Way of successful future for France is in a regionalized state therefore
continuing regionalization is necessary considering both economic-social-cultural and political aspects.

The publication supported by the HURO/0901/097/2.3.1. project.

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THE COMPARATIVE RESEARCH OF TOURISM IN HAJDÚSZOBOSZLÓ (HU) AND BĂILE FELIX (RO) RESORTS

Introduction

Based on the well-known rich thermal and mineral water deposits, treatment centers have developed throughout the time within the Euroregion Bihor – Hajdú-Bihar, in differently ranked resorts with permanent regime. The largest and best renowned resorts in this region are Băile Felix and Hajdúszoboszló, respectively.

Băile Felix are located in the north – west of Romania, in the county of Bihor, at about 9 kilometres from the municipality of Oradea, namely 20 kilometres from the border check point Borș-Ártánd. Geographically, the resort is located at the contact between the Miersig Plain and the Hills of Tâșadului.

The city of Hajdúszoboszló is located in the eastern side of Hungary, in the North Great Plain region, in the county of Hajdú-Bihar, more precisely in the region called Dél-Hajdúság. This region is located at a height of 88-110 metres. Hajdúszoboszló is located 203 km east from the capital, and 19 km south – west from the city of Debrecen. (fig. 1)

Methodology of work

This article presents a short analysis about the tourism traffic of the two biggest, internationally ranked spas from Euroregion Bihor – Hajdú-Bihar, namely Băile Felix and Hajdúszoboszló. In this article, I analyzed and compared the tourist circulation of the two internationally renowned resorts between 2000 – 2010, based on the data achieved from KSH (Hungarian Central Statistical Office), respectively from S.C. Turism Felix SA, S.C. Sind România S.A. and web site of Romanian tourism ministry.

I also briefly highlighted some aspects related to the tourist infrastructure. I performed a comparison between the accommodation capacity, the number of tourists, the number of days – tourist, the average duration of that holiday, the total revenues from the two resorts, in order to find the possible reasons for which the Hajdúszoboszló resort is visited by a considerable higher number of tourists than Băile Felix. Finally, I have tried to analyze the effect of financial crisis on the two mentioned resorts.
Some aspects regarding the tourism infrastructure

The accommodation

In Bâile Felix, the hotels represent the largest part of the accommodation centre. Out of the total number of accommodation places (legally registered) in Bâile Felix, namely around 6,680 places, over 83% belong to the 16 hotels. Two of them (Internaţional and President) are 4-stars hotels with a total capacity of 424 places, six of them are three – stars hotels with a total capacity of 670 places, and eight of them are two – stars hotels with a total number of 4,485 places (fig. 2) The boarding houses and villas play an increasingly significant role on the tourist market. In Bâile Felix, these types of accommodation units have established especially during the last two decades. The accommodation capacity of these types of units represents a total number of around 1300 places.

The total accommodation capacity in Hajdúszoboszló is over 7,000 places, out of which 4,140 places in hotels, 793 places in boarding houses and villas and 2,120 places in other accommodation units, like holiday houses, hostels, camping areas, etc. In addition to the three
and four–stars hotels, with an accommodation capacity of around 3000 places, there are also
1209 places in two - stars units (fig. 2).

![Figure 2: Number of accomodation places of the hotels from the point of view of the comfort category in Bâile Felix and Hajdúszoboszló spas (source: S.C. Turism Felix S.A., www.mdrt.ro, www.ksh.hu)](image)

![Figure 3: The structure of the accomodation places regarding to the type of the accomodation in Bâile Felix and Hajdúszoboszló spas (source: S.C. Turism Felix S.A., www.mdrt.ro, www.ksh.hu)](image)

As related to the number of accommodation units and their operational period, one can highlight the fact that from the total number of 68 accommodation units, in February, for instance, only 41 units are operational. Out of the 68 accommodation units, 31 are hotels, 22 boarding houses and villas and 14 other commercial and private accommodation categories.

