

ECONOMIC SCIENCE FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT

**Proceedings of the
International Scientific Conference**

**PRIMARY AND SECONDARY PRODUCTION,
CONSUMPTION**

№ 19

**“ECONOMIC SCIENCE FOR RURAL
DEVELOPMENT”**

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International Scientific Conference

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CONSUMPTION**

**№ 19
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Process – April 23-24, 2009

- Latvia University of Agriculture, 2009
- West University of Timisoara, 2009
- Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, 2009
- Technological Educational Institute of Thessaloniki, 2009
- Georgian Subtropical Agricultural State University, 2009
- Batumi Shota Rustaveli State University, 2009
- University of Helsinki, 2009
- Finnish Forest Research Institute, 2009
- Swedish University of Agricultural Science, 2009
- University of Latvia, 2009
- Daugavpils University, 2009
- University of Tartu, 2009
- Estonian University of Life Sciences, 2009
- Siauliai University, 2009
- Lithuanian Institute of Agricultural Economics, 2009
- Warsaw University of Life Sciences, 2009
- Poznan University of Economics, 2009
- Agricultural University of Szczecin, 2009
- Kujawy and Pomorze University in Bydgoszcz, 2009
- University of Zielona Góra, 2009
- Fulda University of Applied Sciences, 2009
- Rēzekne Higher School, 2009
- Research Institute of Agriculture Machinery of Latvia University of Agriculture, 2009
- University of Patras, 2009
- University of Missouri-Columbia, 2009
- BA School of Business and Finance, 2009
- Kuban State University, 2009
- Kurgan State Agricultural Academy, 2009
- Higher School of Economics and Culture, 2009
- Institute of Economics of Latvian Academy of Sciences, 2009
- School of Business Administration “Turība”, 2009
- University of Debrecen, 2009
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Priekšvārds

Latvijas Lauksaimniecības universitātes (LLU) Ekonomikas fakultātē līdz ar ikgadējo, tradicionālo starptautisko zinātnisko konferenci „Ekonomikas zinātne lauku attīstībai” iznāk tajā prezentējamo pētījumu starptautiski recenzētie zinātnieki raksti. **Šogad konference tiek organizēta 10.reizi par godu Ekonomikas fakultātes 40.gadu jubilejai.** Tajā piedalās liels skaits ekonomikas zinātnieku no daudzām Eiropas valstīm. Konference ir veltīta aktuālai lauku attīstības tematikai, tādēļ ir izdoti trīs secīgi laidieni (Nr.18., 19. un 20.). Šādu zinātnisko rakstu pirmais laidienis iznāca 2000.gadā.

2009.gada 23. un 24.aprīļa starptautiskajā zinātniskajā konferencē piedalās un savus zinātniskos pētījumu rezultātus prezentē profesori, zinātņu doktori, asociētie profesori, docētāji, doktoranti un citi pētnieki no šādām augstskolām un zinātniski pētnieciskajām iestādēm:

- Latvijas Lauksaimniecības universitāte
- Timisoara Rietumu Universitāte
- Saloniku Aristoteļa universitāte
- Saloniku tehnoloģiju institūts
- Gruzijas Subtropiskās lauksaimniecības valsts universitāte
- Batumi Shota Rustaveli valsts universitāte
- Helsinku Universitāte
- Somijas meža pētnieciskais institūts
- Zviedrijas Lauksaimniecības zinātņu universitāte
- Latvijas Universitāte
- Daugavpils Universitāte
- Tartu Universitāte
- Igaunijas Dzīvības zinātņu universitāte
- Šauļu Universitāte
- Lietuvas agrārās ekonomikas institūts
- Varšavas Dzīvības zinātņu universitāte
- Poznaņas Ekonomikas universitāte
- Ščecinas Lauksaimniecības universitāte
- Kujawy and Pomorze Bydgoszcz universitāte
- Zielona Góra universitāte
- Fuldas Profesionālā universitāte
- Rēzeknes augstskola
- LLU Lauksaimniecības tehnikas zinātniskais institūts

Foreword

Every year the Faculty of Economics, Latvia University of Agriculture holds the international scientific conference “Economic Science for Rural Development” and publishes internationally reviewed papers of scientific researches, which are presented at the conference. This year the 10th annual international scientific conference is dedicated to the 40th anniversary of the Faculty of Economics, Latvia University of Agriculture.

Many economic scientists from different European countries participate in the conference. The themes of the conference are very closely connected with the current situation, therefore three volumes of the conference proceedings are published – 18, 19 and 20. The first volumes of scientific conference proceedings were published already in 2000.

This year the international scientific conference on April 23-24 is organised by the Department of Business and Management of the Faculty of Economics, Latvia University of Agriculture. The number of participating universities and scientific institutes increases with every year. Professors, associate professors, assistant professors, PhD students, and other researchers from the following higher education institutions participate in the conference and present their results of scientific researches:

- Latvia University of Agriculture
- West University of Timisoara
- Aristotle University of Thessaloniki
- Technological Educational Institute of Thessaloniki
- Georgian Subtropical Agricultural State University
- Batumi Shota Rustaveli State University
- University of Helsinki
- Finnish Forest Research Institute
- Swedish University of Agricultural Science
- University of Latvia
- Daugavpils University
- University of Tartu
- Estonian University of Life Sciences
- Siauliai University
- Lithuanian Institute of Agricultural Economics
- Warsaw University of Life Sciences
- Poznan University of Economics

- Patras Universitāte
- Missouri-Columbia Universitāte
- Banku augstskola
- Kubanas valsts universitāte
- Kurganas Valsts lauksaimniecības akadēmija
- Ekonomikas un Kultūras augstskola
- Latvijas Zinātņu Akadēmijas Ekonomikas institūts
- Biznesa augstskola „Turība”
- Debrecenas Universitāte
- Udines Universitāte

Konferencēi izvēlēti 10 aktuāli temati:

- Ražošanas efektivitāte lauksaimniecības primārajā un sekundārajā sfērā
- Lauku attīstība un globalizācija
- Lauku ekonomiskā un sociālā attīstība
- Finansiālā atbalsta efektivitāte
- Reģionālā lauksaimniecība specializācijas un globalizācijas kontekstos
- Kooperācija un integrācija
- Lauku mentalitāte un kultūras attīstība laukos
- Informācijas loma lauku attīstībā
- Lauku attīstības menedžments
- Dzīves un vides kvalitāte laukos
- Patēriņa izmaiņas lauku attīstībā

Šie temati ietilpst trīs zinātnisko rakstu laidienos.

Starptautiskās zinātniskās konferences zinātniskuma un starptautiskiem standartiem atbilstošu zinātnisko darbu prezentēšanas nodrošināšanai veikta vispusīga iesniegto zinātnisko rakstu starptautiska un starpaugstskolu recenzēšana. Šajā nolūkā lielākā daļa zinātnisko rakstu ir angļu valodā.

Katru iesniegto zinātniskā raksta manuskriptu vērtēja (recenzēja) parasti viens autora valsts recenzents un otrs – citas valsts vai citas augstskolas recenzents. Pretrunīgu recenziju gadījumā darbs tika nodots vēl trešajam recenzentam. Recenzenti darbu autoriem bija anonīmi.

Katram autoram tika nosūtīti recenzentu iebildumi vai ieteikumi. Pēc uzlabotā (galīgā) varianta un autora paskaidrojuma saņemšanas katru zinātnisko rakstu vērtēja šīs konferences zinātnisko rakstu redakcija.

- Agricultural University of Szczecin
- Kujawy and Pomorze University in Bydgoszcz
- University of Zielona Góra
- Fulda University of Applied Sciences
- Rēzekne Higher School
- Research Institute of Agriculture Machinery of Latvia University of Agriculture
- University of Patras
- University of Missouri-Columbia
- BA School of Business and Finance
- Kuban State University
- Kurgan State Agricultural Academy
- Higher School of Economics and Culture
- Institute of Economics of Latvian Academy of Sciences
- School of Business Administration “Turība”
- University of Debrecen
- University of Udine

All the proceedings are arranged according to 10 thematic units:

- Efficiency of production in primary and secondary sectors of agriculture
- Rural development and globalisation
- Rural social and economic development
- Efficiency of financial support
- Regional agriculture within the context of specialisation and globalisation
- Co-operation and integration
- Rural mentality and cultural development in rural areas
- Role of information in rural development
- Rural development management
- Quality of life and environment in rural areas
- Consumption changes in rural development

These themes are arranged in three volumes. The comprehensive reviewing of submitted scientific articles has been performed on international and inter-university level to ensure that only high-level scientific and methodological research results, meeting the requirements of international standards, are presented at the conference. The majority of articles are in English.

Every submitted manuscript has been reviewed by one reviewer from the author's native country or university, while the other reviewer came from

Starptautiskās zinātniskās konferences „Ekonomikas zinātne lauku attīstībai” visi zinātniskie raksti sakārtoti trijos tematiskajos laidienos:

Nr.18. Reģionālā un lauku attīstība

Nr.19. Primārais un sekundārais sektors, ražošana, patēriņš

Nr.20. Finances, nodokļi, investīcijas un atbalsts

Zinātniskajos rakstos izklāstītie pētījumi un to rezultāti kļūst pieejami plašam interesentu lokam Eiropas Savienības telpā.

Rakstu publicēšana pirms konferences sekmēs tās norisi, domu apmaiņu, ekonomikas zinātnieku starptautisko sadarbību. Rakstus varēs izmantot studējošie un visi interesenti.

Konferences zinātnisko rakstu kopsavilkumi angļu valodā tiek izsūtīti starptautiskām datu bāzēm: AGRIS (International Information System for the Agricultural Sciences and Technology) un EBSCO – vienu no lielākajām ASV elektronisko resursu datu bāzēm.

Ceram saņemt atsauksmes un priekšlikumus turpmāko zinātnisko rakstu izdevumu sagatavošanai un starptautisko zinātnisko konferenču rīkošanai.

Pateicamies visiem rakstu autoriem, recenzentiem, programmas komitejai, redkolēģijai un tehniskajam personālam.

Konferences orgkomitejas vārdā

ULDIS IVANS

**Latvijas Lauksaimniecības universitātes
Ekonomikas fakultātes asociētais profesors**

another country or university. The third reviewer was chosen in the case of conflicting reviews.

All reviewers were anonymous for the authors of the articles. Every reviewer received manuscripts without the authors' names, while every author received the reviewers' comments and objections.

After receiving the improved (final) version of the manuscript the Editorial Board of the conference evaluated each article.

All the papers of the international scientific conference “Economic Science for Rural Development” are arranged into the following thematic volumes:

18. Regional and Rural Development;

19. Primary and Secondary Production, Consumption;

20. Finances, Taxes, Investment and Support Systems.

The researches and their results of the conference proceedings are now available to a wide circle of readers in the European Union. The publishing of the proceedings before the conference will also promote exchange of opinions and collaboration of economic scientists on the international level. The proceedings can be used by students and any interested person.

The abstracts of the conference proceedings provided in English are submitted to the international databases: AGRIS (International Information System for the Agricultural Sciences and Technology) and EBSCO, which is one of the largest electronic resource database in the USA.

We would like to thank all the authors, reviewers, members of the Editorial Board and supporting staff for their contribution organising the conference.

On behalf of the conference organisers

ULDIS IVANS

**Assoc.prof. of the Faculty of Economics,
Latvia University of Agriculture**

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Entrepreneurship profile in Latvia

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Abstract

Efficient entrepreneurship lies at the basis of the economic development of any country. The same as in the EU in general also the business in Latvia is dominated by small and medium-sized enterprises, providing jobs and promoting the growth of economy. The EU has adopted the European Charter for Small Enterprises signed also by Latvia. Likewise, several policy documents have been adopted in Latvia targeted at facilitation of entrepreneurship.

The present study clarifies the scope of entrepreneurship activity in this country as the whole (the number of enterprises and the number of new-established companies) and within its separate statistic regions over the period of 2004 - 2007. It analyses the structure of enterprises as well as the indicators representative of business in Latvia and across its regions: the dynamics of the number of enterprises per 1000 inhabitants, the gross domestic product (GDP) per enterprise and per capita.

Key words: enterprises, regions, entrepreneurship activities.

