EUROPEAN
MASTERS PROGRAMME
FOR RURAL ANIMATORS

CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE

ANIMATION FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT –

A NEW PROFESSION?

7-9 June 2012

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EUROPEAN MASTERS PROGRAMME FOR RURAL ANIMATORS

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International Conference

European Masters Programme for Rural Animators

CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

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INTRODUCTION

The aim of this conference is to promote discussion in the field of rural development, focusing especially on ways and means that rural development can be encouraged in disadvantaged or remote territories, in territories facing restructuring or in any other rural areas that lag behind in sustainable development. A key profession, that of the "rural animator" is introduced, as a focal player in the process of community encouragement and mediation towards the objective of sustainable development. The necessary qualifications for conducting such a profession in an efficient way are also considered for discussion and evaluation.

The qualification developed by the EMRA consortium, namely a Masters for Rural Animators is offering the opportunity to graduates with a background in economics, the social sciences, engineering, agronomy or related disciplines to develop their skills and competences so that they can operate as rural animators.

This qualification is interdisciplinary in nature and international in structure, as it is taught by 7 universities from an equal number of European countries. The structure and method of delivery of this Masters degree reflects the interdisciplinary nature of rural development and the need for a rural animator to adopt an international outlook and operate as a citizen of Europe (and the world) as well as member of a rural community.

The following general themes were addressed in the conference:

1. Rural development – why animation is necessary
    - The diversity of rural areas as a challenge for rural animation
    - Encouragement of what rural development? Issues of sustainability and involvement of the local populations
    - The interdisciplinary approach to rural development – how can rural animation contribute to this
    - The local and the global view of rural development – how can they be reconciled
    - Skills and competences necessary to promote sustainable development
    - Best practice in animating sustainable rural development
    - Challenges in the 21st century for sustainable rural development (environment, climate change, …)
2. The qualifications of a rural animator
    - Interdisciplinary education: challenges and achievements
    - Joint international degrees: a great opportunity to integrate the global approach in education
    - Skills and competences of a rural animator
    - It as an education medium and as a tool in the hands of a rural animator
3. The learning path to highly qualified rural animators
    - e-learning for rural animators in the context of LLL
    - innovative tools in the education of rural animators

Conference participants included: University teachers and researchers; students in rural development-related disciplines; policy makers in the fields of education and rural development; local/regional authorities; professionals working in the rural development field; EU-funded projects wishing to disseminate their results.

SESSION 1

RURAL DEVELOPMENT, RURAL ANIMATION & THE RECOGNITION OF A NEW PROFESSION

THE PROCESS OF ANIMATION OF RURAL AREAS AND ITS SIGNIFICANCE FOR THE EMRA STUDIES

Prof. Andrzej Kaleta
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Abstract

This lecture shall focus on the essence of the social process described in sociology as animation of rural local communities development. Contents and elements of the aforementioned process make up not only the content of one a core module (Role and tools of Rural Animator) but they also outline ideological framework of the whole undertaking called ***European Masters Programme For Rural Animators****.*

The term animation of rural local communities development is understood as activities stimulating their inhabitants towards self-development. Such activities, more or less organized and supported by the sociological theory, are not a total novelty in social practise. Mainly in the 1950s and 1960s a concept of the community development was introduced by the American rural sociology. The so-called rural revitalisation/revival movement at the turn of 1970s and 1980s, which was a social response to progressing undesirable economical, natural and cultural changes in rural areas of our continent, can be considered as a European variant of the community development.

Firstly, analysis of application experiences connected with the two mentioned conceptions, requires a clearly-cut definition of sociological basis of animation rural local development a development process through distinguishing: its process, methodology, program and implementation (social movement) aspects.

Both more practical experiences of American community development and European rural revitalisation movements prove that successful animation of rural development process encompasses several consecutive types of activation (called activation stages): situation diagnosis, stimulation, initiation, legitimization, public discussion and implementation.

As I have already mentioned, those earlier presented assumptions of the model of animation process of rural local community not only reflected in the teaching contents of the of the EMRA studies, but also determine the essence of the ***Model of Occupational Competences and Qualifications of Rural Animator*** *and is accepted as the basis for an* ***Occupational Ethos of Rural Animators****.*

Since the definition of the occupation, the role, tasks, skills and competences of the Rural Animator were precisely portrayed in our Thematic Guide, my paper focuses on the essence of the social process described in sociology as the *animation of local rural communities development.* The contents and components of this process are not only part of a core subject of our module, i.e. "The Role and tools of the Rural Animator" but they also outline the ideological framework of the entire undertaking called "European Masters Programme For Rural Animators".

The term *animation of rural local communities development* is understood as activities stimulating rural inhabitants towards self-development. Such activities, more or less organized and supported by sociological theory, are not a total novelty in social practise. Versatile cooperation between inhabitants of rural areas, towns or city housing estates aiming at the so-called mutual good has existed for a long time. Its most prominent Polish example could be observed in Liskowo, a place famous before the 2nd World War for animation activities conducted by Father Wacław Bliziński who mobilized local communities to self-organize themselves through various forms of rural cooperative movement. During

the post-war period, not only in Poland, problems became more acute. The rapid urbanization processes resulting in weakening local communities led to and continue to lead to defensive responses. These manifest themselves in efforts to reactivate some forms of collective life organization according to the rules accepted in rural and urban areas during the pre-industrial period.

These aspirations were aided by the social sciences, particularly American rural and agricultural sociology, where the concept of *community development* (activation and development of the local community) was introduced. The concept was put in practice mainly in the 1950s and 1960s by implementing predefined innovative conditions into a given local community. The work was carefully prepared and conducted by organized groups of researchers, who later analyzed processes and mechanisms of social change in terms of effectiveness of the undertaken activities.

The so-called "rural revival movement" at the turn of the 1970s and 1980s which was a social response to the growing natural and cultural threats taking place in the rural areas of our continent, can be considered as a European variant of "community development".

Firstly, an analysis of the application experiences connected with the two mentioned concepts, requires a clear-cut definition of the sociological basis of the animation of rural local development process by distinguishing various aspects, i.e. its **process, methodology, programme and implementation (social movement).**

While considering its process, the animation of rural community development is perceived as a sequence of changes taking place in a given local community which imply the need for transition from one developmental stage to another (for example, from the stage of industrial to pro-ecological development). Efficiency is highly emphasized, manifesting itself in the effects of animation, and these effects are defined as activity as a result of which members of a given local community become aware of their needs and tasks, then they hierarchize them, gain self-confidence and have a greater desire to implement them.

Secondly, the importance of method should be stressed with an emphasis on the fact that animation of local community development is a technique aiming at winning common acceptance both in terms of values crucial to the overall well-being and of the best means of achieving these values.

Furthermore, a key attitude to local community animation assumes focusing attention on the precise specification of the directions and contents of undertaken activities, which are usually presented as implementation tasks as a project or application.

The animation of local community development can also be considered as the creation of some type of social movement understood as any collective undertaking aiming at a new life order, irrespective of whether it is a one-time or periodic event, a more durable activity, or special structures (institutions) created to achieve development tasks in a local rural community.

Both more practical experiences of American *community development* and European rural revitalisation movements prove that successful animation of the rural development process encompasses several consecutive types of activation (called activation stages): situation diagnosis, stimulation, initiation, legitimization, public decision and implementation.

Every process of local community animation for its own development starts with a **situation diagnosis** consisting of empirical research or so-called study works. Their principal task is getting to know about current living standards, functioning human relations, the prevailing way of thinking and behaviour, as well as the action patterns of local community members. The second task is to reconstruct the network of cross-local contacts which largely shape the ways rural needs are articulated. The third task is to reconstruct the local community's history, which, on the one hand, improves the understanding of oneself and others, as well as accompanying circumstances, and on the other, enables a perception of

the boundary between a conscious rejection of the past and conscious acceptance of the past for the sake of the present.

Once reliable knowledge about the present and past of a given local community has been obtained, the **stage of stimulation** can begin, which means triggering off a discussion in order to make the inhabitants aware of problems which should be resolved collectively. Sometimes such a discussion is initiated by those members of the community who are viewed as innovative and usually hold a higher social position. However, the role of initiators is frequently played by people from the outside, our animators whose task it is to help local communities overcome problems bothering them.

Another important yet difficult stage in the process of local community animation, called **initiation of the action plan,** involves searching for alternative means of change in the existing situation. Commitment of the local population provides the most favourable conditions for designing and then implementing a development plan. Such commitment is an opportunity to trigger off one's own activity on which improvement of living conditions mostly depends, and strengthens the identification with one's place of residence. What is meant here is participant planning which should not focus on the final result in the form of a pile of studies, diagrams, graphs etc, as – which is commonly known as planning made to order. Participant planning is, first of all, meant to influence the awareness of those people who, in cooperation with the experts, draft a project for solving the problem. It cannot be artificially accelerated or limited to a particular period of time, nor should the initiative of the most concerned, that is the local inhabitants, be stunted, since they must feel that their participation is indispensable.

The involvement of as many local community members as possible during the initiation stage of the action plan considerably facilitates the implementation of the next two stages in the rural animation process. They include extensive popularization (**legitimization**) and winning broad common acceptance of local community members (**public decision**) for the drafted action plan. To achieve this, both human (meetings, individual communication, information in schools and churches etc.) and media (local press, radio, television) information channels are activated, with the support of local associations and, mainly, their members who are actively involved in the planning stage.

The **implementation stage** of the previously prepared action plan is usually the most difficult stage in the process of animation of a local community development.

The most important condition for success, is winning the support of local community members and their participation in both a formal and informal local action group as, on the one hand, representatives of the interests and aspirations of the community, and on the other, as those who have basic information at their disposal and cooperate with the animator. If, for some reason, the creation of such a group is impossible, its role can be taken over by the existing formal structure (a commune head or mayor, an association, a cultural or educational institution), although this may be a threat to the project becoming subject to existing local "cliques".

With reference to the two forms of implementation of the operation plan, the issue of leadership and management is crucial. The first one – without forming some kind of professional management, is considered to be less effective, since local community members are usually not competent enough to execute the plan on their own. Besides, the lack of a competent leader contributes to the activation of so-called informal structures which constitute a threat to any type of social activity. The second form assumes either aiming for the emergence of a clear-cut, specialised leadership, or taking advantage of existing human resources whose professional skills undergo improvement. From the sociological point of view, they should be members of a given local community, but frequently, since few local people become actively involved in official institutions or functions, the co-ordinator of a local action group must be from the outside. The advantage of such a situation is the opportunity of using external experience and new development ideas, a disadvantage may be the inadequate level of understanding of the local community.

As I have already mentioned, those earlier presented assumptions of the model of the animation process of rural local community are reflected in the teaching contents of the central course of the EMRA studies.

They also determine the essence of the Model of Occupational Competences and Qualifications of the Rural Animator, who should be able to diagnose the condition of a local community, initiate a discussion aiming at a precise definition of its members' needs, work out an action plan and persuade the local community to implement it, and finally support the implementation of the plan and evaluate its results.

Finally, what is most important to us, the presented model of rural local community animation process is accepted as the basis for an **occupational ethos of Rural Animators**. The EMRA studies are to equip students not only with the knowledge and skills necessary to direct the processes of change in rural areas, but also to shape their social values and attitudes towards animation in such a way that they may understand it as patient and systematic encouragement of the rural population to independent action for solving problems occurring in their environment.

RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN THE YEARS AHEAD:
THE CHALLENGE TO RURAL COMMUNITIES AND TO PROFESSIONAL ANIMATORS

Prof. Michael Dower
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Abstract

2012 marks 25 years since the European Commission's report "The future of rural society", which marked the start of thinking about rural development as a distinct stream of European policy. During that quarter century, that stream of policy has developed into a wide range of actors and instruments, centred on national and regional rural development programmes, sub-regional partnerships, LEADER groups etc.

As we look ahead, we might be tempted to say "more of the same, but better, please". That is not the message we should purvey, because the context is changing radically. Complex forces are pulling in different directions, and present a major challenge to rural communities and to professional animators. These forces include:

- *the financial and economic crisis in Europe, leading to cuts in spending by governments and local authorities, reduced living standards, rising unemployment, increased pressure on social NGOs and [consequently] rising interest in self-help and in resilient communities*
- *global trends of population growth , rising aspirations, pressure on resources, concerns about climate change, poverty and sustainability*
- *pressures upon the EU budget, competition for available funds between cities and countryside and between farmers and others in rural areas, despite growing realization of the links between town and countryside and between agriculture and other sectors*
- *rising concerns about public health, the links between this and diet, food safety, animal welfare, poverty and rising disparities between rich and poor and between different regions.*

These forces point towards change in the role of governments; change in the structure of national, regional and local economies; change in the role of private and larger bodies. They offer both challenge and opportunity to communities everywhere, urban and rural. It is no longer enough for citizens and communities to say "that's the job of government" in every aspect of public action. People increasingly need to take their collective future into their own hands.

This is not an easy process. It requires leadership which is not necessarily elected, authoritative and top-down. Rather, the leadership may be lateral, integral to a community, informed but consultative. It needs to be positive, resourceful, cheerful, involving. It can come from the public, private or voluntary sector; can be paid or unpaid; but must be professional. The need is for mediators, inspirers, even [once trust is established] champions: in short, we need animators, people who understand these currents of change and how they may be bent to, or flexed to meet, local needs and opportunities.

This animation is a very demanding role, in terms both of personality, of life experience and training. EMRA has the opportunity to stimulate people to come into the role; to provide the training they may need; and to create an international network which may provide the nourishment, the ideas, the stimulus and the support which a growing cadre of dedicated rural animators will need within Europe.

Introduction

Before I look ahead, let me set the context by looking briefly back over the last quarter century of progress in official thinking about rural development. 25 years ago, in 1987, the European Commission published its report 'The future of rural society'. This marked the start of thinking about rural development as a distinct stream of European policy, alongside and complementary to the earlier policies for agriculture and for regional development. Key moments in the devolution of rural policy were the introduction in 1991of the LEADER Initiative, the Cork Conference of 1996, and the emergence of rural development as a Second Pillar of the Common Agricultural Policy.

Now, in 2012, we see across Europe a wide range of actors and instruments in the field of rural development, centred on rural development programmes at national and regional level, and on implementation by sub-regional partnerships, LEADER groups and regional and local authorities.

Currently, there is active debate among Member States and in the European Parliament about the next round of policy, focused on the proposed continuation, with limited changes, of Pillar 2 of the CAP. These proposals fall within the context of the EU 2020 goal of smart, sustainable and inclusive growth established by the European Council.

Rural Europe today

If one looks across the wide expanse of rural areas in Europe, in all their vast geographic, social and economic variety, and at the policies which are applied to these areas, one can see an increasing convergence of ideas and approaches to rural development in different parts of the European Union.

All the rural economies of the EU are able, in principle, to benefit from the Common Market and from the freedom of movement and labour within the Union.

However, very many rural regions are affected by grave social and economic weakness, and therefore have continuing need for effective help through rural development. This weakness is expressed, to varying degree between regions, in:

- Many weak or narrow rural economies
- Decline in traditional rural industries in the face of competition from large urban enterprises
- Social exclusion and poverty, particularly among ethnic minorities
- Out-migration from rural areas, particularly on the periphery of Europe and in the newer member states
- Out-migration from cities into the countryside, particularly in western Europe, causing pressure upon the rural housing stock to the disadvantage of local people
- Continuing loss in the farm labour force
- The weak position of farmers in the food supply chain
- Low standards in rural infrastructure and services in many rural regions.

Implications for the future

In this context, it is clear that development is still emphatically needed in many rural regions, linked where appropriate to regional and urban development embracing the associated towns. Continuing efforts of development are justified because:

- Rural people are entitled to same quality of life as those in towns
- Rural areas will only play their full part in cohesion and in achieving the EU 2020 of smart, sustainable and inclusive growth if:

- Rural economies are strengthened and diversified
- Farmers are enabled to gain a fair return on production, to add value to their products or to diversify their own economy
- Social services and infrastructure are strengthened
- Natural resources are sustainably managed.

External forces. Future programmes of rural development must take account of forces and trends which are essentially external to any given rural area, but which can greatly affect what happens in every area. They include;

- The current financial and economic crisis, which in many EU countries – including their rural areas – has caused a sharp reduction in average incomes, rise in unemployment, and cuts in the funds of public bodies; which is forcing people and communities to be more self-reliant; and which is even prompting some people from cities to retreat to the countryside where they have a greater chance of being self-sufficient
- The global rise in population, in the aspirations of people as consumers throughout the world, and consequently in the total human call upon the world's resources of land, water, food, minerals and fossil fuels. The effect upon Europe of this formidable trend, coupled with other factors such as fluctuations in weather or armed conflict which can disrupt supply of resources, is that resources brought from outside Europe are becoming more expensive, and resources produced within Europe gain increasing value.
- Rising concern among the general public about the impact of industrialised activity, including agriculture, upon the environment, public health, animal welfare etc. Despite much political ambivalence on the subject, the EU is committed in principle to halt the continuing serious loss of biodiversity, and to reduce the use of fossil fuels and resulting carbon emissions.
- Rising interest among citizens and interest groups in achieving a greater measure of inclusivity, subsidiarity and self-determination in policy and action.

The challenge of change

These forces, trends and policies pose, for rural communities, a major and diversified challenge of change. This challenge may include:

- change arising from population movements
- change - possibly short-term - caused by the financial and economic crisis
- change in response to global pressure on resources
- change in the role of governments and other sectors
- changes in policy at European and national level.

Most of these changes have origins external to the rural communities. They will happen to the rural communities rather than being initiated by them. But they may prompt, and necessitate, change at local level which is focused upon the well-being of communities ... and the aim of rural development is to promote and support that change. In its series of Thematic Guides focused upon different aspects of sustainable rural development, Euracademy offers the following definition of rural development.

> **"Rural development** is a sustained and sustainable **process** of social, economic and environmental **change** focused on the well-being of local communities"

Change is a short word: but the achievement of change can be a long and hard process. Change may not be easy for rural communities, for reasons such as:

- The innate conservatism of long-established communities
- A lack of personal and communal self-confidence
- A lack of physical, financial and human resources, including relatively low levels of education and family income
- Social isolation or exclusion, including that affecting minority groups
- Most crucial, a lack of social capital or trust among the people, leading to a lack of ability to take collective action.

The rural animator

The role of the rural animator is to help rural communities to address this challenge of change. Putting it simply, the animator's role is to build the self-confidence of the community, to set an example, to provoke cooperation, to identify and activate resources, and to link these together. I offer some brief examples of these different and sequential aspects of the animator's role.

Building self-confidence. In the Sudetenland, near the western border of the Czech Republic, the end of World War II saw the removal of the population of German origin and the in-migration of people from Slovakia and Ukraine. These incomers had no common culture, and no cultural 'roots' in their new home: they lacked social solidarity and communal self-confidence. Only in the 1990s did local leaders emerge with the skill to build social solidarity, for example by twinning Sudeten villages with those in France in order to widen the views of villagers and encourage them to improve their own lives.

Building skills. In the Cserehat region of north-east Hungary, the Roma community has long suffered from poverty and social exclusion. The United Nations Development Programme, working with the national government, launched in 2005 an innovative project to alleviate area-based poverty and social exclusion in this community. UNDP's belief is that development will only succeed if the local community is actively involved: the people must gain the knowledge, skills and confidence to 'own' the process of development, and the capacity to use money effectively. Accordingly, the first step in the project was to appoint 'Coaches', or animators, in each local community, in order to build their skills and confidence: after a two- year period, the people were able to continue with their own initiatives.

Setting an example. In the village of Palkonya, in south-west Hungary, as in so many regions of central Europe, villagers had turned their backs on traditional forms of building and opted for use of concrete and other imported building materials, threatening the character of the village. But Leonora Becker, daughter of a local farmer, decided when she married an English sculptor to buy and modernise a traditional house. Her neighbours were impressed to see that this was possible, and others began to follow her example. Within a short time, Leonora was elected mayor of the village, and worked with others to improve the public spaces and facilities of the village. Later, she persuaded the mayors of six other villages to work together to create the Vilanji-Siklos wine trail. She was a rural animator.

Provoking cooperation. In the Tarnava Mare District of Transylvania in Romania, village life is based upon semi-subsistence farming: each farmer has his own small-holding and a few animals, and the cattle or sheep are taken out collectively each day to the common grazing lands. Average incomes are very low, and young people are leaving the villages to seek a better life in the towns. In an effort to stop the spiral of decline in the villages, non-government organizations such as the ADEPT foundation are working with villagers to strengthen the local economy and to help them to take advantage of government support. For example, ADEPT helps farmers to cooperate in applying for grants to look after the wildlife on their lands, for which they are not eligible as individual small-holders; and also to work together in adding value to their products, for example in making high-quality jam out of the fruit that they grow and marketing this jam in regional and national markets.

Identifying and activating resources. I choose here, without apology, an urban example, because it so vividly illustrates how, with imagination, apparent liabilities may be turned into assets. In the New York borough of Bronx, in America, three major liabilities were derelict land, unemployed young people, and the dung from elephants and other vegetarian animals in the Bronx zoo. A non-government organisation, the Bronx Frontier Development Corporation, took these three and turned them into assets. They gained the use of the dung, turned it into fertile compost, enabled the young people to clear the derelict land and to use the compost there to grow herbs for sale to high-grade restaurants in Manhattan. In this way, local resources produced strong local benefits for the place, the people and the economy

Linking things together. When a rural community has gained self-confidence, the ability to cooperate, and a clear sense of the resources available to it, it becomes possible to launch more ambitious elements of local development. But clear leadership, and effective animation, may still be needed. For example, the region of Basse-Normandie in northern France as a long-standing tradition of cultivation of apples and pears and the production of drinks using this from, namely cider, calvados and poirée. Large parts of the region fall within the Regional Park of Normandie-Maine, and the Park's landscape is enriched by the orchards of apples and pears. In order to assist the long-term survival of this landscape, and the prosperity of the farmers, the Regional Park created the House of the Apple and the Pear. This is a centre, based in traditional farm buildings, where farmers can gain advice and trading support, and which tourists can visit in order to understand the traditional culture. From the centre, tourists can then follow *itineraries* car-borne trails which take them to the farms where they can see and buy the fruit and drinks. In this way, farmers get full value for the products; the tourists gained the authentic experience of local culture; and the landscape of the Park is sustained.

Who employs the animator?

The examples that I have given illustrate the wide variety of organisations who can provide the stimulus to rural development and who may, for that reason, act as or employ animators. They include:

- International organisations, such as UNDP, other multilateral agencies, national aid agencies
- National authorities, including those responsible for rural development, agriculture, regional development etc.
- Regional and local authorities
- National and regional parks
- LEADER groups and other sub-regional partnerships
- European project teams
- Non-government organisations
- Foundations.

The pattern of organisation and governance is constantly evolving, in response not only to the periodical changes in policy at European level but also to the evolution of social and political structures in each country.

Of high current importance, in terms of the prospects that may open up for rural animators, is the proposal made by the European Commission for the adoption of Community-Led Local Development (CLLD) as a key means of delivery at local and sub-regional level of all the major development funds deployed by the European Union. The CLLD concept builds on the perceived success of the long-standing LEADER approach, and forms part of a wider proposal to achieve greater linkage and complementarily between the main development programme of the EU.

The formal proposals, currently being discussed among Member States and in the European Parliament, include:

- the creation of a Common Strategic Framework at EU level for the Rural[1]**, Regional, Cohesion, Social and Fisheries Funds
- In each member state, a national Partnership Contract covering support from all these Funds
- An EU Regulation outlining the basis for support to, and operation of, Community-Led Local Development as a means for delivery of the five funds at territorial level in an integrated way.

If these proposals are agreed and come into operation in 2014, we may see the creation, in all the rural sub-regions of Europe which need integrated local development, of a family of Local Action Groups or sub- regional development agencies which are:

- Enabled to operate flexibly as local development agencies
- Able to deliver all relevant measures within EAFRD and relevant measures and resources from other EU and national funds.
- Not constrained by boundaries between urban and rural areas
- Operating within approved local development strategies
- Subject to effective monitoring and evaluation, but …
- Largely freed from day-to-day intervention by Managing Authorities
- Active in inter-regional and transnational exchanges, and in national and European rural networks.

These Local Action Groups will need the skills of rural animators.

The skills of the animator. Those who wish to animate rural communities and rural action will need a variety of skills:

- human empathy
- leadership without personal domination
- communication
- understanding of "folk, work and place"
- understanding of social and organisational structures
- ability to "think globally, and act locally"

Conclusion

I end with a quotation from my famous compatriot Sir Patrick Geddes 1854-1932, who may be seen as the first great animator of local development. He was a passionate advocate of citizens' participation and action, always focused on improving the well-being of people. He believed that those who wish to work in the field of local development must strive truly to understand 'Folk, work and place'; must 'Think globally, and act locally'; and must pursue a logical process of 'Survey, analysis, plan'. His advice to young people was:

> *"Observe and understand how people live and work -- maybe by sharing in their work and life, from hills down to the sea and back again*
>
> *Get into active survey, always growing out and extending, of the real world around you and in seeking out, and finding out, what your life can best do to help in that, to be of service to it."*

[1] The European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development (EAFRD) = Pillar 2 of the CAP

SESSION 2

NETWORKING AND JOINT ACTION IN EUROPEAN RURAL DEVELOPMENT

RECONCILING THE DIFFERENT DIMENSIONS OF RURAL: GLOBAL AND LOCAL AND THE ROLE OF THE RURAL ANIMATOR

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Abstract

Rural areas are quite diverse. They have different economic structures and different ways to innovate but understanding of these aspects vary. They are home to important natural resources and amenities but they are often on the fringe of important debates e.g. Climate Change. The shift from a focus solely on the primary sector in rural areas to one that takes into account more sectors (e.g. manufacturing, etc); the pressures from globalization; and, the importance of adopting a sustainable approach to development reinforces the need for a rural animator. Balancing these different strands; making sure they are well understood at all levels of government as well as by rural communities as a whole could be one of the "key" roles. Such actors are already in place in different forms (e.g. rural champion, rural advocate) in different OECD countries (e.g. the United Kingdom, Finland, and Canada) thus, there is scope to learn from other countries as well.

SESSION 3

RURAL ANIMATION IN A LIFELONG LEARNING PERSPECTIVE ACROSS EUROPE

Why a joint European Masters Programme for Rural Animators?

Dr. Fouli Papageorgiou,
President, Euracademy Association

Abstract

This presentation aims to stress two main characteristics of the profession of the rural animator, which have guided the composition of the EMRA curriculum: interdisciplinarity and European scope.

The interdisciplinary character of the profession is demonstrated in the multiplicity of tasks t the rural animator is called to perform: without claiming to be an expert, the animator of rural development should be equipped with the appropriate skills and competences to understand the needs of both the rural inhabitants (farmers, entrepreneurs, self-employers etc) and the authorities and NGOs that are active in a region, so that he or she can advise them and take appropriate action to encourage rural development. This multiplicity of interests is reflected in the curriculum of EMRA which contains a core course and 8 specialist modules on different fields of activity.

The European scope is reflected in the need to form partnerships which are often beyond the limits of the region or the country where the rural animator is based; to participate in networks that have a European character; to be able to learn from best practice in other countries and transfer knowhow; to be able to advise the local inhabitants and their representative bodies how to best benefit from the EU funds. The European scope is reflected in the partnership of universities that deliver EMRA: the EMRA modules are taught by 7 higher education institutions, based in 7 different European countries.

Introduction – Animators of Rural Development

EMRA - the European Masters Programme for Rural Animators aims to offer the necessary education, competence building and qualifications to individuals who would like to work as rural animators, to mediate, encourage and facilitate rural development. The EMRA M.A. targets both young graduates and mid-career professionals who are already active in the field of rural development or wish to become active in this field.

One of the main objectives of EMRA is to establish the profession of the Animator of Rural Development by:

- Bestowing rural animators with a wide knowledge and understanding of rural development issues and at the same time equipping them with practical skills that would allow them to encourage and manage rural development initiatives.
- Establishing a qualification for the profession of Rural Animator.

To achieve these objectives, the EMRA consortium have embarked in the EMRA initiative guided by two basic principles: to assure the interdisciplinary nature of the qualification offered by EMRA, so that the professional rural animator can gain a "holistic' understanding of rural development; and to achieve a truly European scope of this qualification, implying a strong inter-cultural element.

It is important to define, even briefly, the role and expected tasks that a Rural Animator would be called to perform, in order to understand better the competences required for such a role and the contribution

the EMRA will make to the acquisition of such competences; but also to understand why the interdisciplinary nature of EMRA serves the tasks and roles that the Rural Animator would be called to perform.

The tasks which rural animators may be asked to tackle include:

- building and maintaining mutual trust in the community
- supporting the creation of development plans, showing leadership
- participating in the implementation of development plans, undertaking coordination and management tasks
- fulfilling the function of an intermediary between different stakeholders, being also the link between decision-makers and the local communities.

These tasks call for a variety of skills and competences:

1. Social communication: building trust, ability to interact easily with every member of the community, conflict resolution, stimulation of innovative thinking, stimulation of positive attitudes towards the community and himself/herself, self-presentation awareness and skills, rhetorical skills and skills covering the explanation of complicated issues; information processing skills, writing and publishing articles, contributing to discussion fora, web pages, etc, and IT skills.
2. Finding out the community's needs and problems: ability to gather knowledge about the community through simple surveys and polls, conducting focus groups and exploratory meetings, investigating individuals' attitudes towards common action, conducting and observation, ability to perform qualitative data analysis and to compile reports.
3. Managing and coordinating local actions and projects: ability to assess different kinds of opportunities and actions, knowledge of sources of financing, basic information about procedures, motivation techniques, group management, project management, coordination, leadership, communication with community leaders, practical knowledge of the functioning of local institutions and organisations (self-government, NGOs, regional bodies, national bodies).
4. Promoting different aspects of sustainable rural development: possessing a good understanding and an inter-disciplinary knowledge of different fields involved in sustainable rural development, such as: agriculture and farming; environmental protection and management; cultural development; community development and welfare; innovation and support of SMEs; developing sustainable rural tourism; promoting education and lifelong learning for rural development; and encouraging the diversification of rural economies.

The Challenges

The EMRA M.A. is addressing two challenges:

1. The complex, multi-level tasks of the rural animator who strives to encourage sustainable development, across many different fields of activity and expertise.
2. The need for a European outlook that would allow the rural animator to utilise the experience of other European countries and regions to add value to local development initiatives.

A strong emphasis is given to the **interdisciplinary nature** of the studies, to correspond with the many facets of rural development and the different skills that the rural animator should develop. It is made clear, at the same time, that the rural animator will not be expected to become an expert in all theses fields; rather, he/she is expected to acquire enough knowledge and skills to understand the different

aspects of rural development, communicate efficiently with the various actors of rural development, and provide encouragement, mediation and advice when and where required.

The EMRA aims to offer the rural animator a good understanding and an inter-disciplinary knowledge of different aspects of rural development, such as:

- theory of rural development and rural animation
- agriculture and farming;
- environmental protection and management;
- cultural development;
- community development and welfare;
- innovation and support of SMEs;
- rural tourism;
- education and lifelong learning for rural development;
- diversification of rural economies

The students will also be led to grasp the cultural aspects of rural development at **European level**. The multi-national and multi-cultural team that delivers the EMRA studies reinforces this message, as reference is made to the seven countries participating in the partnership. Further to that, the issues of the distinctiveness of rural culture on the one hand and multiculturalism in present-day Europe on the other hand are incorporated in all modules and learning tasks. Moreover, the M.A. offers the rural animator an understanding of rural development as a European phenomenon, by adopting in practice an approach that cuts across different cultures; by developing networking opportunities and cross-national cooperation; by transferring know-how and expertise between different countries; and by promoting awareness of best practice at European level.

The two important features of the EMRA studies described above, namely interdisciplinarity and European/multi-cultural scope, are served by both the curriculum and the adopted model of delivery of the courses. Namely, the EMRA is offered as a joint degree, while teaching is conveyed by seven higher education institutions in a modular format, ensuring:

- an interdisciplinary approach, given that each of the participating universities undertakes one of the modules devoted to agriculture, environmental planning, cultural development, community welfare, innovation, tourism, lifelong learning and diversification of rural economies, involving a team specialised in the related field;
- a dynamic trans-cultural environment of study, reflecting practices from at least seven different European countries and seven different universities;
- the opportunity to comprehend hands-on the European dimension of rural development, by sharing experiences and knowledge among a multinational and multicultural group of students and teachers.

It should be noted here that the institutional framework for a European degree offered jointly by many universities is missing. The national laws and regulations make it extremely difficult in practice to run a truly joint degree, offered by different universities which operate in different countries. The EMRA consortium has worked out an innovative solution, which adopts the rules and regulations of the leading university of the EMRA and the country it is based in, but establishes the joint format of teaching through mutual agreements among the participating universities and the leading university (N. Copernicus in this case) which is also granting the degree. The joint nature of the degree is assured by it being co-signed by all participating universities. However, the EMRA team hopes that there will be

action from the European Commission to solve the problems of setting up joint degrees at institutional level.

Conclusions

The impact of the EMRA project is directed both to the field of rural development and to higher education institutions' ability to cooperate across borders and offer joint degrees.

Regarding the rural development field, the EMRA consortium has the ambition to introduce a new profession, with an exiting profile, that of the rural animator. This profession is not unknown as a "role" that offers crucial advantages for mobilising local communities and entrepreneurs and achieving local development in rural areas; but the challenge offered by EMRA is that the role of rural animator is transformed to a fully-fledged profession, certified and accredited at university level. Moreover, recognising the interdisciplinary nature of this profession and the need for a cross-cultural profile, the M.A. will be offered jointly by a large number of European universities originating from seven different countries.

Regarding *the "industry*" related to rural development, i.e the organisations that are involved in the development of rural areas either as local/regional authorities or development agencies or NGOS with a strong presence in related fields, or social partners representing the local business community, the EMRA qualification offers the option to employ well-educated people with a wide understanding of a large variety of issues that concern rural development, enhanced also with skills to mobilise local communities – i.e. people and business to facilitate development. The rural development field and its stakeholders will have a lot to gain from the new profession of rural animator, as emerging through EMRA, and especially from the inter-disciplinary and wide-ranging skills and knowledge that the EMRA graduates will hold.

Regarding the academic community, The EMRA model is likely to impact upon the current methods of inter-university cooperation, including methods for accreditation and certification of jointly offered degrees; and upon existing practices of linking studies with the labour market, by introducing the concept of transferable skills in a European area of work and learning.

GERMANY'S VILLAGE DEVELOPMENT IN CHANGE: NEW CHALLENGES FOR PLANNING IN RURAL AREAS

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Abstract

Demographic change is one of the biggest challenges for rural areas of the Federal Republic of Germany. Aging and in particular the migration of the youth have led to a lasting structural change, which entails a rapid loss of supply structures and accordingly a fall of the quality of life. The example of independent regional development of the „Mecklenburg ParkLand" shows how it is possible to improve the economic situation and the livelihood of a traditionally disadvantaged rural region sustainably, by taking advantage of endogenous potentials. The „ParkLand Project" demonstrates that the resource landscape can be used for the benefit of many people in rural areas. In the balanced organization of land use in agricultural production, production of renewable raw materials and energy, the development of rural tourism and contract nature protection, the farmers win back their previous role as engines of rural development - a position, which had been lost during the agricultural structural change in the past decades. In neighbourly cooperation and intensive involvement of local people, they open new income areas on the sustainable use of their land ownership and create new income opportunities for young families who would otherwise be forced into migration. The key to success of development are moderated animation strategies, the communication between different actors and the coordination of their activities. The role of the planner, as it is shown in this project, changes from traditional engineering aspects of village development into a new type of a "rural social worker". His job is to move these people, who are moving rural areas development as an important part of endogenous potentials.

The ongoing agricultural structure change and the rapid demographic changes of the last 20 years are visible to everyone and can be recognised in the centre of villages located in Mecklenburg-Western Pomerania. Large numbers in job vacancies herald economic changes and the continuing loss of population. First integrated approaches to regional and inter-municipal cooperation indicate ways out of this crisis. One of the following presented exemplary projects holistically illustrates the outstanding role of the farmers in terms of the soil resources and countryside trend-setting regional development.

Initial Situation

In Mecklenburg-Western Pomerania, only 72 inhabitants per sq.km are allocated to 95% of the country's rural areas. Around two thirds of the population of the Federal Land live here. The study, published two years ago, "Demographic Change" (Institute of Berlin, 2009) plainly indicates: The population will strongly continue to shrink until the year 2025. The economic strength of the county is already well below the Republic's average. Having more than 85% of the total land surface agriculture, forestry and fishing are the largest land users.

Beside the background of this disillusioning situation, the current political discussion about funding priorities and strategies is becoming increasingly important. Without economic development in the agriculturally characterised production, structurally weak rural areas of the country will not be able, for the time being, to slow down the negative trends. The municipalities are unable to cope with this task. A success of a promising development using own efforts seems to be hardly ever possible due to the high indebtedness of many; already the counter financing from currently available subsidy schemes is considerably hindered. In other words, generally and exaggerated: The small rural community is almost incapable of action. Subsidy schemes hit their limits in the face of the tasks to be accomplished. The problems in basic services of the aging rural population will be increasing rather than decreasing. In this case, an individual community based strategy is not anymore sustainable in the long term.

A sustainable impetus, opposing the continuing marginalization of peripheral regions in the Federal Republic, is no more likely to be expected from "outsiders". Sustainability occurs "from inside" or most probably would not anymore. Which potentials do communities possess in order to push towards an endogenous development? For the economically under developed and far from the coast rural areas of Mecklenburg-Western Pomerania, it is the tradition of agricultural landscape and the people living here and acting. This may sound trivial, yet in the absence of large labour markets, there is no alternative.