As compared to Bâile Felix, one can notice the fact that in Hajdúszoboszló there are no high capacity hotels. Subsequently, the number of hotel units is larger in Hajdúszoboszló (31) than in Bâile Felix (16). In general, we can state that the number of accommodation places in the two resorts under study is almost equal. One of the differences is the fact that in Hajdúszoboszló there are more accommodation units and places in three and four – stars hotels than in Bâile Felix. In Bâile Felix, around 80% of the accommodation places are in two – stars hotels.

As related to the structure of the accommodation places according to the type of units, one can notice the fact that in Hajdúszoboszló there are more accommodation places in boarding houses, villas and other accommodation structures, other than hotels, and in Bâile Felix there are more accommodation places in hotels (fig 3.).

**Tourist circulation**

I analyzed the statistical data obtained from S.C. Turism Felix S.A, respectively from the Hungarian Central Statistical Office. Based on these data, I compared the two resorts from the point of view of the tourist number, the number of night accommodations (days – tourist), the average duration of the holiday, the occupational degree and the internal and international tourist circulation. I analyzed the achieved data for the period 2000 – 2010.

The number of tourists from the balneoclimateric resorts studied in this paper illustrates an adverse evolution, in the sense that while in Hajdúszoboszló the number of tourists
registered an almost continuous increase in the last decade, Băile Felix registered a slight reduction in the number of tourists.

In the time frame studied (2000 – 2010), the two resorts registered a global tourist circulation of 12,833,191 night accommodations (days – tourist), out of which 4,772,424 in Băile Felix and 8,060,767 in Hajdúszoboszló. These represent 8.3% from the national tourist circulation for Băile Felix and respectively 4.9% for Hajdúszoboszló resort. These numbers highlight the important weight that the two resorts have within the Romanian and Hungarian tourism. If we compare figures 4 and 5, we notice the fact that, for the night accommodations there no longer is a significant difference between the two resorts as compared to the number of tourists, despite the fact that for Băile Felix resort I considered only the data registered by Turism Felix S.A., which includes about 50% of the resort accommodation. If you/we multiply the number of overnight stays by 2, the results shows us that the two resorts are close to each other in this regard.

The explanation results from figure 6, which highlights the fact that the average duration of holiday in Băile Felix is considerably longer than in Hajdúszoboszló.

At the beginning of the period analyzed, the average duration of the holiday was almost equal, but while a slow, but continuous decrease was undergoing in Hajdúszoboszló, it had a slight tendency of time increase in Băile Felix. This is due to the fact that for the Hajdúszoboszló resort, most of the tourists (around 80-85%) are coming for leisure and spa (wellness) for 3-5 days, while in Băile Felix the balneary tourism (treatment) predominates (over 75%) for 10 days or even longer.

In the period analyzed, the occupational degree has an average value of 47.9% for Băile Felix and 50.2% for Hajdúszoboszló. If we compare the two resorts from the point of view of the occupational degree, we notice that the differences are relatively small, between 2000-2003 in the favour of Hajdúszoboszló resort, and between 2004 – 2008 in the favour of Băile Felix (Turism Felix S.A.). If we analyze the occupational degree of the accommodation units at a monthly level, we also notice a similarity or the same tendency between the two resorts. However, in the last two years Hajdúszoboszló beat Băile Felix from this point of view.
According to the circulation of tourists, two main circulation categories are registered: internal and international. Their ratio is an objective indicator of the value of the tourist fund and the material basis, their advertising outside the borders of the country and especially their introduction in the international tourist circuits.

For Băile Felix, the internal tourist circulation was and still is dominant, which, in the period studied, represents an average percentage of 89.6%, but if we report to the year 2009, it registered an increased up to 94.4%, because the number of foreign tourists has permanently decreased in the last decade, from 9,296 in 2000 to 2717 in 2009. Hajdúszoboszló registered a permanently increase, both of the internal and international tourists. From the point of view of the origin structure, in Hajdúszoboszló the internal tourists represent only 55.6%, and the rest of 44.36% is represented by foreign tourists, among which many from Romania. These figures represent an annual number of 100 – 150,000 internal tourists in the last years, respectively 50-60,000 foreign tourists, taking into account only the commercial accomodation.