Introduction

Small and medium-sized enterprises (SME) are the cornerstone of the European economy. They create the most jobs and promote the economic growth. In comparison with the large enterprises, the SME in their operations are subject to disproportionally high bureaucratic barriers and financing constraints. For facilitation of establishment and operation of SME, the leaders of the EU countries in 2000 adopted the European Charter for Small Enterprises (Charter). The European Commission is committed to follow up that the ideas of the Charter would not just remain good intentions. The Charter identified ten main areas where the operation conditions of SME in Europe have to be improved (Zvagulis P., 2008):

1. The education curricula and professional training programmes have to provide skills required for entrepreneurship.
2. The SME establishment procedure has to be simplified.
3. The regulatory enactments should provide for relief to SME as well as the impact of every regulatory enactment on the operations of SME have to be evaluated.
4. Professional training for employees of SME has to be ensured.
5. The co-operation of SME with government enterprises has to be facilitated and the administration costs reduced.

6. Trade restrictions hindering small enterprises from successfully competing on foreign markets, have to be repealed.
7. Favourable tax policies for SME have to be implemented supporting successful enterprises.
8. The state-of-art technologies have to be made accessible also to small enterprises.
9. E-commerce has to be promoted ensuring a high support level to SME.
10. Opportunities should be created for increasing the role of SME in the Member States and the EU.

In order to perfect the entrepreneurship and especially the SME support policy according to the best practice of the EU Member States, Latvia takes part in SME support measures. On April 23, 2002 Latvia joined the European Charter for Small Enterprises (Latvijas mazo un vidējo...,2004). At this stage several policy documents have been adopted targeted at facilitation of business: The Development Programme of Small and Medium-sized Enterprises for 2004-2006 (2004), Latvian National Development Plan (NDP) for 2007-2013 (2006), Business Competitiveness and Innovation Promotion Programme for 2007 – 2013 (2007), and the Entrepreneurship Environment Improvement Plan for 2008 (2008). NDP states that it is vital to form a favourable public opinion towards entrepreneurs and increase the awareness of the role of business in the development of the country as well as promote the economic activity of individuals and establishment

of new enterprises through different motivation instruments and support mechanisms. The facilitation of development of new enterprises in the regions of Latvia is especially important (Latvijas Nacionālais..., 2006). In 2004, the Small and Medium-sized Enterprises and Craftsmanship Board established under the Ministry of Economy was intended for addressing the issues important for creation of the favourable business policy environment and encouraging of SME development (Informatīvais ziņojums..., 2008).

The efforts on successful growth of small and medium-sized enterprises are focussed also in other countries. The USA researchers V.Fon and Y.Lowrey (2008) conclude that people have different preferences for performing entrepreneurial activities. These differences can be influenced by actions of the state. In Poland, it is underlined that “experiences of many countries show that over the previous decades, small and medium –sized enterprises are the group of businesses which definitely influence the processes in the economy (Zuzek D.K., 2006). Different aspects of entrepreneurship in Latvia have been studied by researchers M.Rurāne (2007), Ē.Šumilo (2007), I.Jurgena, A.Radžele, L.Jance, K.Špoģis (2006), A.Eglīte, I.Kantiķe, A.Zvaigzne (2008), A.Auziņa (2008), and R.Zvirgzdiņa (2006, 2007, 2008) who consider that intensive and effective entrepreneurship is at the basis of any swift and stable economic development (Zvirgzdiņa R., 2007). S.Boļšakovs (2005) emphasises that “rapid growth of economics and rise in social welfare for Latvia as a small open economy is largely dependent on its ability to create and sell competitive goods and services in the world markets”.

The above statement defined the **aim** of the present study: analyse the scope of entrepreneurial activity in Latvia and its regions. The following **hypothesis** was set forth: the entrepreneurial activity in different regions of Latvia is diverse.

The following **problems** were formulated to achieve the aim of the study:

- 1) analysis of the number of enterprises in Latvia in general and across its regions over the time period of 2004-2007;
- 2) studies of the size structure of enterprises in regional aspect;
- 3) evaluation of the entrepreneurial activities.

The following **methods** were applied: monograph, graphic, constructive logic, analysis and synthesis, deduction and induction, analysis of documents, grouping of information, structuring, and time series analysis.

The information was analysed pursuant to NUTS III classification applied by the Central Statistical Bureau (CSB) subdividing Latvia into 6 statistical

regions: **Rīga** (includes Riga City), **Pierīga** (city of Jūrmala; districts of Limbaži, Ogre, Riga and Tukums), **Vidzeme** (districts of Alūksne, Cēsis, Gulbene, Madona, Valka and Valmiera), **Kurzeme** (towns of Liepāja, Ventspils; districts of Kuldīga, Liepāja, Saldus, Talsi and Ventspils), **Zemgale** (city of Jelgava; districts of Aizkraukle, Bauska, Dobele, Jelgava and Jēkabpils) **Latgale** (towns of Daugavpils, Rēzekne and Balvi; districts of Daugavpils, Krāslava, Ludza, Preiļi and Rēzekne) (LR CSB -c, 2008).

Within the study, the regulatory enactments of the Republic of Latvia were analysed, information provided by the Ministry of Economics and the Central Statistical Bureau as well as studies of other researchers: V.Fon and Y.Lowrey (2008), D.K. Zuzek (2006), M.Rurāne (2007), Ē.Šumilo (2007), S.Boļšakovs (2005), I.Jurgena, A.Radžele, L.Jance, K.Špoģis (2006), A.Eglīte, I.Kantiķe, A.Zvaigzne (2008), A.Auziņa (2008), R.Zvirgzdiņa (2006, 2007, 2008) in the field of entrepreneurship.

Results and discussion

1. Features of the number of enterprises

In the period of 2004 -2007, different forms of business exist in Latvia. The statistical data characterise them as statistical units of the trade sector: self-employed persons, individual merchants, commercial companies, and agricultural holdings and fisheries holdings. Outside the trade sector there exist such statistical units as different foundations, establishments and societies, government agencies, and local government agencies (CSB, 2008). The data and calculations reflected in Table 1 were used to solve the first problem of the study.

The following statements and conclusions can be made from the above calculations:

- In Latvia, the period of 2004-2007 shows a notable growth in the number of enterprises: their number increases by 27,350 or 27 %. The annual increase is quite even: 7-9 %.
- The highest enterprise activity is observed in Pierīga and Kurzeme regions where over the reference period, the number of enterprises has grown by 46% and 36% accordingly. Besides, Pierīga region has experienced the most substantial increase in the number of enterprises in 2005 (chain increment rate 120 %), while Kurzeme region in 2006 (chain increment rate 116 %).
- The lowest activity is observed in Vidzeme region, where the number of enterprises in 2007 has gone up just by 7% in comparison with 2004, moreover, this is the only region where the number of enterprises in 2005 has decreased in comparison with the previous year.

Table 1

Economically active statistical units of the market sector by size groups in Latvia and across its regions over the period of 2004-2007

Indicators/ regions	Unit of measurement	2004	2005	2006	2007	Structure, %
LATVIA	number	101 634	109 193	119 530	128 984	100
Base increment rate	%	100	107	118	127	x
Chain increment rate	%	-	107	109	108	x
Riga region	number	38 080	40 573	44 445	48 569	37.7
Base increment rate	%	100	107	117	128	x
Chain increment rate	%	-	107	110	109	x
Pieriga region	number	12 513	14 976	16 647	18 319	14.2
Base increment rate	%	100	120	133	146	x
Chain increment rate	%	-	120	111	110	x
Vidzeme region	number	13 508	13 069	13 808	14 450	11.2
Base increment rate	%	100	97	102	107	x
Chain increment rate	%	-	97	106	105	x
Kurzeme region	number	12 271	13 401	15 496	16 723	13.0
Base increment rate	%	100	109	126	136	x
Chain increment rate	%	-	109	116	108	x
Zemgale region	number	11 371	12 689	13 410	14 224	11.0
Base increment rate	%	100	112	118	125	x
Chain increment rate	%	-	112	106	106	x
Latgale region	number	13 891	14 485	15 724	16 699	12.9
Base increment rate	%	100	104	113	120	x
Chain increment rate	%	-	104	109	106	x

Source: the Central Statistical Bureau, 2008(a) and authors' calculations

- At the same time, Latgale and Zemgale regions with just 20% and 25% increase fall behind the overall increasing tendency in the number of enterprises. Zemgale region however has experienced a swift increase in 2005: by 12% in comparison with the previous year, while in 2006 and 2007 these numbers have grown by 6% per year on average.
- In 2007, the highest number of enterprises is registered in Riga region: 48, 569 or 37.7% of the total number, the lowest number of enterprises is found in Zemgale and Vidzeme regions: 14,224 (11%) and 14,450 (11.2%) respectively.

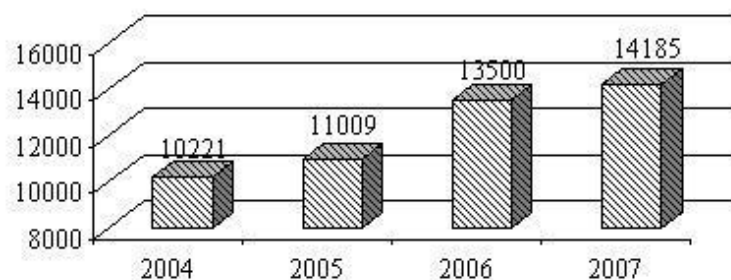
The number of the newly established enterprises, having an upward tendency over the recent years in Latvia, is largely indicative of the business environment (Figure 1).

The information provided in Figure 1 shows that over the reference period the number of the newly-

established enterprises in Latvia has increased by 3964 enterprises or 39 %. The highest jump in these numbers has occurred in 2006 producing the chain increment rate of 23 %. Comparing the number of the newly established enterprises with the number of total enterprises in Latvia (Table 1), it is evident that in 2004 and 2005, the newly established ones represent 10%, while in 2006 and 2007: 11% of all enterprises.

However, as the Ministry of Economy admits (2008), promotion of establishment of new enterprises alone is not sufficient. To boost competitiveness, the new arrivals have to be vigorous. The statistical data just show that out of the increase of total number of enterprises, about a half is the newly established ones thus indirectly indicating to viability problems.

Nevertheless it should be noted that until the year 2007, favourable economic growth conditions promoting entrepreneurship activities existed in



Source: SIA Lursoft, 2006 (on 2005 and 2006), Ministry of Economics, 2006 on 2004), Ministry of Economics, 2008 (on 2007)

Figure 1. Number of the newly established enterprises in Latvia in 2004-2007

Table 2

Indicators characterising size of enterprises

Category/indicators of enterprise	Number of employees	Annual turnover (million EUR)	Annual balance-sheet total (million EUR)
Micro-enterprises	1-9	does not exceed 2	does not exceed 2
Small enterprises	10-49	does not exceed 10	does not exceed 10
Medium-sized enterprises	50-249	does not exceed 50	does not exceed 43

Source: the Ministry of Economics, 2008

Latvia. However, global and local economic situation in the year 2008 could create significant threats for further entrepreneurship development and state institutions will have to find solutions to promote economics.

2. Size structure of enterprises

The number of enterprises as such is not indicative of the entrepreneurial activity. Therefore it is important to analyse their structure. In 2007, 88% (113,277) of Latvia's enterprises were micro-enterprises, 10% (12,754) – small enterprises, 2% (2555) – medium sized enterprises and just 398 – large enterprises. The size-characteristic indicators are provided in Table 2.

The data given in Table 2 are indicative of small and medium-sized enterprises (SME). Enterprises employing more than 250 employees, having the annual turnover over EUR 50 million and the annual balance-sheet total exceeding EUR 43 million are qualified as large enterprises. The data indicative of the enterprise size structure across regions of Latvia are reflected in Figure 2.

The above information leads to several conclusions:

- **Micro enterprises** in Riga region are 82%, while in other regions: more than 90% of the total number of enterprises: 90% in Pierīga region, 91% in Kurzeme region, 92% in Vidzeme and Zemgale region and 93% in Latgale region.