The social role of agriculture

Rural areas live on the engagement of their local people, their ideas and their energy. Individual initiative is, especially, maintained in the countryside and forms the core of public life. In this context and in Mecklenburg-Western Pomerania, it is, accordingly, the proprietor. General Managers of agricultural companies are growing in importance. Although the importance of agricultural enterprises, as an economic force, in the value creation process was estimated years long to be declining, yet it is and remains the backbone of agriculture in rural areas. Thereby, it is usual that the public perception is merely oriented towards the productive function of the agricultural enterprises. Practically, taken for granted, the farmers multi-functionality, and in particular their diverse cultural, social and financial achievements, are considered for the common good and are publically relatively far too little appreciated.

However, the farmers do make a significant contribution to the strengthening of village structures, taking over municipal tasks, help shaping the diversity of village life by supporting the association's activities, and taking over important functions within the context of voluntary work. The ensuing synergy effects offer the villagers themselves the opportunity to participate actively in the society and, thus, increasing the quality of life and attractiveness of their region. This comes out also inter alia from the case study "Cultural and social activities in rural areas", that is currently under development at the University of Rostock.

First interview results depict the following picture: The involvement of the proprietor or manager is multifaceted and ranges from organizing cultural and sporting events, financial support of existing clubs in the villages such as culture, sport, local clubs, fire brigades, etc., to maintenance and conservation works for the clubs or for the community. Quantifying the expenses for such accomplishments is rather difficult; after all, no saleable services are rendered in this case. Depending on the legal status and financial capabilities of the company, the surveyed farmers spend between 900 and 1500 €/year for such an involvement.

The extent and nature of the social involvement are largely dependent on the personality of the land farmer and on the importance placed on attaching himself to his professional activities. Particularly important to the farmers is being able to deploy their involvement in preserving and maintaining the natural environment which is mainly used by them. The educational and information work lies also at the heart of their interests. Field visits, open days for courtyards, events for preschool &schoolchildren, students as well as other interested parties are very time consuming but are willing always taking place because, among other reasons, they help in improving the image of agriculture in the public perception, which may be also useful for the young generation.

Independent regional development, "Mecklenburg parkland"

As a result of structural weaknesses of the rural areas in Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, the farmers, specifically, need to commit themselves as initiators and multipliers for the development of their villages and communities. Lying in the heart of Mecklenburg, the example of the "Mecklenburg parkland" shows in which social and economic effects could result. This historically developed cultural landscape area, between the rivers Recknitz and Trebel, constitutes a natural geographical and economic unit - the resulting feeling of solidarity is currently experiencing a new burst of growth. Alongside a historic

agricultural road, eight communities have joined together, in a chosen form of organization 'The Association of Mecklenburg Agrarian Culture e. V.', in order to harmonise the development of their communities with an endogenous regional development. Based on long-established association between political communities and the economic activities in the region, a joint planning and development process was initiated, which took up the already existing different growth impetus and conceptually blending together. Those economic, environmental and social principles (models), formulated within the development concept, form the basis and consensus for the release of funds in the next years. The essence of cooperation is the coordination of communal and primarily agricultural initiatives. The highly participative trend-setting methodological approach of the planning process is at least an exemplary model, at the level of a small region, for the state of Mecklenburg-Western Pomerania.

The conditions needed for the commenced development process were:

- A comprehensibly defined and clearly laid out region with high identification value.
- A high flexibility and innovative strength of the players, emanating from the outbound farmers of the region. In close cooperation with locally based technology or marketing companies, the farmers tread successful new ways to diversify agricultural income (Example: the bio-energy production and local marketing, holidays on a farm, self-marketing of agricultural products, organic farming). The farmers regard themselves as an integral part of regional development and want to make their contribution.
- The traditionally predominantly agricultural region distinguishes itself already by its high aesthetic quality of the location and countryside images. In so far, it is strongly recommended as a tourist region in the coastal back country. A large number of successful lodging options established from long years, which are evidence of the steadily growing importance of the soft countryside bound tourism.
- The culturally characterized countryside units uniquely encountered in Mecklenburg Parkland from manor houses, elaborately preserved farm cottages, parks and appealing landscape areas, which are considered within the framework of an integrative approach. The need for action in settlement and landscape is identified while conflicts are adjusted; "Landscape providers" (tourism businesses / communities) and "Landscape creators / users' (farmers) are all sitting at the same table.
- The first projects have a connecting character and are used in synergy by the project participants. These include cross-linking paths, such as that on the route path of the above historical Rüben railway, connecting the villages and farms in the region of the former sugar factory in Tessin federation.
- The collaboration meets high acceptance in the participating communities as well as others who are intending to join. The protagonists of the project, primarily the local established farmers, have the confidence of the people in their community which has been earned over the years. Since they are also major employers, there is a broad interest in the region in their economic success.
- The municipalities and local businesses based in the model region have learned to prove themselves in rural community development and land division. In view of the implementation of public and private measures of the previous plans, there is still a great need for action to be noted. Many good ideas and initiatives remain untouched due to lack of opportunities at the municipal level and have failed because, for example, they exceeded the financially feasibility of the individual municipalities. A systematic and continuous coordination of municipal and private sector development objectives at the regional level took place in the planning process and should be institutionalized as a result of the project. It is already possible today, in merger on Public Private Partnerships, to join forces in the region.

Participatory planning and implementation process

Personal commitment of the farmers for the common good and their networking with like-minded people is the basis for joint initiatives to develop rural areas, as the two focal points, "Cultural and social services", and "Mecklenburg parkland" has exemplary demonstrated. The success of the "Parkland project" is inits cooperation. The potential of the region will be friendly used and developed where the synergy effects for the benefit of all are to be respected.

A guideline provides a basis by which the overall project idea could be implemented for the sustainable development of the region. Oriented to the present setting of the ELER-Program and the existing equity (own work), practical recommendations for action were formulated that are currently being implemented. There is a particular importance to a strong scale participatory planning and implementing process. Apart from project identification, this serves as the mobilization and strengthening of the regional commitment as well as the anchoring of guiding principles in the region.

Three major sub-projects deal with settlements, landscapes and Manor Parks. Being integrated development approaches, they deliver multi-disciplinary and connecting concepts acting as a guide for communities, citizens and tradesmen. The cultural landscape as well as their use and design are the engine of the region. Through their preservation and careful further development, a high-quality “product” will be created in addition to further diversifying of agricultural production. Strengthening of the tourism infrastructure will have impacts on the development of tourism and, consequently, on the employment situation and the quality of life in the region.

The role of the “Rural Animators”

The described process of the endogenous regional development “Mecklenburg parkland” was taken place under permanent attendance of different, from the working group of the communities and the farmers, engaged planners. These were working on different planning levels, but mainly in the course of local or thematic founded working groups. They met in a great amount in the different communities, advertised for the aims of the project and motivated great parts of the population for the participation on the process. Different methodical and didactical approaches and developed thematic foci in a joint discussion, seemed attractive to great parts of the population, from teenagers to pensioners. The rural animators, as externs, took over the organisation of the overall process, the leadership of the discussion, filled the thematic evenings with textual inputs and published achieved things in various media to the general public. With the acquisition of the 18 months long and from LEADER supported project phase, the great participation of the public came to a standstill. At this point of time, small project groups had been developed out of the process. These groups devote their time to special project intentions. Often, it is about new networks of same interest with an economic oriented agenda.

SKILLS AND COMPETENCES FOR THE INNOVATIVE RURAL ANIMATOR

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Abstract

The skills and competences required for rural animations are very extensive and a very wide repertoire of human and economic development activities. The purpose of this paper is to summarise the skills and competences required by rural animators and in particular to relate these to the skill area of innovation and the module Innovation for Rural Economic Development.

These skills and competences can be summarised as follows:

Knowledge and skills

- *Communication and people development including education and LLL;*
- *Technical knowledge and understanding of sustainable rural development*
- *Evaluation of local community needs, analysis and conducting of surveys;*
- *Leadership, planning and the development of local actions and community projects, sources of finance and local support*

Personal skills

It is more difficult to determine the personal skills required of the Rural Animator, and to develop these skills.

- *Communication, a Rural Animator must above all be a communicator, both verbally and non-verbally, and this skill is the basis of all animation activity.*
- *Leadership, Rural Animators should inspire confidence and trust in the communities they are serving, set them an example and take the lead in initiating activities.*
- *Initiative and innovation, the Rural Animator may often have to work in isolation and unsupervised and therefore must have the initiative and confidence to do so*

Personal qualities

- *Commitment to rural animation*
- *Reliability, both in terms of carrying out animation work and also in relations with community members*
- *Confidence in their own abilities and determination to achieve something*

The innovative rural animator?

Innovation is often defined as the process by which an idea or invention is translated into a good or service for which people will pay, or something that results from this process. To be innovative an idea must be replicable at an economical cost and must satisfy a specific need. In a social context, innovation is equally important in devising new collaborative methods such as alliance creation, joint venturing. This paper will explore how innovation in rural animation can enhance rural economic development and thus be of benefit to rural communities.

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These skills and competences can be summarised as follows:

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Personal qualities

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- Confidence in their own abilities and determination to achieve something

In order to identify the skills and competences rural animators should possess it is useful to clarify:

A/ what the role of an animator might be,

B/ what it is that they are expected to do and the range of tasks they might perform.

The European Masters for Rural Animator consortium identified the following key elements for the role and work of a rural animator:

1. The Rural Animator initiates and sustains community activities related to the local economy; he/she also encourages the re-establishment of social bonds and the reinforcement or re-establishment of local identity, thus facilitating sustainable rural development.
2. The Rural Animator stimulates everyday economic and social activity using a bottom-up approach. This confers authenticity as it is based upon grass-roots definitions of local needs and the means necessary for their fulfilment.
3. The Rural Animator holds a role that is closely linked to the concept of social capacity traditionally associated with rural communities and utilises the power of mutual help, strong neighbourhood ties and local social capital.
4. The Rural Animator is a trusted person who can protect and develop the interests of the community and address local development issues including the enhancement of quality of life.
5. The Rural Animator is an agent of change. Intensive modernisation of rural areas, as a result of urbanisation or the industrialisation of agriculture makes the re-definition of rural development and

its agents an important issue. The Rural Animator contributes to this re-definition.

6. A contemporary Rural Animator can be distinguished from other animators (e.g. animators working with underprivileged communities in cities) by his/her knowledge and understanding of the paradigm of sustainable rural development. This gives the Rural Animator the ability to work within the political and cultural context of social, ecological, economic and cultural changes in rural areas.

It is clear from the above that rural animators have a very broad scope of tasks to perform and thus require a very broad range of skills to deliver on these. This leads perhaps to the conclusion that they are all things to all people or a professional "Jack of all Trades"

Looking more specifically at the tasks that a Rural Animator is likely to perform enables us to determine a broad set of skills and competences which the rural animator should acquire. The skills and competences required for the above tasks of rural animation can be roughly divided amongst the three categories: (1) Knowledge and skills; (2) Personal skills; (3) Personal qualities

1. <u>Knowledge and skills</u>

   i. Communication and people development including education and Life Long Learning

   ii. Technical knowledge and understanding of sustainable rural development

   iii. Evaluation of local community needs, analysis and conducting of surveys

   iv. Leadership, planning and the development of local actions and community projects, sources of finance and local support

These include:

i. building and maintaining mutual trust in the community:

   Social communication: building trust, ability to interact easily with every member of the community, conflict resolution, stimulation of innovative thinking, stimulation of positive attitudes towards community and himself/herself, self-presentation awareness and skills, rhetorical skills and skills covering the explanation of complicated issues; information processing skills, writing and publishing articles, contributing in discussion fora, web pages etc., IT skills.

ii. supporting the creation of development plans, showing leadership:

   Establishing the community's needs and problems: ability to gather knowledge about the community through simple surveys and polls, conducting focus groups and exploratory meetings, investigating individuals' attitudes towards common action, conducting and observation, ability to perform qualitative data analysis and to compile reports.

iii. participating in the implementation of development plans, undertaking coordination and management tasks:

   Managing and coordinating local actions and projects: ability to assess different kinds of opportunities and actions, knowledge of sources of financing, basic information about procedures, motivation techniques, group management, project management, coordination, leadership, communication with community leaders, practical knowledge of the functioning of local institutions and organisations (self-government, NGO's, regional bodies, national bodies).

iv. fulfilling the function of an intermediary between different stakeholders, being also the link between decision-makers and the local communities:

   Promoting different aspects of sustainable rural development: possessing a good understanding and an inter-disciplinary knowledge of different fields involved in sustainable rural development, such as: agriculture and farming; environmental protection and management; cultural

development; community development and welfare; innovation and support of SMEs; developing sustainable rural tourism; promoting education and lifelong learning for rural development; and encouraging the diversification of rural economies.

2. Personal skills

It is rather more difficult to determine the personal skills required of the rural animator, and thus to understand how to develop these skills.

The area of personal skills is less easily covered by means of specific knowledge and information and often refers to skills that a Rural Animator either has or has not. A vast range of such skills has been suggested; however, these have been grouped together here to present a list of the main areas of skills required:

- Communication: a Rural Animator must above all be a communicator, both verbally and non-verbally, and this skill is the basis of all animation activity. They should have an ability to be able to talk to people at all levels in society. Public speaking is a skill which the rural animator will be called upon to practice frequently. A principal task is communication; this inevitably involves public speaking to explain a new idea, conduct a demonstration or generally take part in a community discussion.
- Leadership: Rural Animators should inspire confidence and trust in the communities they are serving, set them an example and take the lead in initiating activities
- Initiative and innovation: the Rural Animator may often have to work in isolation and unsupervised and therefore must have the initiative and confidence to do so without depending upon guidance and support from his superiors.

3. Personal qualities

At a personal level the rural animator must have a commitment and a passion for the profession and this will be shown through

- A commitment to rural animation with a sense of dedication and determination to help develop rural communities including an ability to work alone often in somewhat isolated locations
- Reliability, both in terms of carrying out animation work and also in relations with community members- the local community must be able to develop a sense of confidence in their advice and support
- Confidence in their own abilities and determination to achieve often in quite difficult circumstances

The innovative rural animator?

Innovation is often defined as the process by which an idea or invention is translated into a good or service for which people will pay, or something that results from this process. To be innovative an idea must be replicable at an economical cost and must satisfy a specific need. In a social context, innovation is equally important in devising new collaborative methods such as alliance creation, joint venturing, flexible working hours or group marketing for rural entrepreneurs.

Innovation involves deliberate application of information, imagination, and initiative in deriving greater or different value from resources, and encompasses all processes by which new ideas are generated and converted into useful products.

In business, innovation often results from the application of a scientific or technical idea in decreasing the gap between the needs or expectations of the customers and the performance of a company's products.

Skills for innovation

There is a wide range of skills required for innovation related activities and the OECD point out that it is difficult to make explicit links between specific skills and innovation. The broad definitions of skills and innovation, the difficulty of measuring human capital and innovation outputs and outcomes, and the relative scarcity of innovation-specific empirical studies all serve to limit the identification of such relationships and thus the precision of policy messages. Innovation depends on people who are able to generate and apply knowledge and ideas in the workplace and in society at large. While OECD countries have long recognised the need to develop skilled people through education and training, there is still a need to understand the types of skills needed for innovation and the best ways to build them.

Basic skills: such as reading and writing are essential but so too are more complex academic and technical skills; generic skills such as problem solving and "soft" skills such as multicultural openness and leadership are also important. Managerial and entrepreneurial skills are also required especially when considering implementation of innovation, as are creativity and design. People also need the skills that enable them and their workplace to "learn". This can encompass competencies ranging from technical to interaction skills.

From the above we can see that there are some common families of skills that are relevant to the rural animator and these include:

1. Basic skills such as: reading, writing and numeracy; plus "digital-age literacy"
2. Academic skills: English, mathematics, history, law and the social and natural sciences
3. Technical skills: Occupation specific skills and knowledge of certain tools or processes. More recently, in the context of strategies for more sustainable growth, there has been some discussion of "green skills".
4. Generic skills: Commonly mentioned skills in this category include problem solving, thinking critically and creatively, ability to learn, and ability to manage complexity.

A range of other skills is also important to the work of the rural animator and these include:

"Soft" skills: working and interacting in teams and heterogeneous groups; communication; motivation; volition and initiative; emotional intelligence-the ability to read and manage one's own and others' emotions and behaviour during social interaction; multicultural openness for understanding and communicating across cultures; and receptiveness to innovation.

Management and leadership skills: may be an important prerequisite for building "social skills" for innovation. In particular skills of leadership may include all the above plus team building and steering, coaching and mentoring, lobbying and negotiating, co-ordination, ethics, and charisma.

"Society level" skills: there is also a question of whether "society level" skills are required for innovation. In for example area or community based innovation a range of skills related to communications and the competencies required to make connections and collaborate with people both within and outside the animator's immediate environment will be needed.

"Organisational capital": in addition, there has been some discussion of "organisational capital", a concept similar to social capital which reflects the shared knowledge, teamwork and norms of behaviour and interaction within organisations but could be similarly relevant to rural community and rural economic and social development groups at an area based level. This can be a valuable resource for the animator to draw on and can be developed through collective goal orientation and shared trust.

Academic achievement: Some countries emphasise doctoral-level attainment - doctorate holders often embody a number of skills that underpin research and innovation, including not only technical knowledge but also a capacity for communication, human relations, solving complex problems and

conducting research and developing new ideas. Nevertheless, not all innovative activities require workers to be qualified to the PhD level, and innovation-relevant skills may be acquired at all levels of education. At a basic level, technology is of little use if people are not capable of using it - suggesting that technical skills are essential in some cases. It is even suggested that some companies prefer people with bachelor and honours degrees over more highly qualified graduates, who were considered less likely to possess business knowledge and commercial instinct

Creativity and design: are two further skills for innovation which are gaining increased attention. The former concept refers broadly to the generation of new ideas, while the latter is about transforming ideas into new products and processes.

THE DIVERSITY OF NON-METROPOLITAN AREAS IN EUROPE:

A CHALLENGE FOR THE RURAL ANIMATOR

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Abstract

Rural areas make up more than 75% of the territory of the European Union, and they include very different "realities", from peri-urban, under-pressure rural districts to mountainous, lagging behind and remote rural areas. The rural animator needs to be aware of this diversity that can challenge his/her work and the overall rural development process. This talk will present a new typology of non-urban regions in Europe, incorporating an analysis of the main development indicators per type of non-urban area. The main challenges for the rural animator in relation to the extreme diversity of non-urban territories in Europe will be presented.

1. The diversity of rural areas in Europe: getting the picture

Between 2008 and 2011 the author participated in the ESPON project "European Development Opportunities for Rural Areas" (EDORA). The project belongs to the first strand of the ESPON 2013 program: "Applied research on territorial development, competitiveness and cohesion: Evidence on European territorial trends, perspectives and policy impacts". As such it is intended to "create information and evidence on territorial challenges and opportunities for success for the development of regions."

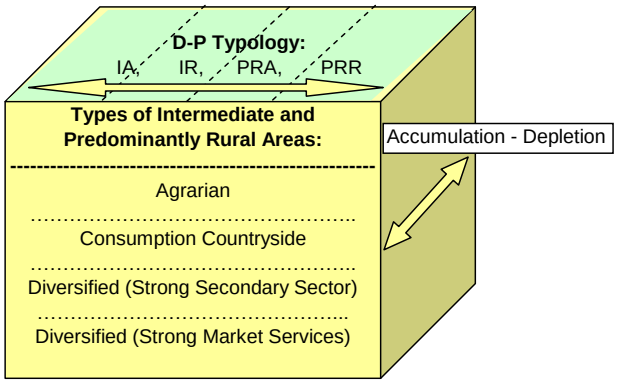
One of the central tasks of the EDORA project was the creation a set of typologies for understanding the state and dynamics of non-metropolitan regions in Europe (in the so called ESPON space). The work has been directed and performed mostly by Prof. Dr. Andrew Copus, senior fellowship in Nordregio, with the author of this paper contributing to the process. A better understanding of non-metropolitan reality of Europe should greatly contribute to a development policy more attuned to the real needs and demands of citizens and, therefore, more effective, efficient and relevant. Below we roughly present the characteristics of EDORA typologies as a starting point for understanding the subsequent comparative analysis between different geographical areas and different types of non-metropolitan regions.

Since this is specified as a typology of "rural areas", most of the analysis excludes those regions defined as "Predominantly Urban". It thus focuses on the "non-urban" regions of Europe, (including both Intermediate and Predominantly Rural regions – see below) rather than "rural areas" per se. This choice follows partly from the specification of NUTS 3 regions as the units of analysis. Furthermore (from a more theoretical perspective) it also reflects the fact that rural areas cannot, in any case, be separated from adjacent settlements, with which their economy is closely connected by a complex web of daily interactions.

Analyses carried out have produced the so called EDORA Cube (Copus 2010), a set of three typologies that, together, provide an interesting breakdown of the non-metropolitan regions, and an analysis of their current state and socioeconomic dynamics. These are the rural-urban typology of Dijkstra-Poelman, the EDORA Structural typology and the EDORA Performance Typology. The Dijkstra-Poelman typology of rural-urban regions (European Commission 2008) distinguishes five categories in relation to accessibility and rurality: Predominantly Urban, Intermediate Accessible, Intermediate Remote, Predominantly Rural Accessible and Predominantly Rural Remote. On the other hand, the EDORA Structural typology seeks to capture the most important differences in economic structure between the Intermediate and Predominantly Rural regions of the ESPON space. This typology considers four

categories in relation to the socioeconomic structure: agrarian economies, consumption countryside, diversified (with important Secondary Sector), diversified (with important Market Services Sector). Finally, the EDORA Performance typology, the last "cube" face, is calculated from a regional composite performance indicator from 5 rates (net migration, per capita GDP, average annual change in GDP, average annual change in total employment, and unemployment rate). The composite indicator is calculated as the average of the normalised (Z) scores for the five indicators. The four categories have been defined by the average standardised score from *Accumulation regions* (<-0.5 standard deviation below average) to *Depleting regions* (<-0.5 more than half a standard deviation below the "non-urban" average).

Figure 1. The EDORA Cube – a 3 dimensional framework for analysis



Note: IA = Intermediate Accessible, IR = Intermediate Remote
PRA= Predominantly Rural Accessible PRR = Predominantly Rural Remote
Source: Copus and Noguera, 2010

2. Analysis of the diversity of rural regions based upon the EDORA typology

This section presents rural Europe in its internal diversity. In order to achieve this goal, three typologies (and theeeiiir specific division of rural Europe) are D-P, Structural and Performance typologies (the components of the EDORA Cube) and four main variables: number of regions, total area, population and GDP. The analysis compares the three EDORA typologies for the EU27 countries as a whole. D-P, Structural and Performance typologies are considered as well as the four variables mentioned. In each case, "residuals" are calculated between types and variables.

Distribution of NUTs 3 regions according to the "EDORA cube" typologies

Table 1 analyses the distribution of NUTS3 regions of the EU27 according to categories of the Dijkstra-Poelman typology (hereafter D-P). DP Typology classifies regions according to their accessibility and rurality. Accessibility is measured in % of population which access to a market town under a particular time threshold. Rurality is linked to more extensive (as opposite to intensive) land use and, therefore, the variable is % of population living in rural LAU; that is, those below 150 inhab./km2. Special attention is given to the categories "Intermediate" and "Predominantly" rural, while reducing attention to category "Predominantly Urban (PU) due to the research focus of EDORA on rural areas. Only few countries have significant percentages of their NUT3 regions in PU categories. These are smaller countries in which the urban component is dominant either due to its administrative function (Netherlands or Belgium) or touristic (Malta). Relatively large countries also have a significant percentage of urban regions. It is the case of the UK (61.6%) due to the existence of a dense and balanced urban fabric, and Germany (44%) which combines a dense urban fabric with a NUT3 size that allows a more effective identification of urban regions. Most remaining countries are located in values ranging from 31% in Italy to 0% in countries like Cyprus and Slovenia.

Higher percentages of accessible regions (70-80%), according to the definition of D-P, match smaller countries, mainly located in central Europe (Czech Republic, Slovakia, Hungary, Slovenia). Also larger countries have high percentages of accessible regions, either because possess a dense urban fabric (France) or due to their favourable geomorphologic conditions (Poland).Countries with higher percentages of remote regions (about 40) are clearly within the geographical periphery of the EU and, in some cases, have large territories (Sweden, Finland, Greece, Portugal).

On the other hand, rurality is concentrated in countries that combine a larger area and a peripheral geographical position. Thus, we observe rates of over 70% of predominantly rural regions in Finland, Sweden, Ireland and Greece. Furthermore, Austria is over 70% due to the dominance of mountainous areas.

Table 1. Dijkstra-Poelman Typology. Number of regions (in % of MS total)

Regions		D-P Typology				% of MS Total
		PU	IA	IR	PRA	PRR
Austria	AT	5,71	22,86	0,00	48,57	22,86
Belgium	BE	61,36	22,73	0,00	15,91	0,00
Bulgaria	BG	3,57	50,00	7,14	14,29	25,00
Cyprus	CY	0,00	100,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Czech Republic	CZ	7,14	85,71	0,00	7,14	0,00
Germany	DE	44,06	35,43	0,00	20,05	0,47
Denmark	DK	27,27	27,27	0,00	18,18	27,27
Estonia	EE	20,00	40,00	20,00	0,00	20,00
Spain	ES	20,34	37,29	5,08	15,25	22,03
Finland	FI	5,00	5,00	5,00	45,00	40,00
France	FR	13,00	50,00	0,00	24,00	13,00
Greece	GR	1,96	17,65	7,84	9,80	62,75
Hungary	HU	5,00	40,00	0,00	25,00	30,00
Ireland	IE	12,50	0,00	0,00	50,00	37,50
Italy	IT	31,78	42,06	4,67	11,21	10,28
Lithuania	LT	10,00	40,00	10,00	20,00	20,00
Luxembourg	LU	0,00	100,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Latvia	LV	16,67	16,67	16,67	33,33	16,67
Malta	MT	100,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Netherlands	NL	67,50	30,00	0,00	2,50	0,00
Poland	PL	18,18	27,27	3,03	50,00	1,52
Portugal	PT	23,33	26,67	0,00	10,00	40,00
Romania	RO	2,38	42,86	0,00	35,71	19,05
Sweden	SE	4,76	9,52	0,00	42,86	42,86
Slovenia	SI	0,00	25,00	8,33	58,33	8,33
Slovakia	SK	12,50	62,50	0,00	25,00	0,00
United Kingdom	UK	61,65	28,57	1,50	3,76	4,51

Source: *EDORA Typology*
Key: ***Green****: 20-40% -*
Yellow*: 40-60%*
Red*: > 60%*

Table 2 shows the percentage of NUT3 regions of the EU27 which is located in each of the categories of the EDORA Structural Typology. The structural typology classifies regions according to their economic settings. According to this typology, regions can have an economic base focused on primary activities, or be focused on the "consumption countryside", or have diversified economies dominated by secondary

activities or by private services. The analyses carried out on the EDORA typology and those made elsewhere in this report show that regions with an agricultural economy and to a lesser extent, those focused on "consumption countryside" concentrate the main problems associated with rural decline. By contrast, rural regions with diversified economies have better economic and demographic indicators.

Rural regions whose economies are primarily agriculture-based match peripheral areas that have kept less modernised agricultural structures and means of production Moreover, social modernization has only been carried out partially and, therefore, there are still few opportunities for economic diversification in rural areas. Therefore, most countries with the highest percentages of rural areas under the category "Agriculture" (more than 50%) are located in the NMS. We need to keep in mind, in any case that these agriculture-based rural regions includes a variety of types ranging from some areas of subsistence farming in Romania or Bulgaria to industrialised agricultural production complexes in Poland or other countries.

The regions defined as "consumption countryside" are characterised by areas dominated by one or more services together, typically geared to the urban population (access to environmental assets, tourism capacity, and farm diversification). Consequently, there is not only one type of rural areas but many rural profiles that have in common the orientation to urban consumption, usually in forms of tourism. Most countries show significant percentages of their regions in this category. Due to the diversity of sub-categories implicit in the Consumption Countryside we can not speak of uniformity; each region under this category may have a different economic settings with the common denominator of their orientation to urban consumption. Only two conditions seem to be implicit in this type of regions: on the one hand, a relative low importance of agriculture as economic activity and employment provider; on the other hand, a mature urban demand that makes possible consumption of rural goods beyond a critical threshold.

Within these diversified rural economies the EDORA Structural typology differentiates two situations: on the one hand, areas where secondary activity (industry and construction) is the most relevant; on the other hand, areas where private services constitute the main economic activity.

Diversified rural economies with strong secondary sectors may refer to the implementation of diffuse processes of industrialisation in intermediate rural areas (ie. Marshallian districts in Spain or Portugal). It may, on the other hand, be the remnants of industrial specialization associated with the communist era (Hungary, Czech Republic, Slovakia, Poland) to be reinforced in recent years because of relocation of large industrial plants from other less competitive locations in terms of costs. For these areas, industrial know-how accumulated during the twentieth century and the lower costs of land and labour, along with the EU “umbrella” are the main potentials. However, the maintenance of an industrial activity of this sort does not guarantee an easy path to long term, sustainable development unless work is undertaken in a proper embedding of the industrial fabric, usually exogenous, in the local development strategy. It can also mean the case of rural regions where agriculture is not a relevant activity due to land or climate constraints and they have managed to develop or attract industrial activity.

Rural areas with diversified economies that have a powerful private services sector are present in few regional environments. It is the case for non-urban tourist regions in which much of the economy hinges on the services sector without a very specific thematic orientation as with the “consumption countryside”. It should also be included here a set of regions of France, Denmark and the Netherlands. Territorial diversity of these countries, the presence of consolidated urban markets, or counter-urbanisation processes that have brought urban population to rural areas may be explanatory factors

Table 2. Structural Typology. Number of regions (in % of MS total)

		Structural Typology			% of MS Total
		Ag	CC	D(Sec)	D(PServe)
Austria	AT	8,57	60,00	17,14	8,57
Belgium	BE	2,27	18,18	4,55	13,64
Bulgaria	BG	78,57	17,86	0,00	0,00
Cyprus	CY	0,00	100,00	0,00	0,00
Czech Republic	CZ	0,00	28,57	57,14	7,14
Germany	DE	0,00	41,96	6,06	7,93
Denmark	DK	0,00	45,45	9,09	18,18
Estonia	EE	20,00	60,00	0,00	0,00
Spain	ES	22,03	40,68	11,86	5,08
Finland	FI	0,00	95,00	0,00	0,00
France	FR	8,00	23,00	1,00	55,00
Greece	GR	80,39	17,65	0,00	0,00
Hungary	HU	50,00	20,00	20,00	5,00
Ireland	IE	0,00	75,00	12,50	0,00
Italy	IT	12,15	40,19	1,87	14,02
Lithuania	LT	50,00	20,00	10,00	10,00
Luxembourg	LU	0,00	100,00	0,00	0,00
Latvia	LV	66,67	16,67	0,00	0,00
Malta	MT	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Netherlands	NL	0,00	2,50	10,00	20,00
Poland	PL	53,03	7,58	13,64	7,58
Portugal	PT	33,33	40,00	0,00	3,33
Romania	RO	88,10	2,38	4,76	2,38
Sweden	SE	0,00	90,48	0,00	4,76
Slovenia	SI	16,67	83,33	0,00	0,00
Slovakia	SK	0,00	62,50	25,00	0,00
United Kingdom	UK	0,00	26,32	3,01	9,02

Source: *EDORA Typology*
Key: ***Green****: 20-40%*
Yellow*: 40-60%*
Red*: > 60%*

Table 3 shows the percentage of rural regions of the EU27 countries for each category of the EDORA Performance Typology. The EDORA Performance Typology is calculated from a regional composite performance indicator from 5 indicators (net migration, per capita GDP, average annual change in GDP, average annual change in total employment, and unemployment rate). The composite indicator is calculated as the average of the normalised (Z) scores for the five indicators.

More or less pronounced, NMS concentrate higher percentages of depleting regions. Thus, Romania and Bulgaria are the countries with the highest percentages (over 70%) but closely followed by Latvia (66%), Poland (59%) and Lithuania (50%). These low regional yields are associated with a set of elements that, in this case, refer to population dynamics, wealth and its evolution, and the strength and dynamism of the labour market. The percentage of depleting regions in the EU15 is very low. It is worthy highlighting 14% in Germany, related to the adjustment problems of Eastern Landers, and 12% of Greece for the problems of isolation and rurality of some areas.

The set of rural regions "below average" includes areas facing some weakness in the indicators used (emigration, wealth and employment) that gives them a lower performance than the European average. These are regions that are in a position of weakness, however, is not as pronounced as in the case of

depleting regions. At this level are placed high percentages of some of the NMS rural regions (Czech Republic, Slovakia, Estonia, Hungary, Lithuania) and somewhat lower percentages of other NMS whose highest percentages are located in the "Depleting" areas. Besides these cases, unlike the previous category, a number of EU15 countries also have percentages of rural regions in this category that are around 20-30% (Austria, Belgium, Finland, France) and raises above 40% in Portugal and Sweden. When we accumulate the percentages of the regions below the mean ("depleting" and "below average") we get a truer picture of the situation that reinforces the above arguments. Ten of twelve NMS get percentages above 60% of their rural regions in these categories. The percentages go to more than 80% in Romania, Bulgaria and Lithuania.

Table 3. Performance Typology. Number of regions (in % of MS total)

		Performance Typology			% of MS Total
		Deplet.	Below	Above	Accum.
Austria	**AT**	0,00	25,71	34,29	34,29
Belgium	**BE**	2,27	22,73	11,36	2,27
Bulgaria	**BG**	75,00	14,29	7,14	0,00
Cyprus	**CY**	0,00	0,00	0,00	100,00
Czech Republic	**CZ**	0,00	71,43	21,43	0,00
Germany	**DE**	15,15	14,45	21,45	4,90
Denmark	**DK**	0,00	9,09	45,45	18,18
Estonia	**EE**	0,00	60,00	0,00	20,00
Spain	**ES**	0,00	10,17	25,42	44,07
Finland	**FI**	5,00	25,00	50,00	15,00
France	**FR**	1,00	25,00	42,00	19,00
Greece	**GR**	13,73	39,22	35,29	9,80
Hungary	**HU**	15,00	55,00	20,00	5,00
Ireland	**IE**	0,00	0,00	0,00	87,50
Italy	**IT**	3,74	23,36	21,50	19,63
Lithuania	**LT**	50,00	40,00	0,00	0,00
Luxembourg	**LU**	0,00	0,00	0,00	100,00
Latvia	**LV**	50,00	16,67	16,67	0,00
Malta	**MT**	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Netherlands	**NL**	0,00	5,00	20,00	7,50
Poland	**PL**	56,06	21,21	4,55	0,00
Portugal	**PT**	0,00	40,00	30,00	6,67
Romania	**RO**	69,05	26,19	0,00	2,38
Sweden	**SE**	0,00	33,33	61,90	0,00
Slovenia	**SI**	0,00	41,67	50,00	8,33
Slovakia	**SK**	37,50	37,50	12,50	0,00
United Kingdom	**UK**	0,00	6,77	12,78	18,80

Source: *EDORA Typology*
Key: ***Green****: 20-40%*
Yellow*: 40-60%*
Red*: > 60%*

As for areas that are placed above the average, most do in the "above average" category and only a relatively small percentage in the category "Accumulating". In any case, it is noteworthy that most of these regions are concentrated in countries with higher GDP per capita (ie. the EU 15). Furthermore, the highest percentages of rural regions in the category "Accumulating" are located in small countries (Cyprus and Luxembourg) and in countries that, at that point in time, were under the influence of an explosive development of the building and associated sectors (Ireland and Spain).

Total area distribution of NUTs 3 regions according to the "EDORA cube" typologies

This section presents the distribution of the total area of NUT3 in the three EDORA typologies: D-P, Structural and Performance. This is done in two ways: first, as the total percentage of each category in each typology; second, as the differential between the percentage of regions in each category and the percentage of total area representing these regions. The differential results in a percentage that goes to 0% to the extent that the number of regions and the total area match. A high differential (over 10%) indicates a significant heterogeneity in the size of the regions of a member state. Tables 4, 6 and 8 present the percentage of total area of NUT3 regions for the EU27 for each EDORA typology. Tables 5, 7 and 9 show differentials between the percentage of NUT3 regions in each category and the percentage of total area representing these regions.

Table 4 analyses the total area of NUTS3 regions of the EU27 according to categories of the Dijkstra-Poelman typology. Most of the territory is located in urban or intermediate areas (IA-IR) in small countries (Cyprus), where the geomorphological conditions do not impose significant restrictions on accessibility (Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Slovakia) or where infrastructure networks are dense and well development (Italy, Germany, France, Spain). Some of these countries combine several of these factors (Belgium, Netherlands, Luxembourg). Rurality in terms of territory is most pronounced in the entire area of Ireland (99%), Finland (93%), Poland (91%) and Sweden (90%). It also shows percentages above 70% in Austria, Denmark, Greece, Portugal and Slovenia.

Table 4. Dijkstra-Poelman Typology. Total area (in % of MS total)

		% of MS Total				
		PU	IA	IR	PRA	PRR
Austria	AT	1,36	20,20	0,00	47,65	30,79
Belgium	BE	54,86	20,64	0,00	24,50	0,00
Bulgaria	BG	1,22	53,36	8,86	13,02	23,54
Cyprus	CY	0,00	100,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Czech Republic	CZ	0,63	90,75	0,00	8,62	0,00
Germany	DE	19,48	44,55	0,00	35,42	0,55
Denmark	DK	4,58	23,67	0,00	38,64	33,11
Estonia	EE	7,70	46,07	25,48	0,00	20,75
Spain	ES	14,06	37,35	2,79	21,01	24,78
Finland	FI	2,00	3,22	1,65	36,36	56,76
France	FR	4,44	47,23	0,00	36,05	12,28
Greece	GR	2,89	21,44	1,75	11,39	62,54
Hungary	HU	0,56	41,47	0,00	28,71	29,25
Ireland	IE	1,32	0,00	0,00	58,05	40,63
Italy	IT	25,40	43,94	3,92	16,15	10,59
Lithuania	LT	14,90	45,51	6,66	15,14	17,78
Luxembourg	LU	0,00	100,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Latvia	LV	0,47	22,54	21,06	32,32	23,62
Malta	MT	100,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Netherlands	NL	56,12	41,07	0,00	2,81	0,00
Poland	PL	3,10	4,83	0,00	86,71	5,35
Portugal	PT	8,58	21,70	0,00	9,99	59,73
Romania	RO	0,10	44,62	0,00	34,32	20,96
Sweden	SE	1,54	8,33	0,00	31,14	59,00
Slovenia	SI	0,00	24,45	5,15	65,27	5,13
Slovakia	SK	4,19	63,59	0,00	32,22	0,00
United Kingdom	UK	22,96	49,76	1,56	11,12	14,61

Source: *EDORA Typology*

Key: ***Green****: 20-40% ;* ***Yellow****: 40-60%;* ***Red****: > 60%*

Differentials between number of regions and total area are shown in Figure 5. The differential results in a percentage that goes to 0% to the extent that the number of regions and the total area match. A high differential (over 10%) indicates a significant heterogeneity in the size of the regions of a member state.