This high number of internal and foreign tourists is due on one hand to the investments made between 1998–2004, when Hajdúszoboszló benefited from investments of around 7.5
billion forint (approximately 30 million euro) and on the other hand, to the construction of highways which shortened the access time to the resort, especially from the capital.

According to the data of KSH the number of foreign tourists registered at commercial accomodation decreased by nearly 25% in 2010 compared to 2007, the year, when the highest number of tourists was noticed in the past decade. From the interviews I made with hosts in Hajdúszoboszló in the first months of 2011 it was found out that the resort was „saved” by the Romanian, Slovak and Ukrainian tourists because their number increased significantly between 2007 and 2010. Meanwhile, the Western and Central European tourist number showed a significant decline.

Another point of interest, also supported by statistical data, is that as a consequence of the economical crisis the number of domestic (inland) tourists has increased. Compared to 2005 this growth in number was nearly 60% and 12.6% in compared to 2009. This is due to the fact that those who earlier preferred spending their holiday abroad, at a more expensive place, now have chosen a cheaper, inland holiday destination. The economical crisis has affected both resorts at a certain level, but in the case of Baile Felix the set-back was far bigger.

Overall, the number of tourists registered at commercial accomodation in Hajdúszoboszló, in 2010, increased by nearly 25%, compared to 2008. Meanwhile, in Baile Felix a significant decline could be established, as in the same period the number of tourists and tourism had a decrease of 29%.

I analyzed the period 2000–2010, and for a more accurate evaluation, I recalculated the value of total revenues from exploitation from RON and HUF respectively, in EURO, calculated according to the NBR’s annual average rate of exchange, respectively to the National Bank of Hungary. The result of these calculations can be viewed in figure 10. By analyzing the results of the total revenues from exploitation, we can notice the fact that during the entire period studied, Hajdúszoboszló registered higher collections than Băile Felix, however, the percentage differences are not so high as for the days – tourist (night accommodations).

![Figure 10: The evolution of incomings from exploitation in period 2000-2010 at Băile Felix and Hajdúszoboszló spas (source: Turism Felix Co, www.ksh.hu)](image)

49 amounts represents the incomings from exploitation of Turism Felix Co.
50 amounts represents the incomings from all commercial accomodation from Hajdúszoboszló
For example, at the level of 2008, the number of night accommodations in Hajdúszoboszló was 799,537, which is 84% higher than the number of night accommodations in Băile Felix (434,428). In the situation of total revenues from exploitation, Hajdúszoboszló exceeded by 3,088,811 euro the collections of Băile Felix, which represents only a 19% advance compared to Felix. Figure 10 also illustrates the fact that both in Băile Felix and Hajdúszoboszló, the incomings have permanently increased, excepting the year 2008, when Hajdúszoboszló registered a decrease of all the tourist indexes: the number of tourists, the days – tourist, the average duration of holiday and, subsequently, the collections. In Băile Felix in last two years the incomings is steadily decreased, which is almost certainly explained by the economic crisis.

Conclusions

Although the total accommodation capacity is almost equal in the two resorts, there are still some differences. In Băile Felix, there are hotels with high capacity, even over 1000 places, while in Hajdúszoboszló the largest hotel has an accommodation capacity of 400 places. Subsequently, the number of hotel units is higher in Hajdúszoboszló (31) than in Băile Felix (16). Another difference is represented by the fact that in Hajdúszoboszló there are more units and accommodation places in 3, respectively 4 stars hotels, than in Băile Felix. In Băile Felix, 80% of the accommodation places are in two – stars hotels.

As related to the access routes, we can notice a slight advantage of the Hajdúszoboszló resort, which is located on an international rail road main line, respectively at a distance of only 15 km from the M35 Highway.

A few years ago, there was a significant difference related to the quality of the infrastructure between the two resorts, in the favour of Hajdúszoboszló, but due to the relatively high investments made by SC Turism Felix SA (which owns 70% from the infrastructure of the resort), this difference was improved in the last years.