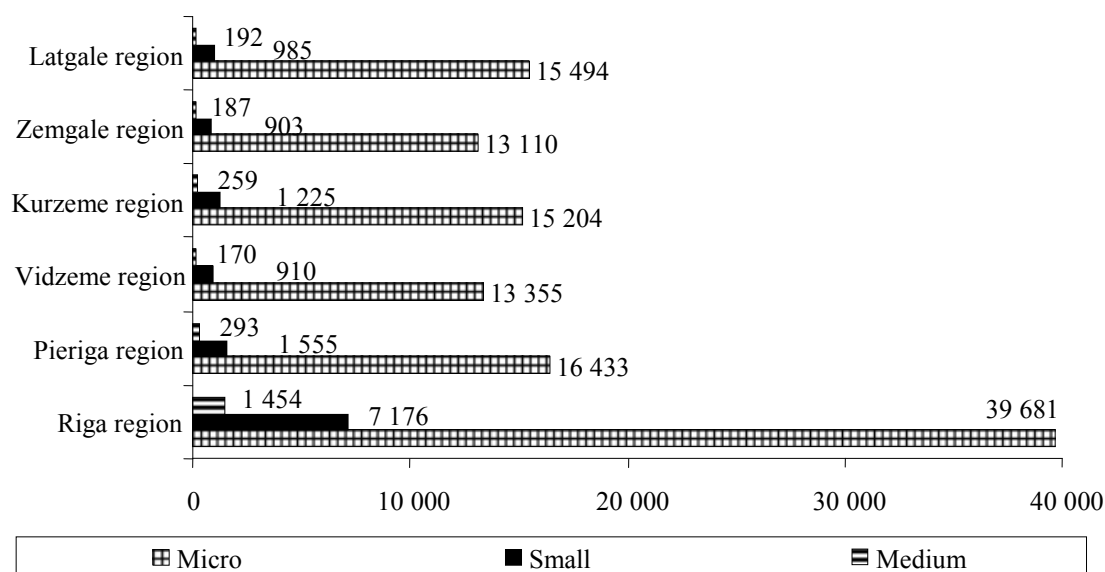
- **Small enterprises** comprise 15% of the total number of enterprises in Riga region, 8% in Pierīga region, 7% in Kurzeme region and only 6% in other regions.
- The proportion of **medium-sized enterprises** within the total structure is immaterial: it deviates from 3% in Riga region, 2% in Pierīga and Kurzeme region to just 1% in all the remaining regions.
- 258 or 65% of all **large enterprises** are situated in Riga region, 38 or 10% in Pierīga region, 35 or 9% in Kurzeme region. In other regions their numbers fluctuate from 15 to 28 enterprises.

3. Indicators meaningful of entrepreneurial activity

Several indicators are used to describe the entrepreneurial activity of inhabitants in Latvia in general and across its regions,:

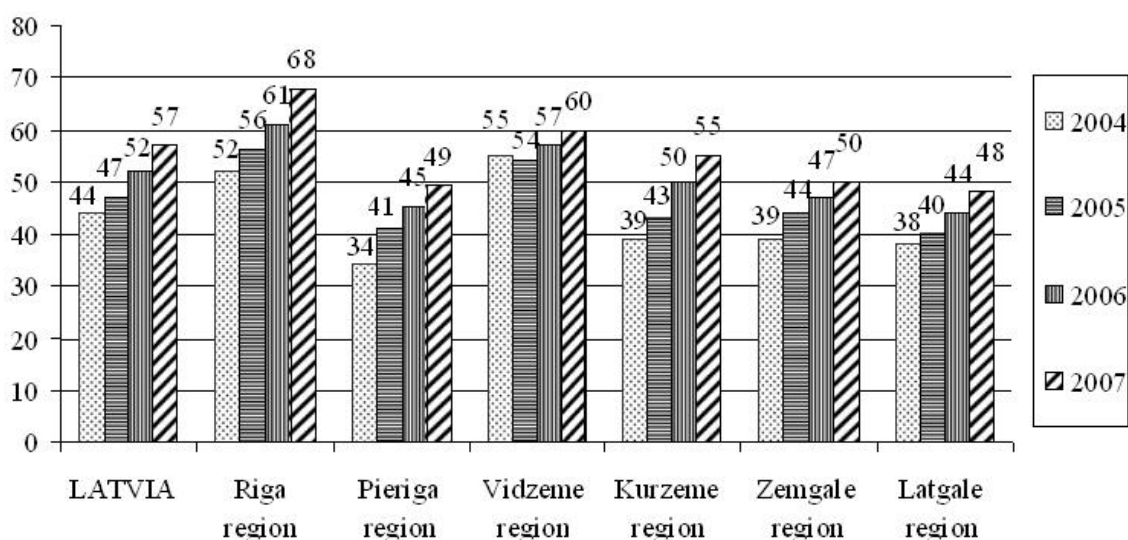
- the dynamics of the number of enterprises per 1000 inhabitants;
- gross domestic product (GDP) per enterprise;
- GDP per capita.

It should be emphasised that substantial changes have occurred in the business activity of Latvia and its regions just over the past couple of years, placing Latvia with its 52 operating enterprises (in 2006) per 1000 inhabitants on the medium entrepreneurial activity level of the EU in 2004: 50 enterprises



Source: the Central Statistical Bureau, 2008(a) and authors' calculations

Figure 2. Distribution of enterprises by size across the regions of Latvia in 2007



Source: the Central Statistical Bureau, 2008(a) and authors' calculations

Figure 3. Dynamics of enterprise number per 1000 inhabitants in the whole of Latvia and across its regions over the period of 2004-2007

(Zvirgzdiņa R., 2006). In Riga and Vidzeme regions the above level was reached already in 2004, in Kurzeme region - in 2006, in 2007 – in Zemgale region, while in Pierīga and Latgale regions the business activity is still lower than the EU average. This is evidently brought about by specific conditions governing these regions: Pierīga region to a large extent serves as home for commuters employed in Riga city, while the passivity of Latgale may be

explained by weak infrastructure and remoteness from the capital discouraging business activities.

Comparing the data summarised in Figure 3, it is evident that in 2004 – 2007, the number of enterprises per 1000 inhabitants has experienced the fastest increase in Pierīga and Kurzeme regions (by 44 and 41% respectively), the slowest in Vidzeme region: just by 9%. In Riga (31%), Zemgale (28%) and Latgale regions (26%) the increment for this

Table 3

GDP per an enterprise in Latvia in general and across the regions in 2005-2006

Regions	2005	2006	2006 versus 2005, %	2005	2006
	GDP per enterprise, LVL			versus Latvia average, %	
LATVIA	82964	93464	113	100	100
Riga region	127939	151250	118	154	162
Pierīga region	67343	72659	108	81	78
Vidzeme region	43149	46062	107	52	49
Kurzeme region	76066	77670	102	92	83
Zemgale region	49624	56111	113	60	60
Latgale region	47736	50786	106	58	54

Source: the Central Statistical Bureau, 2008(b) and authors' calculations

Table 4

GDP per capita in Latvia and across the regions in 2005-2006

Regions/ indicators	2005	2006	2006 versus 2005, %	2005.	2006.
	GDP per capita, LVL			Versus Latvia average, %	
LATVIA	3938	4883	124	100	100
Riga region	7114	9272	130	181	190
Pierīga region	2743	3258	119	70	67
Vidzeme region	2309	2632	114	59	54
Kurzeme region	3118	3390	109	79	69
Zemgale region	2192	2635	120	56	54
Latgale region	1910	2236	117	49	46

Source: the Central Statistical Bureau, 2008(b) and authors' calculations

indicator is medium high. Thus, the given indicators fully correspond to the overall number of enterprises and their dynamics (Table 1).

The data represented in Table 3 clearly show the increase of GDP per enterprise in all regions over the reference period. At the same time, if the average increase in Latvia is 13%, Zemgale region has reached exactly this level and Riga region has even exceeded it. However, the growth in Kurzeme region is just 2% showing a directly opposite tendency to the overall increase of numbers of enterprises (Table 1). Consequently, the rapid growth in numbers of enterprises as such not always provides for a rapid growth of GDP. The latter is evidently affected by the size and area of activities of the newly established businesses. Although, comparing GDP per enterprise across regions with the average level of Latvia, it is evident that in Riga this indicator is more than 1.5 times higher, in Kurzeme and Pierīga regions: just a little short of this level while in Latgale, Vidzeme and Zemgale regions it fluctuates from 49 % to 60 % of the average level in Latvia

Several indicators reflecting the underlying macroeconomic processes are used to assess the economic development of any country having entrepreneurship at its basis. GDP per capita is one of such indicators (Zvirgzdiņa, 2007).

According to EUROSTAT, in Latvia, GDP per capita constitutes just 58% of the EU average, in Lithuania - 60%, while Estonia has secured a better position with GDP per capita reaching 72% of the EU average. In three countries: Poland, Rumania and Bulgaria, the GDP indicators are still lower than in Latvia. On the contrary the richest EU country is Luxembourg with GDP per capita indicator 2.7 times higher than the EU average (Pelane, Ukenābele, 2008).

Comparing the data of Tables 3 and 4, similar trends in GDP per enterprise and GDP per capita, as well as in GDP increase dynamics for 2006 in comparison with 2005 may be observed. In the same way, the increase of GDP per capita is the highest in Riga and Zemgale regions and the lowest – in Kurzeme region. However, comparing the data of

separate regions with Latvia average, essential differences by regions appear. In 2006, GDP per capita in Riga region was almost 2 times higher, while in Latgale, Zemgale and Vidzeme regions it was 2 times lower than Latvia average and in Pierīga and Kurzeme regions: 67-69 % of the average Latvia GDP per capita. The conclusion can be drawn that the work efficiency, influenced, among other things, by the business activity, in rural regions largely falls behind the level achieved in Riga region.

“Answers to the question “how to improve the work efficiency” are as complicated and versatile as the life itself. Each business and each employee would have their own solutions. Some would prefer the qualification up-grade training, others would choose *on-job* training, still others would point out the importance of new production technologies”, P. Strautiņš, the expert of SWEDBANK, says (Pelane, Ukenābele, 2008).

Conclusions

1. In 2007, there were totally 128,984 enterprises in Latvia, the majority of which ~ 38% were situated in Riga, while in other regions the number of enterprises was rather similar taking up 11-14% of the overall structure.
2. Over the period of 2004-2007, the number of enterprises has increased in all regions, especially rapidly so in Pierīga and Kurzeme regions, where it has overtaken Latvia's average indicators. The smallest growth has taken place in Vidzeme region.
3. In the overall trend, the newly established enterprises play an important role, constituting accordingly 10% to 11% of all the enterprises.
4. In 2007, 98% of all enterprises in Latvia are the micro- and small enterprises, large enterprises representing only 0.3% of the total number, consequently SME are of vital importance for the development of Latvia's economy.
5. Describing the structure of enterprises by regions, it stands out in Riga region, where the micro-enterprises constitute 82%, while in the remaining regions - over 90% of the total number. Small enterprises take up 15% in Riga region and about 7% in other regions of the overall structure.
6. Looking at the business activity indicator as the number of enterprises per 1000 inhabitants, Latvia has reached the EU average level of at least 50 enterprises. However, Pierīga and Latgale regions have not made it. Riga and Vidzeme regions achieved the above EU average level in 2004, Kurzeme region – in 2006 and Latgale region – in 2007.

7. GDP level per enterprise in Latvia differs by regions. In Riga region, it exceeds Latvia average indicator 1.5 times, also Kurzeme and Pierīga regions enjoy high levels. At the same time, in Vidzeme, Zemgale and Latgale regions GDP level per enterprise reaches ~1/2 of Latvia average figure.
8. GDP level per capita shows substantial differences between Riga region (2 times exceeding the average) and all other regions of Latvia. Also here, the situation is a little better in Kurzeme and Pierīga regions while in the remaining regions this indicator is twice below Latvia average.

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Kopsavilkums

Jebkuras valsts ekonomiskās attīstības pamatā ir efektīva uzņēmējdarbība. Latvijā, tāpat kā Eiropas Savienībā pārsvarā ir mazie un vidējie uzņēmumi, kuri rada darba vietas un veicina saimnieciskās dzīves uzplaukumu. ES ir pieņēmusi Mazo Uzņēmumu hartu, kurai ir pievienojusies arī Latvija. Latvijā ir pieņemti vairāki politikas dokumenti, lai veicinātu uzņēmējdarbību.