Figure 5 shows that the largest positive differential (ie, a percentage of regions greater than the percentage of geographic area) relate mainly to urban and, to a lesser extent, intermediate regions. Thus, urban regions of the United Kingdom, Germany and Denmark show differentials over 20% while urban regions of Latvia, Poland, Portugal, Estonia and Ireland, are above the threshold of 10%. By contrast, rural areas are those that accumulate wider negative differentials, mainly due to their larger size. It is the case in Poland, Denmark, Portugal, Finland and Sweden. The countries where differentials are lower and thus where there is a greater balance in the size of the regions are Bulgaria, Spain, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Romania and Slovenia.

Table 5. Dijkstra-Poelman Typology. % Number of Regions - %Total area (in % of MS total)

		D-P Typology				% of MS Total
		PU	IA	IR	PRA	PRR
Austria	AT	4,35	2,66	0,00	0,92	-7,93
Belgium	BE	6,50	2,09	0,00	-8,59	0,00
Bulgaria	BG	2,36	-3,36	-1,72	1,26	1,46
Cyprus	CY	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Czech Republic	CZ	6,51	-5,04	0,00	-1,47	0,00
Germany	DE	24,57	-9,12	0,00	-15,37	-0,08
Denmark	DK	22,70	3,60	0,00	-20,46	-5,84
Estonia	EE	12,30	-6,07	-5,48	0,00	-0,75
Spain	ES	6,28	-0,06	2,29	-5,76	-2,75
Finland	FI	3,00	1,78	3,35	8,64	-16,76
France	FR	8,56	2,77	0,00	-12,05	0,72
Greece	GR	-0,93	-3,79	6,09	-1,58	0,20
Hungary	HU	4,44	-1,47	0,00	-3,71	0,75
Ireland	IE	11,18	0,00	0,00	-8,05	-3,13
Italy	IT	6,38	-1,88	0,75	-4,93	-0,31
Lithuania	LT	-4,90	-5,51	3,34	4,86	2,22
Luxembourg	LU	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Latvia	LV	16,20	-5,87	-4,39	1,01	-6,95
Malta	MT	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Netherlands	NL	11,38	-11,07	0,00	-0,31	0,00
Poland	PL	15,08	22,44	3,03	-36,71	-3,84
Portugal	PT	14,75	4,96	0,00	0,01	-19,73
Romania	RO	2,28	-1,77	0,00	1,39	-1,91
Sweden	SE	3,22	1,20	0,00	11,72	-16,14
Slovenia	SI	0,00	0,55	3,18	-6,94	3,20
Slovakia	SK	8,31	-1,09	0,00	-7,22	0,00
United Kingdom	UK	36,70	-21,19	-0,05	-7,36	-10,10

Source: *EDORA Typology,*

Key: ***Dark blue****: >20%*
Light blue*: 10 to 20%*
Yellow: -10 to -20%
Orange*: < -20€*

Figure 6 shows the total area of NUT3 regions of the EU27 which is located in each of the categories of the EDORA Structural Typology. Rural areas whose economy is centred on agriculture account for most of the countries in which rurality is high or those holding weaker economies. This is the case of Romania (89%), Latvia (84%), Greece (82%), Bulgaria (79%), Poland (79%). Also relevant percentages are present in Hungary (58%), Portugal (56%) and Lithuania (47%)

The areas of 'consumption countryside' are dominant in most countries. Within diversified rural economies the EDORA Structural typology differentiates two situations: on the one hand, areas where secondary activity (industry and construction) is the most relevant; on the other hand, areas where private services constitute the main economic activity.

Diversified rural economies with strong secondary sectors are only relevant in Czech Republic (70%), and Slovakia (21%). On the other hand, rural areas with diversified economies that have a powerful private services sector are present in few regional environments. It is the case for non-urban tourist regions in which much of the economy hinges on the services sector without a very specific thematic orientation as with the "consumption countryside". It should also be included here a set of regions of France (68%) and the Netherlands (35%). Territorial diversity of these countries, the presence of consolidated urban markets, or counter-urbanisation processes that have brought urban population to rural areas may be explanatory factors.

Table 6. Structural Typology. Total area (in % of MS total)

		Structural Typology			% of MS Total
		Ag	CC	D(Sec)	D(PServe)
Austria	AT	11,55	62,41	19,38	5,30
Belgium	BE	1,19	23,46	3,96	16,53
Bulgaria	BG	79,74	19,04	0,00	0,00
Cyprus	CY	0,00	100,00	0,00	0,00
Czech Republic	CZ	0,00	20,00	70,24	9,12
Germany	DE	0,00	56,89	10,45	13,18
Denmark	DK	0,00	61,80	16,75	16,88
Estonia	EE	20,75	71,55	0,00	0,00
Spain	ES	34,65	30,72	13,86	6,71
Finland	FI	0,00	98,00	0,00	0,00
France	FR	7,20	19,56	0,83	67,97
Greece	GR	82,57	14,54	0,00	0,00
Hungary	HU	58,07	17,79	16,70	6,87
Ireland	IE	0,00	81,19	17,49	0,00
Italy	IT	12,01	47,24	1,36	13,98
Lithuania	LT	47,04	19,00	6,66	12,39
Luxembourg	LU	0,00	100,00	0,00	0,00
Latvia	LV	83,84	15,69	0,00	0,00
Malta	MT	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Netherlands	NL	0,00	4,95	9,27	29,65
Poland	PL	79,54	14,63	2,73	0,00
Portugal	PT	56,03	32,98	0,00	2,41
Romania	RO	92,04	2,97	4,23	0,66
Sweden	SE	0,00	95,89	0,00	2,58
Slovenia	SI	13,78	86,22	0,00	0,00
Slovakia	SK	0,00	74,42	21,39	0,00
United Kingdom	UK	0,00	57,39	2,73	16,93

Source: *EDORA Typology*
Key: ***Green****: 20-40%*
Yellow*: 40-60%*
Red*: > 60%*

Differentials between number of regions and total area for the Structural Typology are shown in Figure 8.6. The differential results in a percentage that goes to 0% to the extent that the number of regions and the total area match. A high differential (over 10%) indicates a significant heterogeneity in the size of the regions of a member state in relation to each type.

The vast majority of relevant differentials (>10%) occur in the negative side (ie. usually rural regions accumulate more land per unit of measure and this is the reason why most negative differentials are in the agriculture and consumption countryside regions). The biggest differentials are:

In the case of rural regions with dominant agricultural economy greatest differentials are in Poland (-27%), Portugal (-23%), Latvia (-17%) and Spain (-13%). In rural regions dominated by "consumption countryside" greatest differential occur in United Kingdom (-31%), Denmark (-16%), Germany (-15%), Slovakia (-12%) and Estonia (-12%). Rural regions with diversified economies and dominant secondary sector show differentials in the positive and negative sides. The former refers to Poland (11%) while the latter refers to Czech Republic (-13%). Rural regions with diversified economies and dominant "private services" sector show significant negative differentials in France (-13%).

Table 7. Structural Typology. % Number of Regions - %Total area (in % of MS total)

		% of MS Total			
		Ag	CC	D(Sec)	D(PServe)
Austria	AT	-2,98	-2,41	-2,24	3,27
Belgium	BE	1,09	-5,28	0,58	-2,90
Bulgaria	BG	-1,17	-1,18	0,00	0,00
Cyprus	CY	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Czech Republic	CZ	0,00	8,57	-13,10	-1,98
Germany	DE	0,00	-14,93	-4,39	-5,26
Denmark	DK	0,00	-16,35	-7,66	1,31
Estonia	EE	-0,75	-11,55	0,00	0,00
Spain	ES	-12,62	9,96	-1,99	-1,62
Finland	FI	0,00	-3,00	0,00	0,00
France	FR	0,80	3,44	0,17	-12,97
Greece	GR	-2,18	3,11	0,00	0,00
Hungary	HU	-8,07	2,21	3,30	-1,87
Ireland	IE	0,00	-6,19	-4,99	0,00
Italy	IT	0,14	-7,06	0,51	0,04
Lithuania	LT	2,96	1,00	3,34	-2,39
Luxembourg	LU	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Latvia	LV	-17,17	0,97	0,00	0,00
Malta	MT	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Netherlands	NL	0,00	-2,45	0,73	-9,65
Poland	PL	-26,51	-7,06	10,91	7,58
Portugal	PT	-22,69	7,02	0,00	0,92
Romania	RO	-3,95	-0,59	0,53	1,72
Sweden	SE	0,00	-5,41	0,00	2,19
Slovenia	SI	2,89	-2,89	0,00	0,00
Slovakia	SK	0,00	-11,92	3,61	0,00
United Kingdom	UK	0,00	-31,07	0,28	-7,90

Source: *EDORA Typology*

Key: ***Dark blue****: >20%*
Light blue*: 10 to 20%*
Yellow: -10 to -20%
Orange: *< -20€*

Table 8 shows the percentage of total area of the EU27 countries for each category of the EDORA Performance Typology. The total area under the "depleting" category involves more than 50% of the total in 5 of the new member states: Poland (63%), Latvia (63%), Bulgaria (66%), Romania (70%), Slovakia (51%). Close to these values is Lithuania (45%). It is relevant to point out that 1/4th of German

territory is classified under this category, matching the eastern Lander. These are the areas suffering more problems of emigration, unemployment and lower income level. Regions "below average" are relevant in a number of countries, especially the new member states. As in the analysis of the distribution of NUT3, “below the average” and "depleting" areas are located in the less modernised economies of Europe. By contrast, the “above average” and "accumulation" areas are mainly located in countries with stronger economies and higher income levels.

Table 8. Performance Typology. Total area (in % of MS total)

		Performance Typology			% of MS Total
		Deplet.	Below	Above	Accum.
Austria	AT	0,00	27,04	39,50	32,09
Belgium	BE	3,06	26,96	14,22	0,90
Bulgaria	BG	66,62	22,36	9,80	0,00
Cyprus	CY	0,00	0,00	0,00	100,00
Czech Republic	CZ	0,00	63,07	36,31	0,00
Germany	DE	24,01	20,18	29,62	6,71
Denmark	DK	0,00	1,37	78,48	15,58
Estonia	EE	0,00	82,39	0,00	9,92
Spain	ES	0,00	18,00	30,41	37,53
Finland	FI	7,23	49,33	35,87	5,58
France	FR	0,27	35,61	40,55	19,12
Greece	GR	11,04	42,30	33,25	10,52
Hungary	HU	16,58	60,27	15,71	6,87
Ireland	IE	0,00	0,00	0,00	98,68
Italy	IT	2,74	28,94	17,78	25,14
Lithuania	LT	44,99	40,10	0,00	0,00
Luxembourg	LU	0,00	0,00	0,00	100,00
Latvia	LV	62,78	21,06	15,69	0,00
Malta	MT	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Netherlands	NL	0,00	3,06	28,14	12,68
Poland	PL	63,26	33,64	0,00	0,00
Portugal	PT	0,00	50,31	33,79	7,32
Romania	RO	70,00	29,23	0,00	0,66
Sweden	SE	0,00	53,74	44,72	0,00
Slovenia	SI	0,00	29,16	58,24	12,60
Slovakia	SK	51,35	35,28	9,18	0,00
United Kingdom	UK	0,00	10,17	33,47	33,41

Source: *EDORA Typology*
Key: ***Green****: 20-40%*
Yellow*: 40-60%*
Red*: > 60%*

Differentials between number of regions and total area for the Performance Typology are shown in Figure 9. The differential results in a percentage that goes to 0% to the extent that the number of regions and the total area match. A high differential (over 10%) indicates a significant heterogeneity in the size of the regions of a member state. Differentials resulting from the comparison between number of regions and total area, in the case of the Performance Typology are, as in the case of the Structural Typology, mostly negative. Again, the cause is the exclusion from the analysis of Urban regions and the empirical evidence that Rural regions are more extensive.

Important differentials are not recorded in the case of “depleting” regions. Just highlight the cases of Latvia (-17%) and Slovakia (-14%).

Differentials in "below average" regions are more significant. Here stand Finland (-24%), Estonia (-22%) Sweden (-20%) and France (-10%). On the positive side, Slovenia shows a differential of 12%.

In the case of regions "above average" differentials are shown both in positive and negative. In the first case includes Sweden (17%) and Finland (14%). In the case of negative differentials includes Denmark (-25%), United Kingdom (-20%) and the Czech Republic (-15%).

As in case of "depleting regions", the areas of differential accumulation are not elevated. Just highlights the UK (-15%) and Ireland (-11%) for negative differentials, whilst Estonia (10%) stands for its positive differential.

Table 9. Performance Typology. % Number of Regions - %Total area (in % of MS total)

		Performance Typology			% of MS Total
		Deplet.	Below	Above	Accum.
Austria	AT	0,00	-1,33	-5,22	2,19
Belgium	BE	-0,79	-4,23	-2,86	1,37
Bulgaria	BG	8,38	-8,08	-2,66	0,00
Cyprus	CY	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Czech Republic	CZ	0,00	8,36	-14,88	0,00
Germany	DE	-8,86	-5,72	-8,17	-1,82
Denmark	DK	0,00	7,73	-33,02	2,60
Estonia	EE	0,00	-22,39	0,00	10,08
Spain	ES	0,00	-7,83	-4,99	6,54
Finland	FI	-2,23	-24,33	14,13	9,42
France	FR	0,73	-10,61	1,45	-0,12
Greece	GR	2,68	-3,09	2,05	-0,72
Hungary	HU	-1,58	-5,27	4,29	-1,87
Ireland	IE	0,00	0,00	0,00	-11,18
Italy	IT	1,00	-5,57	3,71	-5,51
Lithuania	LT	5,01	-0,10	0,00	0,00
Luxembourg	LU	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Latvia	LV	-12,78	-4,39	0,97	0,00
Malta	MT	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Netherlands	NL	0,00	1,94	-8,14	-5,18
Poland	PL	-7,20	-12,43	4,55	0,00
Portugal	PT	0,00	-10,31	-3,79	-0,65
Romania	RO	-0,95	-3,04	0,00	1,72
Sweden	SE	0,00	-20,41	17,19	0,00
Slovenia	SI	0,00	12,51	-8,24	-4,27
Slovakia	SK	-13,85	2,22	3,32	0,00
United Kingdom	UK	0,00	-3,40	-20,68	-14,62

Source: *EDORA Typology*

Key: ***Dark blue****: >20%;* ***Light blue****: 10 to 20%; Yellow: -10 to -20%;* ***Orange****: < -20€*

Population distribution of NUTs 3 regions according to the "EDORA cube" typologies

This section presents the distribution of the population of NUT3 in the three EDORA typologies: D-P, Structural and Performance. This is done in two ways: first, as the total percentage of each category in each typology; second, as the differential between the percentage of total area in each category and the percentage of the population representing these regions. The differential results in a percentage that goes to 0% to the extent that the total area and the population match. A high differential (over 10%) indicates a significant concentration of the population in one or more typology categories.

Tables 10, 12 and 14 present the percentage of population of NUT3 regions for the EU27 for each EDORA typology. Tables 11, 13 and 15 show differentials between the percentage of total area in each category and the percentage of the population representing these regions.

Table 10 analyses the population of NUTS3 regions of the EU27 according to categories of the Dijkstra-Poelman. The analysis of population distribution among the categories of the D-P typology allows isolating the percentage of each country's population that resides in PU regions. Predominantly urban regions account for a significant portion of the population of small countries without complicated terrain like Malta (100%), Belgium (85%) and the Netherlands (83%). Stands also the case of the United Kingdom (70%) associated with the existence of a dense urban system which connects the country, aided by a "friendly" physical environment without major accidents. At a second level there are some of the largest countries (territorial and demographically), in which PU regions also accounts for a significant percentage of the population thanks to the existence of dense and well organised urban systems. This is the case for Germany (58%), Italy (54%) and Spain (48%). Surprisingly, however, the low percentage of population in urban areas of France (30%) as a result of the network of intermediate cities only headed by Paris and a handful of metropolitan area (Lyon, Marseille, Lille, Toulouse and Bordeaux).

Accessibility is one of the main parameters to measure population settlement. If we add up the population living in accessible areas (IA-PRA), without the PU population, results indicate that there is a clear concentration of population in accessible areas to the detriment of remote areas. If we, then, add to this figure the population of PU regions, almost all countries show over 80% of the population in the resulting sum. Consequently, few countries maintain significant portions of the population in remote areas: Greece (32%), Ireland (28%), Denmark (26%), Latvia (24%) and Finland (22%). The reasons are diverse but are related to their geography: the complicated terrain of Greece, the strong peripherality of northern Scandinavia (Finland) or Ireland's urban macrocephaly.

The above analysis does not imply that predominantly rural regions have been emptied demographically. The relationship between rurality and population operates under different parameters than those explaining accessibility. In the case of D-P categories, the population in predominantly rural regions (PRA-PRR) is still significant in a number of countries. More than half of the population live in predominantly rural regions in 6 countries of the EU27: Ireland (72%), Estonia (65%), Finland (62%), Slovenia (57%), Sweden (51%) and Denmark (50%). It is evident that those are not economically weaker countries but territories with geographic peculiarities that have a significant percentage of its land in categories of rurality which implies a high percentage of rural population.

Table 10. Dijkstra-Poelman Typology. Population (in % of MS total)

		D-P Typology				% of MS Total
		PU	IA	IR	PRA	PRR
Austria	**AT**	23,42	30,87	0,00	35,19	10,52
Belgium	**BE**	84,71	11,06	0,00	4,22	0,00
Bulgaria	**BG**	16,18	52,37	6,88	9,23	15,35
Cyprus	**CY**	0,00	100,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Czech Republic	**CZ**	11,61	83,43	0,00	4,96	0,00
Germany	**DE**	57,77	29,27	0,00	12,77	0,20
Denmark	**DK**	29,26	20,83	0,00	23,60	26,31
Estonia	**EE**	12,76	64,75	12,02	0,00	10,47
Spain	**ES**	48,50	35,81	2,23	7,37	6,08
Finland	**FI**	26,12	8,67	3,48	42,43	19,31
France	**FR**	29,56	53,66	0,00	12,97	3,81
Greece	**GR**	36,16	25,31	2,16	6,77	29,61
Hungary	**HU**	16,90	42,02	0,00	21,89	19,19
Ireland	**IE**	27,96	0,00	0,00	44,09	27,95
Italy	**IT**	54,14	34,02	2,61	6,31	2,92
Lithuania	**LT**	25,12	50,13	5,15	10,66	8,94
Luxembourg	**LU**	0,00	100,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Latvia	**LV**	31,63	15,44	13,39	29,04	10,50
Malta	**MT**	100,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Netherlands	**NL**	82,85	15,88	0,00	1,26	0,00
Poland	**PL**	21,56	29,78	2,34	45,49	0,81
Portugal	**PT**	52,31	26,76	0,00	5,83	15,10
Romania	**RO**	9,01	50,29	0,00	27,49	13,20
Sweden	**SE**	21,14	29,89	0,00	29,35	19,61
Slovenia	**SI**	0,00	37,27	5,30	53,78	3,65
Slovakia	**SK**	11,28	63,48	0,00	25,24	0,00
United Kingdom	**UK**	69,56	27,24	1,17	1,48	0,54

Source: *EDORA Typology*
Key: ***Green****: 20-40%*
Yellow*: 40-60%*
Red*: > 60%*

Finally, it is worth noting the behaviour of the variable "population" when combined low accessibility and high rurality. This applies to the category "predominantly rural remote" (PRR). In this case it is clear that both variables (accessibility and rurality) and operating effectively to reduce the intensity of human occupation. In 15 of the 27 EU countries PRR regions do not reach 10% of the population in their respective states. Comparatively, only 10 countries of the 27 member states have less than 10% of its territory in this category. Interestingly, remote rural residence is not located primarily in the NMS but in countries with specific geographical constraints that limit the accessibility to parts of their territories, mainly by island or by geography.

Differentials between % of total area of regions and % of population are shown in Figure 8.11. The differential results in a percentage that goes to 0% to the extent that the number of regions and the total area match. A high differential (over 10%) indicates a significant heterogeneity in the size of the regions of a member state.

Differentials between total area and population show, first, that urban areas concentrate a lot more population than the geographical area they represent. This general trend is more pronounced in the UK

(-47%), Portugal (-44%), Germany -(38%), Spain (-34%), Greece (-33%) and Latvia (-31%). This means that the population is more concentrated in PU areas in relation to the surface they occupy. Interestingly, both countries recorded negative differentials in PU regions. This is Slovakia (-7%) and Estonia (-5%). These differentials mean that the territorial dimension of the predominantly urban regions is greater than its population size. This contradicts the own definition of urban as an area of higher density and human occupation.

Apart from the PU areas, only the Intermediate regions close to cities (IA) show a tendency to negative differentials, although much less pronounced than in the previous case. These are regions whose accessibility and relatively low rurality allow for dense urban networks and major population settlements. There are several countries that show negative differential in IA regions confirming this hypothesis, Poland (-25%), Sweden (-22%), Estonia (-19%) and Slovenia (13%), among other. However, there are three countries where the trend is the opposite: less demographic than geographic weight in IA regions. This is Netherlands (25%), United Kingdom (23%) and Germany (15%).

The other three categories of the D-P typology (IR, ARP and RRP) show positive differential; ie. the geographic "weight" is greater than the demographic "weight". While differentials are scarce in IR regions, they are much more important in predominantly rural regions (both accessible and remote). Only Finland shows a negative differential (greater geographic than demographic weight) for the case of predominantly rural accessible regions.

Table 11. Dijkstra-Poelman Typology. % Total Area - %Population (in % of MS total)

		D-P Typology				% of MS Total
		PU	IA	IR	PRA	PRR
Austria	**AT**	-22,06	-10,67	0,00	12,46	20,27
Belgium	**BE**	-29,85	9,58	0,00	20,27	0,00
Bulgaria	**BG**	-14,96	1,00	1,99	3,79	8,19
Cyprus	**CY**	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Czech Republic	**CZ**	-10,98	7,33	0,00	3,66	0,00
Germany	**DE**	-38,29	15,28	0,00	22,65	0,35
Denmark	**DK**	-24,69	2,84	0,00	15,05	6,80
Estonia	**EE**	-5,06	-18,68	13,46	0,00	10,28
Spain	**ES**	-34,44	1,54	0,56	13,64	18,70
Finland	**FI**	-24,12	-5,45	-1,82	-6,06	37,45
France	**FR**	-25,11	-6,43	0,00	23,08	8,46
Greece	**GR**	-33,27	-3,87	-0,41	4,62	32,93
Hungary	**HU**	-16,33	-0,55	0,00	6,82	10,06
Ireland	**IE**	-26,64	0,00	0,00	13,96	12,68
Italy	**IT**	-28,74	9,92	1,31	9,84	7,68
Lithuania	**LT**	-10,22	-4,62	1,51	4,48	8,85
Luxembourg	**LU**	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Latvia	**LV**	-31,16	7,10	7,67	3,28	13,11
Malta	**MT**	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Netherlands	**NL**	-26,73	25,19	0,00	1,54	0,00
Poland	**PL**	-18,46	-24,95	-2,34	41,22	4,54
Portugal	**PT**	-43,73	-5,06	0,00	4,16	44,63
Romania	**RO**	-8,91	-5,67	0,00	6,84	7,75
Sweden	**SE**	-19,60	-21,57	0,00	1,78	39,38
Slovenia	**SI**	0,00	-12,82	-0,15	11,49	1,48
Slovakia	**SK**	-7,09	0,11	0,00	6,98	0,00
United Kingdom	**UK**	-46,61	22,52	0,39	9,63	14,06

Source: *EDORA Typology*

Key: ***Dark blue****: >20%;* ***Light blue****: 10 to 20%; Yellow: -10 to -20%;* ***Orange****: < -20€*

Figure 12 shows the total population of NUT3 regions of the EU27 which is located in each of the categories of the EDORA Structural Typology. Regions dominated by an agrarian economy (category "Agriculture") host more than 50% of the population only in the case of 3 countries: Romania (78%), Bulgaria (64%) and Latvia (52%). Not far from these percentages are four other countries: Poland (49%), Greece (44%), Hungary (40%) and Lithuania (33%). Three other countries exceed 10%: Portugal (13%), Estonia (10.5%) and Spain (10.3%). Based on these data, we can argue that the population stays in rural areas dominated by an agrarian economy in the case of societies where agriculture is not yet completely modernised, either because of the general state of the economy, or because the geographical constraints that limit accessibility and difficult or make it impossible to implement this process of modernisation.

Table 12. Structural Typology. Population (in % of MS total)

		Structural Typology			% of MS Total
		Ag	CC	D(Sec)	D(PServe)
Austria	AT	6,61	39,10	21,20	9,67
Belgium	BE	0,46	4,71	1,98	8,14
Bulgaria	BG	64,14	19,68	0,00	0,00
Cyprus	CY	0,00	100,00	0,00	0,00
Czech Republic	CZ	0,00	20,86	56,53	11,00
Germany	DE	0,00	29,43	6,37	6,43
Denmark	DK	0,00	40,96	14,81	14,97
Estonia	EE	10,47	76,77	0,00	0,00
Spain	ES	11,24	30,58	5,78	3,90
Finland	FI	0,00	73,88	0,00	0,00
France	FR	2,37	15,41	0,45	52,22
Greece	GR	44,71	19,13	0,00	0,00
Hungary	HU	40,92	15,95	14,45	11,79
Ireland	IE	0,00	57,39	14,65	0,00
Italy	IT	7,35	25,70	1,27	11,53
Lithuania	LT	33,34	16,38	5,15	20,01
Luxembourg	LU	0,00	100,00	0,00	0,00
Latvia	LV	51,82	16,55	0,00	0,00
Malta	MT	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Netherlands	NL	0,00	1,67	4,27	11,21
Poland	PL	48,68	7,61	13,53	8,62
Portugal	PT	13,33	30,96	0,00	3,40
Romania	RO	79,72	3,33	6,57	1,37
Sweden	SE	0,00	65,83	0,00	13,03
Slovenia	SI	8,61	91,39	0,00	0,00
Slovakia	SK	0,00	65,32	23,40	0,00
United Kingdom	UK	0,00	21,04	2,45	6,94

Source: *EDORA Typology*

Key: ***Green****: 20-40%;* ***Yellow****: 40-60%;* ***Red****: > 60%*

Population in 'consumption countryside' regions is relevant in virtually all countries to account for rural territories that benefit from demands of urban markets. The regions defined as "consumption countryside" are characterised by areas dominated by one or more services together. Most countries show significant percentages of their rural population in this category. Due to the diversity of sub-categories implicit in the Consumption Countryside we can not speak of uniformity.

Diversified rural economies with strong secondary sectors contain significant contingents of people in some countries. Higher percentages of population for this type of region are in: Czech Republic (57%), Slovakia (23%), and Austria (21%). Percentages in the remaining countries are much lower, mostly below

10%. Rural population in regions with diversified economies that have a powerful private services sector, is relevant only in few regional environments of France (52%) and Lithuania (20%). Differentials between % of total area of regions and % of population for the case of the Structural Typology are shown in Figure 13. The differential results in a percentage that goes to 0% to the extent that the number of regions and the total area match. A high differential (over 10%) indicates a significant heterogeneity in the size of the regions of a member state. The vast majority of differentials shown between the percentage of total area and the percentage of population in each category of the Structural Typology are positive. This means that, in most cases, rural areas have less demographic than territorial weight. This results in many implications for territorial planning and management of public resources in systems where allocation of funding is done according to population size.

Depending on the distribution of rural areas in different categories, and the characteristics of rural settlement in each country, the differences are more or less relevant for each country and rural type. For example, in the case of agricultural areas, differentials are always positive (more territory than population) are more important in countries such as Portugal (43%), Greece (37%). Latvia (32%), Poland (31%), Hungary (17%) among others. In the case of Portugal and Greece it could be the case for remote rural areas (mountain environments) in which there has not been a sufficient degree of diversification of the agricultural economy. These are regions that have been losing population for decades. In the case of NMS regions these are the less modernised agricultural areas that, while not suffering so much the problems of inaccessibility, are the source of an important part of immigration to Western Europe.

Table 13. Structural Typology. % Total Area - %Population (in % of MS total)

		Structural Typology			% of MS Total
		Ag	CC	D(Sec)	D(PServe)
Austria	**AT**	4,94	23,31	-1,81	-4,37
Belgium	**BE**	0,73	18,75	1,98	8,39
Bulgaria	**BG**	15,60	-0,64	0,00	0,00
Cyprus	**CY**	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Czech Republic	**CZ**	0,00	-0,86	13,72	-1,87
Germany	**DE**	0,00	27,46	4,08	6,75
Denmark	**DK**	0,00	20,84	1,94	1,90
Estonia	**EE**	10,28	-5,22	0,00	0,00
Spain	**ES**	23,41	0,14	8,08	2,81
Finland	**FI**	0,00	24,12	0,00	0,00
France	**FR**	4,83	4,15	0,38	15,76
Greece	**GR**	37,86	-4,59	0,00	0,00
Hungary	**HU**	17,15	1,85	2,26	-4,92
Ireland	**IE**	0,00	23,80	2,84	0,00
Italy	**IT**	4,66	21,54	0,09	2,45
Lithuania	**LT**	13,71	2,63	1,51	-7,62
Luxembourg	**LU**	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Latvia	**LV**	32,02	-0,86	0,00	0,00
Malta	**MT**	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Netherlands	**NL**	0,00	3,29	5,01	18,44
Poland	**PL**	30,86	7,03	-10,81	-8,62
Portugal	**PT**	42,70	2,02	0,00	-0,99
Romania	**RO**	12,33	-0,37	-2,34	-0,70
Sweden	**SE**	0,00	30,05	0,00	-10,45
Slovenia	**SI**	5,17	-5,17	0,00	0,00
Slovakia	**SK**	0,00	9,10	-2,01	0,00
United Kingdom	**UK**	0,00	36,35	0,28	9,98

Source: *EDORA Typology*

Key: ***Dark blue****: >20%;* ***Light blue****: 10 to 20%; Yellow: -10 to -20%;* ***Orange****: < -20%*

Differentials are wider in the case of the Consumption Countryside areas. Most of them are over 20% and do not correspond, in any case, to the same countries where differentials were important in the Agrarian type. Here are included countries like the United Kingdom (36%), Sweden (30%), Germany (27%), Finland (24%), Ireland (24%), Austria (23%), Italy (21%) and Denmark (21%). All countries with high per capita incomes where the urban demand for rural goods and services is more consolidated. The larger urban development and characteristics of the regional division are the factors explaining these differentials.

In the case of rural areas with diversified economic structures the balance between area and population is more equilibrated. The vast majority of countries show differential close to zero and, when higher differentials are present, there is some balance between positive and negative values corresponding to characteristics of the spatial structure of each country.

Table 14 shows the percentage of total population of the EU27 countries for each category of the EDORA Performance Typology. The total population under the "depleting" category involves more than 50% of the total in 5 of the new member states: Poland (63%), Latvia (63%), Bulgaria (66%), Romania (70%), Slovakia (51%). Close to these values is Lithuania (45%). It is relevant to point out that 1/4th of German rural population is classified under this category, matching the eastern Lander. These are the areas suffering more problems of emigration, unemployment and lower income level.

Table 14. Performance Typology. Population (in % of MS total)

		Performance Typology			% of MS Total
		Deplet.	Below	Above	Accum.
Austria	AT	0,00	11,52	26,33	38,73
Belgium	BE	1,39	7,99	5,35	0,56
Bulgaria	BG	51,58	22,90	9,34	0,00
Cyprus	CY	0,00	0,00	0,00	100,00
Czech Republic	CZ	0,00	65,38	23,01	0,00
Germany	DE	9,31	10,08	18,48	4,35
Denmark	DK	0,00	0,79	57,94	12,01
Estonia	EE	0,00	48,27	0,00	38,96
Spain	ES	0,00	8,31	16,89	26,29
Finland	FI	1,59	16,92	44,11	11,26
France	FR	0,69	19,38	32,35	18,03
Greece	GR	5,04	22,45	31,91	4,44
Hungary	HU	12,98	43,62	14,71	11,79
Ireland	IE	0,00	0,00	0,00	72,04
Italy	IT	1,52	18,18	11,17	14,99
Lithuania	LT	28,06	46,82	0,00	0,00
Luxembourg	LU	0,00	0,00	0,00	100,00
Latvia	LV	38,43	13,39	16,55	0,00
Malta	MT	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Netherlands	NL	0,00	1,24	10,09	5,82
Poland	PL	52,67	21,26	4,51	0,00
Portugal	PT	0,00	19,56	21,62	6,51
Romania	RO	60,57	29,04	0,00	1,37
Sweden	SE	0,00	18,01	60,85	0,00
Slovenia	SI	0,00	28,29	46,62	25,09
Slovakia	SK	41,32	36,29	11,11	0,00
United Kingdom	UK	0,00	2,01	8,19	20,23

Source: *EDORA Typology*

Key: ***Green****: 20-40%*
Yellow*: 40-60%*
Red*: > 60%*

Population concentrated in regions "below average" are relevant in a number of countries, especially the New Member States. As in the analysis of the distribution of NUT3, “below the average” and "depleting" areas are located in the less modernised economies of Europe. By contrast, the “above average” and "accumulation" areas are mainly located in countries with stronger economies and higher income levels. The rural population distribution according to categories of the Performance Typology reinforces the arguments presented so far. The rural population is concentrated in categories below the European average ("depleting" and "below average") mainly in the NMS and the countries that formerly constituted the European periphery. Thus, the rural population in "depleting regions" is more than half of total in Romania (61%), Poland (53%), Bulgaria (52%), and also show relevant percentages in Slovakia (41%), Latvia (38%) and Lithuania (28%). The category "below average" is relevant in most of these same countries and in other NMS and Greece.

By contrast, the rural population is concentrated in regions above the European average ("above average" and "Accumulation") in countries with higher levels of economic development. Differentials between % of total area of regions and % of population for the case of the Performance Typology are shown in Figure 15. The differential results in a percentage that goes to 0% to the extent that the number of regions and the total area match. A high differential (over 10%) indicates a significant heterogeneity in the size of the regions of a Member State.

Table 15. Performance Typology. % Total Area - %Population (in % of MS total)

		Performance Typology			% of MS Total
		Deplet.	Below	Above	Accum.
Austria	AT	0,00	15,52	13,18	-6,64
Belgium	BE	1,67	18,97	8,87	0,34
Bulgaria	BG	15,04	-0,54	0,46	0,00
Cyprus	CY	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Czech Republic	CZ	0,00	-2,31	13,29	0,00
Germany	DE	14,70	10,09	11,14	2,36
Denmark	DK	0,00	0,58	20,54	3,57
Estonia	EE	0,00	34,11	0,00	-29,05
Spain	ES	0,00	9,69	13,52	11,23
Finland	FI	5,64	32,41	-8,24	-5,69
France	FR	-0,42	16,23	8,21	1,09
Greece	GR	6,00	19,85	1,34	6,08
Hungary	HU	3,60	16,66	1,00	-4,92
Ireland	IE	0,00	0,00	0,00	26,64
Italy	IT	1,23	10,76	6,61	10,15
Lithuania	LT	16,93	-6,72	0,00	0,00
Luxembourg	LU	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Latvia	LV	24,35	7,67	-0,86	0,00
Malta	MT	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Netherlands	NL	0,00	1,82	18,05	6,86
Poland	PL	10,59	12,39	-4,51	0,00
Portugal	PT	0,00	30,75	12,17	0,81
Romania	RO	9,43	0,19	0,00	-0,70
Sweden	SE	0,00	35,73	-16,13	0,00
Slovenia	SI	0,00	0,87	11,62	-12,48
Slovakia	SK	10,04	-1,01	-1,93	0,00
United Kingdom	UK	0,00	8,16	25,27	13,18

Source: *EDORA Typology,*

Key: ***Dark blue****: >20%;* ***Light blue****: 10 to 20%; Yellow: -10 to -20%;* ***Orange****: < -20%*

The vast majority of differentials shown between the percentage of total area and the percentage of population in each category of the performance Typology are positive. This means that, in most cases, rural areas have less demographic than territorial weight. This results in many implications for territorial planning and management of public resources in systems where allocation of funding is done according to population size.

Depending on the distribution of rural areas in different categories, and the characteristics of rural settlement in each country, the differences are more or less relevant for each country and rural type. For example, in the case of depleting and “below average” areas, differentials are always positive (more territory than population) and more important in countries such as Latvia (24%) for Depleting regions, and Sweden (36%). Estonia (34%), Finland (32%) or Portugal (31%) for “below average” regions.

In the case of regions "above average" differentials are mainly positive (UK 25%, Denmark 21%, Netherlands 18%, etc.) but there is a high negative differential in Sweden (-16%) that reflects an overconcentration of population in “above average” rural areas in relation to their geographical size. Accumulation regions are quite equilibrated when comparing population and territory. Most countries show values close to zero. Main positive differentials are in Ireland (27%) and UK (13%), and negative differentials are in Estonia (-29%) and Slovenia (12%).