As related to the tourist circulation, the number of tourists, but also the days – tourist is significantly superior in Hajdúszoboszló, both for the internal and the international tourism. Taking into consideration the relatively high difference in the number of tourists, respectively the much lower difference related to the total revenues, I came to the conclusion that, in general, the prices in Băile Felix are significantly higher than in Hajdúszoboszló, especially if we consider the ratio quality/price of services. Secondly, the access conditions and the more modern infrastructure in Hajdúszoboszló made the difference in the period studied.

Overall, the number of tourists registered at commercial accomodation in Hajdúszoboszló, in 2010, increased by nearly 25 %, compared to 2008. Meanwhile, in Baile Felix a significant decline could be established, as in the same period the number of tourists and tourism had a decrease of 29 %.

The publication supported by the HURO/0901/097/2.3.1. project.
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SIGNIFICANCE OF SOCIAL FUNCTIONS IN CROSS-BORDER COOPERATION

While Hungarian relations were directed towards the eastern countries prior to the change of the regime, after 1990, as a result of the opening of western frontiers, and mainly through the accession of Hungary to the European Union, new regional and settlement development potentials, means and sources became accessible. The transition into market economy and the accompanying social and economic transformation started and strengthened processes affecting the system of settlements and regional development such as social and economic polarization, city competition or co-operation affecting various regional levels.

Economic, cultural, political and other types of co-operation are the governing elements of contemporary regional development. In the course of co-operations that are cross-border co-operations in many cases, complex development projects are started, which embrace, among others, the spheres of problems of infrastructure, the labour market and environmental protection.

The economic and political opening following the change of the regime made international co-operation over political and administrative borders possible in the interest of a common goal. The objective of cross-border co-operation is to solve local needs, in accordance with the principle of subsidiarity, at the lowest regional level, that is, locally, in respect of decision-making and execution. This way the players of the region may undertake a role in the process of decision-making on cross-border developments affecting them. The establishment of appropriate co-operation networks among players and the provision of background conditions necessary for the implementation of the individual cooperation projects (e.g. establishment of institutional systems and expert groups required for the adaptation of the individual development methods) are, however, background conditions of co-operation sustainable in the long run.

In many cases cross-border co-operation is realized between areas that developed organically from historical and cultural point of view. Such regions constitute one region politically, economically, culturally or from the respect of a certain point of development (e.g. Carpathian Euro Region, Bihar-Bihor Euro Region).

In Hungary, in addition to statistical-planning regions, regions like the Danube Region of the regions and countries belonging to the watershed area of the Danube play increasing roles in media. The Danube Region Strategy (DRS) embracing the development strategy and action plan of the Region co-ordinates the countries of the Region in a macro region. The sustainable development of the macro region and the protection of the natural and cultural heritage are the main objectives of the strategy. The co-operation of the communities (countries and regions) located along the Danube constitutes the main axle of the development strategy of the Region, but it is also destined to co-ordinate the strategies of the
cities and towns located along the river. This it generates co-operation at regional level and deepens the horizontal system of relations among cities at the same time.

At regional level, the individual branches of the Danube Office are responsible for the fulfilment of the operative tasks related to the matters of the Region, which are, among others, located in Ulm, Baja, Vidin, Novi Sad, and Belgrade. In Hungary, the centre of the Danube-Office network is in Budapest, in the representative office of Studio Metropolitana, which fulfils planning, organizational and preparatory tasks as an important information base of the region.

The significance of the Danube Region is demonstrated by the fact that a considerable number of civil and professional organizations wish to participate in the elaboration of the strategy. Social functions are emphasized among the basic objectives of DRS, as it is practical to involve local players both in the section of planning and the section of implementation in the interest of the wide support of the strategy.

It is, however, a question how effectively the development ideologies and methodologies elaborated in western spirit (e.g. Union) can be applied in a region the settlement network of which is characterized by central direction and centralization, where “common thinking” and intervention were not developed organically, but became accessible suddenly after the 1990s.