Šajā pētījumā ir noskaidrota uzņēmējdarbības aktivitāte (uzņēmumu skaits un jaundibinātie uzņēmumi) Latvijā un statistikas reģionos laika periodā no 2004.-2007.gadam. Ir analizēta uzņēmumu struktūra, kā arī uzņēmējdarbības raksturojošie rādītāji Latvijā un reģionos - uzņēmumu skaita dinamika uz 1000 iedzīvotājiem, saražotais iekšzemes kopprodukts (IKP) uz vienu uzņēmumu, iekšzemes kopprodukts uz vienu iedzīvotāju.

Development Trends for the Farms in the West Pomeranian Province

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Abstract

One of the most important social problems in Poland is unemployment. It concerns rural areas especially regions with former state farms. The major aim of this paper is to show the tendency of changes in farm development. The research has been conducted in the years 2006 – 2007. The research covered 650 owners of arable farms (6.5% of farms from the West Pomeranian voivodeship).

Key words: farm development, changes, West Pomeranian.

Introduction

One of the most important social problems in Poland is unemployment. It relates mostly to the rural regions due to too large supply of labour force, particularly in the regions where national farms called PGRs were present many years ago. These regions are also exposed to a risk of country pauperisation that in result may lead to depopulation and marginalisation of social life. The most important aspects of the transformation of the agricultural sector are: bipolar polarisation, natural evolution, strategy of controlled changes, and creation of conditions for extra-agricultural economic activities in rural areas. Each of the mentioned actions influences the occupational structure of the population living in the rural areas.

Aim and research methods

The aim of the research was to evaluate the results of support given to the farmers (financed from public resources), and the directions of changes related to that matter in the development of farms in rural areas.

Taking into account the spatial conditionings of the West Pomeranian province, the particular districts and communes were selected for evaluation. The chosen communes are placed in four of six functional-spatial zones. The selection of communes takes also into account different conditions of farms' functioning in the evaluated area. Moreover, the selected communes have different directions of social and economic development resulting from the strategic policies prepared by local authorities of the districts and communes. A randomly chosen group of farmers was chosen in every commune from those who were able to be competitive on the market after obtaining direct support and making necessary investments. The group contained also a part of social

farms owners. The evaluation included the farmers and their farms (650 farms and their owners).

The mentioned evaluation was performed in June-July 2006.

Results

A problem of modernisation of rural areas and the agriculture is not new. So far a lot of publications have been presented regarding the matter of development strategy (Woś A., 1998, Hunek T., 2000). A lot of attention has also been put to the development of extra-agricultural activities in rural regions. Taking into account the changes occurring in the rural areas of the West Pomeranian district one can constitute that agriculture still plays an important role, and engages large amount of human resources in those areas. However, one cannot equally treat development of the rural areas and development of the agriculture. The directions of development for the country and agriculture are more and more divergent (Kapusta F., 2006). The country is losing its agricultural character, and the agriculture goes far beyond the traditional, anarchic agricultural system which was the base of its development for hundreds of years.

Idea of the multifunctionality of the rural areas and agriculture is a base for implementation of the National Strategic Plan with application of the supporting instruments for the rural areas (years 2007-2013) within the scope of Rural Development Programme (PROW).

The idea assumes reaching the main goal which is economic strengthening of farms and improved competitiveness of the agricultural sector together with providing instruments for differentiation of the economic activities in order to achieve and create alternative sources of income for the population of rural areas. It will lead to creation of conditions for improving life quality by developing services (mainly basic ones)

that are alternative for the current mono-function - food production.

Basing on the above assumptions, during preparation of the research, we stated a need of forecasting the future changes in farms in terms of multifunctional development, and a need of performing the characteristics of the particular groups of farmers and their farms. For that purpose all the farms were divided into four groups:

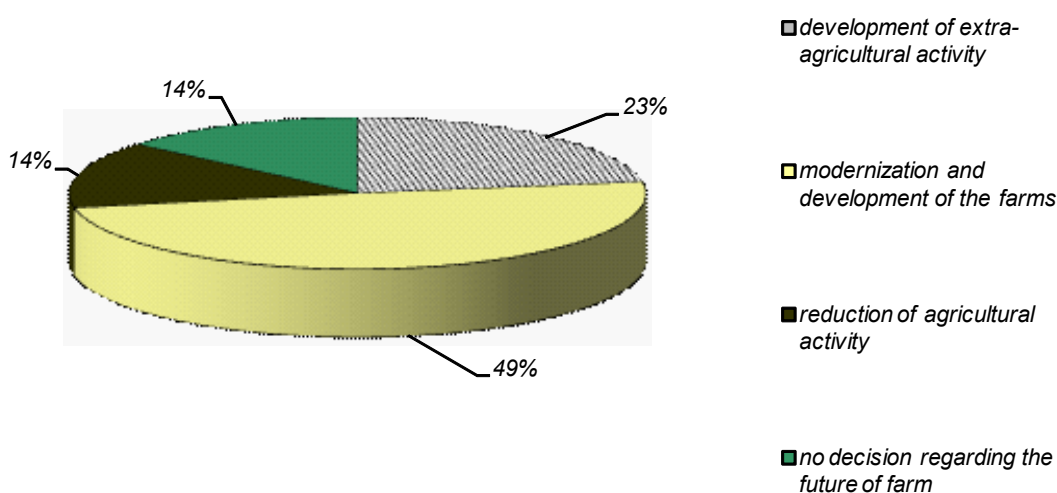
- farms in which agriculture remains dominative and in which the developing activities are going to be taken (the farms with different share of agricultural income in total income are included);
- farms in which the share of agricultural income in total income will decrease due to commencing extra-agricultural activity;
- farms in which the current agricultural activity will be limited without commencing extra-agricultural additional activity;
- farms in which the owners are currently not able to describe the changes in terms of development or limitation of agricultural activity.
- Most of the respondents had precise plans for the future of their farms (Figure 1). It is advantageous that more than 2/3 of the polled farmers are going to commence additional activities either by modernising their farms or commencing extra-agricultural economic activity. In half of the cases the productive function of the farms will remain. The modernisation of the farms is not always connected with increased production scale. In half of the cases of modernised farms the level of agricultural production is going to remain unchanged. Only 14% of the respondents

are going to reduce their agricultural activity, and similar amount of polled do not have precise plans regarding the future of their farms.

Occupational activity in the rural areas is determined by many features - mainly gender, age and education. Taking into account the gender it was not essential if a farm was managed by man or woman. In all groups the amount of women was similar - within a range of 18% and 24%, and was close to the percentage of women in the examined group (21%).

The results showed the dependence between the direction of the planned activities and age of the respondent. More than 90% of people younger than 25 years and 82% of people between 25 and 35 years plan to commence developing activities or develop own economic activity. The amount of young people, i.e., not older than 35 years in the whole number of people modernising their farms and planning commencement of extra-agricultural activity was on the level of 32% and 35% respectively.

Education is the next feature taken into account. It was found that the higher education level, the larger willingness to commence additional activities. 9.6% and 31.27% of total number of polled people have higher and secondary education, respectively. About 90% of people with higher education and 86% of people with secondary education want to commence additional activity. Within this group a similar percentage of the polled want to modernise the farm, i.e., 58% of the respondents in both cases. It is characteristic that the people with higher education are more willing to commence extra-agricultural activity than less-educated people. About a half of the cases of reducing the agricultural activity related



Source: author's research

Figure 1. **Planned activities regarding the improvement of social and occupational situation of the farmers**

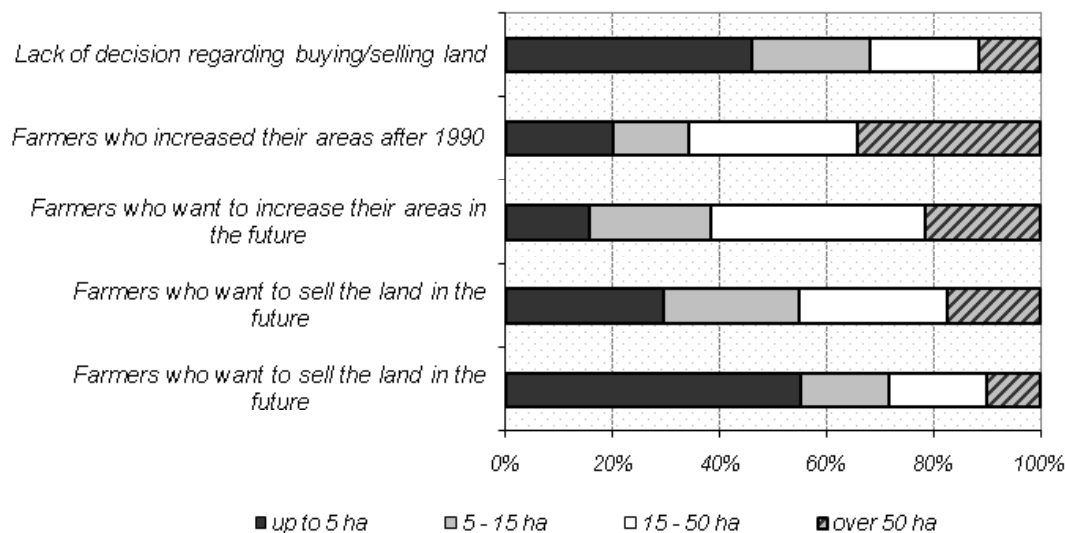
to the people with primary education (completed or not completed). These people were 39% of the total number of polled farmers.

General land inventory performed in 2002 indicates too slow rate of agrarian transformation. Comparing to 1996, the total number of farms in the West Pomeranian province has declined by 2.8%. However, if one takes into account only the farms larger than 1 ha, then the number of farms in the province has increased by 5.3%. Increased number of small farms is a result of significant increase of the farms covering 1–2 ha, which usually are not agriculturally active. Owners of those farms treat them as investment or use them for extra-agricultural activity, including recreation (Strategia rozwoju, 2005). An advantageous agrarian structure can be observed in relatively large amount of large farms covering 15-50 ha (17.3%) and very large farms – more than 50 ha (5.8%), which are able to effectively compete on the market. Basing on the performed research a tendency of increasing the area of farms was found in the group of farms larger than 15 ha (about 60% of farmers). 40% of those were large farms, i.e., 15–50 ha (Figure 2). On the contrary the percentage of the smallest farms which owners want to increase the area has decreased. It can be stated that flow of the agricultural lands is in desired direction. The land is sold mainly in the small farms, i.e., the farms of social character. Increased amount of the smallest farms, resulting from the general land inventory performed in 2002 can result from the purchasing land for investment purposes connected with the predicted increase of the land prices that are still at lower level than in the members of “old” EU.

1/3 of the polled that are not going to sell the real estates treats the agricultural land only as production factor or as provision of capital for the future years.

Taking into account the directions of changes in the farms and their area structure one can state that there is dependence between two variables. Most of the largest farms, i.e., larger than 20 ha, is in the group of modernised farms in which mainly the agriculture is going to be developed (64% of the total number of farms larger than 20 ha). Moreover, these farms are almost a half of the modernised farms (47%, to be precise). One fifth of the farms relates to the cases in which the owner wants to develop extra-agricultural activity. Similarly as in case of the flow of area, it is advantageous that the agricultural production is reduced mainly in the smallest farms. In this group a half of the cases relates to the farms smaller than 2 ha.