GDP distribution of NUTs 3 regions according to the “EDORA cube” typologies

This section presents the distribution of the GDP of NUT3 in the three EDORA typologies: D-P, Structural and Performance. This is done in two ways: first, as the total percentage of each category in each typology; second, as the differential between the percentage of total area in each category and the percentage of the population representing these regions. The differential results in a percentage that goes to 0% to the extent that the total area and the population match. A high differential (over 10%) indicates a significant concentration of the population in one or more typology categories.

Tables 16, 18 and 20 present the percentage of population of NUT3 regions for the EU27 for each EDORA typology. Tables 17, 19 and 21 show differentials between the percentage of total area in each category and the percentage of the population representing these regions.

Table 16 analyses the GDP of NUTS3 regions of the EU27 according to categories of the Dijkstra-Poelman typology (hereafter D-P). The analysis of GDP distribution among the categories of the D-P typology allows isolating the percentage of each country's GDP located in PU regions. The most important finding is the concentration of GDP of the countries in PU and AI regions. In fact, the sum of the values of these two categories gives very high percentages of the GDP of most countries. These are, of course, the areas of greatest concentration of population and economic activity although it seems that the concentration is even greater in the case of GDP than it was in the case of population.

Differentials between % of total population of regions and % of GDP for the case of the D-P Typology are shown in Figure 17. The differential results in a percentage that goes to 0% to the extent that the number of regions and the total area match. A high differential (over 10%) indicates a significant heterogeneity in the size of the regions of a member state.

Differentials between % of total population of regions and % of GDP show, first, that urban areas concentrate a lot more share of GDP than the % of population area they represent. This general trend is more pronounced in Latvia (-23 %), Hungary (-20%), Bulgaria (-17%), Poland (-16%).

The other four categories of the D-P typology (IA, IR, ARP and RRP) show very little differentials and most values close to zero; ie. the demographic "weight" very similar to the “economic” "weight".

Table 16. Dijkstra-Poelman Typology. GDP (in % of MS total)

GDP		D-P Typology				% of MS Total
		PU	IA	IR	PRA	PRR
Austria	AT	30,10	34,64	0,00	26,97	8,29
Belgium	BE	90,01	7,37	0,00	2,62	0,00
Bulgaria	BG	33,31	43,44	4,74	6,24	12,27
Cyprus	CY	0,00	100,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Czech Republic	CZ	24,19	71,60	0,00	4,21	0,00
Germany	DE	67,00	23,16	0,00	9,70	0,15
Denmark	DK	37,34	24,12	0,00	22,21	16,32
Estonia	EE	7,23	78,16	8,21	0,00	6,40
Spain	ES	53,65	33,66	1,64	6,16	4,89
Finland	FI	35,43	8,38	3,55	37,08	15,56
France	FR	39,40	47,47	0,00	10,18	2,95
Greece	GR	49,42	21,07	1,66	5,35	22,51
Hungary	HU	37,29	34,86	0,00	15,44	12,41
Ireland	IE	40,80	0,00	0,00	39,91	19,29
Italy	IT	59,68	30,90	1,84	5,19	2,38
Lithuania	LT	38,38	44,64	4,24	6,84	5,90
Luxembourg	LU	0,00	100,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Latvia	LV	55,12	7,51	10,32	20,44	6,61
Malta	MT	100,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Netherlands	NL	84,00	15,03	0,00	0,97	0,00
Poland	PL	37,95	25,48	1,48	34,62	0,47
Portugal	PT	60,40	22,88	0,00	4,67	12,04
Romania	RO	19,99	50,13	0,00	20,46	9,42
Sweden	SE	28,63	28,39	0,00	25,35	17,63
Slovenia	SI	0,00	45,95	5,39	45,84	2,82
Slovakia	SK	26,27	53,51	0,00	20,22	0,00
United Kingdom	UK	74,70	23,10	0,80	1,03	0,37

Source: EDORA Typology

Key: **Green**: 20-40%
Yellow: 40-60%
Red: > 60%

Table 17. Dijkstra-Poelman Typology. % Population - %GDP (in % of MS total)

		D-P Typology				% of MS Total
		PU	IA	IR	PRA	PRR
Austria	**AT**	-6,68	-3,77	0,00	8,22	2,23
Belgium	**BE**	-5,29	3,69	0,00	1,61	0,00
Bulgaria	**BG**	-17,14	8,93	2,14	2,99	3,08
Cyprus	**CY**	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Czech Republic	**CZ**	-12,58	11,83	0,00	0,75	0,00
Germany	**DE**	-9,23	6,11	0,00	3,07	0,05
Denmark	**DK**	-8,08	-3,30	0,00	1,39	9,99
Estonia	**EE**	5,53	-13,41	3,81	0,00	4,07
Spain	**ES**	-5,14	2,16	0,59	1,21	1,19
Finland	**FI**	-9,31	0,29	-0,07	5,35	3,75
France	**FR**	-9,84	6,19	0,00	2,78	0,86
Greece	**GR**	-13,26	4,23	0,50	1,42	7,11
Hungary	**HU**	-20,40	7,17	0,00	6,45	6,78
Ireland	**IE**	-12,84	0,00	0,00	4,18	8,66
Italy	**IT**	-5,54	3,11	0,77	1,12	0,54
Lithuania	**LT**	-13,26	5,49	0,92	3,82	3,04
Luxembourg	**LU**	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Latvia	**LV**	-23,50	7,93	3,07	8,60	3,90
Malta	**MT**	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Netherlands	**NL**	-1,14	0,85	0,00	0,29	0,00
Poland	**PL**	-16,38	4,31	0,86	10,87	0,34
Portugal	**PT**	-8,09	3,88	0,00	1,15	3,05
Romania	**RO**	-10,97	0,17	0,00	7,02	3,78
Sweden	**SE**	-7,49	1,50	0,00	4,00	1,98
Slovenia	**SI**	0,00	-8,69	-0,09	7,94	0,84
Slovakia	**SK**	-14,99	9,97	0,00	5,02	0,00
United Kingdom	**UK**	-5,14	4,14	0,36	0,46	0,18

Source: *EDORA Typology*

Key: ***Dark blue****: >20%*
Light blue*: 10 to 20%*
Yellow: -10 to -20%
Orange*: < -20€*

Table 18 shows the GDP of NUT3 regions of the EU27 which is located in each of the categories of the EDORA Structural Typology. Regions dominated by an agrarian economy (category "Agriculture") host more than 50% of the national GDP only in the case of Romania (66%). Not far from these percentages is Bulgaria (47%). Five other countries exceed 20%: Poland (35%), Greece (33%), Latvia (32%) Hungary (27%) and Lithuania (22%). Based on these data, we can argue that GDP stays in rural areas dominated by an agrarian economy in the case of societies where agriculture is not yet completely modernised, either because of the general state of the economy, or because the geographical constraints that limit accessibility and difficult or make it impossible to implement this process of modernisation.

GDP in 'consumption countryside' regions is relevant in virtually all countries to account for rural territories that benefit from demands of urban markets. Diversified rural economies with strong secondary sectors contain significant percentages of GDP in few countries. Higher percentages for this type of region are in: Czech Republic (49%), Slovakia (24%), and Austria (20%). Percentages in the remaining countries are much lower, mostly below 10%. Rural population in regions with diversified economies that have a powerful private services sector, is relevant only in few regional environments of France (46%) and Lithuania (19%).

Table 18. Structural Typology. GDP (in % of MS total)

		Structural Typology			% of MS Total
		Ag	CC	D(Sec)	D(PServe)
Austria	AT	3,90	35,02	19,57	11,40
Belgium	BE	0,31	3,23	1,40	5,04
Bulgaria	BG	47,27	19,42	0,00	0,00
Cyprus	CY	0,00	100,00	0,00	0,00
Czech Republic	CZ	0,00	16,77	48,93	10,10
Germany	DE	0,00	23,26	5,34	4,40
Denmark	DK	0,00	43,58	7,72	11,36
Estonia	EE	6,40	86,37	0,00	0,00
Spain	ES	8,67	28,19	6,18	3,31
Finland	FI	0,00	64,57	0,00	0,00
France	FR	1,84	12,79	0,33	45,64
Greece	GR	33,22	17,37	0,00	0,00
Hungary	HU	27,23	11,63	13,95	9,90
Ireland	IE	0,00	41,97	17,23	0,00
Italy	IT	4,60	23,25	1,47	11,00
Lithuania	LT	22,46	15,73	4,24	19,18
Luxembourg	LU	0,00	100,00	0,00	0,00
Latvia	LV	31,72	13,15	0,00	0,00
Malta	MT	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Netherlands	NL	0,00	1,30	5,66	9,03
Poland	PL	35,17	7,14	12,13	7,62
Portugal	PT	11,31	25,28	0,00	3,01
Romania	RO	65,99	4,24	7,26	2,52
Sweden	SE	0,00	59,74	0,00	11,63
Slovenia	SI	5,93	94,07	0,00	0,00
Slovakia	SK	0,00	49,99	23,74	0,00
United Kingdom	UK	0,00	17,05	1,90	6,35

Source: *EDORA Typology*

Key: ***Green****: 20-40%*

Yellow*: 40-60%*

Red*: > 60%*

Differentials between % of total population of regions and % of GDP for the case of the Structural Typology are shown in Figure 19. The differential results in a percentage that goes to 0% to the extent that the number of regions and the total area match. A high differential (over 10%) indicates a significant heterogeneity in the size of the regions of a member state.

All differentials shown between the percentage of total population and the percentage of GDP in each category of the Structural Typology are positive. This means that, in most cases, rural areas have less economic than demographic weight (ie. the share of GDP is lower than the share of population for most rural areas). This trend is exacerbated in the less favoured rural areas (ie. agrarian). One would expect that diversified rural economies would do better in retaining GDP according to their demographic size. Although this is, to some extent truth, the positive sign in most countries reflects an extension of the same trend (ie. there are gaps also in diversified rural areas between their bigger demographic size and a relatively smaller economic size)

Table 19. Structural Typology. % Population - %GDP (in % of MS total)

		Structural Typology			% of MS Total
		Ag	CC	D(Sec)	D(PServe)
Austria	AT	2,70	4,09	1,62	-1,74
Belgium	BE	0,15	1,48	0,58	3,10
Bulgaria	BG	16,88	0,26	0,00	0,00
Cyprus	CY	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Czech Republic	CZ	0,00	4,09	7,59	0,89
Germany	DE	0,00	6,16	1,03	2,04
Denmark	DK	0,00	-2,62	7,09	3,61
Estonia	EE	4,07	-9,60	0,00	0,00
Spain	ES	2,57	2,39	-0,40	0,59
Finland	FI	0,00	9,31	0,00	0,00
France	FR	0,53	2,62	0,12	6,58
Greece	GR	11,50	1,76	0,00	0,00
Hungary	HU	13,69	4,32	0,50	1,89
Ireland	IE	0,00	15,42	-2,58	0,00
Italy	IT	2,75	2,46	-0,20	0,53
Lithuania	LT	10,88	0,64	0,92	0,83
Luxembourg	LU	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Latvia	LV	20,09	3,40	0,00	0,00
Malta	MT	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Netherlands	NL	0,00	0,36	-1,40	2,18
Poland	PL	13,51	0,46	1,41	1,01
Portugal	PT	2,02	5,68	0,00	0,39
Romania	RO	13,73	-0,91	-0,69	-1,15
Sweden	SE	0,00	6,09	0,00	1,40
Slovenia	SI	2,67	-2,67	0,00	0,00
Slovakia	SK	0,00	15,32	-0,34	0,00
United Kingdom	UK	0,00	3,99	0,55	0,60

Source: *EDORA Typology*

Key: ***Dark blue****: >20%*
Light blue*: 10 to 20%*
Yellow: -10 to -20%
Orange: *< -20€*

Table 20 shows the percentage of GDP of the EU27 countries for each category of the EDORA Performance Typology. The % of total GDP under the "depleting" category involves more than 50% of the total only in the case of Romania (52%) (it was 5 countries in the cased of the variable “population”). Close to these values are Poland (39%) and Bulgaria (38%). The 25% of the German population living in “depleting” regions only gather 6% of the national GDP.

Table 20. Performance Typology. GDP (in % of MS total)

		Performance Typology			% of MS Total
		Deplet.	Below	Above	Accum.
Austria	AT	0,00	7,95	21,04	40,90
Belgium	BE	0,58	4,73	4,18	0,50
Bulgaria	BG	37,76	18,51	10,42	0,00
Cyprus	CY	0,00	0,00	0,00	100,00
Czech Republic	CZ	0,00	54,53	21,28	0,00
Germany	DE	5,88	7,36	15,27	4,48
Denmark	DK	0,00	0,58	45,30	16,78
Estonia	EE	0,00	31,70	0,00	61,07
Spain	ES	0,00	5,78	14,30	26,28
Finland	FI	1,11	13,61	38,71	11,14
France	FR	0,43	15,44	27,92	16,81
Greece	GR	3,97	15,94	27,33	3,35
Hungary	HU	7,99	30,11	14,71	9,90
Ireland	IE	0,00	0,00	0,00	59,20
Italy	IT	0,85	12,48	10,22	16,77
Lithuania	LT	19,02	42,60	0,00	0,00
Luxembourg	LU	0,00	0,00	0,00	100,00
Latvia	LV	21,41	10,32	13,15	0,00
Malta	MT	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Netherlands	NL	0,00	0,87	8,64	6,49
Poland	PL	39,06	17,19	5,80	0,00
Portugal	PT	0,00	14,39	18,48	6,73
Romania	RO	51,67	25,82	0,00	2,52
Sweden	SE	0,00	15,85	55,53	0,00
Slovenia	SI	0,00	22,66	41,27	36,07
Slovakia	SK	29,16	34,17	10,40	0,00
United Kingdom	UK	0,00	1,47	6,00	17,83

Source: *EDORA Typology*

Key: ***Green****: 20-40%*
Yellow*: 40-60%*
Red*: > 60%*

Share of GDP concentrated in regions "below average" is relevant in a number of countries, especially the New Member States. As in the analysis of the distribution of NUT3, “below the average” and "depleting" areas are located in the less modernised economies of Europe. By contrast, rural GDP is concentrated in the “above average” and "accumulation" areas in countries with stronger economies and higher income levels.

Differentials between % of total population of regions and % of GDP for the case of the Performance Typology are shown in Table 21. The differential results in a percentage that goes to 0% to the extent that the number of regions and the total area match. A high differential (over 10%) indicates a significant heterogeneity in the size of the regions of a member state.

Table 21. Performance Typology. % Population - %GDP (in % of MS total)

		Performance Typology			% of MS Total
		Deplet.	Below	Above	Accum.
Austria	AT	0,00	3,57	5,28	-2,17
Belgium	BE	0,81	3,26	1,17	0,05
Bulgaria	BG	13,82	4,39	-1,08	0,00
Cyprus	CY	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Czech Republic	CZ	0,00	10,85	1,73	0,00
Germany	DE	3,43	2,72	3,21	-0,13
Denmark	DK	0,00	0,21	12,64	-4,77
Estonia	EE	0,00	16,57	0,00	-22,10
Spain	ES	0,00	2,53	2,60	0,02
Finland	FI	0,48	3,31	5,40	0,12
France	FR	0,26	3,93	4,43	1,22
Greece	GR	1,07	6,51	4,58	1,10
Hungary	HU	4,99	13,50	0,00	1,89
Ireland	IE	0,00	0,00	0,00	12,84
Italy	IT	0,67	5,70	0,95	-1,78
Lithuania	LT	9,04	4,22	0,00	0,00
Luxembourg	LU	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Latvia	LV	17,02	3,07	3,40	0,00
Malta	MT	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,00
Netherlands	NL	0,00	0,37	1,45	-0,68
Poland	PL	13,61	4,07	-1,29	0,00
Portugal	PT	0,00	5,17	3,14	-0,22
Romania	RO	8,90	3,22	0,00	-1,15
Sweden	SE	0,00	2,17	5,32	0,00
Slovenia	SI	0,00	5,63	5,36	-10,98
Slovakia	SK	12,15	2,12	0,71	0,00
United Kingdom	UK	0,00	0,54	2,19	2,41

Source: *EDORA Typology*

Key: ***Dark blue****: >20%*
Light blue*: 10 to 20%*
Yellow: -10 to -20%
Orange: *< -20€*

The vast majority of differentials shown between the percentage of population and the percentage of GDP in each category of the performance Typology are positive. This means that, in most cases, rural areas have less economic than demographic weight. This exacerbates the implications for territorial planning and management of public resources in systems where allocation of funding is done according to population size, because in most countries, there is a further gap between population and economic capacity.

Depending on the distribution of rural areas in different categories, and the characteristics of rural settlement in each country, the differences are more or less relevant for each country and rural type. For example, in the case of depleting, “below average” and “above average” areas, differentials are always positive (more population than economic relevance) and more important in NMS.

In the case of “accumulation” regions differentials are more equilibrated with positive and negative values. Negative results (Estonia -22%; Slovenia -11%) indicate rural areas where the share of GDP is larger than it should according to their population.

3. Discussion: implications for the Rural Animator

No doubt the extreme diversity of rural Europe imposes enormous constraints and challenges in the work of rural development animators and professionals. A rural animator believes in the benefits of an endogenous development approach that put local resources and strengths first when defining the orientation of rural development strategy. This obviously requires a different approach depending on whether we are in a lagging or advantaged territory.

In the case of municipalities or territories in decline or high rurality (eg mountain regions inaccessible or very small municipalities), the rural animator often face a comprehensive work comprising virtually all dimensions of the local reality. The rural animator drives the process of local development through their skills and knowledge and often becomes the true leader that drives the local development process.

Creativity is a major strength for the rural animator in depleting regions. There is a lot to do, even the most basic, and resources available are not much, at least in the territory. Therefore, the animator must be skilful in order to detect, obtain and implement in the best way available resources to provide basic services and needs for the local residents make the place attractive for visitors.

In most cases a rural animator in depleting area is a focal point for local entrepreneurs and citizens looking forward to start a new business. The rural animator has knowledge on available resources at local, regional, national and international levels, and is the closest instance to locals when advice and support is needed.

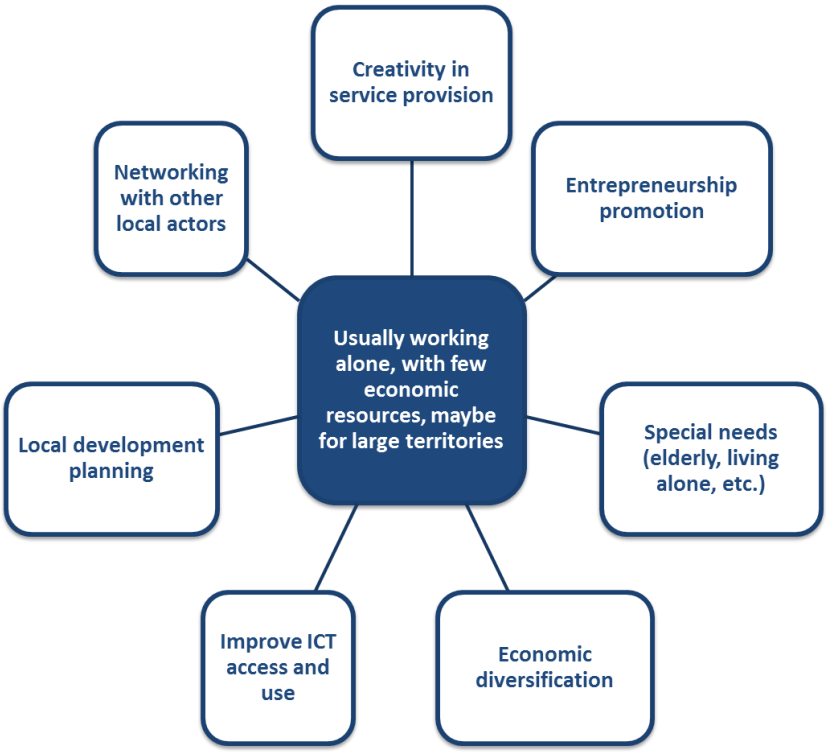
In many rural areas, especially those that still are too much dependent on agriculture, a big challenge for the local animator is the strategy to achieve a more diversified and competitive local economy. This does not mean that competitiveness can not be achieved on the basis of agriculture, but it surely need the incorporation of transformation (agri-business) and complementary (tourism, crafts, etc.) activities. The local industrial fabric is very weak and the businessmen profile is usually not very favourable (ie. aged, low education, very small and traditional sectors, etc.). In this context, the figure of the local animator becomes central since it is the one that can not only assist and provide advice, but also convince and bring potential and actual businessmen into the valid path towards success.

Who takes care of the special needs collectives (ie. handicapped, elderly, children) in a context of reducing public budgets and a political dominant approach that rejects a strong intervention from the state? Rurality, accessibility and individual handicaps form together a critical condition that is very difficult to resolve from higher administration levels and, of course, it is not of the interest of markets. The local animator allows for strengthening the action of local government through the knowledge of a specialised person to reach individual dramas more effectively.

It is not unusual that the action of local animators have brought to lagging rural areas the concept of strategic planning process. For instance, the story of the LEADER and LEADER-like programs in the European Union tells us that the effective leadership of managers (one equivalent to local animator) has made possible the introduction of the strategic approach to public and private action. This, of course, should not let us obviate the many deficiencies registered during these processes (ie. lack of compromise from local actors, a certain distance between the strategy and the action of local actors, the highly possible chance that the strategic process will collapse in the absence of the animator leadership, etc.).

There are, very briefly, some of the most important aspects of the role of local animators in depleting regions (see Figure 2)

Figure 2. The role of local animators in depleting regions



Source: *own elaboration*

The spatial organization of regions of accumulation is certainly different, but they share some of the focuses of the rural animator.

On the one hand, the local animator in remote or lagging rural areas usually works alone, with little support from local resources and, in any case, with connections with colleagues from other surrounding municipalities. The executive capacity of local animators in this type of area is comparatively higher, and he/she comes more easily to the implementation of actions in different domains.

The local animator in accumulation territories often work in local government (but not exclusively) of medium or large municipalities. In these municipalities local animation happens in multidisciplinary teams and in defined areas of competence. Thus, the local animator is part of local development agencies that are in charge of a portion of the development action. However, types of local development agencies are varied and depend on several factors such as the political sensitivity, territorial issues, etc. For this same reason, leadership and capacity for action of animators can be compromised by these factors, leading to situations in which the animator's scope of action is very limited.

Whatever the circumstance, the local animator in accumulation areas usually focus in the following issues:

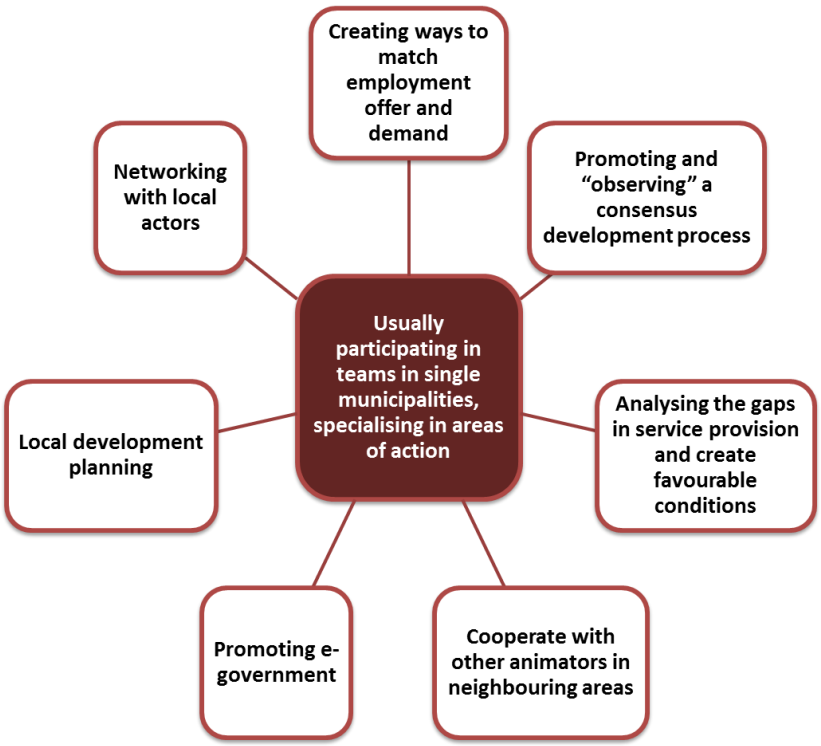
- A big scope of action is the local labour market. Here, the local animator has an important role in advising people looking for jobs, promoting training actions for workers and entrepreneurs, matching needs of labour in local companies with the skills of the local labour, accompanying potential entrepreneurs in the way to start new business or to re-orientate them. The relevance, visibility and urgency of this intervention often makes local animator very dependent on it, thus leaving other intervention areas in a secondary place.
- Putting local actors to cooperate, especially in strategic development processes, is one of the most relevant actions of local animators. In the case of larger municipalities or territories, this is

challenging because of the number of relevant local actors and the usually low history of successful previous cooperation.

- Networking is also an essential task for the rural animator. Networking is seen as a mechanism to increase territorial competitiveness through exchange of experiences and information, and through the establishment of fruitful relationships between actors in the network. The local animator promotes business networks, institutional networks and even networks of local animators

Figure 3 presents some of the main scopes of action of local animators in accumulating regions, as described above.

Figure 3. The role of local animators in accumulating regions



Source: *own elaboration*

ALTERNATIVE SUSTAINABLE FARMING SYSTEMS: THE IMPORTANCE OF EDUCATION, TRAINING AND EXTENSION TO COMPLY WITH CHANGING REGULATORY LANDSCAPE AND CONSUMER DEMANDS IN GREECE

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Abstract

Sustainable agriculture is an environmental friendly farming system, which helps reduce the impacts of agriculture on the environment and biodiversity and improve the quality of the rural landscape and ultimately rural economies. Greek farmers have no resources or support to assist them in a transition to sustainable farming methods and to comply with the new rules of a changing regulatory landscape in Europe. Currently there are no state extension services available to Greek farmers for the Integrated Farm Management or Organic Farming. Advice is primarily provided by companies in connection with specific products or management systems they provide. Rural animators can provide a very valuable and urgently needed service to Greek farmers as they move to more sustainable farming systems.

Conventional farming is posing increasing agronomic, ecological and socioeconomic problems. These problems are a consequence of current agricultural production systems, which deplete and deteriorate natural and human resources. Conventional agriculture goals are to maximize yields and profits while ignoring the principles and processes involved in agroecosystem functioning. To move to a sustainable rural development path, it is imperative to start integrating ecological processes in agricultural production systems. The European Union Common Agricultural Policy coupled with education, training and extension services can be a key in moving European agriculture towards more sustainable and ecologically based farming systems. There are also changing consumer preferences. Consumer demand for organic food is increasing and consumer groups are putting pressure for safe and nutritious food. Environmental groups increase pressure for environmental protection.

Table 1. European Agriculture Policy CAP Reform history

1992 - Direct payments and set-aside introduced

1995 - Rural development aid phased in

2002 - Subsidy ceiling fixed until 2013

2003 - Subsidies decoupled from production

2006 - Reform of sugar subsidies

2008 - CAP 'health check' - phase out land set-aside policy and milk quotas

Common Agricultural Policy (CAP)

The two Pillars of the CAP are a) Direct farm payments (subsidies) and b) Rural development. On average, pillar one direct farm payments provide nearly half of farmer's income in the EU. Average annual subsidy per farm: 12,200 euros

We can see that CAP is a very powerful tool in affecting agricultural change in EU. The 2003 CAP Reform introduced the mechanism of cross-compliance, which links CAP payments to mandatory management requirements in respect to the environmental, public, and animal and plant health. It also requires farmers to maintain their land in Good Agricultural and Environmental Condition. On 12 October 2011 the Commission presented a set of legal proposals designed to make the CAP after 2013 a more effective policy for a more competitive and sustainable agriculture and vibrant rural areas. The Commission proposes that 30% of farm subsidies be conditional on whether recipient farms have met certain environmental standards, a policy it has branded "greening" the CAP. The changes are designed to move rewards away from intensive farming to more sustainable farming practices.

The Proposals for reforming the CAP are:

a. keep EU farm spending level until 2020, though it may be reduced by inflation
b. cap the total subsidy a large farm can receive at 300,000 euros
c. level imbalances in payments: to subsidise acreage farmed rather than production totals; and bring payments in the eastern EU up to levels in the west
d. end sugar production quotas
e. make 30% of the "direct payment" income support payments received by farmers dependent on environmental criteria.

The Environmental Criteria stipulate that arable farmers should be growing at least three different crops, with none exceeding 70% of the total farm area, they should leave 7% of their land fallow (hedges, ditches & field margins would count as the 7% target) and ensure that permanent pasture is maintained. Since 2005, all farmers in the EU receiving direct payments are subject to compulsory cross-compliance. Cross-compliance ensures that support granted under the CAP contributes to promoting sustainable agriculture. Member States are required to ensure that all agricultural land, especially land which is no longer used for production purposes, is maintained in good agricultural and environmental condition. Member States are also expected to define, at national or regional level, minimum requirements for good agricultural and environmental condition on the basis of the framework established in Annex III, taking into account the specific characteristics of the areas concerned, including soil and climatic condition, existing farming systems, land use, crop rotation, farming practices, and farm structures.

The Agri-Environmental Measures are part of the Rural Development Policy. They aim to encourage farmers to apply agricultural production methods compatible with the protection and improvement of the environment, the landscape, natural resources, the soil and genetic resources. They are designed to encourage farmers to protect and enhance the environment on their farmland. It provides for payments to farmers in return for a service – that of carrying out agri-environmental commitments that involve more than the application of usual good farming practice. Agri-environmental measures are diverse, but broadly speaking, one could say that each measure has at least one of two broad objectives: reducing environmental risks associated with modern farming on the one hand, and preserving nature and cultivated landscapes on the other hand.

Sustainable agriculture can be defined as a set of practices. These often include:

a. Biological or organic pest controls

b. Organic Soil Amendments

c. Low stocking rates for animals

d. Integrated Pest Management

e. Conservation Tillage Practices

The main approaches to sustainable agriculture promoted by policy makers and the scientific community are Integrated Crop Management and Organic Farming.

Unfortunately, despite the proven benefits and need for sustainable agriculture, the majority of researchers, academics and farm advisors are still promoting conventional agricultural systems. In Greece, high-input conventional agriculture is still promoted by the public advisory services (mainly staff in the ministry of Agriculture and in the various regional agricultural departments), the private advisory services - agronomists working of agrochemical supply companies who are primarily concerned with supplying their products and academic staff at public universities and technological institutes - there is minimal emphasis (if any) in sustainable agriculture teaching and training. There is a similar promotion of conventional agriculture research at the national research institutes.

Due to farm subsidies designed to increase certain crops, most Greek farmers are not interested in sustainable agriculture methods. In most cases, sustainable ag practices are in conflict with mainstream subsidies. The only reason farmers adopt sustainable ag is if there are subsidies for such practices. Such example is organic farming, which grew very fast, primarily due to the subsidies. When the 5-year subsidies ended the vast majority of farmers returned to conventional farming. Another example is the nitrate reduction programs, which only works as long as there is a subsidy tied to fertilizer reductions.

Figure 1. Sustainable Agriculture Systems

Sustainable Agriculture Systems that are practiced in Greece are:

1. GLOBALG.A.P.
2. Retailer Food Quality Standards
3. Integrated Crop Management
4. Organic farming
5. Biodynamic

1. GLOBALG.A.P.

GLOBAL GAP is a joint effort of European food and retailing of agricultural products enterprises (Euro Retail Produce Working Group) to establish rules of common acceptance and the development of a Good Agricultural Practice (G.A.P.) Framework. The Context Of Good Agricultural Practice (G.A.P.) includes the short-term improvement and sustainability and the use of the principles HACCP in conjunction with the observance of national and international legislation. It includes both integrated pest management systems (IPM) and integrated crop management systems (ICM).

2. Retailer Food Quality Standards

In response to consumer and authority demands for high quality food and food safety and the need for traceability, retailers in Europe to developed two food quality standards for their entire food chain, BRC and IFS.

These food quality and safety standards are published by retail trade groups. Any company wishing to supply its food products to those retailers must meet the required standards. The retailers request that an independent third party approves the quality and food safety system of the supplier. Both standards are aimed at retailers' suppliers. Their goal is the same but the paths to achieve that same goal are different.

3. Integrated Crop Management (ICM)

Integrated Crop Management (ICM) is practiced primarily by larger producers and producer cooperatives. It is required for exporting to EU and selling to supermarket chains in Greece. Small farmers do not apply ICM due to the cost and time required for the certification. They are also selling in farmers markets and are selling to independent grocers who do not require ICM certification.

Integrated Crop Management Case study:

ALMME -INTEGRATED CROP MANAGEMENT SYSTEM (I.C.M.) is peach farmer cooperative in Imathia, Greece. It is certified for I.C.M. for 2.700 hectares of peaches. Their main emphasis is on the quality of the raw materials, the efficient use of the fertilizers, pesticides and the protection of the environment. The Cooperative has implemented full traceability for their whole production system, from the producers to the final product.

Figure 2. ALME Farm cooperative processing center

Figure 3. Diced peaches from ALME farm cooperative

4. Organic farming

Organic agriculture offers a codified production system that incorporates agro-ecological thinking and ecological production methods.

Organic Agriculture is governed by a unified legislation in EU -Regulation (EC) 834/2007, which covers the basic organic requirements and Regulation (EC) 889/2008, which provides detailed rules for the implementation of Reg (EC) 834/2007 on organic production and labelling. Each member state issues guidelines for the implementation of these regulations in each state.

Figure 4. European Logo for Organic Agriculture

5. Demeter Biodynamic Certification

Demeter Certification is the certification for biodynamic farming and food. Assessment is according to internationally agreed Demeter International Standards. These cover the scopes of: production, processing, bees, wine, textiles and cosmetics. The bases of the Standards are the principles of biodynamic farming and food as inspired by the Agriculture Course given by Rudolf Steiner in 1924. They also fully comply with the EU Organic Regulations 834/2007 or equivalent in a member country.

Farm Advisory Systems

In order to help farmers to meet the standards of modern, high-quality agriculture, it is necessary that Member States continue to operate the comprehensive system offering advice to farms provided for in Regulation (EC) No 1782/2003. Farm decision-making is a complex issue. Farmers rely on a range of actors and information sources. The changing regulatory landscape requires efficient systems of information flow to reach farmers. The continuous access to relevant advice and information is necessary to make decisions within the framework established by both EU and national laws and regulations.

Farm advisory in Greece today is provided mostly by private farm advisors, who in most cases are owners of farm supply companies. The old farm advisory system (extension service) was provided by the state, but it has been eliminated. Despite the high consultation needs for adopting sustainable agriculture practices, there are very few true farm advisors. Farmers in Greece need advise -not just information. Already there are numerous presentations by academics and state agronomists with very general information on various topics, who many times provide conflicting information.

The current farm information system consists of an extensive network of pest incidence warnings with pest control information for tree crops only. This pest control info is not geared toward biological control or for organic farming. The current situation presents numerous barriers to sustainable agriculture and conversion to organic farming. Lack of information and knowledge in the farming community is one of the most serious obstacles, which are a result of the lack of farm advisory services. There is also limited experience in sustainable farming practices, which is coupled with a limited availability of agricultural technology geared towards organic management methods (organic fertilizers, biological control agents, specialized cultivation equipment, etc.). There are also insufficient quantitative and qualitative data on agronomic, ecological, social and economic aspects of organic farming. Finally, there is very limited research on ecological or organic farming practices performed at Greek universities and the national research foundation.

To help Greek farmers comply with the changing regulatory landscape in the EU and adapt sustainable agriculture practices, an overhaul of the advisory system and the available information sources is imperative. The challenges facing farm advisors in Greece are significant. There are numerous small farms; there were 900.000 single payment applications by farmers in 2007, with very small to medium holdings. Most farmers cultivate numerous small plots, which are usually scattered in a very wide area, making monitoring of their crops very difficult. Some farmers are difficult to reach, since they practice extensive animal farming in remote mountainous areas. Education level of farmers is relatively low and the majority is Internet illiterate. In addition, few farmers are trained in new technologies and they are very resistant to innovation.

The Ministry of Agriculture has proposed a new farm advisory system, which will be designed to minimize state involvement and maximize farmer's and advisor's involvement. The farm advisors, who would be certified by the state, will be required to have the following qualifications:

a. Relevant degree (agronomists, veterinarians, environmental scientists)

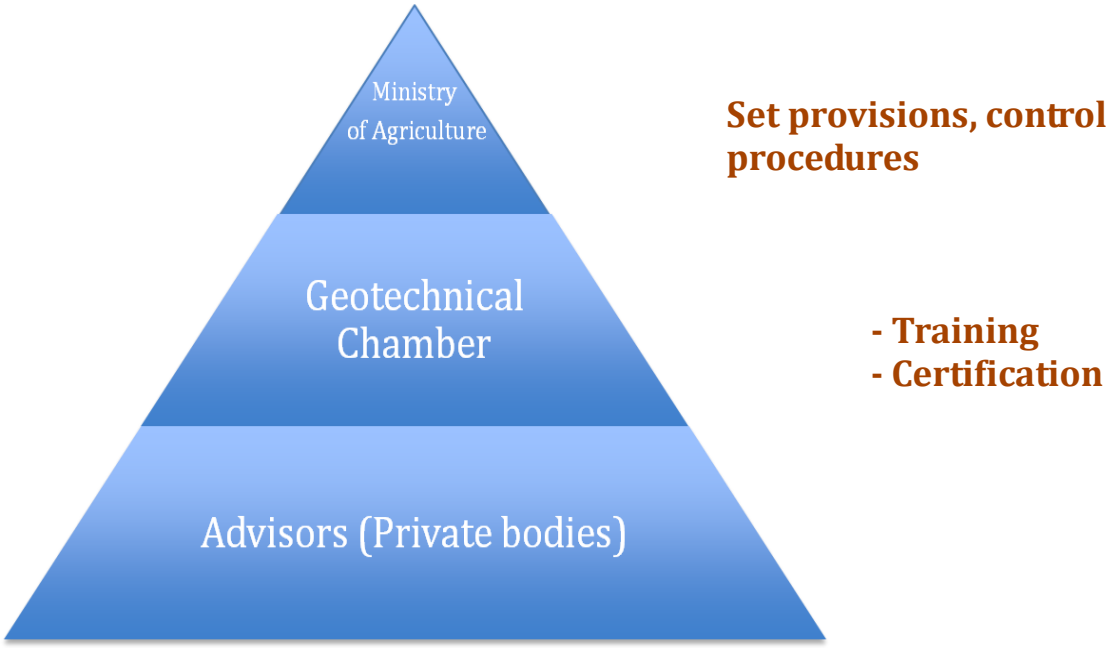
b. Have 2 years of relevant experience

c. Attend training and get certified

d. Have no commercial interest (advisors cannot sell agrochemicals)

e. Have necessary equipment (computers, software, etc)

Figure 5. Proposed Farm Advisory System



The proposed changes in the farm advisory system, with the newly formed body of farmer advisors will help guide Greek farmers for their transition from the old subsidy-based farming model to the new opportunities presented by the new CAP. There will be a need for major shifts in cultivations, as support for major crops, such as tobacco, cotton and sugar beets is being phased out. One example is the shift from tobacco production to aromatic and medicinal plants, which have very similar requirements for planting equipment and drying facilities. There are also many opportunities in specialty crops, such as production of Traditional specialities guaranteed (TSG), Protected geographical indication (PGI) and Protected designation of origin (PDO) products. It would be also possible to explore the feasibility of

production of the new “Miracle Crops”, such as Goji berry (Wolfberry) and sea-buckthorns, deciduous shrubs in the genus Hippophae.