The characteristic features of Hungarian development methods are summarized in Table 1. It is apparent that the two methods are basically contradictory to one another: while the traditional method is essentially characterized by the direction of the public sector, as well as its closed nature and direction from above, horizontal relations are built up among the players of the alternative method, and developments are characterized by the integration of community initiations. In addition, it is, however, important to emphasize that although the main role of the public sector was taken over by the private sector (mainly at regional level) concerning regional development, such developments are currently realized in projects affecting an individual region, and “interventions” are narrowed to the periods of the projects.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Players</th>
<th>Traditional regional and settlement development</th>
<th>Alternative regional and settlement development</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>public sector</td>
<td>Public sector, private sector, civil sector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System of relations among players</td>
<td>vertical</td>
<td>horizontal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direction</td>
<td>central, “from above”</td>
<td>community-based, “developed from below”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development</td>
<td>sectoral</td>
<td>integrated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development principles</td>
<td>market interests, rentability, efficiency, profit-oriented nature</td>
<td>subsidiarity, partnership, cooperation, concentration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financing</td>
<td>state projects</td>
<td>private contractors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relations</td>
<td>closed nature</td>
<td>openness, knowledge network</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Comparison of the major characteristics of traditional and alternative types of development methods (Source: own construction)
Considering the development methodology of the Danube Region, over and above the regional and political principles of the EU (subsidiarity, decentralization, partnership, additionality, programming, principle of concentration), the characteristics of alternative development can be recognized. The Region can be basically included in the “bottom up” type of developments, as it considerably relies on social participation in decision-making affecting local interests. In addition, informal type of participation comes into the limelight, i.e. revealing real local problems.

Consequently, the role of social functions, that is, participation is a relevant examination standpoint in respect of cross-border co-operation.

Role of social participation

The role played by local communities was an integral part of the society-built environment and system of relations in the case of organically developing settlements and regions. As a result of the changes in social and economic processes in time, the above balance has broken (Chanan, 2003).

The question is whether the individual governments are interested in the increase of social participation in decision-making in the process giving reason for social dissatisfaction (e.g. the technical and physical environment is unable to keep step with the increasing number of population), but supporting economic development? The answer is yes in technical literature52, as in addition to the various forms of representation, the direct forms of participation are given an increasingly wider range in practice. On the whole, the increase of social participation can be acknowledged, in the background of which there is a so-called “democratic deficit” (Nizák-Pétergi, 2005, p. 1.). The reason therefore is, among others, that although the development policy of democratic states emphasizes the importance of social dialogue, the interest representation of local communities is only present formally in many cases in decision-making. Nevertheless, one of the determining sources of developments is the European Union in the present time. All tendering countries are interested in complying with the requirements necessary for the submission of bids for sources. Included herein is the increase of social role in decision-making in the case of various regional and settlement development sources.

The activation and motivation of communities is, however, primarily required for playing roles in the society. The question is at what regional level is it worth activating them, and which regions come to the forefront in addition to the up-to-date system of Union grants?

Consequently, the presentation of the significance of the role played by society necessitates a complex examination, which summarizes the forms and regional levels of functions and the experience of practical implementation.

52 Nizák P.-Péterfi F. (2005): A közösségi részvétel társadalmi és hatalmi beágyazottsága
Levels of social functions, participation and governance

Mainly as a result of the policy of grants of the European Union, concepts like participation and governance came to the limelight during the past few decades. It is not surprising at all, as participation, that is, social participation in common decision-making constitutes the precondition of Union sources for regional development. On the other hand, governance emphasises the role of partnership representing one of the main principles of the Union, and although it has a different form of appearance in the states of the Union, the common point is that it represents horizontal co-ordination among players (Frey, 2005). At the above two scenes, social communities are the main players of participation type development processes, the roles, motivation and potentials of which are different, and therefore they need to be presented in detail.

The member states of the Union provide innumerable examples for the government and governance local government types. In case the political force is only available for solving social-economic and regional problems, the government (traditionally hierarchic) type is typical, and if problem solution appears in local action, we can speak of governance (self-administration) with local players (McEwan, 2003). Despite their differences, the common point of the two concepts is that they compete with the three main challenges of the present time: global competition, sustainable development and the sphere of issues of the civil society.