Rural areas have much worse socio-economic development capabilities due to the civilisation retardations comparing to the highly-urbanised areas (particularly regarding the access to the social and technical infrastructure), worse possibilities of financing economic activity including agricultural production. Large part of the farms has problems with selling their agricultural products. All of it causes that agriculture more and more often becomes not the only one source of incomes. The evaluated group of farms shows the dependence between directions of development and source of income. The largest percentage of farms in which agriculture is the only one source of income can be found in the group of modernized farms – 67% (Figure 3). The number of these farms in the total amount of examined



Source: author's research

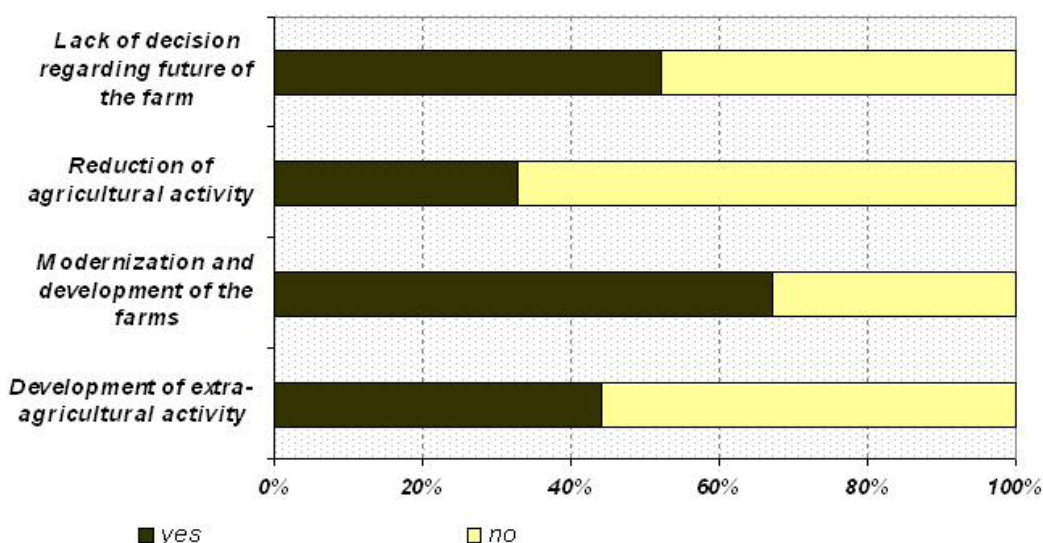
Figure 2. Areas of farms belonging to the farmers who make decisions regarding the change of the farms' areas

units reached 55%. Only 8.6% of the farms that produce only agricultural products want to reduce the agricultural activity in the future. The most often case of planned reduction of agricultural production was when the respondents already had incomes from extra-agricultural activities. In this group the percentage of such people was at the level of about 67%.

In case of developing extra-agricultural activity there is no large differentiation between the farms in which the only source of income is agricultural one and those in which the agriculture is one of many sources of income (44% and 56%, respectively). Taking into account types of the extra-agricultural sources of incomes of the families, one can find a

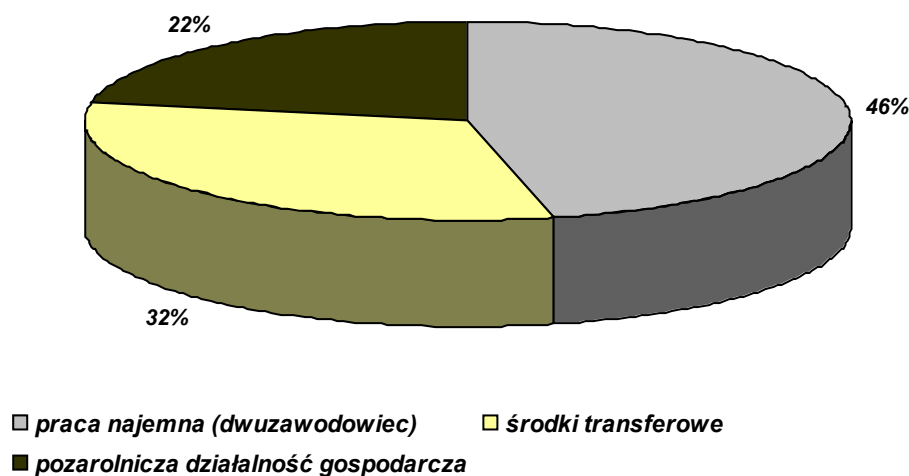
disadvantageous phenomenon when large part of the incomes is the so-called transfer resources (sources of income not coming from work) like annuities, pensions, resources from social welfare and other social benefits (Figure 4). Own economic activity was an additional source of income only in a little bit above one fifth of the cases. Improvement of the structure of extra-agricultural incomes - in case of the people living in rural areas - will be definitely influenced by the implementation of the planned economic enterprises. Therefore supporting this group of farmers seems to be necessary.

In case of the farmers making the living by agricultural activity only, a bit above the half, i.e., 55% declared that in the future the agriculture is



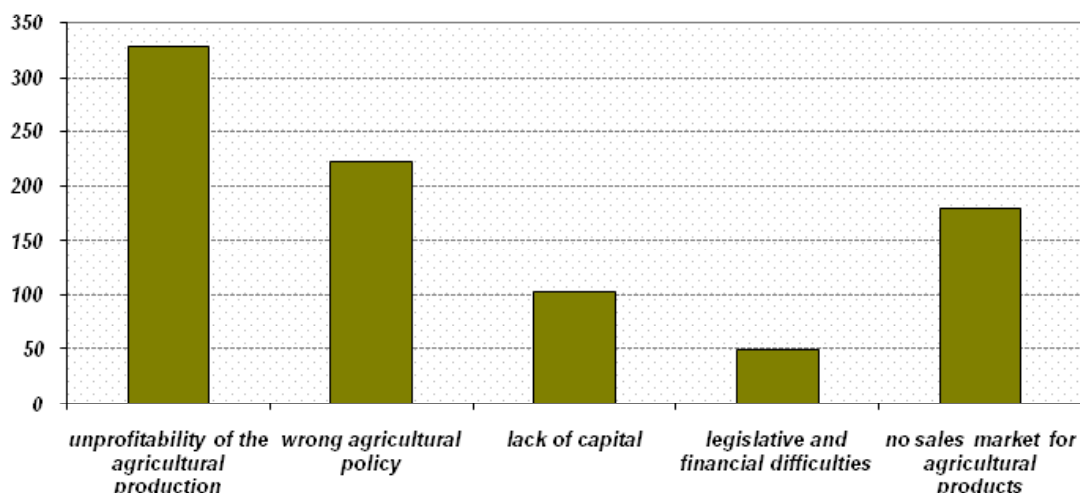
Source: author's research

Figure 3. Direction of changes in the farms and the agriculture as the only one source of income



Source: author's research

Figure 4. Extra-agricultural sources of income in the farms



Source: author's research

Figure 5. **Factors that inhibit farms development**

going to remain their only source of income (30% of all respondents). One has to assume that these people will need support of public funds also in the future that will undoubtedly contribute to improvement of the quality of human resources in the rural areas. About one fifth of the farmers declared during poll that they have decided to diversify the incomes from the farms. Other people have not decided in that matter.

Most of the farmers expressed negative opinions regarding the possibility of conducting productive activity in the agriculture. The poll contained questions regarding the factors that make conducting a farm difficult (Figure 5). The respondents could give more than one answer.

Basing on the research results it was stated that most of the opinions related to the unprofitability of the agricultural production (51%), wrong agricultural policy (34%) and lack of sales market for agricultural products (28%). The farmers much rarely indicated lack of required capital – only 16%. Such percentage seems to be quite small taking into account general capital weakness of the agricultural farms. The more sores, e.g., getting support from public funds for the investments is usually connected with the requirement of having own contribution. Polled farmers indicated also legislative and institutional barriers (8%). Legislative difficulties are connected with formal requirements which have to be met by a beneficiary of SPO and PROW programmes. Financial difficulties usually related to the credit restrictions connected with conducting economic activity.

Conclusions

Concluding, one has to mention that the idea of multifunctional development of the rural areas is not only in the dreams and wishes of the decision-makers and people responsible for forming agricultural policy. The most important conclusions from the performed research can be included in the following issues:

Most of the asked farmers have clear and precise plans for the future. Only 14% of them did not make a decision on taking additional developing activities in the agriculture or on leaving agriculture and developing extra-agricultural activity. The informative activities regarding professional reorientation and possibilities of getting support are recommended in this group. The characteristics of the farms and their owners are similar to the farms which are going to reduce the agricultural activity.

The research results confirmed lower level of education of the inhabitants of rural areas compared with the inhabitants of urbanised regions, thus making the situation of people leaving agriculture quite difficult. It is even more important because leaving agriculture without commencing other activities was declared mostly by the people with the lowest levels of education. Since these people are not going to develop extra-agricultural activity in the future, one can assume that they would be forced to look for employment in other branches thus leading to the necessity of improving qualifications and completing the education.

The performed research indicates keeping the agricultural function of the farms in the future with

simultaneous commencement of additional forms of activity. Almost half of the farmers is going to develop agricultural activity. The level of activity was highly dependent on age, independently of the gender of the respondents. The younger farmer the more often declared will of making changes. The share of the farmers aged 36 years and more was similar in the particular groups. Mostly better educated people have decided to commence extra-agricultural activity.

The research showed high dependence of the structure of the farms' areas and the directions of taken activities. Since the competitive position on the market is connected with the size of a farm – it is assumed that small farms cannot provide sufficient incomes – the activities regarding modernisation of the farms should be accompanied with the increase of areas, mostly in case of small farms (there are almost one fifth of them in this group). Survival or development of the farms was dependent mostly on the possibility of increasing the area of farms (in opinion of the farmers). However, there exist large divergence between the number of farmers who want to sell the land and the number of those who want to buy it. Lack of lands for bringing into cultivation can be a threat due to the physical properties of the real estates, i.e., constant location and local character of the estates' market. Demand exceeding supply is a larger external symptom. A

solution is the privatisation of the lands possessed by the Agricultural Property Agency, although large part of such lands has already been sold, mostly in the most attractive regions. This phenomenon will probably contribute to increasing the price of agricultural lands which are already increasing quite fast after joining the European Union. Reduction of supply of the agricultural lands can inhibit conversion processes in the agriculture and discourage the commencement of any activities among part of the farmers.

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Impact of Rural Support Policy Alternative on Latgale Regional Economy

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Abstract

This paper extends the previous work by applying the territorial financial envelope concept to the Latvian Rural Development Programme (RDP) 2007-2013 and CAP area payments, and radically changing the support priorities. The impacts of such a change in support priorities are evaluated with a bi-regional CGE model. A specially constructed bi-regional Social Accounting Matrix (SAM) that reflects the specific characteristics of Latgale region was used to calibrate the bi-regional CGE model, thus exploring three policy scenarios. The three scenarios, baseline and alternatives, are defined in terms of reallocation of funding among RDP measures. That is, moving funding among RDP three axis and sectors. This represents the most radical kind of reallocation that is possible within the CAP, between Pillar 1 and 2 and within the Axes and Measures of RDP, and it completely removes the sectoral aspect of the support.

The results of the analysis show that the scenario with allocation of RDP and area payment (CAP) financing to public good sectors is more appropriate and has larger and better impact on rural economic and social development of the region.

Key words: Lagging rural areas, bi-regional CGE model, rural development policy, CAP.

Introduction

The challenge of lagging rural regions in Latvia persists and is a growing source of government concern. It is therefore necessary to understand the main policy options available to the government of Latvia, based on the existing funding opportunities. This paper builds on MoA and WB financed projects from 2005 and 2006 that explored regional inequality and government expenditure patterns. It also builds on the “Territorial aspects of enterprise development in remote rural areas” (TERA) project financed under the EU 6th Framework Initiative.

The findings of previous studies (D.Saktiņa and W.H. Meyers, 2005) have shown that RDP implementation did not reduce the polarisation between the rich central and western regions, and the poor eastern rural areas in Latvia. In general, rural development in Latvia remained at a low level. Further research in 2006 on “Territorial aspects and recommendations for the implementation of a differentiated rural support policy to stimulate the development of lagging rural territories in Latvia” (Saktiņa, Meyers and Rabinowicz 2006) provided practical recommendations on the development of the support policy to reach the goals defined for national development policy in Latvia. The study aimed at developing a methodology for regionalising financial

support, developing a support management system and a more professional approach in prioritising support to regions with different development potentials.

The methodology applied in the current study combines methods that have been used for various research projects both in Latvia and worldwide as well as newly developed approaches that have been useful in further developing the methodology, combining both and accommodating them for the specific development situation in Latvia. The overall goal of all research done is to evaluate the opportunities of applying quantitative modelling to policy planning within a single region and test the effects of different development scenarios on urban and rural multi-sectoral economies and households in the region. Previous studies (Saktiņa, Meyers and Rabinowicz, 2006) showed that the region of Latgale was the most disadvantaged in terms of social and economic characteristics. This region was chosen for the purposes of this study to assess the effects of alternative policy strategies using multi-sectoral regional modelling and scenario analysis based on the results and policy recommendations emerging from previous studies.