Figure 6. Goji berry, (Wolfberry)

Figure 7. Sea-buckthorns *Lycium barbarum* L. chinense

There are also opportunities in Rural Development, especially in encouraging young people to move to rural areas to start farming. Farm advisors can help farmers apply for LEADER projects, start direct to consumer marketing (CSA), get involved with Agrotourism or install facilities for renewable energy production. Finally, farm advisors can also become the catalyst for initiating participatory agricultural research in Greek universities and research institutes.

THE QUEST FOR STAKEHOLDER INNOVATION, COMPETITIVENESS, RESPONSIBILITY AND SUSTAINABILITY - IMPLEMENTING LIFE-LONG LEARNING PROCESSES USING THE EUROPEAN COMMISSION'S LEARNING AREA APPROACH IN A RURAL TOURISM DESTINATION

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Abstract

Education is going through both crises and revolutions as nationally-bounded, post-industrial society reformulates as a global, technology-driven knowledge economy. Modern societies are moving from a staged system of academic schooling that precedes entry into the workforce followed by retirement, changing to a holistic system of life-long learning as a response to the rapidly-evolving demands of the new technological means of production and its concomitant labour re-organisation. Sustainability, competitiveness and innovation mean delivering new marketable products, but this requires more flexible, knowledgeable, qualified labour skills and improved knowledge access and transfer systems

This presentation discusses a methodology developed by the European Commission known as the Tourism Learning Area Approach, whereby relevant stakeholders are networked using ICT to exchange information and share knowledge for the purpose of maximising resource use to support local or regional SME, micro-enterprise and workforce development. It argues that rural areas must embrace the potential of ICT and engage in the global knowledge economy whilst at the same time giving value to local and regional people, products and services in order to create more dynamic rural tourism activities. Examples from pilot applications are given to illustrate how life-long learning processes are enabled in the Learning Area methodology.

THE ANIMATION OF DIVERSIFICATION OF RURAL ECONOMY IN POLAND

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Abstract

Diversification of rural economy is among top priorities of Polish rural and agricultural policy. Poland suffers from archaic agrarian structure, based upon small family farms (average 8 h). As a result of the above incomes of farmers are very low and employment opportunities to find regular posts outside the farm are very limited. Diversification of rural economy is regarded as the most promising way to improve income level of Polish farmers and members of their families.

Accession of Poland to the European Union opened new opportunities for diversification of rural economy. This was related mainly to new financial resources offered under Common Agricultural Policy measures, including grants for micro-enterprises and grants for farmers willing to diversify their sources of income. First calls for applications organized in 2005-2007 were disappointing due to a relatively small number of applicants. This situation revealed the need for professional animation of diversification processes. Special programmes for rural advisors, as well as for LAG employees were organized to attract farmers and micro-entrepreneurs to grants. The need for professional staff being able to animate rural communities in the way to build entrepreneur spirit is one of the biggest challenges for rural Poland for the next decade.

Introduction

The main objective of this article is to refer to the following important issues connected with rural development:

- Why do ever growing numbers of European farmers, as well as other rural inhabitants, have to search for ways of diversifying their sources of income?
- Is this phenomenon influenced by the process of globalisation of the world socio-economic system, and if so, how?
- Did the enlargement of the European Union, which took place a few years ago, simplified the diversification of sources of income of rural population in the countries such as Poland?
- What are the most important fields of diversification of sources of income of rural inhabitants?
- What is the role of rural animator in facilitating diversification of rural economy?

The aforementioned questions will be answered with regard to the main problem: the need to educate properly trained animators of social and economic life in rural area, who – which is the main thesis of this work - are essential to precipitate changes toward diversification of rural economy. These issues will be exemplified by the phenomena observable in Poland.

Diversification of rural economy - the idea.

While studying part time farming among Hungarian farmers, the British sociologist Nigel Swain quoted their popular saying "Here everyone stands on two feet""[2], which reflects the constant need for diversification income sources, particularly among poorer farmers. As Kaleta [3] claims, this lasting tendency is deeply rooted in the history of European agriculture where, even in the pre-industrial era, apart from land cultivation, peasants used to take either specialised jobs connected with agriculture or outside this sphere of economy.

During the industrial era the tendency for part time farming/ "dual profession"/"pluriactivity"[4] among peasant-workers, living somewhere between the rural and urban worlds became quite common, as more decent employment was easier to find in urban areas. However, cultural tradition made farmers keep usually small agricultural farms. As such, this phenomenon was a certain type of a lifestyle rather than a life strategy.

Furthermore it is during the post-industrial era when the secondary pluriactivity of farmers takes place and seeking for additional sources of income is becoming the main way of coping with the growing poverty of rural families which run subsistence agricultural farms[5].

Rural population's diversification of income sources has now become one of the pillars of the new European agricultural policy implemented since the end of the 1980s of the 20th century, and its main principles were defined in the well-known document "The Future of Rural Society"[6]. In it, finding additional sources of income outside agriculture was recognized as one of the most important challenges not only for the European agricultural policy but also for the European social policy. Consequently, as it was postulated, a wide range of financial instruments supporting such initiatives ought to be created, as well financial incentives for farmers and members of their households who would consider finding extra sources of income based on the resources of their agricultural farms[7].

Under conditions of the modern global economy, incertitude of agricultural markets force rural inhabitants who are still dependent on agriculture to carefully observe new business trends in order to find innovatory sources of income still based on resources of their own agricultural holdings[8].

Diversification of rural economy in the Polish context - opportunities, challenges, problems.

Poland constitutes a diverse conglomeration of various agricultural systems. Their specificity is rooted in the history of Poland before the First World War when the Polish state was divided into three partitions belonging to Prussia, Russia and Austria.

Hence, in the north-west and west regions of the Poland large agricultural farms are predominant, a remarkable proportion of which are privatized once state collective farms. In the central and the eastern regions, small and medium- sized agricultural farms prevail, and their productive base consists of low-quality soils.

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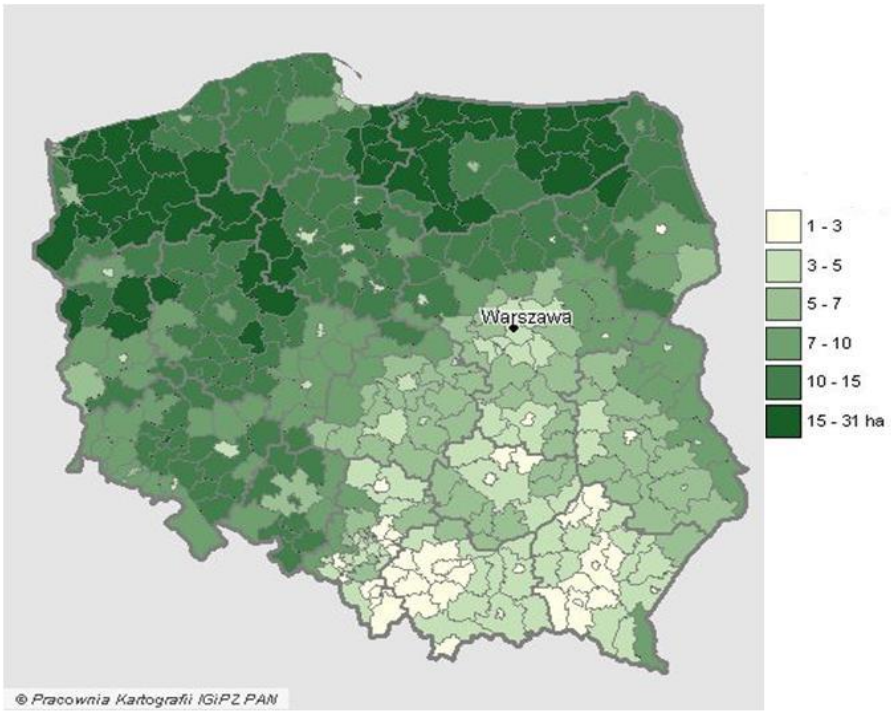
[5] Agricultural Policy Reform and and the Rural Economy in OECD Countries, OECD 1998

[6] The Future of Rural Society, Brussels 1988

[7] M. Skucksmiths (Ed.), The CAP and the regions. The territorial impact of CAP, Newcastle 2005

[8] S. Davies, Innovative sectors in remote and peripheral areas, Glasgow 2010

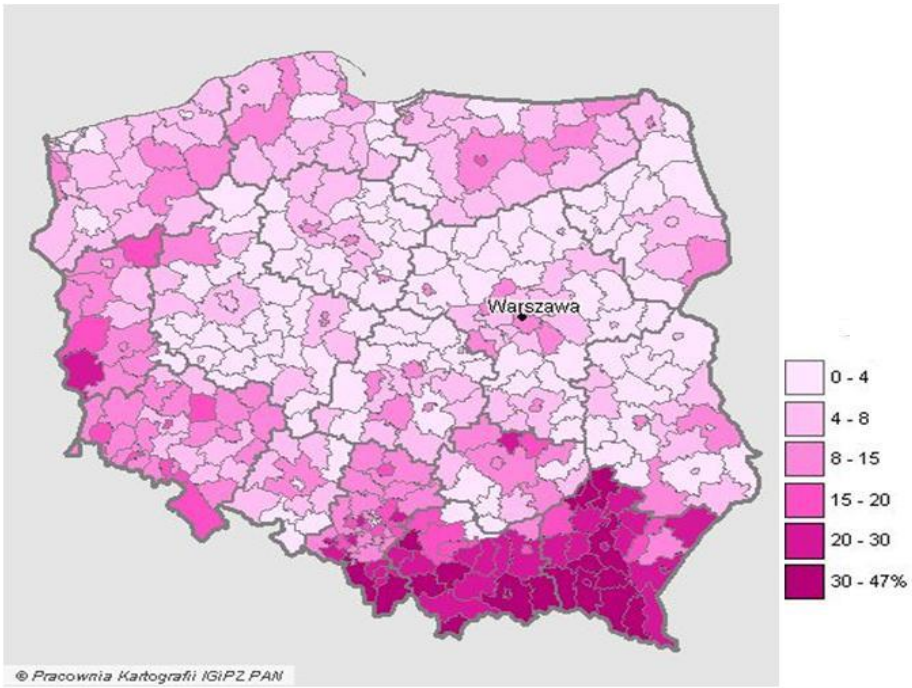
Map 1. The average size of the farm in Poland (by counties)



Source – GUS, 2008

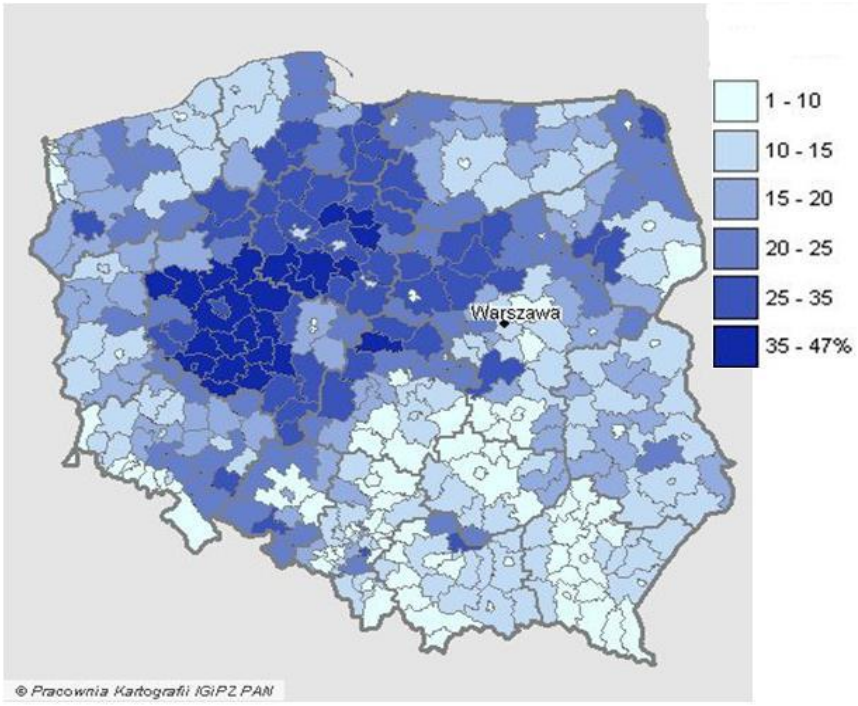
Finally in the southern Poland there tiny agricultural farms predominate, which are usually not connected with the agricultural market and concentrate mainly on the self-supply production. Hence, it is farmers of this region that urgently need to find additional sources of income.

Map 2. Percentage of agricultural farms concentrated mainly on self-supply production.



However, as statistics show (see: map 3), the human capital measured by the level of education and the professionalization of the labour force of these agricultural farms is exceptionally low. In the southern and eastern regions only 10-15% of the farmers have necessary agricultural education. Under such conditions any initiatives focused on obtaining additional income outside agriculture but based on their own agricultural farms seems extremely difficult.

Map 3. Farm holders with professional vocational education related with agriculture (by counties)



Source – Polish Academy of Sciences, 2010

- The above presented analyses indicate that:
- In Poland in some counties almost 50% of agricultural farms are not connected with the agricultural market, and they concentrate mainly on self-supply production their owners are usually undereducated so their interest in innovations that would create opportunities to diversify income sources of income is very low;
- In the meantime the need for additional sources in this group of farmers is especially urgent[9]. It is because they actually have no employment opportunities outside agricultural sector, and additionally are burdened with the cultural duty of patrimonial inheritance and morally reinforced prohibition of its sale[10].

Therefore, the need to animate small farmers' communities and encourage them to find alternative paths of development based on resources of their farms and potential of agricultural families seems particularly urgent.

[9] A. Kołodziejczak, T. Kossowski, Diversification of Polish farm systems in 2006-2009, Quaestionaes geographicae, no. 30(2), 2011, pp. 49-56

[10] B. Saługa, Peasant – farm hand - farmer, Warszawa 1998

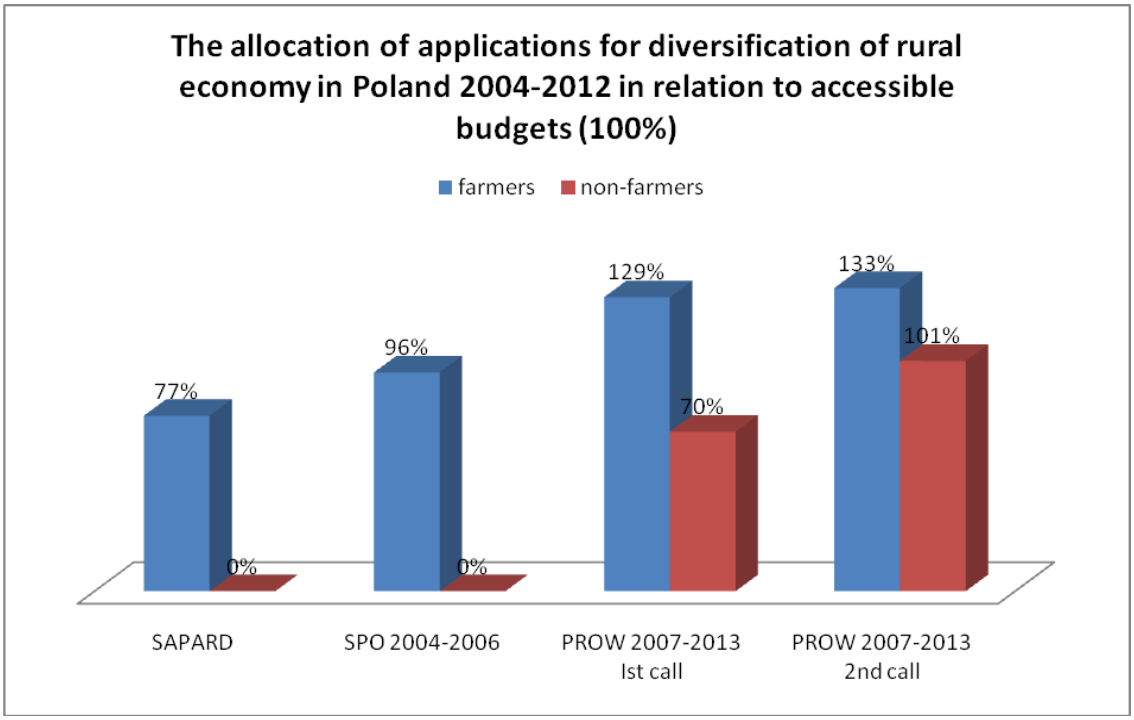
Further on in this article it will be shown that the expectations connected with the absorption of the UE funds intended to animate interest in obtaining additional sources of income among the owners of small and medium-sized agricultural farms appeared illusory.

EU funds for diversification of rural economy in Poland – abandoned expectations

In Poland, the funds which were to be used as an incentive for farmers to find alternative sources of income were available as early as the beginning of the 1990s and were financed by budget of the State. However, a range of that support was very slight in comparison with the support from the European Union.

To start with the SAPARD programme through all subsequent Polish programmes of absorption of EU funds, all these projects included precise instruments of diversification of rural economy.

Popularity of these instruments was growing in the course of time. During the pre-accession SAPARD programme, the initial demand for grants among farmers was not significant. However, later on, thanks to extensive social campaigns, the use of available funds reached 77%. During the first programme after the accession, that is the SOP (Rural Development Plan) "Restructuring and Modernisation of the Food Sector and Rural Development 2004-2006", the demand for UE funds became much higher, and finally 96% of the available funds were used. In subsequent within any of the announced competitions, the demand of farmers exceeded the supplied funds. Since the year 2004, the funds addressed to rural population not employed in the agricultural sector and interested in opening new jobs have also been available. And in this case, the interest in the accessible resources was very high.



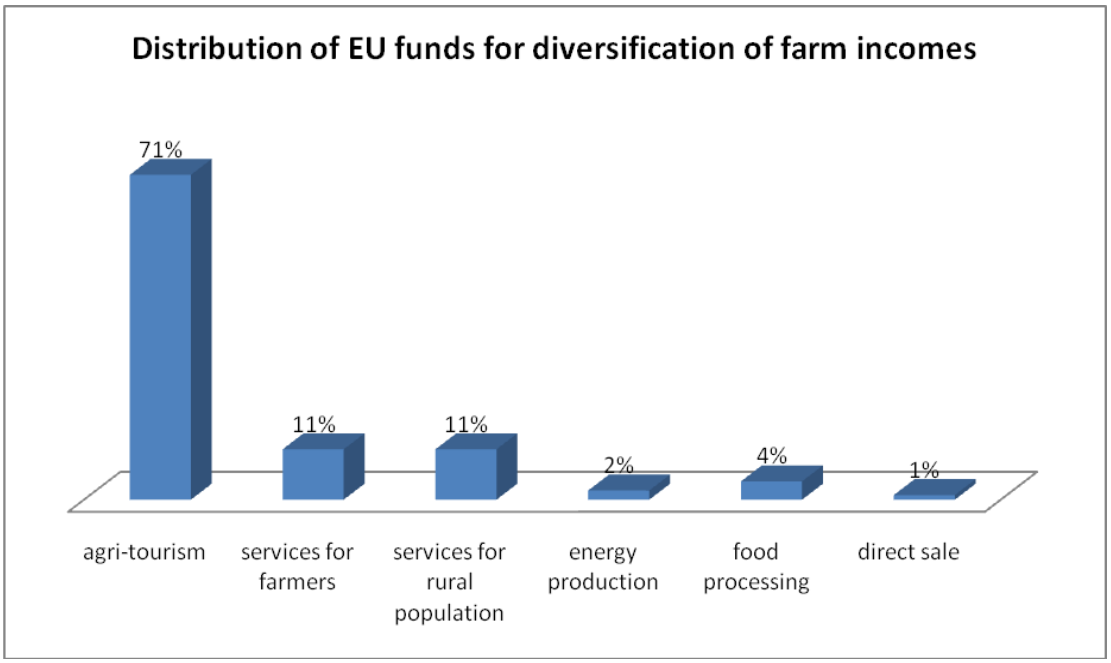
Note – In SAPARD and SPO 2004-2006 the diversification measures were accessible only for farmers and their spouses

Source – the author's calculation based upon official statistics of the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development, 2006-2010

The analysis of the above data may call into question the need for animation of rural environment in Poland aiming at increasing the proportion of rural income obtained outside agricultural sector. The

detailed analysis of the use of the UE funds for diversification of farm incomes: by whom and for what purposes they are used, leads to some disturbing conclusions.

As shown in the below graph, three quarters of that funds were used for the development of agri-tourism.



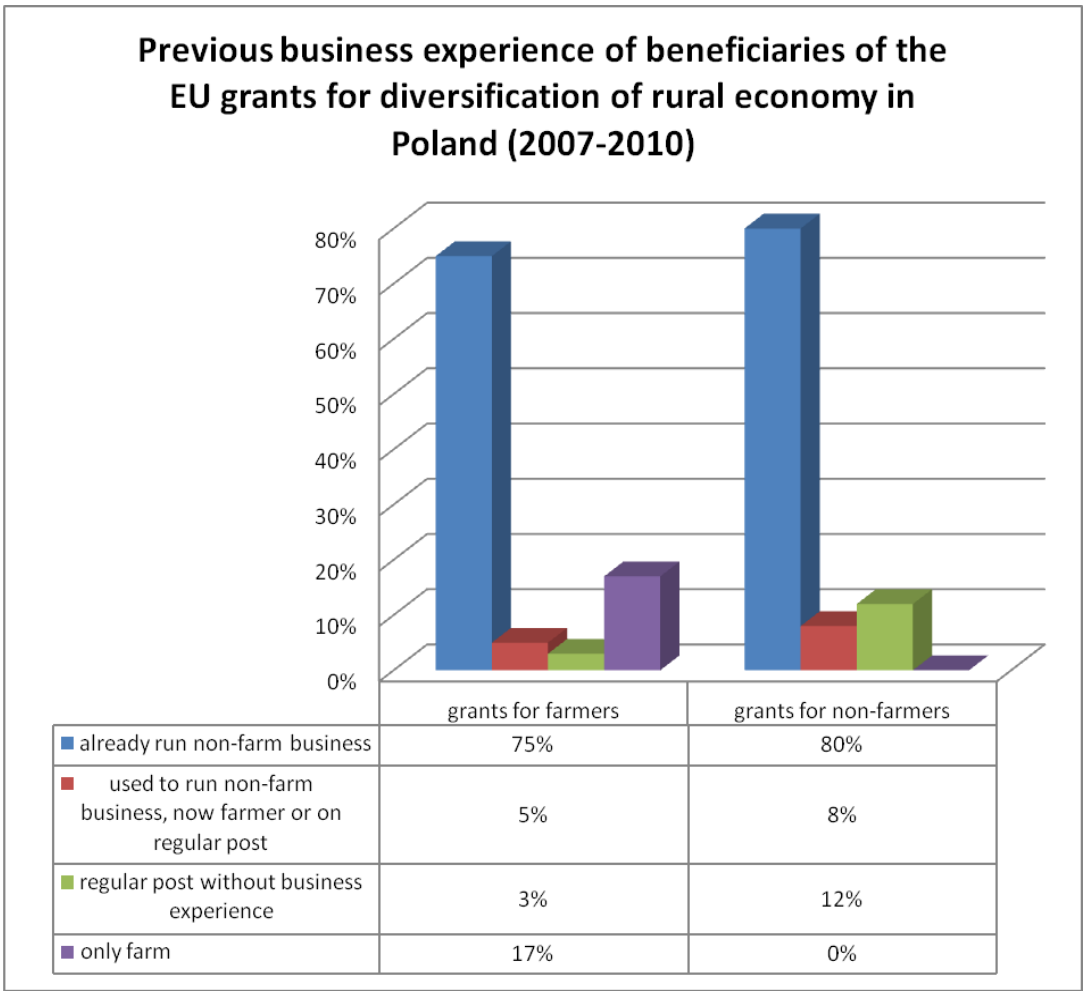
Source – The Agency for Restructuring and Modernisation of Agriculture, 2011

This, in turn, arouses presumption, which is fully confirmed by statistics of the Agency for Restructuring and Modernisation of Agriculture and payment agency[11], that these funds are unevenly distributed. It is obvious that successful agri-tourist business is possible to run only in geographically and culturally attractive areas. As a result most of the funds were directed to the regions where an average income from agricultural activities was relatively high any way. Whereas the regions in real need of such funds, such as Podkarpackie, Świętokrzyskie, Podlaskie, received hardly any support![12]

Another proof that the animation of the small-farm owners' environment is needed was found in the author's study which revealed that the most funds aimed at opening extra on-farm businesses flowed to the agricultural farms which already ran non-farm activity. Consequently, a significant portion of EU finds aimed at creation additional sources of income in small agricultural farms was absorbed by large and medium-sized ones and was used to develop already existing non-agricultural businesses. Hardly 17% of the UE rural income diversification funds were used by farmers who had never run non-agricultural economic activity before and derived their income solely on from agriculture.

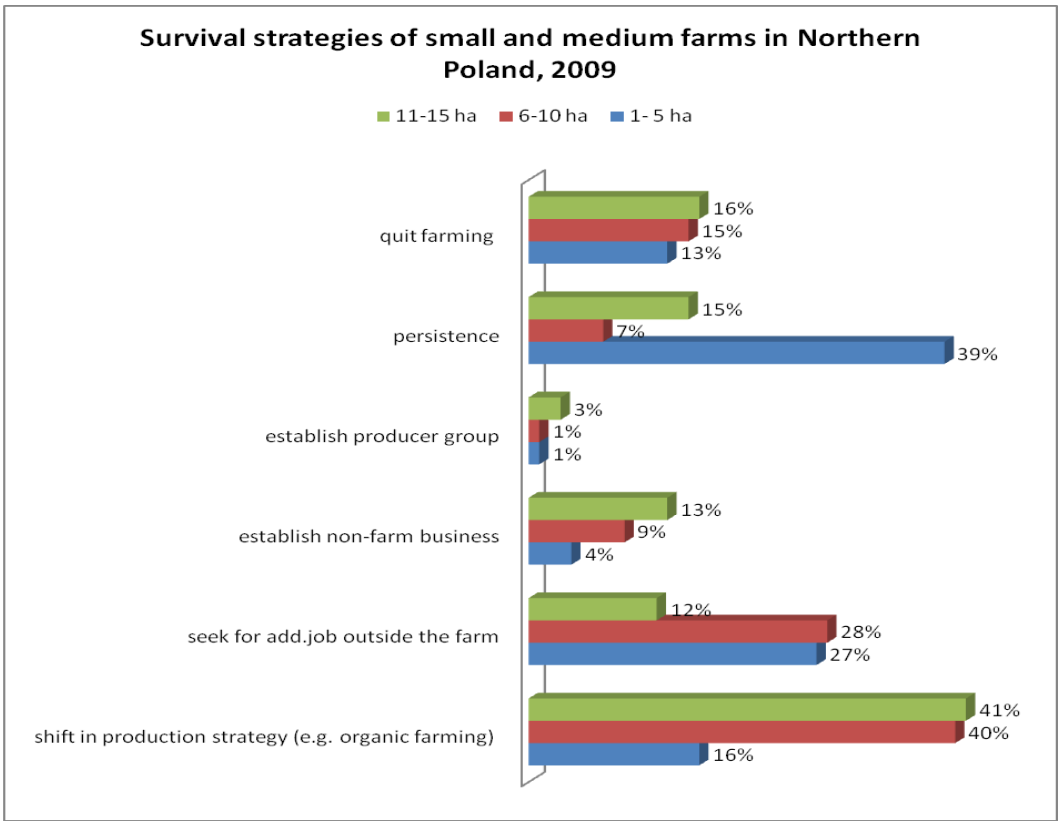
[11] Annual report, The Agency for Restructuring and Modernisation of Agriculture, years 2007, 2008 and 2010, Warszawa 2009, 2010, 2011

[12] Ibidem



Source – the author's research, 2011

Still other argument for the urgent need for animation of Polish rural environment in order to stimulate interest in additional sources of income comes from the 2009 surveys carried out by the author in northern Poland. These surveys showed that the bigger the farm the more interest in finding sources of extra income based on either on farm or non-farm resources. And inversely – the survey seems to prove that the owners of small agricultural farms as a rule do not have any survival strategy in the face of decreasing opportunities for a decent income based on agriculture. They usually remain in the state of so-called "passive persistence" consoled by the thought that "it will work out somehow".



Source – the author's research, 2009

Innovation - animation - diversification

It is clear that Polish rural areas have a significant potential for the development of additional sources of income. It mainly consists in environmental and cultural resources of rural Poland[13].

In recent years researchers reported numerous, however scattered throughout the country, innovatory initiatives aimed at the use of various ideas for economic development inspired by endogenous resources of rural communities[14]. Their latent potential shows a diversity of possible strategies of stimulation - through local animation - of rural resourcefulness.

It is a professionally prepared animator of local development and his work with a local community, as Idziak thinks[15], who is the key to successful, innovatory diversification of rural economy.

An example of such innovation may be the action animated by local leaders that aimed at establishing a thematic in the northern part of the Kujawsko-Pomorskie region, and connected with so-called crop circles which appeared nearby Wylatowo village. The mysterious crop circles - regardless of their origin - encouraged various business activities undertaken by local farmers - such as the construction of an observation tower in the field of the one of them, or printing postcards and other souvenirs connected with this event. Initially scattered, the initiative is now taking a form of a network of cooperation among various initiatives somehow connected with farming (at present it includes, among others, regional agricultural products).

[13] Rural Poland. Rural development report 2012, FDPA Warszawa 2012

[14] See Chapter 2 in „Social Innovation and Sustainable Rural Development", Thematic Guide no.9 Euracademy Association, Athens 2010, pp. 15-19

[15] Ibidem

Picture 1. New initiatives – thematic villages. The UFO Village in Wylatowo

Still other interesting example of an economic initiative stimulated by systematic and skilful animation of rural environment in socially and economically marginalized areas is another thematic village "Hobbition" in Sieraków, in northern Poland[16]. A village, populated by the impoverished farmers and farm hands who remained unemployed after the collapse of the ex-state farms, was haunted by the lack of additional sources of income. The local animator and leader helped to create a replica of the Hobbiton, a village well-known thanks to the novel written by J.R.R. Tolkien "Lord of the Rings". It enabled to open several jobs connected with organisation of Role Playing Games in the replica of Hobbiton and several dozen of others in local wayside inns, guest-houses and agri-tourist farms.

Picture 2. Role Playing Games organized as additional activity for rural tourists – the Hobbit Village in Sierakowice

Source – *www.wioskitematyczne.pl*

[16] www.wioskietematyczne.pl

In both cases it was the local leader, professionally prepared for conducting animation, who was the crucial major factor in creating additional sources of income.

Summary

As a result of decreasing profitability of agricultural production, the economic conditions of small agricultural farms is falling worse.

In Poland, there the tendency of geographical concentration of economically unwieldy agricultural farms is particularly strong. Furthermore, the condition of these farms is worsened by the low level of their owners education and as low level of their readiness to change, and seek new sources of income.

The situation did not improve even though, before and after the year 2004, farmers were offered remarkable amounts of the UE funds which would were to help them diversify their sources of income. What was the reason? Firstly, because the funds were used mainly by venturesome farmers who run either on-farm businesses or those not connected with agriculture at all. Secondly, a significant proportion of funds were used to develop initiatives connected with agri-tourism in the north and east regions of Poland where conditions of agricultural farms were not that dramatic. On the other hand, these funds did not reached regions where the concentration of small and medium-sized impoverished agricultural farms occurs.

In this context an urgent need can be seen for professional animation of rural environments in order to stimulate the interest in grants intended for the development of non-agricultural economic activities. It is all the more important since there is a huge potential of economic innovations within impoverished rural communities, as it was demonstrated in this article.

It was proven by the examples used in the article that the animation of rural economy in order to diversify income sources of rural population requires a solid professional base. The market demands innovatory initiatives and their creation in the environment characterized by the low human capital is far from being easy. Therefore, to achieve this local leaders need refined methodology and tools, and they cannot rely solely on their charisma and life experience. There is a growing need for qualified animators of local life whose education, holistic and multidimensional, enables identification of the new cultural and economic trends and their implementation into traditional rural environment.

RURAL ANIMATION: THE ROMANIAN CASE

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Introduction

One of the greatest problems that have occurred lately is the use of several terms that are connected to the reinvention of some forms of social engineering connected to the community development. The main problem is that these terms have been imported in the nineties on the base of some international projects. This is why we have to put the question:

How can we define rural animation in Romania?

The paper wishes to present the practices of community development as it has been promoted not only by NGOs but also the governmental agencies or local governments. The main idea is to professionalize and institutionalize these practices.

In Romanian literature (in our case for projects financed from external sources mainly after 2007) a whole vocabulary has appeared in the public and academic sphere: facilitator, local promotor, community agent, community participation, community development, social capital, social engineering, community projects supervisor. D. Sandu has edited in 2007 a book that tries to make a combination between the two: the practices, presentation of case-studies and the need to synthesise and theoretise them.

Principles of community involvement and development in Romania after the EU accession (D. Sandu):

Based on the conclusions of several community projects Sandu has outlined the main principles as it follows

- Access through diversity in local and international practices (to be able to learn from everything);
- Reflexivity: the multiplicity of some practices;
- Not to accept prejudice (do not judge by stereotypes);
- Privilege of context (participation is not a neutral behaviour)- do not lose the forest from the trees;
- Community development can only be efficient through the dialogue between theory and practice;
- Promotion of a social bottom-up change in community development is done though the belief that it is possible.

The concept of social capital always appears when it comes to community development. As Sandu has pointed out, the defining features of social capital are: relation, network and norms that make easier the collaboration, co-operation inside or between groups.

In Romanian practices of community development there is a success-story related to an institutional facilitator: FRDS (Romanian Fund for Social Development) that we are going to present in this paper.

Its a*ctivity* is based on a combination of local resources with external (governmental) resources: financed by grants and projects and through technology of animation and local organization.

It focuses upon rural issues, with an emphasis on Roma communities, mining regions, solidarity of social networks and NGOs activating in community development.

The FRDS also has the task of facilitation.

*How can we define facili**tation?***

Facilitation as a community organisation process deals with several aspects as (Apud Soflau, 2007):

- Solving specific problems;
- Planification of some projects;
- Development of local leadership
- Construction of community organisations that represent the community;
- Mobilisation in order to solute present and future problems);
- Revitalisation of local institutions.

Facilitation as a process aims to decrease of poverty (through fast, large economic development), of modernisation of traditional values, institutions and practices.

In this process the actor who is named to handle these tasks (the community facilitator) evaluates local needs, understanding and applying developmental projects, combining the old end new (methods like mental and social map, diagrams, focus-groups, participative observation).

Community facilitation has to deal with a very complex situation so its functions are:

- To identify the local problem;
- Legitimation of community actions;
- Planification of solutions;
- Execution of a project.
- What is needed: a leader, a co-ordinating group, an executor group, beneficiaries.
- The function of the facilitator
- Construction an AG, making-up the ideology of participation.

As we can see, fulfilling these tasks requires a person who has to have the following characteristics:

- to understand the power relations, the situation of marginal groups (those who are endangered by social exclusion), ethnic relations, etc.;
- must have a holistic view and a dialogue with the community;

Also he has to do more than just to construct an action group, but also to make up an ideology of community participation, to consolidate the belief that community action can be successful at local level. From the nineties onwards, the facilitator should be specialized, as it is set up in several international institutions (like World Learning, World Bank, UNPD, etc.)

We also have to mention the impediments of facilitation, Sandu mentions them as local element, e.g. the culture. Culture in facilitation as a “traditional mentality” sometimes is an impediment for the development culture (e.g. the culture of poverty mostly for groups with a low educational attainment, Rromas, etc.).

One of the tasks in the community facilitation is to evaluate rural poverty, task that can be done through certain economic and socio-cultural indicators:

- level of poverty;
- level of isolation of a community;
- evaluation of co-operation networks;
- evaluation of institutional relations;
- evaluation of relations community-institution;
- participation of community members in the public decisions.

Considering the above mentioned elements we can see that the process of facilitation has to take in consideration several phases of facilitation:

- Diagnosis of the community;
- Identification of local leaders;
- Choice of a group of initiation;
- Identification of priority needs;
- Legitimation of a problem that becomes the scope of the project,
- Monitoring the community for making the project.