The relationship between governance and participation are the pre-conditions of one another: the increase of the role of social participation is a condition of “effective” governance in decision-making affecting local matters, while the activation and motivation of local players can be achieved in the easiest way if players may “intervene in” the matters affecting them. (Nijenhuis, 2002). Making the players speak and integrating their opinions into the development processes affecting them as well creates balance between the players of political and economic power and local players. Thus balance may not be overturned between “decision makers” and players “suffering the effects of decisions”. (James, 1991).

Making local players speak may be formal and informal. Their relationship to each other is demonstrated by the “ladder” of Arnstein (Figure 1). Arnstein (In: Dargan, 2009) laid great emphasis on the changes in the role of society, whereby in the beginning local communities were only „objects and sufferers” of local regional and settlement development processes (formal function), and later, after having recognized the powers implied in social dialogue they became active players having influence on decisions (informal function). The latter points beyond the manipulation of communities, and players set as an aim the achievement of “good neighbourhood” with “face-to-face” actions (Williams, 2003). The subsequent steps of roles are demonstrated by the individual cells of the ladder.

Other materials of technical literature also dealt with the modelling of social participation. Based on Parry’s model (1992), which is slightly spanning towards political science, private individuals play role in common decision-making if it is worth striking for decisions important for them, and the individual ideology “the highest profit at the least cost” is enforced. Players on the other side of the coin are governed by the communist ideology, whereby the interests of communities to which they belong shall be protected instead of their
own interests in the course of participation. However, the question is what is exactly meant by the concepts of social community and social participation?

The concept of social community has several meanings in accordance with the various sources of technical literature and branches of science. Although the concept of community is in many cases identified with the concept of local population, the community still means a higher level network of relationships, where players are in direct interaction in the interest of a common goal, and through their participation they are able to have impact on the development policy valid in the given region. (Chanan, 2003).

Social participation calls common decision-making and the handling of public affairs into being, the form of which may, however, be different subject to the motivation and form of appearance of the given community. If a community creates a group or plays a role in decision-making in the interest of a topic representing personal interest, or a goal, this is called social participation. On the contrary, in the course of civil participation, the members of the group are governed by their activities as citizens (Nizák-Péterfi, 2005).

As partnership constitutes the basis of social participation, it is important to examine the characteristic features of players on the other side of the scales. If the other main player is the State, the policy of the State can be inclusion, which covers decision-making on participation basis, and the opposite thereof, which is exclusion.

![Figure 1: Arnstein ladder (Source: Dargan, 2009, p. 308)](image-url)
The groups of investors also appeared in the system of relations of partnerships of the regional development waves that took place in Western-Europe in the 1980s, but in this case financing problems and not the strengthening of real horizontal relations were in the background of relations (Földi, 2009). Consequently, this form of partnership focused on providing the sources necessary for developments, and therefore the absence of real community requirements can be shown mainly in the physical and technical refurbishment of cities and public squares which are many times without any function, and the implementation of interventions deepening social polarization.

The practice of European regional and settlement development provides several examples for the formal presence of social participation, and both the above-mentioned polarization and the renewals conduct “political window dressing” in several cases. But as, on the whole, the image of the city really changes into a positive direction as a consequence of such and similar interventions, and because its indirect effects on creating places of work and strengthening the (city) image have, in many cases, an advantageous effect on local communities, it is necessary to perform the complex (social and economic) examination of examples.

**Conclusion**

Alternative-type regional and settlement development methods seem to be more and more integrated into the pallet of former, traditional development methods. This is shown, on the one hand, by the initiatives built on the principles of subsidiarity and partnership enforced at various regional levels, and the changes in the delimitation of the areas of intervention. Thus, local problems, based on the “bottom up” type development model, are destined to solve local matters with the inclusion of local communities. This way the problems and potentials of the delimited action areas and the strengthening of the identity, motivation and activation of participants come to the limelight. The given development projects gain more social acceptance, and may result in implementation of bigger efficiency, embracing domestic and cross-border spheres of problems, through the implementation of co-operation based on real needs.

The publication supported by the HURO/0901/097/2.3.1. project.
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