Over a period of three years, the methodology of factor and cluster analyses have been applied and surveys conducted to obtain a regional SAM based on

regionalised I-O tables and to develop the Computable General Equilibrium (CGE) model for scenario simulation. The analysis in the current study is focused on evaluation of alternative allocation strategies to utilise farm support, and rural development funding and measures in the Latvian RDP.

Presentation of results and discussion

1. Choice of method -modelling framework

Over the last few decades CGE models have become a common tool of empirical economic and policy analysis in both developed and developing countries, and a standard methodology has been developed in particular to formulate, calibrate and solve such models. The CGE model implemented for this study draws especially on one of the standard frameworks made available by IFPRI (Lofgren et al., 2002). Starting with this basic structure, a number of necessary modifications have been made so that the adapted model reflects the specific characteristics of the study region and also the key rural-urban interactions.

1.1 The bi-regional SAM

All CGE models use a SAM to provide the base year values which, in conjunction with other data (e.g., physical quantities, elasticities), are used to calibrate the CGE model. The basic regional SAM structure used for the purposes of this analysis consists of the productive activities of firms, the factors of production (labour and capital) and the household accounts which have been spatially disaggregated into urban and rural regions. Furthermore, households in the SAM table are also distinguished according to a) whether they derive income from agriculture and b) whether they commute, work locally or have some other status (e.g., retiree household or extra-regional commuter). Also the labour factor is disaggregated according to skill levels (skilled and unskilled labour). Only commodities accounts have been kept identical across the whole study region due to extremely demanding requirements in terms of disaggregating the data. Also important in terms of interpreting the figures in the SAM and associated CGE model, is the Rest of the World (RoW) account that covers transactions with both the rest of the national economy and foreign imports/exports.

1.2 The bi-regional CGE model

The CGE model used in the analysis is based upon a standard framework as given by IFPRI (Lofgren et al., 2002) but was modified so as to capture the key rural-urban interdependencies at the regional level. The model is comprised of a set of linear and nonlinear simultaneous equations.

Production Behaviour. Production is based around activities, where each activity is based in either the rural or urban part of the region and produces one or more commodities in fixed proportions per unit of activity those allowing for a multiple output structure. Each producer is assumed to maximise profits which are defined as the difference between revenue earned, and the cost of factors and intermediate inputs. Profits are maximised subject to a production technology. At the top level, the technology is specified by a constant elasticity of substitution (CES) function of the quantities of value-added and aggregate intermediate input. The CES function suggests that available techniques permit the aggregate mix between value-added and intermediate inputs to vary. Value added is itself a CES function of primary factors whereas the aggregate intermediate input is a Leontief function of disaggregated intermediate inputs. At the bottom level each activity uses composite commodities as intermediate inputs, where intermediate demand is determined using fixed Input-Output (I-O) coefficients. Value added is a CES function defined over factors of production which are spatially specific.

Factor payments accrue to the owners of the factors (households) as reflected in the base SAM. The CGE model requires certain assumptions in relation to the way in which supply and demand in factor markets come about. In relation to labour markets, these range from assuming the wage rate to be perfectly flexible (Neoclassical adjustment), to allowing for unemployment (Keynesian adjustment) or segmented factor markets. Analogous assumptions exist for the capital factor in the model.

Commodity Markets. All commodities (either produced within the region or imported), with the exception of home-consumed output, enter markets and activity-specific commodity prices serve to clear the implicit market for each disaggregated commodity. At the first stage regional (domestic) output is produced from the aggregation of output of different activities within the region of a given commodity. At the next stage, the aggregated regional output is split into the quantity of regional output sold domestically and of that exported via a constant elasticity of transformation (CET) function.

Institutions. Institutions in the CGE model are represented by households, government and the rest of the world account. Households (disaggregate according to the SAM table) receive income from the factors of production (in proportions fixed at the base year level), and transfers from other households, the government and the Rest of the World. This income is spent to pay direct income taxes, to consume, save and make transfers to other institutions. Household consumption covers marketed commodities,

purchased at market prices that include commodity taxes and transaction costs, and home commodities, which are valued at activity-specific producer prices.

The second institution is the combined government account (representing both local and central government). Government collects taxes (all taxes are at fixed ad valorem rates) and receives transfers from other institutions. The government uses this income to purchase commodities for its consumption and to make transfers to other institutions (e.g., Households). Its consumption is fixed in real terms whereas government transfers to domestic institutions are CPI-indexed. Government savings (the difference between government income and spending) is a flexible residual.

The final institution is the Rest of the World account. Transfer payments between the rest of the world and domestic institutions and factors are all fixed in foreign currency.

Macroeconomic Balances. The model also includes three macroeconomic balances, which reflect assumptions on how markets operate, that is the government, the external balance and the Savings-Investment balance. The government balance was achieved by allowing government savings to adjust endogenously within the model while direct tax rates were fixed. The external balance was achieved through flexible foreign savings while the real exchange rate was assumed fixed. Finally, for achieving the Savings-Investment balance we used the ‘balance’ Keynesian closure rule that assumes that adjustments in absorption are spread across all of its components (household consumption, investment, and government consumption) and the nominal absorption shares of investment and government consumption are fixed in real terms. Also, the savings rates of selected institutions are scaled so as to generate enough savings to finance investment.

2. Choice of policy scenarios for Latgale

The scenarios that have been selected for the purpose of this analysis are of direct relevance to the Rural Development Programme of 2007-2013

for the rural region of Latgale. A combination of the RDP measures of 2007-2013 has been defined in four scenarios, including the baseline. The analysis of impacts of scenarios can guide the design of more appropriate regional policies that could more suitably address the balanced development of the regional economy. Given the above considerations, the scenarios analysed include:

- 1) Baseline Scenario: **Enhanced financial envelope** for regional RDP measures of 2007-2013 in Latgale and normal area payments support flows under Pillars 1 and 2 of the CAP.
- 2) Scenario 1- **Investment in Axes 1 and 3**: All area payments under CAP and RDP-Axis 2 Less Favoured Area and environmental payments are eliminated and funds are allocated for Rural Development Programme investment measures in Axis 1 and 3 and applied to different sectors. It is divided among the 11 sectors which are not related to the social and financial infrastructure.
- 3) Scenario 2 - **Investment in Axis 3 only**: the same area payments funds are allocated to only Axis 3 measures (non-agriculture and social and economic infrastructure).
- 4) Scenario 3 – **Investment in public sector only**: both the area payments and funds for other investment measures for business development are transferred to public social and economic infrastructure measures with none going to private investment.

The importance of the financial envelope is seen in the comparison of three allocation methods analysed in the 2006 study (Table 1). The allocation method used in the baseline and Scenarios 1 to 3 is the “Development index approach” where Latgale receives 32.6 percent of the investment support (excluding area payments). However, in Scenario 4, the “business as usual” allocation is set to the same shares as actually occurred in the 2004-06 SPD.

3. Presentation of results

In this section, the main results from the four policy scenarios are presented in terms of impacts on

Table 1

Calculated percentage of financial envelope division – three approaches for support regionalisation

Scenarios	Kurzeme	Greater Riga	Zemgale	Vidzeme	Latgale	Total
Development index approach	17	9,3	19	22,1	32,6	100
Weighted factor formula approach	18,8	17,4	18,7	22,8	22,3	100
SPD 2004 – 2006 financial projects for rural development measures	20,9	32,2	19,6	18,4	8,9	100

Source: Saktiņa D. & Meyers W.H. (2006)

macroeconomic indicators (real GDP, employment levels) and sectoral effects (factor income, and distribution of household income and consumption expenditure between different household categories). The effects of the last three Scenarios are measured as deviations from the Baseline scenario, which incorporates not only the funding levels of the 2007-2013 programming period but also the increased financial envelope for Latgale region.

3.1 Impacts on households

Household Income. The impacts of all scenarios on the distribution of income of different household categories are presented in Table 2. In the case of agricultural households, the Baseline has the highest incomes, which is due to the direct transfer of area payments to their budget. In scenarios – “investment in Axes 1 and 3”, “investment in Axis 3 only” and “investment in public sector only”, incomes of agricultural households decline compared to the Baseline, because the area payments are transferred to investment support. However, the increased investment support increases the incomes of all other household categories in both rural and urban households. The “investment in public sector only” scenario, where investment support is entirely for public infrastructure, is the one that has the highest positive impact on the incomes of rural local households and urban households working in rural

areas, while the “investment in Axes 1 and 3” and “investment in Axis 3” scenario result in a slightly lower, but still positive impacts for most household categories. An important finding is that all scenarios result in positive diffusion of impacts towards the income of urban households, while the Baseline scenario increases incomes of agricultural households at the expense of others due to area payments.

Household Expenditure. In terms of household expenditure (Table 3) the Baseline scenario again results in the best outcomes for agricultural households, but expenditures for other rural and all urban households are higher in the other scenarios. Yet expenditures for all households together are higher for Scenarios 1 to 3. Again the tradeoffs between agricultural households and all others are seen in the results. The reduced spending of agricultural households in “investment in Axes 1 and 3”, “investment in Axis 3” and “investment in public sector only” scenario is due to the big loss in their household income when area payments are removed. The interesting fact that emerges is the big increase in the expenditures of urban households that occurs as a result from the direct effect of shifting area payments to investment support. Investment support leads to an increase in the production of urban sectors and consequently more labour is demanded in order to produce more. Since households are the owners of the labour factor this would result

Table 2

Impacts on Household Income (% change from Baseline)

Households	BASELINE (32.6% of RDP investments) LVL 1000	Area payments moved to investment in Axes 1 and 3	Area payments moved to investment in Axis 3 only	Area payments moved to investment in public sector
Rural Households total	252565	-14.64	-14.94	-13.53
Rural households with incomes in rural area	30582	1.20	0.89	2.75
Rural Commuter to the Urban area	33103	0.86	0.60	1.45
Rural Commuter to the rest of country	14267	0.59	0.37	1.30
Agricultural Households	174612	-21.60	-21.91	-20.44
Urban Households total	320190	0.55	0.32	0.58
Urban households with incomes in urban	283895	0.51	0.27	0.45
Urban Commuter to the Rural area	26310	1.06	0.91	2.12
Urban Commuter to the rest of country	9985	0.33	0.19	0.27
Total Households Income	572756	-6.15	-6.41	-5.64

Source: CGE model results for one year support period

in an increase to their income and consequently to their expenditure levels. The “investment in public sector only” scenario again has the largest positive impact on rural non-farm households and on all households in aggregate, though the impacts on urban households do not differ much among Scenarios 1 to 3.

3.2 Macroeconomic Indicators

The employment and GDP impacts indicate how different policy approaches can impact the economic performance of the region.

Employment. The effects of the four alternative Scenarios on skilled and unskilled employment levels for the rural area are shown in Tables 4 and 5. The

Table 3

Impacts on Household Expenditure (% change from Baseline)

Households	BASELINE (32.6% of RDP investments) LVL 1000	Area payments moved to investment in Axes 1 and 3	Area payments moved to investment in Axis 3 only	Area payments moved to investment in public sector
Rural Households total	186473	-12.11	-12.33	-11.00
Rural households with incomes in rural area	23202	3.95	3.74	5.51
Rural Commuter to the Urban area	26201	2.93	2.75	3.51
Rural Commuter to the rest of country	11862	2.16	2.00	2.86
Agricultural Households	125207	-19.59	-19.82	-18.42
Urban Households total	160606	14.91	15.23	14.76
Urban households with incomes in urban	145197	14.98	15.30	14.75
Urban Commuter to the Rural area	10449	16.10	16.55	17.15
Urban Commuter to the rest of country	4959	10.19	10.44	10.01
Total Households Income	347079	0.39	0.42	0.92

Source: CGE model results for one year support period

Table 4

Skilled Employment Effects (% changes from Baseline)

	BASELINE (32.6% of RDP investments) LVL 1000	Area payments moved to investment in Axes 1 and 3	Area payments moved to investment in Axis 3 only	Area payments moved to investment in public sector
Rural Area	31371	1,43	1,46	3,57
Primary	2129	-4,19	-7,95	-6,23
Secondary	6615	3,14	1,83	2,33
Tertiary	22627	1,26	2,12	4,88
Urban Area	42132	0,60	0,40	0,39
Primary	129	0,78	0,39	-0,39
Secondary	12293	0,86	0,74	1,32
Tertiary	29710	0,46	0,21	-0,11
Total	73503	0,92	0,81	1,63

Source: CGE model results for one year support period

different direct effects that shape the aggregate results of the scenarios record different changes in skilled and unskilled employment levels. The “investment in Axes 1 and 3” scenario causes increases in rural skilled and unskilled employment levels compared to the Baseline Scenario. This scenario affects more the employment levels of every sector except Agriculture, Fishing and Transportation, though some differences are small. The largest increases are in the Mining, Wood Manufacturing, Construction, Hotels, Real Estate and Other Services sectors. The percentage changes that are recorded in these sectors are due to the big increase in their production that leads to an excess demand of labour in order to be able to produce more.