During this process the main tasks of the facilitator are:

- To identify the local official leaders and other respected persons, members of the community and to stimulate the development of an organisation;
- To evaluate by participation the needs, to identify resources;
- To make partnerships with the local authorities;
- To stimulate co-operation with the local community members;
- To find solutions for the existing problems;
- To organise the elaboration of projects;
- To be able to estimate cost, prepare feasibility;
- To solve the conflictual situations in the preparation, implementation of a project;
- To find partners and financial resources;
- To build networks between communities

Conclusions

As one could see from above that because of the newly set up tasks, the role of facilitation and the facilitator in Romania are very complex, but as we could see from presentations of success-stories of community development we can say that:

- After 2000, facilitation in Romania has gained new emphasis based on principles of EU community development;
- Due to its complexity facilitation and animation needs to be professionalised in Romania, and as these type of community development are done mostly in rural communities, there would be an important need for the professionalisation of the actor who should do this: a rural animator as a professional and with time this profession will aslo appear as an internationally recognised profession.

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SESSION 4

ANIMATION IN ACTION – SOME MODELS

Rural animation in a changing rural world; experiences in Southern Italy

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Abstract

In the last decades, rural areas have lost a large part of their economic role. A well defined production activity is on the way to be replaced, at least in the intentions of policy makers, by a "multifunctional role" whose characters and economic potentiality are less clear. At the same time, the activity of extension services often shifted from the diffusion of innovation to assistance in bureaucratic commitments, while different patterns of knowledge dissemination emerged. In Italy, the training of agricultural technicians and of agricultural graduates remained unchanged, largely ignoring, now as in the past, the need for skills in dissemination and rural animation, and the knowledge of the sciences on which these activities must be based.

The paper is based on a field work performed in the frame of some research projects involving rural animation activities, in areas where agriculture is facing a deep crisis, while other alternative activities either collapsed soon or were not yet established. It reports the experiences of scientists with no training in rural animation, outlining their mistakes and achievements, and the need to shift from a positivistic approach to development, based on technology, to a new one, involving aspects more related to social work. The need for a specific training, characterized by a strong field experience, is evidenced.

INTERMEDIARIES IN

AKIS (AGRICULTURAL KNOWLEDGE AND INNOVATION SYSTEMS) AND SARD (SUSTAINABLE AGRICULTURE & RURAL DEVELOPMENT)

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Abstract

The role of intermediaries in sustainable agricultural and rural development will be presented. In the first place, a general review of the roles of intermediaries with emphasis on the two main types of intermediaries, i.e. facilitators and brokers will be presented. Following, the emergence of AKIS as well as the of a facilitation model in agricultural literature is explored, supported by a number of examples. Given that there is a number of issues threatening the efficacy of facilitators and brokers, it is argued that there is an urgent need for facilitation and brokerage to be better described, operationally defined and well-evaluated so as to allow for both a better interpretation and guidance of practice; this also implies changes in Higher Education Institutes (HEIs).

Introduction

Changes a) in thinking about innovation (i.e. the replacement of the linear view of innovation by innovation systems approaches; innovations as encompassing not only technological but social and organisational issues as well); b) in the agricultural knowledge infrastructure (i.e. commercialisation and privatisation of extension services; sustainability of production systems; multifunctionality; specialisation, globalisation and the change of markets); and, c) on the demand and supply side (i.e. on the one hand, agricultural entrepreneurs actively seeking knowledge and information and, on the other hand, traditional providers of knowledge and technology facing the challenge to become more client-oriented as well as a new, pluralistic organisational landscape) illustrate the current, challenging scene for agricultural/rural extension and education (Klerkx and Leeuwis 2008a, 2008b, 2009; Klerkx et al. 2006). This, in turn, implies that agriculture increasingly resembles non-agricultural sectors in terms of knowledge and technology acquisition.

In the non-agricultural literature, new, systems of innovations (SoI) thinking has emerged including national systems of innovation (e.g. Edquist 1997; Lundvall, 1992), technological systems (e.g. Carlsson 1995) and sociotechnical systems (e.g. Geels 2004). Such thinking sees innovation in a systemic and interactive way; i.e. innovation emerges from networks of actors as a social (and institutional) as well as a technical process, which is nonlinear and based on interactive learning. As a result new approaches multiply and are gaining in importance. Examples include Knowledge Management (Hinton 2003; Swan et al. 1999); Knowledge Transfer and Exchange (Mitton et al. 2007); and, Evidence-based practice and Knowledge Translation (Mitchell et al. 2010) also known as 'implementation research' (Shea 2011).

These and other relevant approaches build on networks, as social processes encouraging the sharing of knowledge (i.e., interrelating and sense making; Weick 1990), and notably as preconditions for innovation. They, therefore, focus on processes (instead of the emphasis on structures) with knowledge conceived as being constructed through social interaction – i.e., not unproblematically transferred but instead continuously created and recreated. Thus particular attention is given to (social) co-ordination and networking. Moreover, in order to avoid or overcome gaps (cognitive, information, managerial or system) resulting in network and institutional failures (Klerkx and Leeuwis 2009) growing attention is given to various types of (process) 'intermediaries'. For example, Davenport and Prusak (1998) claim

that one of the characteristics of successful knowledge networks is neutral facilitation; for Van Lente et al. (2003) 'systemic intermediaries' are actors working mainly at the system or network level to facilitate actor interactions; Haga (2009) argues for the need to orchestrate networking enablers and thus for 'mediators' or 'brokers' as 'independent players' in networks aiming at: a) acting as points of passage to external actors outside the network, bringing in experience and expertise; and, b) building internal network resources and network structure - upon which network governance and processes depend (see also: Dhanaraj and Parkhe 2006; Shea 2011). Such intermediating actors have, in case of specific knowledge bridging, been named as KIBS, that is, knowledge intensive business services (Muller and Zenker 2001).

'Intermediaries' are increasingly found particularly in literature as third parties, (knowledge/technology) brokers, bridging organizations, intermediaries, boundary organizations and so on (Howells 2006).[i] Extensive reviews on the topic of 'intermediaries', mainly found in the industrial sector and increasingly in the healthcare literature, however show that the field is still theoretically fragmented, not well-grounded and largely practice oriented. Therefore, Howells (2006:720) prefers to employ the broad term 'innovation intermediary' according to the following working definition: *"An organization or body that acts as an agent or broker in any aspect of the innovation process between two or more parties. Such intermediary activities include: helping to provide information about potential collaborators; brokering a transaction between two or more parties; acting as a mediator, or go-between, bodies or organizations that are already collaborating; and helping find advice, funding and support for the innovation outcomes of such collaborations."*[ii]

It is thus quite clear that such 'intermediaries' are involved, taking an independent systemic role, in process facilitation rather than in the production (i.e., source) or dissemination (i.e., carrier) of innovation. Or, according to Haga (2005) they are involved in 'indirect' innovation processes (i.e. in enabling individuals and enterprises) rather than in direct ones (i.e. on actual innovation projects).

Aim and Methodology

Despite the fact that 'intermediaries' are increasingly recognised as playing a significant role in knowledge exchange and the wider innovation system, this new topic has not been extensively dealt with in agricultural literature (Klerkx and Leeuwis 2008a). This piece of work, given the aforementioned lack of conceptual groundedness of 'intermediaries', aims at exploring the meaning and use of a special type of 'intermediaries', namely of 'facilitators', in the agricultural literature. Thus, first, the concepts (and roles) of facilitation are explored - with special reference to the growing healthcare literature. Following, the (need for the) emergence of such an approach in agricultural literature and practice is discussed and illustrated by a number of examples. The paper concludes with reference to the potential as well as some of the main problems identified with the 'intermediation/facilitation' function.

Facilitation and facilitators

In the case of 'facilitation', Auvine et al. (2002:54) note that facilitation 'is designed to help make groups perform more effectively' and that 'a facilitator's job is to focus on how well people work together'; although a facilitator 'can fulfil different kinds of needs in working with a group' his/her actual role depends on 'the group's purpose for coming together and by what is expected … of the facilitator'. Savage and Hilton (2001) distinguish between facilitation, mediation and persuasion and note that a facilitator affects the orientation of a group and its relationships; they add that a facilitator's intervention affects both internal (direct and indirect) and external (inward and outward) group processes. According to Thompson et al. (2006:694) the facilitators' overarching role is 'to assist (individuals or groups) through the process of implementing a change in practice'; their distinctive role relates to the use of 'the dynamics of a group and their skills to assist persons to move towards change'. For Murray and Blackman (2006:239) facilitation aims at *'supporting the work of different types of teams in solving mostly complex problems and in developing decision solutions. The point is that facilitation*

enablers allow learners to be confronted with different kinds of participation.' Finally, Leeuwis (2004) summarises the facilitator's tasks as a) to facilitate the group process, b) to teach and c) to be an expert on technical aspects of farming. Such approaches to facilitation relate to Habermas' (1984) perspective, in the sense that *"a facilitator tries to create an ideal speech situation and through the appropriate intervention strategies helps the participants to engage in a communicative dialogue that results in consensual decision-making*" (Savage and Hilton, 2001:48)

Facilitators in the healthcare literature

One of the fields in which the topic of facilitation is currently intensively dealt with is healthcare. In the first place, Kitson et al. (1998) have stressed the importance of facilitation as an essential component of successful research implementation. Facilitators support individuals and groups to identify their needs and, thus, necessary changes as well as to carry out such changes; therefore, facilitation is 'a technique by which one person makes things easier for others'. Later, Harvey et al. (2002), define facilitation as 'the process of enabling (making easier) the implementation of evidence into practice'. The authors maintain that the practice of facilitation depends on the meaning and purpose as well as the specific field in which it is applied while also underlying its multifaceted nature. They further discriminate between two facilitation models: the 'outreach' model providing advice, networking and support and the 'humanistic psychology and Action Research' model stressing critical thinking experiential learning. A wide array of facilitator roles are thus possible ranging between two poles, i.e. the 'doing for others' pole which is practical and task-driven and the 'enabling others - holistic' pole which is more developmental 'seeking to explore and release the inherent potential of individuals'. Hence, facilitation may range 'from a discrete task-focused activity to a more holistic process of enabling individuals, teams and organizations to change' with 'hybrid' models of facilitation being often employed.

Stetler et al. (2006) also point out the potential of facilitation as a key-component for successful implementation along with its complex and multifaceted nature. In their examination of 'external' facilitation they focus on the importance of relationship building and communication; to this end, facilitators use various intervention strategies while providing support and problem-solving. Kitson (2009) also argues that successful knowledge translation requires expert facilitators who 'support the experiential learning of individuals and teams in managing the new knowledge.' Finally, Doghetry et al. (2010) claim that the emerging themes concerning facilitation strategies are: increasing awareness of a need for change; leadership and project management; relation-building and communication; importance of the local context; and, ongoing monitoring and evaluation.

Moreover, despite Harvey et al.'s (2002) and Tompson et al.'s (2006) attempt to clarify, while accepting the existence of multiple interpretations, the concept of facilitation as a boundary spanning role aiming at change, Stetler et al. (2006), Dogherty et al. (2010) and Kitson (2009) argue that it is poorly understood, including the confusion on whether facilitation is a distinct role in itself or overlaps with other concepts/designations (notably that of 'change agents'). At the same time, all authors agree that there is little concrete evidence about a) the mix/repertoire of skills (besides flexibility which is a common denominator in all authors) required and b) how a facilitator's skills are developed (i.e., through specific training and/or experiential processes) as well as on the lack of rigorous evaluations of the concept and practice of facilitation. The issue of the sustainability of facilitation interventions is a further point of concern (Harvey et al. 2002; Dogherty et al. 2010).

The turn to 'Intermediaries' in agricultural theory (and practice)

Agricultural literature is rather familiar with the topic of 'intermediaries' in the sense of state/public funded bodies aiming at bridging the gap between agronomy-science and farming practice, i.e. mainstream or 'conventional' extension. The linear (diffusion of innovations) model, also known as technology or knowledge transfer (ToT/TOK), claims that innovations originate from scientists, are transferred by extension agents ('intermediaries') and are adopted/applied by farmers (Rogers, 2004).

For Rogers (2004) a change (extension) agent is an "an individual who influences clients' innovation decisions in a direction deemed desirable by a change agency". However, nowadays, a new understanding of 'intermediaries' is emerging since the turn a) from reductionist to systemic science (and practice) and b) from the expert syndrome (top-down approach) towards participatory (bottom-up) processes (i.e., 'passing the stick' to participants).

Agrarian sciences have until recently been dominated by instrumental rationalist knowledge and experimental, reductionist science. Despite the paradigm's dazzling achievements, alternative proposals have nevertheless flourished, since the 1970s, based on the realization of the inadequacy of linear and mechanistic thinking in understanding the source and the solutions of problems. As a result, contemporary conceptions of agriculture focus increasingly on systems approaches (see: Ison 2010). A growing body of literature has thus identified the social, cultural and political perspectives involved in natural resources management, implying that social and ecological systems have to be treated as a single coupled and dynamically complex system (Allison and Hobbs 2004; Griffin 1979).

In parallel, the 'diffusion of innovations' model has been heavily criticised, as it fails to respond to complex challenges and rapidly changing contexts, including the shift to sustainable development (Chambers and Jiggins 1986; Röling 1988; Röling and Jiggins 1998). Important in this respect has been the emergence of Farming Systems Research/Extension (FSR/E) approaches. Their introduction as a set of methodologies to better understand and apply technical interventions, with its theoretical roots based on ecology and general systems theory was a leap in terms of agricultural development on both theoretical and practical terms. Through FSR/E vast experience has been accumulated in terms of understanding farmers, eliciting participation, developing tools and methods, and building agricultural and social networks. FSR/E contributed substantially to the recognition of different actors in development and helped to create awareness about the need for new ways to conduct research and extension, taking into account context and relations (Collinson 2000).

An important evolution in this respect has been, within the FSR/E tradition, the turn from Rapid/RRA to Participatory Rural Appraisal/PRA (Chambers 1992, 1994; Webber, 1995) which "tends to favour facilitation of a non-interventionist variety" (Robinson, 2002). A suite of participatory approaches and methods, relating to agricultural and rural development, has thus been developed (see: Pretty 1995). Consequently, the need for interaction and dialogue between different actors and networks (i.e. the interpenetration of actors' life-worlds and projects) forcefully emerged (Chambers 1993; Scoones and Thompson 1994), based on the realisation that flows of communication and exchange between different actors are extremely important for existing knowledge to be either reinforced or somehow transformed or deconstructed, thus leading to the emergence of new forms and a 'fusion of horizons' (Leeuwis et al. 1990).

With the 'sustainability era' having, in general, favoured multi-stakeholder processes thinking (Dalal-Clayton and Bass 2002; Hemmati 2002) such considerations have been further enhanced in agricultural literature and practice since, in addition to the ecologically, agronomically and socio-economically complex nature of farming systems, sustainable agricultural practices are per se complex, knowledge intensive and non-prescriptive. Thus, for Somers (1998) collaborative problem-solving methods with extensionists fostering discovery learning are required. Crucially, according to Röling and Jiggins (1998) the shift to sustainable agriculture concerns a systemic change thus requiring 'double loop' learning, i.e. a profound change in assumptions and strategies underlying subsequent actions (Argyris and Schon 1974) or a move from traditional, first-order practice to second-order change, i.e. change in perspective or level (Ison and Russel 2000). Thus the emphasis currently given on the principles of experiential learning (Kolb 1984) and its advances such as participatory learning and action research (King et al. 2001) stressing, among others, the importance of reflection and dialogue.

Moreover, Röling and Jiggins (1998) argue that the move towards an 'ecological knowledge system' (vs. the 'conventional knowledge system') means the need to move from a praxeology (i.e., theory informing practice, and practices feeding new theory) of 'transfer of knowledge' to a 'facilitating knowledge' one focusing 'on enhancing the farmers' capacity to observe, experiment, discuss, evaluate and plan ahead' (Deugd et al. 1998:269). This new praxeology thus calls for an alternative extension pedagogy entailing stakeholders' participation in experiential learning and knowledge exchange (Woodhill and Röling 1998).

Social learning (SL) lies at the heart of such multi-stakeholder processes. It refers to the collective action and reflection that occurs among stakeholders as they work towards mutually acceptable solution to a problem pertaining to the management of human and environmental interrelationships (Keen et al. 2005; Wals 2007). Extension for sustainable agriculture therefore implies a (social) mechanism for facilitating SL (Allahyari et al. 2009) i.e. participatory processes of social change, through shared learning, collaboration, and the development of consensus about the action to be taken. Consequently, a new extension approach aiming at participatory and group learning and networking with extension agents acting as facilitators is required.

Additionally, based on SoI approaches there has been a conceptual shift in agricultural literature from the TOT model to network and systems approaches such as the agricultural knowledge and information systems (AKIS; see: Röling and Engel 1991; Rivera and Zijp 2002) and, more recently, towards agricultural innovation systems (AIS; see: Klerkx and Leeuwis 2008a; Klerkx et al. 2010; Leeuwis 2004). In this respect there has been a move from the strengthening of National Agricultural Research Systems (NARS) to Agricultural Innovation Systems (AIS). The NARS approach, espousing a linear model of research, development, and extension, aimed at investments in agricultural research institutes and higher education institutions in order to strengthen research supply. Following, the Agricultural Knowledge and Information Systems (AKIS) approach brought attention to the demand side factors. AKIS were conceived of as "*a set of agricultural organisations and/or persons, and the links and interactions between them, engaged in such processes as the generation, transformation, transmission, storage, retrieval, integration, diffusion and utilisation of knowledge and information, with the purpose of working synergistically to support decision-making, problem-solving and innovation in a given country's agriculture or domain thereof*" (Röling and Engel, 1991). This approach thus aimed at integrating farmers, education, research and extension; it has been depicted as a triangular arrangement (knowledge triangle) with the farmer being placed at the centre/heart of this arrangement. More recently, AKIS has been replaced by AIS, an approach that embraces "the totality and interaction of actors involved in innovation" and extends "beyond the creation of knowledge to encompass the factors affecting demand for and use of knowledge in novel and useful ways" (see: Klerkx and Leeuwis 2008a; Klerkx et al. 2010; Leeuwis, 2004). The latter approach claims that the process of innovation is messy and complex; new ideas are developed and implemented by people who engage in networks and make adjustments in order to achieve desired outcomes. Nowadays, as aforementioned, innovation studies increasingly focus on learning itself, with emphasis on facilitation and the processes of human interaction from which learning emerges (LEARN Group, 2000; Röling and Wagemakers, 1988). Contra Rogers (2004), these approaches claim that the process of innovation is messy and complex; new ideas are developed and implemented by people who engage in networks and make adjustments in order to achieve desired outcomes (Van de Ven et al. 1999). Nowadays, innovation studies increasingly focus on learning itself, with emphasis on facilitation and the processes of human interaction from which learning emerges (LEARN Group 2000; Röling and Wagemakers 1988). Thus Leeuwis's view of extension as 'communication for innovation' (Leeuwis 2004; Leeuwis and Aarts 2011).

Such considerations have led to the requirement to move across the boundaries of different scientific branches as well as between scientists and stakeholders. As a result, a wide variety of approaches on collaborative-participatory efforts has been advanced in the field the sustainable natural resources management, such as adaptive management, social learning/ learning for sustainability, social/public

ecology as well as the attention paid to local knowledge and indigenous science (Koutsouris 2008a). Consequently, new configurations also emerge in agriculture including learning partnerships, group extension, farmer-field schools, communities of practice, study circles, farmer networks, etc.

Overall, such changes imply that extension has to be transformed. 'Conventional' extension, identified with the linear model of innovation, has to do with 'exploitation', i.e. with the capturing, transfer and deployment of knowledge in other similar situations, and thus belongs to the old type of KIBS. On the contrary, nowadays new KIBS operating on the systems perspective and aiming at enhancing the interaction between a variety of actors, focusing on 'exploration', i.e. with the sharing and synthesising thus with the creation of new knowledge (Levinthal and March 1993; Murray and Blackman, 2006), are emerging. A major role of the new KIBS is that of the co-learning facilitator (usually found in literature as 'facilitators' or 'brokers') aiming at the development of shared meaning and language between dialogue partners in order to stimulate change and develop solutions and innovation. The engagement of stakeholders in dialogue, despite its difficulties and its time consuming nature (since (social) learning and change are gradual), is necessary so that critical self-inquiry and collaboration will be achieved. What is more, according to Sriskandarajah et al. (2006): '*The future challenge will be about learning processes in open networks and less so in well defined and often familiar groups. Learning among heterogeneous groups of stakeholders, and among different epistemologies has become one of the most central issues today*'.

Indicative examples of 'Facilitation' in agriculture

A well-known, early reference to facilitation is found in Oakley et al.'s (1991) account of the six major dimensions (animation, structuring, facilitation, intermediary, linking and withdrawal) in promoting rural people's participation. According to them facilitation concerns the provision of assistance to rural people (such as the acquisition of technical skills, gaining access to available resources or translation of their own ideas into projects) in order to undertake actions aiming at strengthening their participation.

On the other hand, in a recent paper, Ingram (2008), discriminates between various agronomists' roles in knowledge exchange encounters (KEE) in relation to best management practices (BMPs) for a more responsible and sustainable agriculture. Her research points to the existence of one, among four, distinct type of agronomists who see themselves and act as facilitators. These agronomists help "farmers to understand the problems and opportunities within their own farming systems" through farmers' empowerment "in terms of raising general awareness about problems as well as teaching [explaining] certain principles and practices" which "provides the basis for facilitation of use of BMPs." Therefore, facilitative KEEs "are built on dialogue, mutual respect and shared expectations and this provides the right context for joint learning" (see also: Garforth et al. 2003; Moriss et al. 2006). For Ingram facilitators-agronomists in order to be able to work collaboratively, assist and empower farmers to learn and adapt (or, to build a trusting and credible relationship with farmers) have "to have good communication skills, the ability to empathize and listen, impartial, technically capable, and they value farmers' insights". Her findings, stress especially the need for the development, in parallel with technical training, of the 'interactional expertise'/ interpersonal skills of advisors (see also: Cerf et al. 2011; Ison and Russell 2000; Leeuwis 2000; Sheath and Webby 2000).

Among the most well known cases advocating facilitation are the Australian Landcare movement and Farmer Field Schools (FFS). In the first case, "*Landcare group facilitation is about fomenting group synergy, about helping groups to make best use of the human resources available, about helping to develop a shared sense of direction among the relevant actors (within and beyond the Landcare group), about skilled listening, asking the right questions of the right people at the right time, providing occasions, organising encounters and stimulating interaction among target stakeholders*" (Campbell 1997; see also: Carr 1997).

As far as FFS is concerned, it was initially developed based on adult learning principles in order to facilitate farmer understanding and application of IPM through learning-by-doing and social learning (Röling and van de Fliert 1994, 1998; van de Fliert et al. 1995) or discovery learning (Tripp et al. 2005). For Braun et al. (2000) FFS - as well as CIALS (local agricultural research committees) - sum up to "participatory platforms for improving decision-making capacity and stimulating local innovation for sustainable agriculture". According to the authors both platforms "… consider farmers as experts, stress respect for local values and knowledge, and build capacity based on practical experience … have mechanisms to ensure that the risk is shared ... [while] facilitation styles and the role of motivation are similar." Within such a context teaching is transformed into facilitation i.e. a process assisting farmers to explore and discover; extension workers or trained farmers facilitate the learning process, encouraging farmers to discover key agroecological concepts and develop IPM skills through self-discovery activities practised in the field (Ooi 1996). Thus Friis-Hansen and Duveskog (2011) stress the link between FFS participation (based on high-quality facilitation) and empowerment, while Van den Berg and Jiggins (2007), through an international review, conclude that "the FFS has triggered further development beyond IPM, in the field of experimentation, collective action, leadership, planning, and organization."

The Participatory Extension Approach (PEA) practiced by GTZ is another interesting example of an alternative approach to innovation service delivery (Hagman et al. 1997; Hagman et al. 2003; Moyo and Hagman 2000; Ngweya and Hagman 2007). PEA is people-centred, learning oriented and participatory; it combines 'social extension' and 'technical advisory services' in an effort to enhance people's adaptive capacities and establish a common platform for trying out new things. Within such an approach, facilitation for change (F4C), built on action learning and systemic theories, aims at stimulating people's 'creative orientation' both at individual and organisation levels. F4C has played a significant role in triggering the process of community emancipation and innovation and it can be analysed in a number of dimensions.

PEA, among others, puts emphasis on the competencies of the extension facilitators at the cognitive, behavioural/attitudinal level and the emotional level which are integrally linked and strongly influence one another. Furthermore, it delineates the specific facilitation skills in terms of: a) process related skills and b) facilitation techniques. The first comprise elements like process observation (including monitoring and evaluation), process documentation and the adaptive capacity. The second include the art of questioning and probing; managing facilitation tools; visualisation skills; giving and receiving feedback; and, managing group dynamics, team building techniques.

Discussion and conclusions

Given the changes in terms of innovation thinking, knowledge infrastructure and knowledge demand and supply in agriculture (and rural development) new roles for extension emerge. Such new, 'intermediating' or/and 'enabling' roles, i.e., co-learning facilitation roles such as 'facilitation' point to an overall new 'praxeology' for extension, that is, a shift from a 'transfer of knowledge' to a 'facilitation of knowledge' perspective. As shown in the previous sections while the case of facilitation in not new in agricultural literature and practice a need for extension to move from an 'old' to a 'new KIBS' role clearly arises.

At the same time, despite the overall positive 'intermediation' functions of facilitators in knowledge diffusion and interactive innovation generation, some points of concern also emerge. For example, the experience of Landcare groups, has shown that (Campbell 1997): a) in many instances "Landcare facilitation often looks anything but strategic, and its purpose is often lost"; b) although the key premise is that facilitators (and brokers) hold an impartial-independent position, "there is no such thing as a neutral, detached, value-free facilitator" (see also: Drennon and Cervero 2002; Devaux et al. 2010; Klerkx and Leeuwis 2009) and c) a facilitator should have both facilitation skills and appropriate technical background (see also the call for the training of 'social agronomists'; Leeuwis 2000, 2004).

Furthermore, the issue of sustainability is also of crucial importance. Despite Oakley et al.'s (1991) argument that the 'withdrawal' dimension implies a conscious move on the part of the facilitator/change agent along with the empowerment of local actors to undertake his/her role, as shown by Ljung and Emmelin (2000) and Cristóvão et al. (2008) the withdrawal of 'external', i.e. project supported facilitators results in the end of such work in the localities concerned.

Finally, the dilemma of 'top-down' vs. 'bottom-up' roles of an intermediary should be pointed out. This theme is extensively dealt with in participation literature dealing with the obstacles to participation and especially the 'expert syndrome' (see for example, Botes and van Rensburg 2000; Cooke and Kothari 2001; Leal 2007; Quaghebeur et al. 2004). In the specific case of process facilitators, Savage and Hilton (2001) also take notice of the need that sometimes arises for facilitators to steer processes towards consensus an action which the authors perceive as desirable. Similarly, Harvey et al. (2002), although favouring the 'enabling' approach, argue that under certain circumstances the task-oriented, practical approach is also effective while for Stetler et al. (2006) depending on the projects, specific sites, related progress, and individuals involved the flexible facilitator may take either a directive or a non-directive style.

As already noticed, intermediation/facilitation has yet to be thoroughly described, operationally defined, or well-evaluated (Stetler et al. 2006). Therefore, on the one hand, there is a need for conceptual clarity since the current abundance of terminology and the use of the same terms but with different meanings complicate the scene. Explicit attention has thus to be given to theoretical developments; without nuanced a understanding of the concepts, terminology, and controversies, study findings will be difficult to interpret and guidance to practice change may become untenable. On the other hand, Klerkx and Leeuwis (2008b) underline that, despite inherent difficulties, there is a need to become able to measure the added value of intermediaries. This way their contribution will become explicit and thus recognised in the knowledge infrastructure. Such an agenda will help in further highlighting gaps in our knowledge as well as strategies to address such gaps and, thus, in building a solid knowledge base which will be valuable for policymakers, academics and researchers, and practitioners.

Lastly, it should be pointed out that the abovementioned considerations, changing the understanding as to how research and extension activities are carried out, especially with a view to sustainability, (tentatively) influence education, especially Higher Education Institutions (HEIs), as well. Among others, a) the abandonment of mono- disciplinary and reductionist science in favour of trans-disciplinarity (i.e., the bringing together of divergent worldviews (including the transgression of disciplinary boundaries as well as the involvement of stakeholders) thus creating new boundaries for exploration and understanding); b) a change from transmissive learning to transformative learning, i.e. to constructive and participative learning especially through the examination of and interaction with complex, controversial issues, and the use of complex teaching/learning methods should be highlighted. Additionally, following the emergence of new roles as pointed out in this paper, curricula must include an exposure to the 'intermediation' concepts, skills and tools concerning "the creation of circumstances in non-deterministic ways for dialogue to emerge and to trust in emergence, such as reflexivity, mediation, brokering and networking for learning among stakeholders" (Koutsouris, 2008a) so that graduates (engaged in the field of sustainable agricultural/rural development as either academics/reasearchers, policymakers or practitioners) are appropriately equipped to undertake relevant roles in their field of endeavour. Although change in HEIs is particularly slow, owing to the many risks (both cognitive and social) and obstacles for both students and academics/researchers, tertiary institutions (especially agricultural universities) will have to face the aforementioned changes/challenges pertaining agricultural (and rural) development theory and practice (see also: Koutsouris, 2008b, 2009).

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SESSION 5

ANIMATION IN ACTION- CASE STUDIES

CAN CONTEMPORARY ART BECOME A TOOL FOR LOCAL DEVELOPMENT? WHAT IS THE ROLE OF THE RURAL ANIMATOR? THE EXPERIENCE OF ARTEPOLLINO AS AN ATTEMPT TO PROMOTE CITIZEN'S PARTICIPATION, STAKEHOLDER INVOLVEMENT AND A NEW RURAL ANIMATOR´S PROFILE"

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Abstract

ArtePollino is an initiative of regional development promoted by the Sensi Contemporanei Programme of the Ministry of Economic Development (DPS, Department for Cohesion and Development policies), the Ministry of Culture and the Regional Authority of Basilicata in cooperation of the Biennale of Venice. The basic concept of the project was to place contemporary art at the core of a process of economic development and regional innovation in the Pollino National Park (Basilicata, southern Italy) under the slogan: ArtePollino – un altro Sud. The Park had been instituted in 1993, yet it could not show significant increases in visitor numbers since then.

The image of merging three worlds, territory, tourism and contemporary art, was used in order to transform the traditional image of a remote territory, heavily dependent on public subsidies, and make it accessible for international, contemporary and culturally interested audiences. The project used a participatory approach, placing a group of local stakeholders and the communities at the centre of the process. The realisation of contemporary artworks in the landscape by renowned artists was accompanied by intense activities of cultural animation, sensibilisation and training.

The art works themselves used as a reference for their conceptual development the „cultural map[17]" which had been developed by the local work group with the support of experts from the Ministry. Due to the specifics of the territory, divided into 5 valleys that live in isolation from each other, and the specifics of the intervention related to contemporary art, the Ministry recognised the need of a new expertise in order to efficiently engage stakeholders and citizens in the process.

The key characteristics of the chosen innovative test profile of creative rural animator on the territory were:

- *background in arts and theatre*
- *experience in organisation of cultural and artistic events in a rural context*
- *sensibility for regional development issues*
- *active in various European and international networks*
- *communicative person and good motivation skills*
- *entrepreneurial and explorer spirit*
- *foreigner and steady presence in the territory for the duration of the project.*

[17] The cultural map represents the mapping of material and immaterial values such as natural and cultural heritage sites, traditions, stories, phenomena etc. in the Pollino National Park.

The following measurable results account for the benefits of the involvement of the animator and the implemented activities:

- further contracts by Ministry and Regional authority followed the first involvement
- involvement of numerous associations and individuals through public presentations, a
- theatre project and artistic activities
- various articles on German newspapers, 2 radio transmissions
- offer of 3 tourism packages for the Region in 2010.

The experimentation with an innovative profile proved to be of great relevance for the bridging between institutions and territory as well as an abstract subject such as contemporary art and local communities in this process. The useful conclusions for the role of the role of the rural animator in regional development drawn from the ArtePollino experience will be examined at the EMRA conference.

"*Can contemporary art become a tool for local development? What is the role of the rural animator?* The experience of ArtePollino as an attempt to promote citizen's participation, stakeholder involvement and a new rural animator´s profile"

Attention: this is not a scientific paper but a practitioner's personal reflection on becoming a rural animator.

1. The multilevel governance and cross-sector cooperation programme "Sensi Contemporanei"[18]

"Sensi Contemporanei" is a project run by the Italian Ministry for Economic Development in cooperation with the Ministry of Culture. Sensi Contemporanei is a governmental programme of close cooperation with the southern Italian regions which invests in the cultural sector. It considers the arts and culture a possible facilitator of development.

The core aim is to make institutional innovation happen by changing traditional ways of decision making in administrations. The thesis is that in order to impact in decision making it is necessary to build institutional capacities in strategic planning and project management.

2. The context Pollino National Park (Basilicata)

The Basilicata is a region unknown not only to most foreigners but even to many Italians themselves. The Pollino National Park is one of the biggest protected territories of Europe and one of the very few in Italy that still conserves unspoiled nature. The Park spreads over two regions, Calabria and Basilicata. The part in the Basilicata consists of 5 valleys that are not used to communicate amongst each other or to cooperate, neither at stakeholders nor at administrational level.

The dependence on financial support from the regional authorities are evident and have not enabled the development of an entrepreneurial spirit of local actors in the past.

The institution of the National Park raised a lot of expectations regarding the growth of the territory and its relevance for the tourism economy. Visitor numbers however have not shown significant increases since then.

Divided between the two regions the Park expresses the incapability of institutional cooperation.

For young people the territory which is rich in culture, history and traditions, does not offer many perspectives, requiring the majority to leave in search of work in the cities or the north of Italy.

[18] "Sensi Contemporanei" translates **"contemporary senses"**, the word **"senses"** referring both to those of **perception** as well as to that of the **meaning** of things.

3. The ArtePollino rural development project

3.1. Concept

Arte Pollino was one of the initiatives promoted by the Sensi Contemporanei Programme in cooperation with the Regional Authority of the Basilicata. It was realised with a budget of one Million Euro.

The basic concept of the project was to place contemporary art at the core of a process of economic development and regional innovation, breaking with the frequent rhetoric present in (southern) Italy of culture being connected only to the past in the shape of cultural heritage.

In practical terms, important international artists were commissioned to create works for the National Park. With this, ArtePolino intended to transform the image of a region considered as remote and traditional:

- To the „outside“ by opening the region for contemporary and culturally interested audiences and stimulating new tourism flows.
- To the „inside“ changing the self perception by introducing contemporary art to the territory.

Another fundamental aim was to empower local stakeholders to develop initiatives, projects and services in relation to ArtePollino.

This strategy of innovation of image and identity found expression in a slogan: ArtePollino – un altro Sud: Another south.

In order to substantially impact on the self perception it was necessary to engage very diverse interest groups in the process: different professions, different ages and different isolated valleys that had no practice in defining shared goals and collaborating.

3.2. Process

The project started with the scouting of interested stakeholders by an expert team from the ministry. These formed a local work group consisting of people of all age groups and different professions representing the entire territory. In the following, this group became the regional representative of the ArtePollino project and was involved as such in all decision making together with ministry and regional authority.

The local work group engaged in a process of sensibilisation for the themes at stake: contemporary art and sustainable tourism. They visited a serious of art and art in nature projects and participated in training activities.

An important aspect of the entire project is the „cultural map“ which the local group developed. It represented a mapping of material and immaterial values such as natural and cultural heritage sites, traditions, stories, phenomena etc.

The cultural map later became the reference and thematic guide for all project activities, namely:

- the creation of the artworks
- all educational and cultural parallel activities
- the development of the tourism itineraries.

At the same time the scientific committee began to select the ArtePollino artists. The Region had decided to choose 3 artists of highest international reputation for the media impact and three artists known for the site-specific or participatory approach to making work.

The complexity of the project, the necessity to engage stakeholders and local communities, the gap between local reality and the chosen theme of contemporary art etc. made emerge the necessity for specific skills in this project.

4. Experimentation of a new animators profile

Sensi Contemporanei experiments and then aims to turn successful experimentation into policies. At the core of the ArtePollino project there were two reflections for experimentation:

1. The assumption that contemporary art works could valorise the territory and initiate processes of social, cultural and economical development
2. The reflection weather an artist with his language, his skills and his modes of interaction could be of use in this development process and - in general terms – in any regional development process. Could an artist take on the vest of a rural animator and become a useful cultural mediator facilitating participation and inclusion of local communities in a complex institutional process? Can the artist support the projects objectives where traditional professionals in local development lack instruments?

This is where the animator comes into play, this is where I come into play – speaking to the reader in first person now, telling my experience and some reflections connected to it. Here and there I jump back into the third person to take a more objective view on things.

To introduce a profile like mine into the project was not without some resistance from the regional authority in the beginning. It is difficult to justify the experimentation of something new when there is a lack of awareness for the inherent challanges of a given project.

The man who „discovered“ me is Lorenzo Canova, professor at the University of Bergamo and expert for the Ministry of Economic Development. I owe him great gratitude because not only did he discovered me – he also enabled me to discover my vocation.

When we met, I was an artist, cultural worker and networker active at European level and I had developed a strong interest for the role of culture in regional development.

My first involvement by the Ministry was with the task

1. To create a visual representation of the project, its principles, aims and values and its process, which could enable everybody to understand what the purpose of the project was and how it connected to everybody´s lives. Attached to this document you can find the visualisation, containing the image of three worlds merging:
   - the territory
   - with the tourism sector
   - and the arts world

     $\rightarrow$ as a possible and inclusive economy for the region.
2. To explore the territory and propose activities of dissemination of the project, and to think how locals could be motivated to identify and engage with it.

After this „test work“ of three months I was contracted again by the Ministry. A contract with the Region for one year followed.

I took on further responsibilities and created opportunities of participation. Whilst for some, participation was motivated by a professional interest or economical benefit, for others it was driven by a personal interest, passion or sense for the common good.

The following descriptions are brief outlines of two exemplary project activities.

The creation of tourism products as a process of co-creation, engaging locals an international journalists and tour operators.

The important steps were:

a) A workshop on sustainable tourism run by my colleagues from ACTA in February 2009 with the participation of international experts.

As part of the workshop the local work group developed concepts for cultural itineraries around the three main art works and including elements of the cultural map.

The itinerary as a tourism product, which is now at the European tourism agenda, distributes the economic benefit of the offer on the territory and involves a large number of stakeholders. It promotes identification and collaboration and offers an authentic experience to the visitor.

b) These itineraries as work-in-progress tourism offer were taken to the Reisepavillon sustainable tourism fair. The workshop participants here had the opportunity to put their own reality in reference to a possible market and become ambassadors for their region.

c) An educational with travel journalists and tour operators was planned in occasion of the ArtePollino opening in the summer 2009. The preparation for their visit served to collaboratively plan a tour. During the visit, the experience of the German group was reflected and discussed in order to improve the tour and turn it into a proper offer for the market.

Three tourism packages resulted from this work and were placed on the market in the following year by a German TO, bringing new tourism groups.

The participatory theatre project had the aim to support ArtePollino in raising acceptance for and identification with the project amongst the general public.

The intention however was, that all this should not simply have a socio-cultural dimension but also result in possible products of interpretation of the art works accessible for visitors.

The material for the theatre project were the ArtePollino artworks and the cultural map, from which theatrical scenes were developed in the different villages.

Due to the size of the territory the original plan to create one big theatre piece was soon replaced by the idea to develop theatrical scenes in the different villages, referring to one of the artworks and other local cultural phenomena. The scenes were presented to an international public during the ArtePollino opening.

Some of the scenes were later developed into complete theatre plays and performed for another 2 years.

5. Results

To just give a few hints, on the larger scale there has been an increase in arrivals which was very notable in 2009 when ArtePollino opened. It further increased in 2010

- with 5,5 % increase in arrivals
- and 3,6 % in presences

despite the economic crisis and building works on the motorway, making access to the Basilicata difficult.

There have been many people involved, 50 people actively in the theatre project, around 600 children in workshops, 300 people through the public presentations, etc. Cultural activities are still going, the theatre project has been developed further after the animator had left.

The rural animator has greatly contributed to the bridging between institutions and local communities, between an abstract subject such as contemporary art and local reality. She has involved many new people to the project, visibly raised acceptance amongst people who had been very sceptical before. She has initiated collaboration and communication, an awareness for how cultural activities could be transformed into value based tourism offers.

The local work group, the association ArtePollino, actively keeps taking the work of valorisation of the art works in the park further, promoting artistic events and cultural initiatives.

The most important result could be considered not the concrete project results the artist as rural animator could bring, but the fact that at the institutional level, this experimental profile was recognised and further contracted.

6. Conclusions and personal reflections

What is being reflected here is the experience of a very particular rural animator profile, the “creative” one, coming from an artistic background, which is of course tightly connected to the project theme of contemporary art.

Yet there are aspects to be generalised also from this specific thematic project and specific personal profile, because also when the objectives of a development project are less focused on the creative or the human, they can´t neglect neither the human nor the creative. Creativity is a necessary facilitator of innovation, and as such required in today´s occurring paradigm changes, whether they regard rural development, tourism, culture or other.

Some of the key characteristics of the tested profile and their use were:

- The artistic background (in theatre) which made it possible to mediate both between artist and institution as well as between locals and the art world.
- The experience in organisation of cultural events in a rural context which brought new ideas and inspiration to the local work group.
- The animators European and international networks opened new doors and bring stimulus to the Pollino. It also meant that the project to be represented also in international meetings.
- The communication and motivation skills enabled the involvement of many and sometimes also very sceptical or isolated people in the project.
- The explorer spirit led to a deep knowledge of the territory and true interest for its people which represented an important prerequisite for acceptance by locals.
- Being a foreigner strangely, widened locals tolerance. A profile that doesn´t fit into any pigeonhole is nothing to be judged and accepted as a stranger.
- Flexibility, both physical as well as openness of mind allowed a readiness to integrate new people, new ideas, new phenomena, new resources in any given moment, whether during an official meeting, dinner or a solitary walk in the leisure time.

I found the opportunity to put my personal qualities and professional skills in the service of the project objectives and activities. Whilst this might be obvious with an activity like the theatre project, in fact also the creation of a tourism package follows the conceptual procedure of creating a theatre play with narrative, engaging actors, organising settings and enabling an experience for the participant through the right organisation of parameters. Yet taking it from the theatre angle and can motivate people more easily to participate and find pleasure in the activity.

The work of the rural animator in the ArtePollino case built on the assumption that in order for a good participatory process to happen, the participation must be reciprocal and start from the promoters participation in the context in which he plans to facilitate engagement. For me this meant moving to the

Basilicata for the projects remaining running time. Through being present, exploring the territory, meeting people and showing interest for their lives, I created a basis of trust and a bridge between institutions and local reality and its people. I became an organic link, not a purely functional one, representing the personalised and spontaneous dimension of a highly structured process, its participatory dimension in flesh and bone.

In my eyes there is one major reason, why an artist or a culture worker has some of the necessary prerequisites that are useful for a rural animator, too and which make them good candidates for the EMRA Master: people who work in culture, and especially if they work in the independent sector, mostly work passion-driven. They rarely consider their work and private life separate spheres. When getting to know the world of sustainable tourism and development I found many similarities in this.

The conviction that drives my work is that there is a need for a cultural dimension in all domains of society. Involving prepared artists in regional development will guarantee an attention for values and as such for people. Bringing attention to people is the first step of strengthening existing and building new capacities. This is the basis for sustainable development.

To end, I would like to refer to the wider context. Is there a need for the profile of rural animator?

The development of the EMRA Master complements various papers and researches that have been published by the European commission in the last years. I relate to the areas I operate in, which are culture and tourism.

- The GREEN PAPER Unlocking the potential of cultural and creative industries states the potential especially for rural areas, while commonly the creative industries are much associated with the urban space. Developing the creative industries where they are not yet very present, requires support, assistance and capacity building. For authorities as much as for stakeholders.
- The Study on the contribution of culture to local and regional development – Evidence from the Structural funds proves that in order for culture to sustainably contribute to the objectives of structural funds, it needs mediators and animators.
- The European Commissions aim for Europe to maintain its position of being the worlds most important tourism destination requires local animators to support regions in making emerge their contribution to the European experience.

These to name just a few.

I have founded my own business called smARTourism, active in between tourism and culture. smARTourism is a child of ACTA, my Italian colleagues who made me discover my vocation.

My main activity at the moments is in Mecklenburg on the German Baltic coast. There I develop the “creative season” as a cooperation between local authorities, tourism organisations and businesses, artists and cultural workers. Mecklenburg is very rural and I enjoy everyday of my work as rural animator.

7. Web links

Multi-level governance and cross sector programme: www.sensicontemporanei.it

ArtePollino development project: www.artepollinobasilicata.it

Association ArtePollino: www.artepollino.it

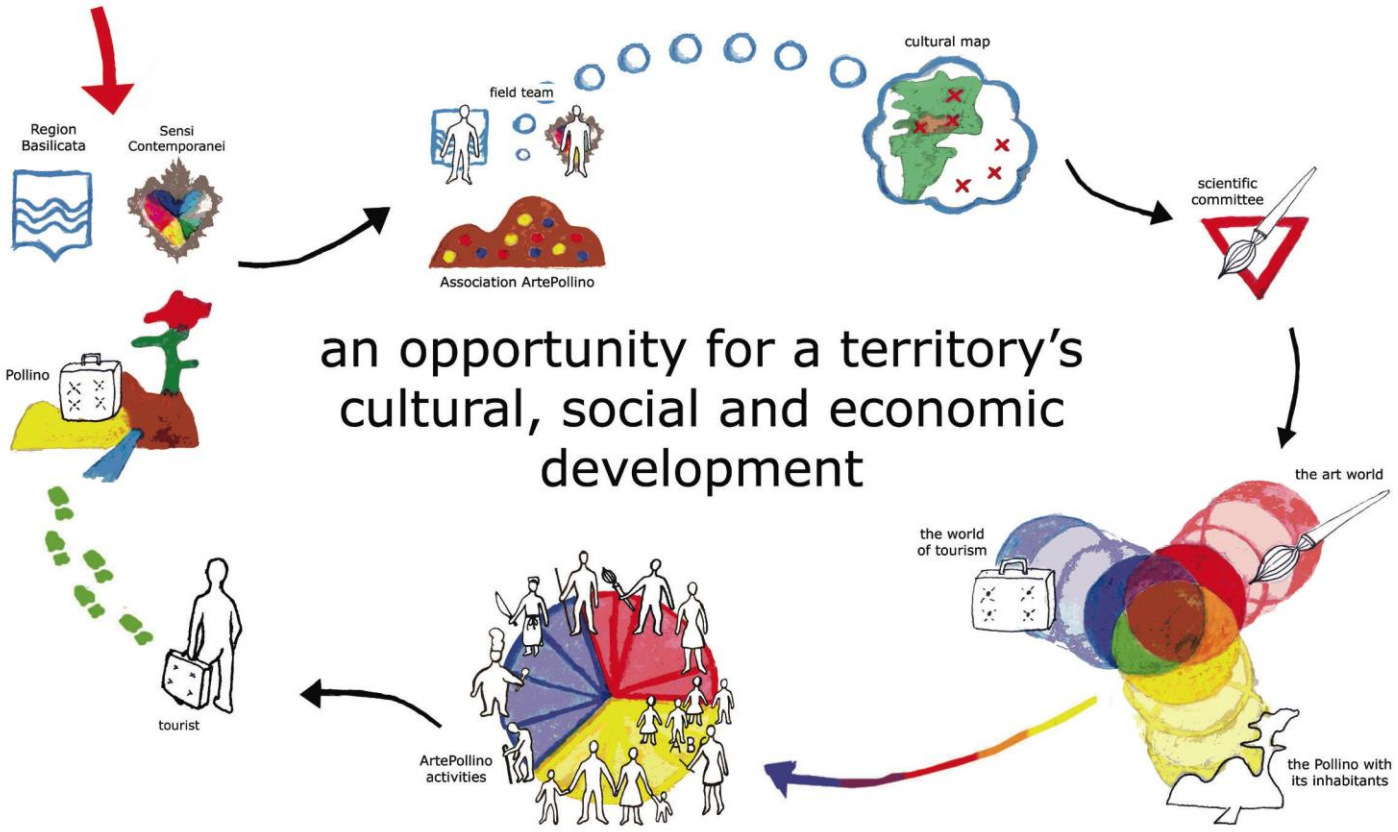
Actanet (Association Culture, Tourism and Environment): www.actanet.it

smARTourism – Creativity in Tourism consultancy: www.smartourism.net

Creative Season- regional development project: www.kreativsaison.de

ARTE unaltrosud POLLINO

REGIONE BASILICATA · UNIONE EUROPEA · MiBAC PARC Direzione generale per la qualità e la tutela del paesaggio l'architettura e l'arte contemporanee MINISTERO PER I BENI E LE ATTIVITÀ CULTURALI · Ministero dello Sviluppo Economico Dipartimento per le Politiche di Sviluppo e Coesione



THE PROJECT AND ITS PROMOTERS

ArtePollino

ArtePollino is an opportunity for a territory's cultural, social and economic development. The project has been conceived on the belief that also in the Basilicata processes of development can tackle the region's difficulties in the field of economy and work opportunities. It is realised by the local regional authority as part of the programme Sensi Contemporanei. Contemporary art works realised by some of today`s most significant figures of the art world create itineraries on the discovery of the Pollino National Park. The Basilicata, still barely touched by tourism, offers Italy's purest experience of preserved nature. ArtePollino intends to merge three worlds - that of the arts, that of tourism and that of the Pollino itself - with the ambition to develop new touristic initiatives connected to both culture and environment. The Pollino Park is the region's natural point of strength from which to start improving the quality of life of its inhabitants in respect of its future generations.

The Region Basilicata

The local authority of the Region Basilicata has already realised projects in collaboration with Sensi Contemporanei in which the art is being used as a tool to stimulate social and economic growth. ArtePollino is the follow-up of the previous successful experiences which were aimed at the creation of touristic attractions based on the region's cultural, historical and natural heritage.

Sensi Contemporanei

Experimenting innovative models of social and economic development using the various artistic expressions - this is the intention of Sensi Contemporanei (contemporary senses), programme for the diffusion of contemporary art and the valorisation of architectonic and urban contexts in the south of Italy. The project is an initiative of the Ministry of Economic Development, the Ministry of Culture and Heritage and the Venice Biennale in collaboration with the seven regions in the south of Italy and has been activated in 2004.

The Pollino National Park

The Pollino, Italy's biggest National Park, covers a total surface of 192.265 hectares. 56 villages are located within the Park, 24 of which belong to the Region of the Basilicata whilst the others are Calabrian. Between mountaintops and wide horizons that reflect in the Tyrrhenian and the Ionian Sea, nature and men have lived next to each other for thousands of years. The Park which has been instituted in 1993 intends to preserve this ancient relationship under the emblem of the Pollino's typical pine tree, the *pino loricato*.

THE ACTIVITIES

The cultural map

The activity of ArtePollino has begun with the creation of the cultural map realised with the help of the local inhabitants. It reconstructs places and themes of significance for the local collective memory.

"The three worlds"

ArtePollino merges three worlds: that of the Pollino itself - with its inhabitants, its natural, cultural and gastronomical values -, the art world and the world of tourism. In the interface of these the project's different activities begin to take place.
Yellow: communication, education and dissemination in connection to ArtePollino for the local inhabitants and the Park visitors.
Red: realisations of the art works and support of the artists.
Blue: construction of the touristic product

"The Pollino world"

The Pollino with its inhabitants is the real main character of the project. From the Pollino the project reaches out nationally and internationally, involving many other realities in order to then return to its roots and promote local development in favour of its own citizens.

The art world

ArtePollino has invited internationally acclaimed artists to realise installations in different natural sites of the Park to thus ensure curiosity of a national and international audience. The places and themes of the cultural map are the artists reference point in the process of inspiration and creation of the work. This enables the local inhabitants to identify with an art world that might otherwise be difficult to understand.

The world of tourism and the touristic product

Northern Europe and in particular the UK, Germany and Holland are ArtePollino's main touristic target group. For this purpose touristic itineraries are being defined that will be promoted on the international tourist market.

THE PEOPLE

The field team

The field team consists of experts of the Ministry of Economic Development, the Ministry of Culture and representatives of the local regional authority. They accompany the process and support the local culture workers in organising the activities that have been planned as part of the process.

The inhabitants of the Pollino

The Pollino's inhabitants play a very important role in the project because only through their active support and participation ArtePollino can become a real opportunity of development for the territory.

The Association ArtePollino

The encounter of the field team with the local context of the Pollino gave birth to the constitution of a group of people interested in the project. In march 2008 this group took on the legal form of the Association ArtePollino. It consists of members of different age groups with various professional backgrounds, resident in the villages of the Pollino Park. They have the right and necessary know-how in the local field of culture, environment and tourism. The association represents the Pollino in the process of the entire project and is the ambassador between the local context and

The scientific committee

The committee is composed of local and institutional representatives of the project as well as key figures of the contemporary art world. Its task is to chose the international artists involved in the project.

National free call: 800.29.20.20

www.artepollinobasilicata.it
www.artepollino.it
www.sensicontemporanei.it

sensi CONTEMPORANEI

SOCIAL ENTERPRISES FOR SUSTAINABLE RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN HUNGARY

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Abstract

The examination of new and emerging actors in social economy is recently a key research field almost in each related field of science. Although it is still impossible to determine the exact boundaries of functions and activities due to country-specific features, in my paper I introduce the main features and role in rural development in Hungary. The key aim is to present this new alternative form in social economy namely the social enterprises and to explore their hidden potentials for rural development with my actual empirical results. I analyse these enterprises that serve social mission being organized on a community basis in the context of rural area, emphasizing their enhancing role in local identity and community cohesion, proving the importance of their positive contribution to life quality and regional development. Further I emphasize the role and competences of the actors leading the social enterprise.

THE PLANNING SKILLS AND COMPETENCES OF SOCIAL WORK IN THE EDUCATION OF RURAL ANIMATORS

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Abstract

The aim of the study is to look for and to find links between social planning and rural animation. First of all the study introduces the Hungarian social planning practices through four rural micro-region examples. These examples are really significant regarding the competences and skills of social planning because they basically determine the existence of social services in these Hungarian regions. The approach of the study is specifically interdisciplinary in terms of the rural development. The premier results of the research in the social planning theme are special skills and competences, for example: survey of social basic needs, communcation with decision-makers, partnerships, advocacy and others. These social professions work like 'social animators' in these disadvantaged micro-regions. The goal of the study is not other than to contribute to developing the qualifications of rural animators with these social skills and competences. The second part of the study introduces some very important skills and competences collected to rural animator education with an innovative training and common work connection.

1. The regional dimensions of the research theme and social work in the quality service development

There is no other such important and challenging area among the tasks of social work as indirect social planning that exceeds direct support. Studies analysing both the educational challenges of social work and its practice regard the planning and organizing competences vitally important from different approaches such as *competence* (Budai 2006, 2011), *managerism and strategic planning* (Kozma 2010), *expedient planning and organization* (Global Basic Principles 2006), *vision-driven strategy* (Sziklai 2006), *social/communal planning* (Neumark 2005), or *micro-regional development* (Rechnitzer 1998 and 2008), as well as *informed executors and consumers* (G. Rogers - D.S. Finley - J.R. Galloway 2001).

Building up the social supplier-system of a region is not only – and basically not – the task of the local decision-makers, rather of the social work or planning that starts and monitors the previous decision-preparatory process. The subjects of my doctoral dissertation (Peisser-Puli 2011a) were the decision-preparators and decision-makers of disadvantaged micro-regions of the western Transdanubian region (micro-regions of Zalaegerszeg, Őriszentpéter, Zalaszentgrót and Pacsa) as the actors of social planning, with whom I first met in local documents, then in 32 interviews. Each interview reinforced the fact that in developing and functioning the basic social services those experts are *'the key-players'* who *know* the regulation of these services and are *competent* to search and evaluate the social needs. They can *see* the harmony of demands and requirements *as a system* and they *possess certain skills* to cooperate with business federation and decision-makers and they *are able to match* it with the local interests, possibilities and forces. They are engines without whom people living in the examined disadvantaged micro-regions had very little chance to access to basic social services. Behind all this there is the *personal efficiency* that is really occasional in Hungary nowadays, but it determines a regional service system (Peisser-Puli 2011b).

This study introduces those part-results of the research which prove the complexity and multi-factor feature of social planning activity with the intention to involve the reader in the social skills and competences of forming rural-development training.

2. The results of research

Table No 1: Skills linked to competences in social planning

Micro-region	Competence – WHAT?	Skill – HOW?
Pacsa	Business federation	Building contacts, communication
	Planning a supply-system in accordance with the local needs	Applying methods of assessing needs
	Harmonizing legislator's expectations with local conditions (geography, structure of the area, needs, demands, resources)	Conflict management
	Planning providing alternatives, creating optional solutions	Searching for compromises
	Proactive activity	Proposals, feedbacks, initiatives
	Planning focusing on economical viewpoints	Interpreting effectiveness and efficiency, their realization in practice
Őriszentpéter	Planning prepared for complex states of absence	Integrated, interprofessional, multidisciplinary way of thinking based on system-approach
	Cooperation with neighbouring geographic, economic and social areas	Team-work, group-work, project-work
	Utilizing the local changes caused by surrounding areas, partnership	Deliberate and mutual integration of manifold synergy
Zalaegerszeg	Creativity and courage in planning in the frame of legal behaviour	Taking responsibility for local interests, realizing limits of competences
	Change-oriented measurements, development	Continuous reflection of the special local learning process based on practical experience, self-criticism, self-improvement
Zalaszentgrót	Reconciliation of locally differing opinions and interests with consensus	Reaching local consensus, facilitating win-win games
	Maintenance and protection, maintaining well-functioning services or their total conversion	Considering, assessing advantages and disadvantages, analysis

Source: own systematisation

Table No.1 presents those social planning competences and skills which are inevitable to their functioning that are the most typical for the examined micro-regions without the aim of comparison. It is clear from the possible answers of What? and How? questions that the ability for planning is meant partly by formulating the task, in other words the circle of competences. At the same time, abilities are accomplished by skills. The contemporary national and international special literature deals mainly with composing competences and allows the trainers to link the appropriate skill-developing to the given competences. 'Although there is no consensus between the approaches of definitions about what

common features the professions have, the change that has replaced the emphasis from the features of professions to the professional performance resulted in some kind of consensus. (Jones and Joss 1995, 2011:11) The authors listed the areas of agreement according to the following (Jones and Joss 2011:15-17):

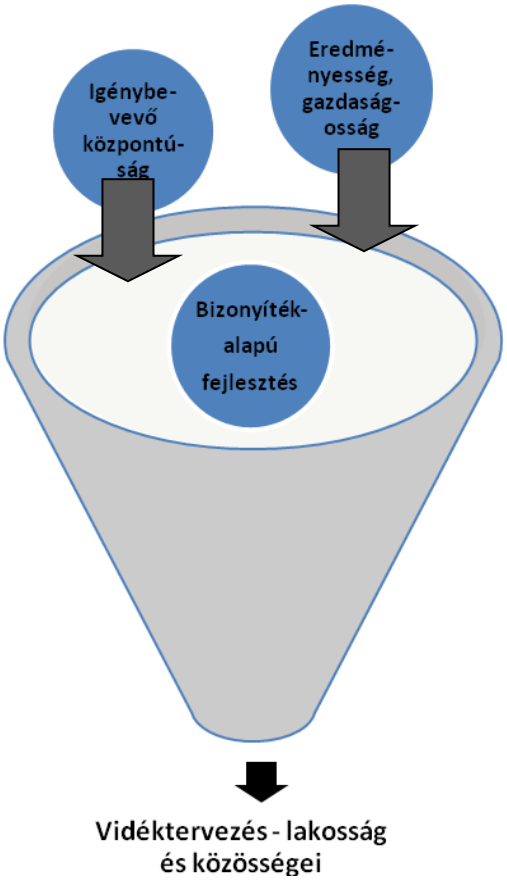
1. The role of uncertainty: the expert's ability to manage uncertain situations. The basis of handling unique situations is judgement, in other words discretionality (by Schön 1983 and Pearson 1984), that is to say which form of action the expert chooses and why.
2. The role of knowledge: such systematic basic theoretical collection that either exists or is missing, or its depth is questionable for the certain expert. However, it determines by all means the expert's competence and his ability to fulfil his task.
3. Contact with the client: the way the expert interacts with them and those preconceptions which influence the contact. So the competence is based on contact, an expert is able to work effectively if he can do it in cooperation, partnership, being aware of his task-limits, with shared responsibility and in reciprocity.
4. The expert's self-image, his ways of improvement and learning from experience make a threefold unit in the definition of the competent expert. The self-image is particularly important (by Jones and Levi 1983), learning with experience and learning from experience, the former means active learning, the latter means learning reflecting activity.

It can be seen that the results of the research and the international special literature agree that competences in general and in case of a certain profession – social planning – raise similar questions and give similar answers as well e.g. on the area of uncertainty and creativity, change-orientation and self-development based on experience, cooperation and team-work, etc. (see table No 1).

Using all of these Hungarian special literature emphasizes the user-centred approach, effective and efficient planning, evidence-based development and quality-assurance in a way that they imagine the planning competences in the frame of common work, more exactly of common social work. We illustrate with some examples how the listed competence- elements can serve social planning and how they affect the development of rural animators' competences.

Table No. 2: Competence-based approach in social planning and rural animation (by Budai-Kozma 2011)

The content of approach	Social planning – people in need and their communities	
User-centred view	Supporting autonomy Participation in service planning, implementation and evaluation Improve the ability to promote interests (empowerment) Successfulness, positive consequences in the quality of life	
Effectiveness **(successfulness)**	Enforcing human and citizen's rights: dignity, development, participation, safety, access to services, etc.	
Efficiency **(economical-ness)**	Sparing, increasing efficiency, the most cost-effective solutions: team-work, common work, empowerment, social economy	
Evidence-based development – 'artist' instead of 'technician'	Best knowledge/practice, the right thing at the right time for the right person, using previous experience, Qualitative methods: participating observation, reflection on the process, own professional personality as a filter	



Source: own systematisation

The competences of social planning mentioned above show the efficient and economical fulfilment of task that is based on people in need and their communities, emphasizing activity and empowering, building on the previously gained experience. The funnel-illustration uses the same task-fulfilment from the rural animation's point of view with a vital speciality, emphasizing cooperation with the rural inhabitants.

The content of the sample-plan of rural-development social worker training is extremely similar to this competence-approach that was started on a special training organized by Szent István University, Faculty of Applied Humanities and Pedagogy in a Campus in Jászberény (Hungary) int he spring of 2011. The training provides the market with such experts who '(…) are competent on the area of rural and human regional development, the world of work and humanities as well as individual way of living.' (www.szie.hu/videkfejlesztési). The training competences of the syllabus can be learnt in five moduls, 30 subjects: sociology, rural development, skills-development, practical and more practical world moduls. The significant role of experience-based learning and practice can be seen in this syllabus. Rural animators-to-be must be competent in:

- social work to be possibly done in rural regions
- communication and contact-building techniques, conflict management, meditation, local media, general public,
- building partnership with the civil society
- the social policy of the EU in the institutional system of local public services
- resource-developing techniques, raising donations
- building and developing communities, organizing 'telecom-houses',
- creative techniques, animations
- sustainable/supportable approach, ecology, organic farming
- change management
- processing the experience of the 50-hour-long project practice.

We must notice that social planning, rural-developing social work and common work competences appear in a close relation, in the unity of task content and skills (see table No.1 and 2 and the described training). As social planning and rural-developing social work concentrate on people in need and endangered social groups and their communities, social work focuses mainly on communities described in the region, rural animators must also find and precisely define their own target groups – actually that is where decision making takes place, in my opinion. WHAT? and HOW? are based on WITH WHOM? so competences must 'only' adjust to this.

As long as the Eastern-Central-European model is missing from rural research and rural-development approaches, as ' (…) because of the repeating macro-crisis phenomena generated by economic and social transformation there is not enough attention and resource focusing on rural regions where the problems are worsened by the strongly centralized structure of state, the weak promotion of interests of rural communities and civil organizations, the poor ability to adapt, the depressive phenomena and the lack of future prospects…. (…)' (Csatári 2012, www.mnvh.hu), it is really complicated to define the target group of rural development.

Table No. 3: The key competences and skills of social planners of rural animation - conclusions

Commitment and scale of values	Being motivated, taking responsibility for the life and development of communities and their members based on human rights and ethical norms of the profession, in this way encouraging social publicity and taking responsibility
Communication	Opened and genuine communication, moderating processes, handling conflicts through conciliating interests
Surveying needs	Critical and holistic examination of processes and interactions between individuals and communities, multidimensional analysis and assessment of data and problems
Planning	Constructing alternative programs and methods with proactive approach that serve the communities' quality of life taking the autonomy of community and social relations into consideration, by analysing resources, risks and tools and doing it in a cost-effective way.
Enabling	Preparation and encouragement for individual actions, stating own contribution, promoting interests, understanding development strategies, assessing and maintaining achieved results
Cooperation	Professional, inter-professional and inter-organizational cooperation with representatives of the business sector as well as civilians, volunteers, networking, frequent self-reflection, self-assessment
Common work-improving knowledge	Integrating the knowledge of new and other disciplines with the help of lifelong learning, information resources and digital tools

Source: based on (Budai-Kozma 2011) own selection

This essay cannot describe the detailed tasks ordered to rural animators, but it can provide a summarized proposal for key-competences (see Table No.3) which might determine a mutually compiled international competence-list from Hungarian point of view.

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RURAL ANIMATION – AN ANTHROPOLOGICAL APPROACH

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Abstract

The study analyzes from an anthropological perspective the realities of a rural micro-region in Central Romania in order to set up the directions of development as well as to support the role played by the anthropology in rural development, along with the other scientific fields.

Why does it help to know how people live, what life style they have, and what preoccupations? Because in the implementation of the development programmes, we need the answers to the question: what changes are the communities capable of? Wherever the development agent acts convinced of his/her good intentions and of the best ideological recipe for the welfare of the community, the anthropologist reveals another attitude towards change. The methods used consist of participative observation, analysis, photographic documentation and in-depth interviews. The micro-region comprises 75 villages. Throughout the study, there were identified some pitfalls in which the development actors fall, such as:

1. *Economic reductionism and neglect of its social impact.*
2. *Social (negative) impact could be reduced by "participating" to development and change programmes.*
3. *The approach in case of the democratic solution is "bottom-up"*
4. *The state policies imply the homogeneity of interests and common meanings of the development, among the participants.*

In conclusion, the study demonstrates the necessity of an anthropological approach of the rural animation too, the anthropology finding herself near by the rural animation, to facilitate "the translation" between community and development actors, the most frequently from the direction of the speech full of symbols of the identities to the "scientific" speech, often based on economic concepts, thus emphasizing the interdisciplinary character of the rural development process and animation.

I have conducted the anthropological study of the micro region of Tara Secaselor, meant to contribute to the elaboration of its development strategy. In the same time, as a member of the team in charge with the implementation of the LAG constitution project from the Leader Axis funds, I had the chance to attend the meetings of the LAG with the 22 communities caught in the micro region, the LAG members' meetings and also its meetings with other LAG's in Europe. I paid attention to the way in which the "Leader institution" is constructed and to who are the development actors. I noticed a series of "traps" in which the developers "fall". "Where the development agent acts convinced by his good intentions and the best ideological recipe for the betterment of the community, the anthropologist reveals another attitude towards change". It is well known its "susceptibility" towards the "usefulness" of change, towards using power in order to achieve change, towards "improvement""[19]. The micro region counts 21 villages and one town. It comprises small villages (with fewer than 500 inhabitants), medium villages (between 500 and 1,500 inhabitants) and large villages; it is demarcated by urban centers connected by arterial roads. The methods used were: participative observation, analysis, photographic documentation and in-depth interview.

[19] http://www.scritube.com/istorie/ANTROPOLOGUL-AGENT-DE-DEZVOLTA223710228.php

Anthropology still has, generally, in Romania a character of novelty, of something abstract and is, in this case, outstripped by any expression or concept containing terms that suggest dynamism, such as: development agent, social entrepreneur, community facilitator, hereinafter referred to as ''developers''. The role of anthropology in implementing the Leader rural development program is to provide information for the best harmonization of the needs and resources of the beneficiary communities with the Leader's objectives and principles, in order to conduct to a most natural and sustainable progress.

There are certain aspects that, if not taken into account, improvements in the quality of life of some population categories may be to the detriment of other ones. The elements of the cultural identity of the Tara Secaselor micro region - which offer its idiographic character and are meant to support the elaboration of a responsible development strategy and the rural animation activities - are pointed out in the conclusions of the anthropological study[20], as follows:

1. An increase in the appreciation of the labor performed by women, especially in the villages where the traditional family is dominant. The achievement of financial independence could balance the power and authority reports within the family and thus make possible the involvement of women in the development of certain projects, objective aimed by the Leader program.
2. The return of the youth established in cities for living with their parents cannot be taken into account, given the mentality gap between generations. I noticed that most of the times the cohabitation based on cooperation is only viable on short – time basis. Along with the infrastructural rehabilitation of the roads from center towards outskirts, with the introduction of current water, a leisure time ruralism will develop and the population's displacement will be balanced.
3. Because of a deficient social, cultural and health infrastructure and a poorly represented non – governmental sector (NGOs), labor places have to be mainly created in the field of services, both for inhabitants and tourists. It can be a warranty for the improvement of the inhabitants' life quality, for maintaining young people in villages, for supplementing the family in the case of the elderly left alone, for occupying a labor place matching their qualification.
4. The development of the rental fund has to be taken into consideration on the long term, based on the separation tendency of youth from parents.
5. The establishment of some residential centers for the elderly will not be a facilely assimilated idea in the first place, due to the mentality of this category of individuals, but we have to consider the ageing process of villages, especially the ones from the center of the micro region. In this particular case, we can suggest projects which would not imply dislodging, but home services in a first stage. Thus can be avoided the investment of certain funds and use this time for the education of the population about the advantages provided by the elderly centers.
6. Support for the preservation of endangered tangible and intangible cultural heritage.
7. The education and counseling of the population regarding changes in the architecture of the houses, of the facades, on contracting a loan, and on all the other challenges implying an adapting "effort".
8. The valorization of the household and craft abilities and skills of the inhabitants through rural tourism, green tourism, agro tourism programs, through the creation of trade markets and distribution networks.
9. The development of a qualitative tourism will allow the dissolution of the border between the traditional and modern villages. The tourism acts on two levels, as an economic development factor

[20] Ileana Sădean, Anthropological Study of Ţara Secaşelor microregion, to support the elaboration of the development strategy for Ţara Secaşelor – "Leader" module, 2010 – unpublished

and as a cultural modernization factor (cultural animator), especially for the isolated and aged villages.

The fact that these realities were ignored and do not find themselves in the development plan led us to the following question: *are the problems and the needs identified by the „developers" real?* In addition, I noticed, as I mentioned in the beginning, in the implementation of the LAG's establishment project, a series of „traps" of the development actors, which I noticed during a documentation:

1. "Economic reductionism and neglect of its social impact. Economic welfare is seen as a panacea, a universal remedy for all human and social evils, fact upon which not all development discourses agree."[21] When trying to satisfy their economic, social or cultural needs, the rural communities still depend upon a decision-making group holding resources. Hence, through rural animation, comprising the whole specter of strategies and mobilization methods of the human resources available at a community's level, the animator should not just identify potential beneficiaries of funding that correspond to the quantitative criteria of the development plans (no. of projects, project categories etc.). This would mean that all efforts focus solely on meeting the indicators related to the absorption of the Leader funds and on the strict compliance with the development strategy previously drawn out. Projects should not be done for the sake of attracting funds, but for meeting the real needs of the citizens of the micro region.

2. "The negative social impact could be diminished through "participating""[22] in the development and change programs. In this case we must consider that participation is based on homogenous communities, which comes in contradiction with the fact that people have different opinions, values and needs. "In the Romanian communist experience the private interests of the individuals were completely neglected, which led to a collapse of any conscience of participation. The lack of participation in Romania can also have this reason, as a reflex of the mental habitudes created by the political regime until 1989."[23] We can ask ourselves if increased participation in local planning will lead to a consensus or to conflicts between those with different opinions, the diversity of opinions being recognized. From this perspective, it is not certain that increased participation or the "collaborative planning" is likely to offer better policies or planning decisions.

3. "The approach in the case of the democratic solution is „bottom-up". The anthropologist can ask himself whether this solution is not one of the reasons for the legitimation of the local, regional and national power structures."[24] Because, as Mosse observed: „the approaches of participation have proven compatible with the top-bottom planning systems". On the other hand, the hyper-reglementation of the Leader rural development program (inflexible and bureaucratic measures, rigid wording, restrictions on types of projects etc.) could also translate in a „top-bottom" approach and force the LAGs to focus too much on the „form" of its implementation rather than on the „substance" of the rural development problem, thus losing the goal from sight.

4. "The state policies require homogeneity of common interests and meanings for the beneficiaries of the development. The pro-development attitude is also supported by the orientation of the state policy, whose "strategic line" precedes development solutions at local level. The people are left with almost no possibility to reject development altogether."[25].

In order to diminish the risk that rural development in Romania to amount to only "forcing" an external model through regulatory measures it is necessary that the sense of the message to be from the

[21] http://www.scritube.com/istorie/ANTROPOLOGUL-AGENT-DE-DEZVOLTA223710228.php
[22] http://www.scritube.com/istorie/ANTROPOLOGUL-AGENT-DE-DEZVOLTA223710228.php
[23] Ibidem
[24] Idem
[25] Idem

communities towards policy makers, towards “developers”. An important role is played by lucid, ethical and competent rural animation, features that find themselves in the anthropological approach.

The need to know the rural profile of the micro region of development and the up to present “form without substance” of the Leader rural development program in Romania, bring us to pointing out the following conclusions and action hypothesis:

- Rural animation approached also from an anthropological perspective, which to focus on the knowledge of the communities, in order to send their message to the LAG’s leadership and to keep them away from the “traps” mentioned above. Given a moral and depoliticized management, the most important and valuable form of capital that the Leader program brings to rural development is the human capital. There are currently around 80 LAGs in Romania, each of them having more than 5 employees.
- The making and development of some methods and tools that allow the broad involvement of the territorial actors, especially of the citizens in the territorial diagnosis in order to draw up more pertinent and efficient development projects, that respond to the need for a sustainable rural development. The anthropological approach of rural animation can prove most efficient for this objective.

The rural coordinator, in the implementing phase of the development strategy, is the interface between people and the administration of the LAG. In these conditions in rural animation, the anthropological approach makes that the sense of the message regarding the rural development “problem” to be from the people towards the decisional factors rather that the other way around. From the cultural typology of the villages results a differentiation of the lifestyles, not only in terms of contact with the city or cultural consumption but also in the life choices that people adopt. We are dealing with a mosaic of realities and mentalities therefore it is easy to understand that there is no development recipe that everybody would agree upon. Why does it help us to know how people live, what lifestyle they have, what concerns? Because in the rural development process we will need the answers to the question: what kind of change are rural communities capable of?

All these anthropological aspects related to the communities will be “developed” render obvious the necessity for the rural animator to be a good “translator” between the two parties: citizens and the LAG’s management.