The “investment in public sector only” scenario has clearly the best total skilled and unskilled employment impacts but is worse for Agriculture, Fishing, all Manufacturing, Trade and Hotels employment. The higher impacts in total employment are due to the high positive impacts in the employment of the Electricity, Transportation, Construction, Health and Other Services, which result from the focus on public infrastructure investment. These sectors are also labour intensive and, consequently, in order to produce more they demand more workers. As for the effects that constitute this scenario, investments linked to production draw final results in all sectors. Only the Construction sector increases its employment levels mainly due to investments in commodities.

Real Gross Domestic Product (GDP) at Factor Cost. The scenario-specific impacts on rural and urban real GDP at factor cost from the implementation of the four alternative policy scenarios are presented

in Table 6. Focusing on the impacts caused by the four direct mechanisms that comprise the Baseline scenario we can draw some conclusions. The area payment that is directed to the household income budget has the ability to increase (decrease) only the GDP of the Agricultural and the Fishing sectors of the rural economy. In the remaining sectors the effects are negative (positive). When these area payments are shifted to investment programmes in the “investment in Axes 1 and 3”, “investment in Axis 3 only” and “investment in public sector only” scenario, this creates a loss in Agricultural and Fishing GDP. This shows that the agricultural sector is important in the formation of the rural GDP, since its decrease causes lower positive percentage changes in the rural total GDP compared to the Baseline scenario. In general, investments linked to production are the ones that dominate the aggregate rural effects of the “investment in Axes 1 and 3” scenario.

Focusing into the sectoral decomposition, it seems that each scenario is resulting different GDP effects. The implementation of the Baseline results in the highest positive GDP impacts in the rural primary sector, an effect mainly attributable to the direct effect of its capital. The remaining three scenarios seem to be able to generate higher percentage changes for rural secondary and tertiary sectors which are attributable to the effects of investments generated by the Manufacturing, Construction and Trade sectors when area payments are converted to investment support. This indicates that these sectors have high linkages in the rural economy and have the ability to generate the highest positive effects. Also, these three scenarios seem to diffuse the higher positive GDP

Table 5

Unskilled Employment Effects (% changes from Baseline)

	BASELINE (32.6% of RDP investments) LVL 1000	Area payments moved to investment in Axes 1 and 3	Area payments moved to investment in Axis 3 only	Area payments moved to investment in public sector
Rural Area	10024	1,36	1,03	3,13
Primary	567	-4,19	-7,98	-6,23
Secondary	2893	3,07	0,43	-0,64
Tertiary	6564	0,97	2,09	5,82
Urban Area	12938	0,44	0,27	0,33
Primary	0	0	0	0
Secondary	5358	0,05	0,17	0,91
Tertiary	7580	0,71	0,34	-0,06
Total	22926	0,79	0,56	1,39

Source: CGE model results for one year support period

Table 6

Aggregate Impacts on Real GDP at Factor Cost (% changes from Baseline)

	BASELINE (32.6% of RDP investments) LVL 1000	Area payments moved to investment in Axes 1 and 3	Area payments moved to investment in Axis 3 only	Area payments moved to investment in public sector
Rural Area	209456	-0.21	-0.36	0.81
Primary	35193	-6.43	-7.88	-7.09
Secondary	51231	1.83	0.84	0.87
Tertiary	123031	0.72	1.28	3.05
Urban Area	318646	0.31	0.20	0.20
Primary	716	0.31	0.16	-0.15
Secondary	109932	0.37	0.34	0.70
Tertiary	207998	0.28	0.13	-0.06
Total	528102	0.10	-0.02	0.44

Source: CGE model results for one year support period

effect towards the urban area, even if these effects are small. This is attributable to the high linkages that the Manufacturing, Construction and Trade sectors of the rural economy have with the urban sectors. The highest rural Secondary sector impact is in the “investment in Axes 1 and 3” scenario, while the highest Tertiary and Total impacts are in the “investment in public sector only” scenario, the only one where Secondary and Tertiary sectors gain enough to make the total rural GDP higher than the Baseline. The total GDP gain is also highest in the “investment in public sector only” scenario.

Conclusions

This analysis has focused on the description of the magnitude and the distribution of effects that result from the implementation of two alternative policy scenarios for Latgale region. The results show that each scenario is predicting different qualitative and quantitative impacts in total and also in sectoral effects as well as differences in the distribution of effects between its rural and urban parts.

The comparative analysis of the scenario results show that in terms of GDP, the “investment in public sector only” scenario is the one that leads to the largest increase in the total GDP of the rural area while the “investment in Axes 1 and 3” scenario has the highest total positive effects for the urban area. Focusing on the aggregate sectoral effects it seems that these two scenarios are again the most effective for the rural and urban areas. The “investment in public sector only” scenario increases more the GDP of the rural tertiary and urban secondary sector, while

the “investment in Axes 1 and 3” scenario has the ability to have a greater positive impact on the GDP of the rural secondary, urban primary and tertiary sectors. As for the rural primary sector, results show that the Baseline scenario is the one that provides the highest positive effects. The impacts in employment levels have the same distribution of effects as in GDP terms. The results show that again the “investment in public sector only” is the one that leads to stronger total positive effects in the rural part of the region while the “investment in Axes 1 and 3”, scenario is the “best” for the total urban employment. As for the sectors that increase more their employment levels from the performance of the four scenarios they are the same as in the case of GDP. Concentrating on the effects in the income and expenditure of the different household categories, results show that the Baseline scenario has the ability to increase more the income (due to area payments) and the expenditures of agricultural households. In contrast the “investment in Axes 1 and 3”, and “investment in public sector only” scenarios are most effective for the income and the “investment in public sector only” scenario for the expenditure of urban households.

In overall, the results suggest that the “investment in public sector only” scenario is the one that leads to the strongest positive effects in the rural part of the region especially for GDP, employment levels and domestic activity. Also, this scenario is generating the highest positive impacts in domestic production and consumption levels and in imports. These results are mainly attributable to the positive effects that are recorded in the tertiary sector and also in the positive effects that are recorded in the tertiary and secondary

commodities. As for the aggregate effects of the “investment in public sector only” scenario they seem to be driven by investments linked to production. In contrast, the “investment in Axes 1 and 3” scenario is the one that causes the highest positive impacts for the urban area. It seems that this scenario has the ability to diffuse the highest impacts towards the urban area in terms of GDP, employment levels, exports and household income. The Baseline scenario is the one that affects more the primary sector in both areas. These results are mainly attributable to the direct effect of area payments that are transferred to the income of agricultural households and increase in the capital of the agricultural sector.

Recommendations

Given the reforms recently proposed in the Health Check process, it seems clear that the future of CAP reform will see more financial resources being transferred from farm income support measures to rural development measures. This may be through increased mandatory modulation, voluntary modulation, or outright budgetary shifts. The motivation for this study was to explore the potential impacts of such a change in programme design and funding, especially on a lagging region. Given such a change in policy direction, we also wished to explore the differences in investment priorities that could be implemented. These included increasing the financial resources for a particular lagging region, shifting funding within the region from farm support to investment in all or a subset of measures in Pillar 2.

The actual scenarios that were evaluated were deliberately extreme in the sense that comparisons were made between policy alternatives that may not be realistic in practice. For example, reallocating all area payments to investment programmes or using all investment financing for public infrastructure investments is very unlikely to be realized in reality. But the impact analyses that were conducted still indicate the directions of change in outcomes that are likely to occur even from smaller shifts in programme design or funding. With these caveats in mind, the following guidance can be drawn from the analysis:

This analysis would be more valuable if it could be extended to all 5 regions of Latvia. The CGE modelling used for this impact assessment has proven to be an effective analytical tool for evaluation of alternative rural development policies. It is limited by the fact that it was only possible to do the analysis in one of Latvia’s regions. So, for example, when the financial envelope for Latgale was reduced, the decline in Latgale’s economic activity and performance is clearly seen, but the increase in the performance and well being of other regions cannot be adequately

measured. A national analysis of the same or other policy alternatives requires a replication of this modelling and assessment in all regions together.

Regional modelling and analysis covering all 5 regions of Latvia is recommended both for planning of strategy and projecting likely results of alternative policy implementation and for evaluation of results at the Mid-term review and the conclusion of the programming period. Having such an assessment tool would make it possible to conduct a much more quantitative evaluation before, during and after the RDP implementation. The regional modelling tool would assist government and regional authorities in finding the most promising synergies they can exploit in developing their regions, given the particular territorial characteristics and the development resources available from various public and private entities.

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Kopsavilkums

Publikācijā tiek aprakstīti pētījumu rezultāti, kas tapuši turpinot tālāko pētniecisko darbu pie teritoriāli diferencētas atbalsta politikas koncepcijas ieviešanas un atbalsta prioritāšu izmaiņām Latvijas Lauku attīstības Programmas un KLP maksājumu īstenošanā. Atbalsta prioritāšu izmaiņu ietekme tiek vērtēta ar bi-reģionālo CGE modeli. Šim nolūkam tika veidota bi-reģionāla Social Accounting Matrix (SAM), kas atspoguļo Latgales reģiona ekonomikas raksturojumu. Tālāk šī matrica tika izmantota bi-reģionālā CGE modeļa kalibrēšanā un trīs dažādu politikas scenāriju vērtēšanā. Scenāriji ietvēra pamatscenāriju un 3 alternatīvos scenārijus LAP pasākumu finansējuma pārdalīšanā starp LAP atbalsta asīm un atbalstītajām nozarēm. Scenāriji ietvēra visradikālākās finansējuma pārdales variācijas starp 1 un 2 Pīlāru, LAP asīm un pasākumiem. Analīzes rezultāti rāda, ka scenārijs ar LAP un KLP maksājumu budžeta novirzīšanu sabiedriskā sektora attīstībai/investīcijām tajā, ir vispiemērotākais un ar vislielāko pozitīvāko ietekmi uz Latgales reģiona lauku sociālo un ekonomisko attīstību.

Documentary Evolution and Transformation of Business Partnerships in Latvia

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Abstract

The paper contains research results on the formation of contractual relations and their development to promote cooperation among companies (businessmen) at national and international levels. The paper focuses on the analysis of the evolution – changeability or stability – of basic principles for establishment and functioning of various type partnerships, assessing the economic nature and significance of their functions or transformations.

It was ascertained that over the analysed period of 70 years, the types of business partnerships have changed several times in Latvia and other European countries, but their economic and legal nature have remained.

New essential opportunities were brought by European economic interest groupings as a form of cooperation among enterprises in Latvia, promoting the international integration of businessmen of the European Union in order to increase competitiveness on global markets.

Specific economic interest groupings are set up and function in international investment flows for promoting real cooperation and integration.

Key words: agreements, enterprises, cooperation, investments, economic interests

Urgency of the topic

The evolution of corporative, regional, and international mobility of financial capital as well as choice possibilities for mobility and dislocation of intellectual nonmaterial resources, in connection with other globalisation processes and instruments, activate the current and create new forms of cooperation among enterprises.

Theoretically, many forms or various types of cooperation are possible, but they are based on certain contractual relations.

Certain features of this evolution, conversion or transformation are revealed when compiling and provisionally assessing the foundation or performance goals of business partnerships defined or viewed by the laws related to business partnerships or partnership agreements and passed during the 70-year period in Latvia. The directions, intensity, consequences or liability of these changes are scientifically interesting, and might be economically significant topics of research in management, administration, entrepreneurship, or other aspects.