The necessity for an anthropological perspective is revealed also by Mucchielli’s estimation that the ''mobilizing role of the rural animators necessarily involves:

- To use the motivations, finding the actions most suited with the socio-cultural stage of the respective rural area, with the inhabitants’ age, with their collective conscience, highlighting the energies capable of leading the action and solving the problems;
- To take notice of the resources poorly exploited and to know how to make the most of them, which implies perceiving the occasional or permanent possibilities, using population's latent or explicit competences, using people's free time for the community service, perceiving certain actions that would possibly lead to future ones, using personal relationships for the general interest”[26].

Mucchielli offers to the rural animator a degree of autonomy and places him near the people and the resources of the territory, getting close to the anthropological approach that has the community as main “beneficiaries''. These two visions also meet Girardot’s concept of ''territorial intelligence'', which denotes ''the ensemble of multidisciplinary knowledge which, on one hand, contributes to better

[26] Bădescu, Ilie: Dicţionar de sociologie rurală, Mica Valahie, Bucureşti, 2011, p. 26.

understanding the structures and dynamics of the territories, and, on the other hand, tries to be an instrument in the service of the actors of a durable territorial development''.

Rural animation is at its beginning in Romania and there is no “standardisation” of the animator’s profile and of the role of rural animation. The implementation of rural development strategies through the Leader program has in actual fact started a few months ago, at the beginning of 2012, while the selection phase of the team's members, their roles and responsibilities is nearing completion.

I have tried to outline in the first part mostly the main features of the anthropological approach on rural development, so then the compatibility of Mucchieli’s considerations on rural animation and anthropological perspective to be understood, without claiming it is sufficient, but necessary. Given the fact that it deals with human nature, the interdisciplinary character of rural development and animation is undeniable.

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WHAT ARE THE KEY FACTORS OF SUCCESS IN TINY VILLAGES OF HUNGARY?

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Abstract

The tiny settlements, especially the villages with less than 500 inhabitants, the so called "tiny villages", were coming in the last decades into the focus of social researchers, due to the fact the total number of these settlements are continuously growing year by year. In the Hungarian rural network, more than 1000 dwelling places have a population of less than 500 citizens, in reality 1/3 of the entire number of Hungarian settlements. The society of tiny villages with restricted number of citizens is extremely vulnerable. In such communities, the disadvantageous demographical and social processes such as ageing, unemployment, migration, and other unfavourable social phenomena which accompany the development of rural societies and ethnic segregations become dominant easily.

From the other side there are some different small sized settlements that develop and increase, the inhabitants have a good standard of living. There is no unemployment and people having no problem for living. The population is not decreasing and can afford a good lifestyle.

But what are the reasons in the background, why it can be so in some villages while it is not working in some others? Who and what kind of processes are influencing these? Which settlements can be successful and which are unable to develop, although they have the same conditions too?

In my article I study the position of tiny villages; furthermore I examine the success conditions and factors, the innovation idea in the rural development. I create a model, which will present and categorize the possible success factors, which are determining a tiny settlement. By using this model I try to introduce some specific examples for successful tiny villages in the region of Western Transdanubia in Hungary.

Introduction

The small settlements, especially the villages with less than 500 inhabitants, the so called "tiny villages", were coming in the last decades into the focus of the society researches, due to the fact the total number of these settlements are continuously growing year by year. In the Hungarian rural network, more than 1000 dwelling places have a population of less than 500 citizens, in reality 1/3 of the entire number of Hungarian settlements. The society of miniature villages with restricted number of citizens is extremely vulnerable. In such community, the disadvantageous demographical and social processes such as ageing, unemployment, migration, and other unfavorable social phenomena which accompany the development of rural societies and ethnic segregations become dominant easily.

From the other side there are some different small sized settlements who develop and increase, the inhabitants have a good standard of living. There is no unemployment and people having no problem for living. The population is not decreasing and can afford a good lifestyle.

But what are the reasons in the background, why it can be so in some villages while it is not working in some others? Who and what kind of processes are influencing these? Which settlements can be successful and which are unable to develop, although they have the same conditions too?

In my article I study the position of tiny villages; furthermore I examine the success conditions and factors, the innovation idea in the rural development. I create a model, which will present and categorize the possible success factors, which are determining a tiny settlement.

Position of tiny villages in Hungary

The population of the Hungarian tiny villages shows a wide dispersion characteristic. The smallest settlement is Tornakápolna with its 12 inhabitants, while the biggest one is Fót with 16.000 residents, based on the last census, which was done in 2001. Overall we can say, that proportionally the small and tiny villages dominating the settlement structure in Hungary. The small villages (inhabitants less than 1.000) gave 59,5 % of the total number of villages in 2004, which means 1.719 settlements. The proportion of the villages with less than 500 inhabitants makes 38,5 % out of the above mentioned figure. (Beluszky P.-Sikos T. 2007)

Based on the data from 2004 only 22% of the total inhabitants of villages lives in the tiny settlements, but despite this fact their situation have a special focus in the literature. The reasons of this can be the multiple discrimination, which affect directly more than 900 settlements out of the 1.700: rapidly decreasing population, demographic erosion, disadvantaged local communities, poor labor market situation and the lack of basic institutions network. The disadvantage of the other 700 villages is compensated by the commuting possibilities, by the proximity to employment centers and by their recreational role. (Beluszky P.-Sikos T. 2007)

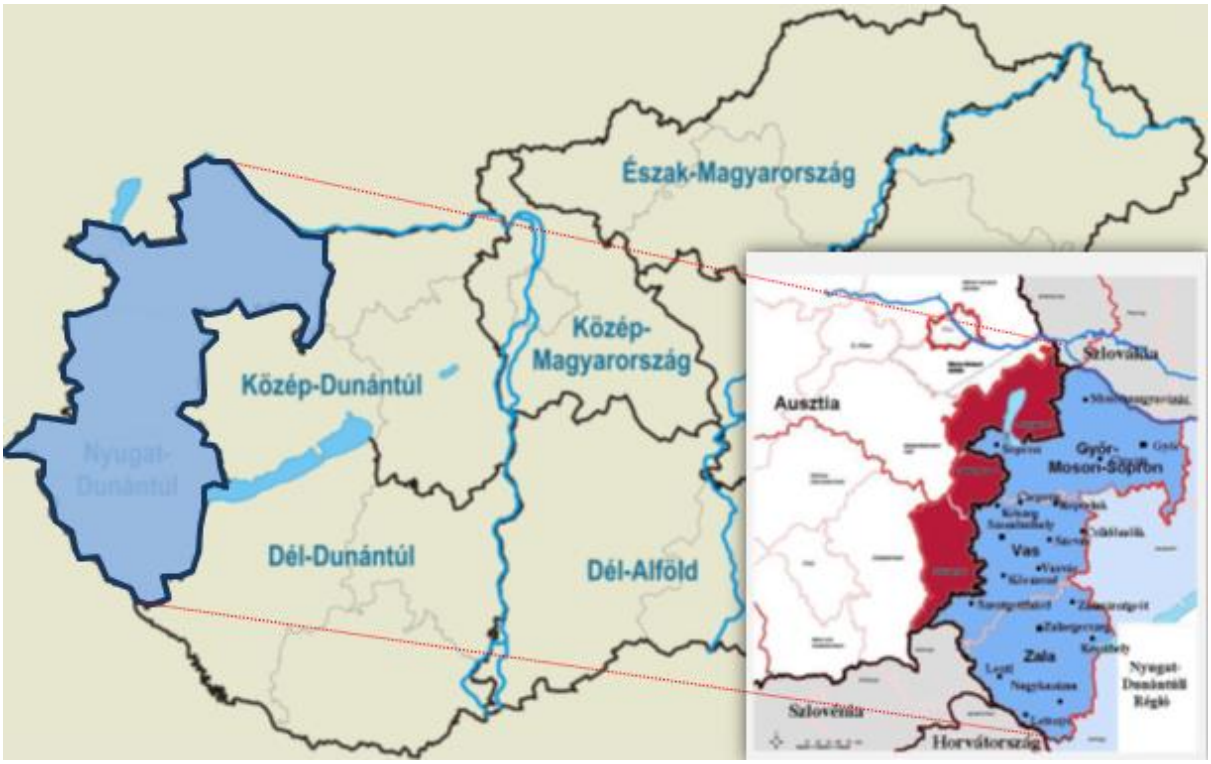
Due to the long period of continuous migration, and due to the appearance and perpetuation of the natural decrease, the number of tiny villages grow day by day.

The rapid population decrease of tiny villages significantly influences the demographic processes of settlements and the composition of the population. The continuous migration from the small settlements creates a much older age structure than the average, resulting worst natural demographic indicators than the usual, the working age population is less, the old-age dependency is high and overall the aging index is extremely critical. (Kovács T. 2004)

The small and tiny villages are not equally distributed in the country: 70% located in the traditionally and typically small settlement structured counties and only 30% are spreading in the other 13 counties. Out of these 13, only 4 counties has a higher number of tiny villages (in Győr-Moson-Sopron 47, in Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg 34, in Tolna and in Nógrád 28-28), in the other counties its number is between 2 and 11. (Kovács T. 2004)

The geographical location of the Western Transdanubian region and the analyse of its settlement structure

Diagram 1: The Western Transdanubian region contains 3 counties of the western border side of Hungary, the Győr-Moson-Sopron, Vas and Zala counties



Source: portal.ksh.hu

In this chapter I want to present one of Hungary's region "Western Transdanubia" and within that Gyor-Moson-Sopron county in detail, which is a county typically for tiny villages. As a next step in my research I would like to study namely the tiny villages numerically 7 from this county, where I would like to examine them in the perspective of success.

The region is surrounded by four countries: from north Slovakia, from west Austria, from south-west Slovenia and Croatia.

The small and tiny nature of the Western Transdanubia is confirmed by the distribution of the population size of the settlements. The sizes of the region's villages shows, that 491 have less than 1.000 inhabitants (78,3%), and 53,9% of the villages, which means 338 units, belongs to the tiny villages, which has less than 500 inhabitants.

In Gyor-Moson-Sopron county 57,3% of the settlements is small village, out of these 30,7% is the rate of the tiny villages and 7 units (4,1%) has a population of less than 100 people (KSH 2005).

Table 1: The number of settlements and its distribution based on population in Western Transdanubia (2005)

Categories	Gyor-Moson-Sopron county		Vas county		Zala county		Western Transdanubia	
	unit	*%*	*unit*	*%*	*unit*	*%*	*unit*	*%*
over 2.000	22	12,7	6	2,9	5	2,0	*33*	*5,3*
1000-1999	52	30,0	17	8,3	34	13,7	*103*	*16,4*
500-999	46	26,6	52	25,3	55	22,2	*153*	*24,4*
100-499	46	26,6	120	58,2	115	46,4	*281*	*44,9*
less than 100	7	4,1	11	5,3	39	15,7	*57*	*9,0*
Total	**173**	**100,0**	**206**	**100,0**	**248**	**100,0**	**626**	**100,0**

Source: County statistical yearbooks 2005. KSH.

Success theories of settlements and rural areas

Many researchers have already dealt with the success of cities, and publications in this topic is range broad. Lengyel[27] studied the regional competitiveness, Enyedi[28] the success factors of cities and regions in their works. This study would like to show you two lines of the success theories. One of them discuss the local and the other the components and determinants of rural success, which may also define the success of tiny villages.

As an impact of globalization in our country the role of locality is more and more appreciated, that's why it is important to analyze, how the local level, the settlement, the small regions can find and obtain its individuality. The pressure of competitiveness appears also on the local level of communities as well as in the regions or on the level of the countries (Mezei C. 2004).

Enyedi (1995) says, that the essential aim of the local policy is to support the success of the settlements. The basic of this is the increase of the income from the local society and from the local government, but the success of the settlement is also measurable, whether its inhabitants find it attractive, whether they are satisfied with the public services, whether they can identify themselves with the settlement itself. The local policy can only partially contribute to the success of the settlement, which means that the quality of the local management is not the only influencing factor. There is much more success factor needs to be identified.

It is obvious, that the activities of the local government's management, like economic development, economic policy, marketing, lobbying, etc. has an ultimate goal of the local population well-being, to improve the quality of life, to achieve the satisfaction of the local community and to obtain and to attract the population in the settlement.

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27 Lengyel I. (2000): A regionális versenyképességről. Közgazdasági Szemle, XLVII. évf., 2000. december (962–987. o.)

28 Enyedi Gy. (1997): Tér és Társadalom 1997 s 4: 1-7 A sikeres város (Key Issues for Prosperity of Cities)

The central category of economy and income can not be questioned, the regional income will be the most important factor for influencing the quality of life, which complemented by the labor productivity and employment based on the unified concept of competitiveness (the well-being is secured by the income from the high employment ratio and from the high labor productivity (Lengyel I. 2000)).

To think over more the above, the rural success can be achieved, if the settlement has the power of retaining the population and forming the community. From this also follows, that the main reason of failure is the migration, the decline in rural jobs, which is also followed by the decline of natural population increase, continued by the decline in the demand of local services, which leads also to job losses.

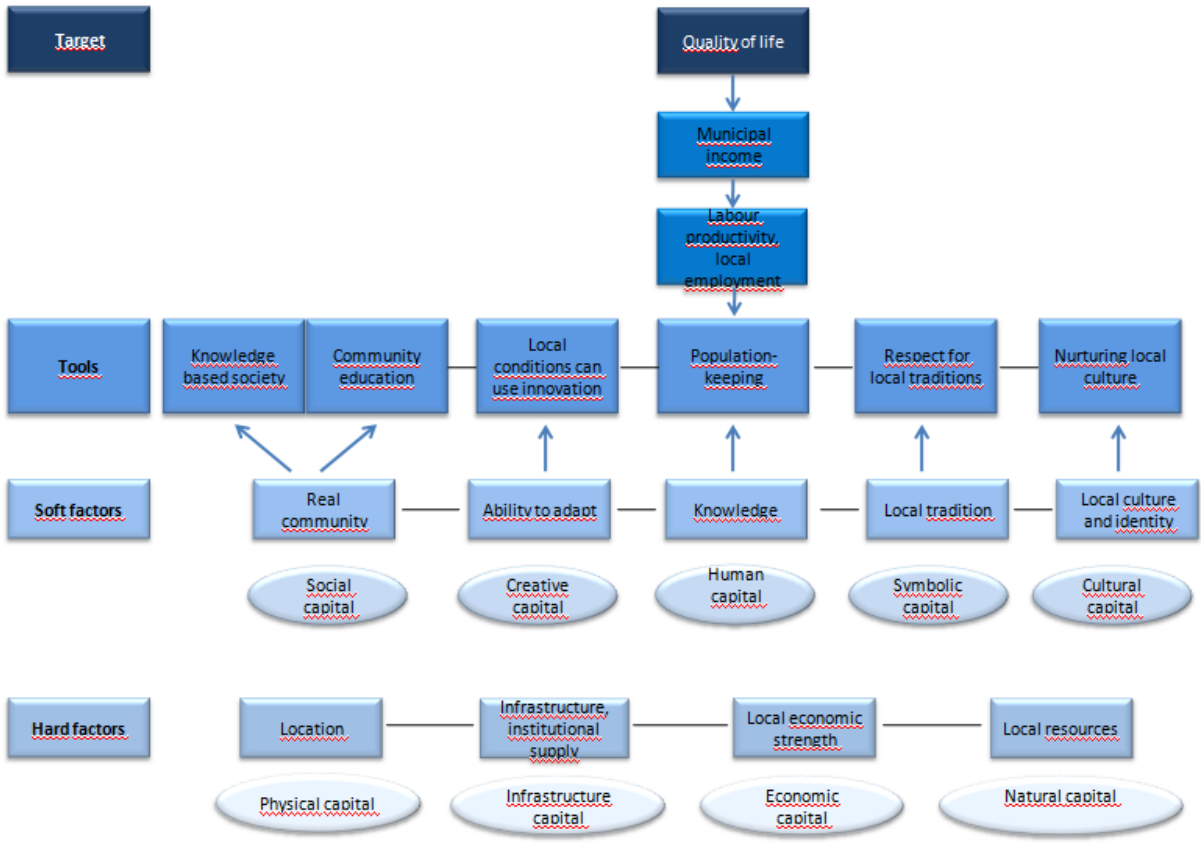
The previously not discussed driving factor of keeping the community is the education. The target of the rural development is mainly to develop the self-organizing ability of the community and to improve the intellectual and cultural factors of the quality of life. It is not coincidence, that in the foreign, but also in the Hungarian rural development strategies, the central factor is to preserve the quality of life. These factors are less visible and less measurable elements of success as the physical factors like the geographical location, the infrastructure, the local economic powers as Szörényiné (2010) states.[29] These factors can be shown in the statistical data as well.

The invisible elements of success are the human factors such as social capital, human capital, the local culture, to respect and maintain of the tradition, the knowledge, adaptability, and the real community.

Innovation, which can use the local capabilities, can play a prominent role in the success. In other words a rural existence of knowledge-based society. Therefore, an important part of rural development is the developing of different education systems (Szörényiné K. I. 2010).

[29] Szörényiné K. I. (2010): Változó vidék – Sikeres vidék (In: Sikeres vidéki térségek. Szerkesztette: Glatz Ferenc. Párbeszéd a vidékért sorozat. Sorozatszerkesztő: Glatz Ferenc. MTA Történettudományi Intézet) - MTA Társadalomkutató Központ, Budapest, pp. 33-45.

Diagram1: Success model of settlements and rural areas



Source: own draft

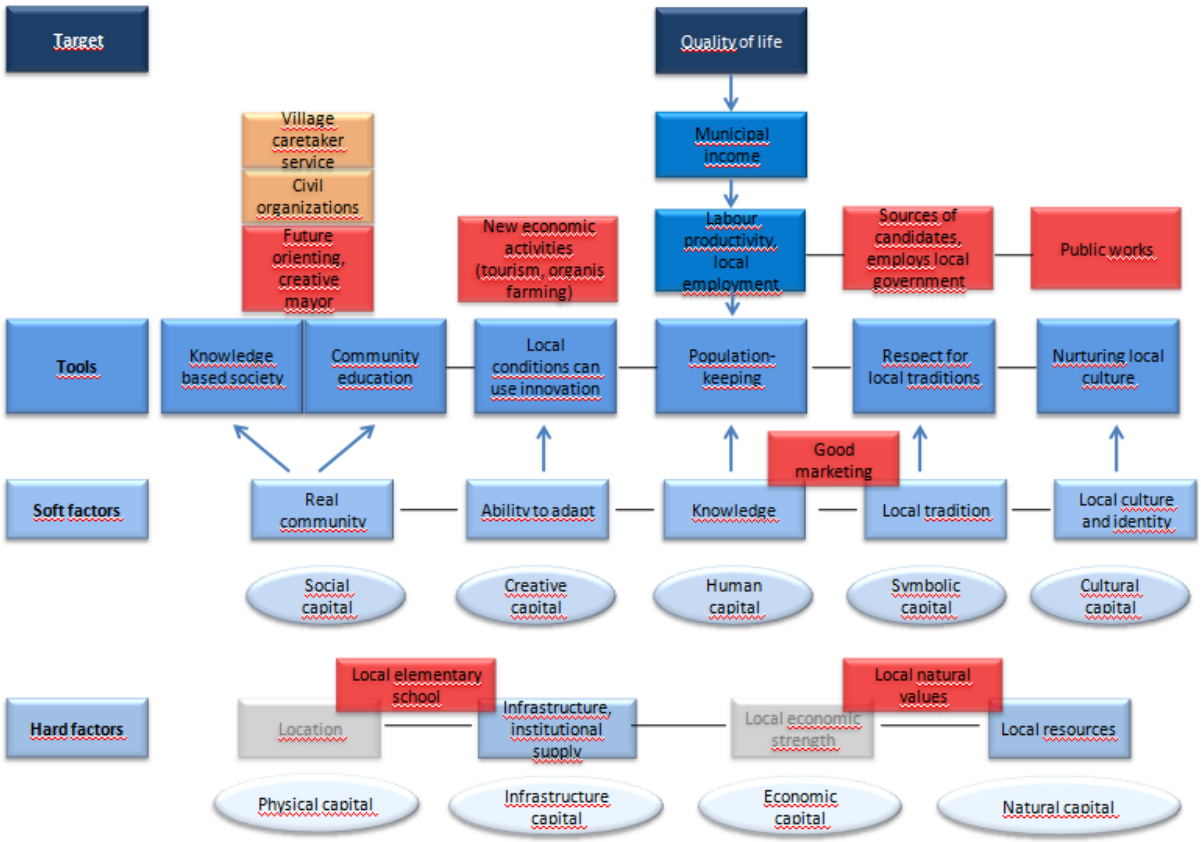
Success model of tiny villages in Hungary

Based on the above and by taking some further consideration there was a selection and study of that kind of tiny villages, which could show some development and success (with the tools of literature research and media analysis), so testing of the above model in the tiny villages. During the trial of the model it was found, the number of the success factors can be further expanded and some of the factors can be eliminated for the original idea.

The following villages were investigated in depth: Rozsály, Visnyeszéplak, Tarnabod, Csaholc, Belecska, Csárdaszállás, Megyer, Kunsziget, Csákberény, Szanticska, Perőcsény, Gagyapáti, Gyűrűfű, Pusztamérges.

So I could set up the following model, and the success factors, which are influencing the tiny villages, were categorized accordingly:

Diagram2: Success model of tiny villages in Hungary



Source: own draft

It turned out, that the geographical location and the local economic power, which were so much important in case of the rural success, almost lost their meaning. This can be explained by the fact, that all of the observed villages have such a geographical location, that they were so much close or just so much far from the nearest city (or just because of the bad commuting possibilities), that the city itself didn't take any role in their lives, which means it had no labor attraction in relation with the tiny village. Local economic strength was also not typical in these settlements, so no any company is existing since several decades or even years, which can continuously provide safe and reliable workplace and livelihood for the inhabitants.

However those specific factors, which are present in the observed villages and which are worth to study them more deeply, those are belonging to the group of the hard factors and mean the local elementary school, the local natural assets and their 'use'.

At the side of the soft factors it appears the good marketing, the importance of improvement of the image, well-known and reputation of the settlement, while all of these factors can be facilitated by the tools of the future building, creative mayor, the NGO's, the village caretaker service, the new economic activities, the local government as employer and the presence of the public work program.

By examining the nationwide collected (apparently successful) tiny villages, it turned out, that at least one of the above factors, but basically more factors together contribute to the success of the tiny villages.

Conclusion

In the Hungarian network more than a thousand settlements – one third of the overall number – have less than 500 inhabitants, and the number of small villages and settlements is increasing year by year (Bőhm A. 2000). The community of tiny villages with a low population is especially vulnerable; unfavourable demographic and social processes such as ageing, unemployment, migration, and other unfavourable societal phenomena accompanying the formation of provincial social and ethnic segregations can more easily become characteristic in these communities.

On the other hand, there are in Hungary tiny villages in a particular region or county within the border (in the same geographical location), which show improvement over the previous process, where there is job opportunity, driving force behind the settlement's population, and a good standard of living. And where - not least - people love to live.

Above in my article I wanted to find out and figure out this process and arrangement. What may be behind this? To research and understanding this could be pointed to the other, lagging and declining tiny village for the future. I took the rural and settlement success theories as the basic of my research, and by developing this, I established a modell for the tiny villages. This specifically wanted to show those factors, which are responsible for the success of tiny villages.

As the next step of my research there will be a study - to the model above – in tiny villages of the county Győr-Moson-Sopron in Hungary, where I would like to test these factors of success.

I am doing secondary and primary research all in seven said to be successful and perceived tiny village, such as literary studies, media analysis, as well as on-site field inspections. Furthermore I make interviews with the local mayors, leaders, intellectuals and residents regarding the success factors.

After testing the model results will hopefully show a clear picture in fact, what kind of factors influence the development, success and sustainability of tiny villages in today's Hungary.

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IN SEARCH OF THE "TRUE" COMMUNITY-COMMUNITY ANIMATORS FOR THE WELFARE OF THE RURAL POPULATION (CASE-STUDY FROM ROMANIA'S WESTERN REGION)

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Abstract

It is very hard to talk about the "first time" in community involvement in Transylvania. For a better analysis we should first of all define community and community involvement. The paper wishes to make an overview of the theoretical debates of the concept of community as well as to present the history of community work that has been done starting from the eighties in Transylvania due to the specific social and political context with the help of the international project of „Operation Villages Roumaines". We might say that during the harshest period of the communism in Romania the OVR through its international and so extralocal actors has helped in saving the traditional values of the rural communties that were ment to be „systematised", distroyed. This relationship between the extralocal and local has been of great help after 1989 in the attempt to reinvent the traditional value. The paper will try to present the main moments of this process of community animation in the village of Mera, situated North-West to the county seat of Cluj-Napoca. As a result of the common community work done as a result of the co-operation of Netherlands and Romania in the project in order to prevent the demolation of the village of Mera the Dutch community „animators" have helped them in several ways the village of Mera in the „upgrading" of the human capital through community projects as well as. This fruitful co-operation has continued also after 1989. The paper would like to present the role of the local Calvinist Church as the only local actor that has not been compromitted before 1989 and whose social capital was the highest after 1989 in the implementation of the community projects.Through these the community of Mera has been fruitfully extended from 2001 onwards. In 2004 the local community has established a Committee for Community Development that has been the leader of the different types of social and community projects.

Introduction

The paper's aim is not to present all the attempts to conceptualize "community" and "community/rural animation", but to give a brief overview of the definitions during time, stopping at one of the newest theory on small communities, the Neo-Durkheimian one that seems to apply best to the case-study I am going to present in the second part of the paper, a typical instance for the

It is very hard to talk about a "first time" in community involvement in Transylvania. For a better analysis we should first of all make an attempt to define the concepts of community and community involvement. The paper wishes to make an overview of the theoretical debates of the concept of community as well as to present the history of community work that has been done starting from the eighties in Transylvania due to the specific social and political context with the help of the international project of „Operation Villages Roumaines", work that has been continued after 1989 by extralocal and local actors until our days. The history of this community involvement is presented through. the main moments of this process of community animation in the village of Mera, situated North-West to the county seat of Cluj-Napoca.

In search for the "community

There has always been a great interest in the term of community during the beginnings of the social sciences, meaning that the term has been considered as being a very important one, but none of them seems to have managed to give a lasting definition, covering all aspects that can be "hidden" under the

umbrella of community. In the eighties community studies had encountered 72 definitions of the community (Bell &Newby 1972), backdating from Confucius via Ibn-Khaldun and St. Thomas Aquinas until the classical sociological approach, for founding fathers like Tocqueville, Comte, Tönnies, Le Play, Marx and Durkheim) community is an institution registering a collapse caused to the industrial revolutions of the 19th-20th century Europe and North-America, a concept that during modernity and industrialization has lost its economic and social backing. As Bell& Newby had pointed out the only common things in all these definitions are "networking" and "locality" (1975).

It is commonly agreed upon that Tönnies is the founding father of the sociological theory of community, defining in 1887 the concept of *Gemeinschaft* (often translated as community) as an association in which individuals are oriented to the large association as much as, if not more than, to their own self-interest. Furthermore, individuals in *gemeinschaft* are regulated by common mores, or beliefs about the appropriate behaviour and responsibility of members of the association, to each other and to the association at large; associations are marked by "unity of will". Over the years there have been many adepts and opponents, but we have to admit that his classical dichotomy between community and society has been the most cited one.

Over the sixties community has been less used as being considered to be more appropriate to the traditional societies, the most "radical" label to community has given maybe by Ruth Glass, who has considered that "community is the poor sociologist's substitute for the novel" (Glass).

Until the eighties both academic and political discussions have tried to overlook community, trying to substitute it 80s-90s with other terms. Some even disclaimed that in the 21st century community can still be an operational concept (I presume that they are the true believers of Tönnies's "total" transition in our days to the *Gesselschaft,* without leaving any floor to the classical *Gemeinschaft*). This is the case for Philip Cooke (1989), who has proposed the term "locality" instead of community, as he has considered community "as being too broad in its spatial reach and too narrow in its social connotation".

In our days we are witnessing a revival of the concept of community, both in academics and policies' discussions, starting from the nineties there have been several attempts to give a (more or less) exhaustive definition of the community. It is very probable that this possibility of "restoration" of the community has come into being through an opening in the theoretical debates towards approaches that focus more on the non-economical aspects, so developing alternative theories (see the Neo-Durkheimian definition of the community that will be used as theoretical basing through the paper). This sociological structural theory rejects that the economy has the primacy cause in the welfare of a community. This theory ias applied mostly to small communities as such that will be presented in the second part of the paper as a case-study for community animation, and is based on Selznick's definition of community:" a group is a community to the extent that it encompasses a broad range of activities and interests, and to the extent that participation implicates whole persons rather than segmental interests or activities" (Selznick, 1996). Neo-Durkheimian theory has developed the classical Durkheimian approach and accepted three very important structural dimensions: differentiation, pluralism and solidarity as being basic to the new sociological theory (Young). These three elements are central to the neo-Durkheimian theory of community as they "define the principal problem-solving strategies that all communities employ" (Young).

What differs from the classical work is that differentiation is considered not a consequence of population density, but as the degree to which institutions are specialized (actually an updated version of Durkheim's "organic solidarity"). Differentiation in a community can be measured both in the economic structure as well as the diversity of voluntary associations. The other structural dimension, pluralism in this new theory is defined as being "the degree to which subgroups in the community are able to participate in political debate". And finally solidarity is considered to be the degree to which people can mobilize behind a common goal(s) or belief(s).

Community actions as conditions of community development

Over time community actions and involvement has had many opponents among academics and practitioners, but even so over time there were undoubtedly been examples in which community involvement has led to the development of the local community, in many cases these outside actions having many positive effects on the existence of the community. Such a positive case will be presented in the second part of the paper, the subject being the village of **Mera,** a specific Transylvanian rural community situated in the area of influence of Cluj-Napoca, the greatest city in Transylvania.

Why this community?

Besides the fact that it has a history of a successful community involvement, Méra is also a traditional example of how modernity and tradition have emerged, on the economic and social aspects, and affecting the traditional culture of the community.

Presentation of the rural community

The village of Mera (Méra in Hungarian) is situated at 13 kilometers from the county-seat, Cluj-Napoca in the metropolitan area of Cluj; under the administration of the commune-centre of Baciu). It has been considered to be a part of a small region named Calata(Kalotaszeg in Hungarian), situated in the county of Cluj, formed as a distinct area in the Medieval Ages, from the river Barcau to the river Crisul Repede. One of the most colourful regions, which nowadays is rather an ethnographicalBerettyóby villages with

Graphic 1: The map of the Calata/Kalotaszeg

The villagers before 1989 have been commuting to the nearby city of Cluj-Napoca, mostly men have worked in industrial plants, after 1989 as a result of the social and economical structural changes these people were left unemployed, most of them have returned home, some of them went to work in Hungary or after land was given back tp former owners some of them returned to traditional self-subsistence agriculture (local specificity buffalo-breeding).

According to the data of the census from 2002 the village of Mera had 1419 inhabitants, with a multiethnic (Hungarians-81,6% and Rromas-9,6%) and multi-confessional structure (Calvinists-88,5% Orthodoxs, Greco and Roman-Catholics and others-mostly Neoprotestants)[30].

Even if only 9,6% of the population has declared itself as being of Rroma nationality, the local intelligentsia has appreciated that their actual number is far more bigger, around 21% who live in families situated at the periphery of the community, mostly with temporary or/and low paid jobs (300 out of the 1419 inhabitants)[31] or without occupation, also with a low educational attainment.. Their children are mostly exposed to the early school abandon, as most of the parents consider that they do not have enough financial resources to support their children's education, in the same time we have to mention the problem of "mentality", for these people education is not considered as a tool for upward social mobility, so children are exposed to this kind of reproduction., so children are doomed to follow the same path as their parents have. Many adults even have no schooling or have a low level of education and even no identity cards.

It is important to outline this local social and cultural context as community actions have at first targeted mainly these categories through several community programmes.

The history of community actions/involvement in Transylvania

The history of community actions in Transylvania goes back to the 19th century, altogether with the modernization of Transylvania and appearance of the germs of industrial capitalism. This has also led to the emergence of public sphere and as J. Habermas has considered the also led to the strengthening of the civil society[32]. But below we will mention only the last two decades of community involvement.

Phases of community involvement in Mera

1st phase

During the eighties Ceausescu's policy of "systematisation of the rural area" (meaning actually the demolishing of many traditional villages, mainly from Transylvania) has led to the birth of a movement in Belgium named the "Operation Villages Roumaines". This movement has expanded through the Western European countries as a response to this hidden will to destroy mainly Transylvanian traditional villages (active 1989-2005). This has come into being as an NGO initiative and then supported also by the government of these countries. It was a very interesting bottom-up initiative of several Western-European countries based on the support of several communities that were subjects to demolishment, many villages have "adopted" a village and focused on community actions to help the local community from 1989 onwards (and militated against their destroying until 1989).

We might say that during the harshest period of the communism in Romania the OVR through its international and so extralocal actors has helped in saving the traditional values of the rural communities that were ment to be „systematised", distroyed. This relationship between the extralocal and local has been of great help after 1989 in the attempt to reinvent the traditional values, the local „culture economy"(Ray), the attachment to the symbols of local identity has had an important role int he mobilisation of positive social and economic change. As a result of the common community work done as a result of the co-operation of Netherlands and Romania in the project in order to prevent the demolation of the village of Mera the Dutch community „animators" have helped them in several ways the village of Mera in the „upgrading" of the human capital through community projects as well as. This fruitful co-operation has continued also after 1989.

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30 Varga E. Árpád: *Erdély etnikai és felekezeti statisztikája*, Népszámlálási adatok 1850–2002 között (Transylvania's ethnical and confessional statistics. Data of the censuses between 1850-2002).

31 Probably as their mother tongue is Hungarian, they have declared themselves as being Hungarians instead of Roma.

32 Transylvania has been until 1920 a province belonging to the Austro-Hungary.

2nd phase*: *the nineties

After 1989 the relationship between the Dutch community and mainly the local Calvinist Church has continued in several community actions carried out with the help of Dutch and German volunteer community animators. The Calvinist priest was chosen as he was the only local actor who has not been compromitted before 1989 and whose social capital was the highest after 1989, that is why he was chosen as the contact person in the implementation of the community projects. First projects were meant to help the welfare of the village, help of the improvement of the health infrastructure through the re-equipment of the local health centre, helping the schooling of the children with social problems, the foundation of a multifunctional cultural centre. For a better implementation an NGO (Diakónia Foundation) has been founded and supported by Transylvanian Calvinist Church. From the nineties onwards this NGO was the responsible for the projects and for many of the community work.

***3rd phase: interiorisation of the need of community animation*:**

After more than a decade the local actors took over much of the community work and actions and tried to re-discover all the possible resources that might help in the social and economical development of the village. It is this period when local actors got activated, mostly local intelligentsia with the highest level of social capital (trust), the existing built and cultural heritage was capitalized, rural tourism based on elements of cultural economy has been successfully developed. Local brands have been re-discovered, as the breeding of buffaloes was a local traditional occupation, many of the people who have been commuting to Cluj-Napoca, have made up small family farms, marketing their products on the markets from Cluj. A buffalo-museum has been found where they have put all kinds of traditional, mostly handmade instruments that were and are still used in the process of breeding of the buffaloes, it is probably the only such museum in Romania.

Picture 2: The local "brand": the buffalo museum's hatchment

Another important element is that the local folklore has been more supported, the younger ones now also learn folk dances and crafts and they wear traditional folk costumes, and are proud to do so, after many years the folk costumes have also become "living" costumes. We have to mention that in the small region of Calata, the living folk culture has been always a characteristic for this zone that has been well exploited after the nineties.

Picture 3: A hand-painted traditional gate from Mera

Besides these community projects the NGO has continued in the implementation of new social projects as well in the follow-up for the traditional ones. Such a project has been the: “after-school” for the Roma pupils from the elementary school meaning that children coming from families that had social problems were taken in an afternoon programs and with the help of social workers, teachers they were assisted in their learning. Here they had also common actions of the Roma and Hungarian youngsters (local football championships), as the manager of the Diakónia Foundation has mentioned this in an interview that this has led to the demolition of the barriers between these groups.

Through these community actions in Mera, the solidarity and has been fruitfully extended from 2001 onwards. In 2004 the local community has established a Committee for Community Development that has been the leader of the different types of social and community projects.

4th phase: new perspectives in community work in Mera-applying for EU funds for local development

After 2007 Romania has become a member of the EU and has changed many aspects of the community projects. First of all as the lead has been taken over by the local Committee for Community Development and the Diakónia Foundation had established in Mera a community house, the role of the extralocal forces (meaning the volunteers from the Netherlands and Germany) has gradually diminished. A good point was for the local community developers that they have found alternative ways to support financially the social and community projects that have led to the upraisal of the local economy, especially rural (cultural) tourism. Also the buffalo-breeders have organised themselves in associations, even if it is the first step, but still it seems that they have realised that by association their activity might be more rentable and sustainable.

On the other hand the community projects initiatied in the nineties by the Dutch Calvinist Church for the children from families with social problems has found a new source for financement: the “step after step” projects for the development of the human capital is being financed through EU funds: and carried through with the help of the social and community workers of the Diakonia Foundation who day by day work with these children.

There has been a positive growth in the animation of the community, and the economic crisis seems not to have harmed it.

Conclusions

Community animation in Mera has been a longer process, lasting for more than two decades, done under several other “umbrellas” by different local and extra-local actors, the results of the different

social and community projects can be seen in our days. We might say that the community actions have been done from the outside, the “sparkle” seems to have been the first international co-operation that have activated the inner latent social networks and have built several others. From the late nineties symbols of local identity (folklore, local products, crafts) have become important in the mobilisation of the positive social and economic change. Social capital could be increased through a longer process, and as the paper has presented, extralocal forces were the ones that have started the development of it, of building networks and activating the existing ones, but of course we have to mention that without a positive response from the local community this would not be sustainable. Mera can be considered as being a community in the sense as those three structural dimensions the Neo-Durheimian theory of communities mentions exists and has been developing, so differentiation, pluralism and the solidarity are present…. Hopefully this is a way without return, so that the community of Mera itself will be able to handle its problems and will not stop because of any other harmful external (or internal) problems.

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