The legal framework providing the emergence and functioning of such research objects is comprised of several laws, including the Civil Law of the Republic of Latvia of 1937, the laws “On Entrepreneurship” and “On Business Partnerships” passed after the restoration of independence, and the Commercial Law of the Republic of Latvia passed afterwards. Over

the past years when Latvia became a member of the European Union, the set of documents was enlarged by the European Council Regulation No. 2137/185 “On European Economic Interest Groupings” and the Law on European Economic Interest Groupings. A preliminary comparative analysis of these documents revealed a new paradigm within the context of the European Union’s four freedoms – free movement of goods, free movement of capital and circulation of payments, free mobility of employees and choice of residence. The urgency of our research topic is overwhelmingly characterised by cooperation among enterprises, their integration, and harmonisation of their activities as well as informal or formal cooperation in direct relation to mobility opportunities for individuals, information, goods, and capital. Besides, the possibilities, expediency, or eventual implications of using various new forms of business partnerships can be evaluated in several aspects.

It can be researched from the aspect of efficient cooperation among some industry’s enterprises, the aspect of an effect caused by international communication, the aspect of economic productivity, the aspect of promoting technical and technological processes, and other aspects.

The forms of cooperation among enterprises and businessmen on the European Union scale (groupings, business partnerships etc.), which are legally put in order and economically promoted, can create new

effective impulses and stimuli for scientific and technological progress as well.

The mentioned considerations for the research urgency define also the **hypothesis**: over the analysed 70-year period, the names of business partnerships have changed several times in Latvia and in other European countries, yet their economic and legal nature have remained, but European economic interest groupings as a form of cooperation create new opportunities for international integration among businessmen (enterprises) of the European Union countries and for increasing competitiveness in global aspects.

The **aim of the research** is to analyse the evolution, changeability or stability of basic principles for establishment and functioning of various type partnerships, and to assess the economic nature and significance of their fluctuations or transformations.

Several **tasks** have been set forth to achieve the research aim.

- A comparative analysis of the principles for establishment and functioning of companies defined in the Civil Law of the Republic of Latvia, the law “On Business Partnerships”, and the Commercial Law
- The assessment of the economic harmony of business partnerships’ goals defined in the above mentioned laws.
- The analysis of the theoretical background and economic concept of European economic interest groupings within the context with business partnerships defined by the Latvian laws.
- The assessment of the existence of economic differences in the definitions for the goals and functioning principles of business partnerships in the Civil Law, the Commercial Law, the law “On Business Partnerships”, and the EC Regulation No. 2137/85 on EEIGs.

Researched methods used for performing the research tasks.

The analysis and deductive methods were used for identifying differences or compatibilities in the laws studied in the research.

The inductive and synthesis methods were used for revealing and defining differences or relationships.

In all the four documents, a PEST analysis was carried out for the definitions of goals.

Several groups of **materials** were used to execute the research tasks.

Paragraphs 2241-2280 of Chapter 16 of the Civil Law of the Republic of Latvia, the Latvian laws “On Entrepreneurship”, and “On Business Partnerships”, as well as Paragraphs 77-133 of Chapters 9 and 10 of the Commercial Law were used to research the legal framework.

The EC Regulation No. 2137/85 on European economic interest groupings was used as international document.

The following statistical sources were used: the Register of Enterprises, Republic of Latvian, Eurostat, the Central Statistical Bureau as well as special literature.

Results and Discussion

1. Forms of entrepreneurial activity

A summary of the forms of entrepreneurial activity developed on the basis of above-mentioned laws is arranged in Figure 1.

The name of any cooperation form, founded on the basis of an agreement, originated in a special law or in a special chapter of a general law.

The business entity – partnership agreement – is defined in the Civil Law of the Republic of Latvia of 1937. It was passed by President and Prime Minister Kārlis Ulmanis.

Business partnerships of two types – full liability partnership and limited partnership – emerged right after the restoration of independence in 1991.

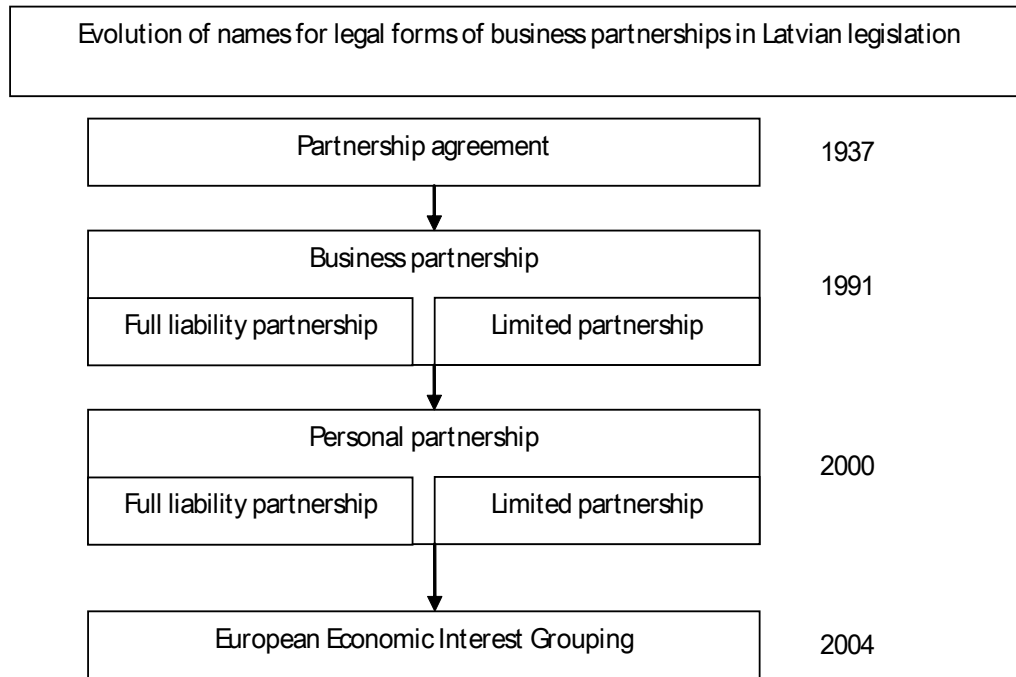
By transforming and interpreting the form “partnership agreement” set by the Civil Law, 10 years later – in the year 2000 – personal partnerships of two types - full liability partnership and limited partnership – emerged with passing the Commercial Law. After Latvia joined the European Union, new business form emerged – European economic interest grouping.

The Civil Law (Paragraph 2241) defines a partnership agreement as an association of two or more persons based on a partnership contract for the attaining a common goal through united efforts or resources.

The definition is added by a comment that the provisions of the Law apply to all forms of partnerships (which are established and function by contract).

According to the latest laws or from the point of view of nowadays, the first part of Paragraph 2243 of the Civil Law is interesting: “each member of a partnership shall participate in a partnership with his or her contribution. Money, property, claims *or work* may be contributed. Besides, there is a specific provision for those partners contributing only their work. It is defined in the second part of Paragraph 2247” “A contract may provide however, that a member who participates in the partnership for the acquisition of a common goal, only with individual work, shall share in profit, but not losses”.

The law “On Entrepreneurship” as one of the first laws of the Republic of Latvia was passed on October



Source: laws of the Republic of Latvia

Figure 1. **Forms of entrepreneurial activity referred to in business agreements in Latvia between 1937 and 2008**

18, 1990 with the restoration of independence in Latvia and of market economy. Paragraphs 18-20 of the law stated the status and definitions of business partnerships: “A business partnership is an association of entrepreneurs (enterprises) which is created by the agreement of its founders (entrepreneurs). Partners of a business partnership, according to the agreement, invest their property in the business partnership”. So, investing personal labour is not provided for or allowed by this (1990) Law. However, it provides for two forms of business partnerships:

- 1.) full liability partnership;
- 2.) limited partnership.

There is a difference in the status of partners: those partners who have invested real property that can be evaluated take full responsibility and gain the status of complementary partner, but those who have paid only participation fees, gain the status of limited partner being responsible for the partnership’s liabilities only to the extent of their fees.

After Latvia regained its independence, the Supreme Council (Parliament) passed the law “On the Register of Enterprises of the Republic of Latvia” in 1990 as the first law in the set of laws on companies. In this law, the term “business partnership” appears in the registration provisions for each form of entrepreneurial activity.

The special law of the Republic of Latvia “On Business Partnerships” was passed on 5 February,

1991 and published in the newspaper “Ziņotājs” (Reporter) in Issue 11/12, 1991.

It defines a business partnership as “a company that is created by the agreement of its partners”. The partners could be both individuals and/or legal entities.

The goal of creating business partnerships is indirectly defined in Paragraph 1 of the law: “a business partnership is created by two or more individuals or legal entities which, according to the agreement made, invest real property or personal labour in the common enterprise for the purpose of doing business”.

The law yet provides for that the particular form and goal of entrepreneurial activity is stipulated in the foundation agreement.

The third part of the same paragraph states that a business partnership is not a legal entity. It implies that business partnerships are not allowed to make economic transactions in their name and be independently responsible for real property. Such functions are performed by a complementary partner of the business partnership.

The definition of limited partnership is even more complex: “A limited partnership is a personal partnership, the goal of which is to do business by using a common firm in which two or more persons (partners) are associated by the partnership agreement, provided that the responsibility of at least

one partner (limited partner) toward the partnership's creditors is limited to the extent of his/her investment, but the personal responsibility of other partners (complementary partners) is not limited".

The third part of Paragraph 124 of the law states the main difference in a limited partner's rights and obligations: "A limited partner suffers losses only to the extent of his/her share of capital and his/her future investment". For comparison – the general procedure for distributing profits and losses is stipulated in the second part of Paragraph 88: "profits and losses of a partnership (full liability partnership) are proportionally distributed among the partners according to their investment (share of capital) in the partnership".

The second difference in the status of limited partner (Paragraph 126) is that he/she "has no rights to represent the partnership dealing with third persons", and the third difference (Paragraph 127) – "a limited partner takes responsibility towards creditors to the extent of his/her investment".

According to the law "On Business Partnerships" of the Republic of Latvia partnerships are founded and function for ten years. Substantial transformations began in the year 2000 when the Commercial Law was passed. In this law, business partnerships were renamed in personal partnerships, subdividing them in full liability partnerships and limited partnerships.

The Commercial Law (Paragraph 77) defines a full liability partnership in a very confusing way as "a personal partnership, the goal of which is to do business by using a common firm in which two or more persons (partners) are associated by the partnership agreement, without limiting their responsibility towards the full liability partnership's creditors".

The second part of the same paragraph (77) contains a comment that "the provisions of the Commercial Law on the partnership agreement apply to a full liability partnership unless stated otherwise in this chapter".

After that, another structure founded on contractual relations – European economic interest grouping (EEIG) – emerged. It was based on and functioned according to the European Council Regulation No. 2137/85 "On European Economic Interest Groupings" passed on July 25, 1985. It says that this form of entrepreneurial activity has gained a 20-year experience in the oldest European Union member countries, while in Latvia it was formally legalised in 2004 when the law on European economic interest groupings was passed.

The law defines these groupings the same way as in the European Council Regulation No. 2137/85. Paragraph 1 states that persons willing to establish a grouping shall make an agreement

and register according to a certain procedure. A grouping established in this way gains abilities to take any liabilities, gets rights to conclude contracts or sign other legal documents, and be a plaintiff and defendant in a law court in its name.

However, the goal of establishing such groupings is defined in Paragraph 3 of the same Regulation. "A grouping's goal is to facilitate or expand its partners' economic activity and to improve or increase the results of this activity: its goal is not to earn profit".

2. Foundation of new business partnerships

When studying groupings of enterprises and companies founded in the form of personal partnership, their relations with general macroeconomic processes are partially revealed.

First, these partnerships are being founded more often over the recent months. For instance, the information on new nine full liability partnerships was published in the newspaper *Latvijas Vēstnesis* (Latvian Reporter) in September, 2008. This activity could be related to the efforts of several entrepreneurs to strengthen output capacities, using the advantages of economic concentration for more rational business management and for substantially increasing overall competitiveness.

The second characteristic feature of personal partnerships is that construction enterprises – builders of housing, bridges, and roads – unite into groupings more intensively.

The third feature is that only legal entities unite into groupings in the form of company.

The fourth feature – partners in a full liability partnership are mostly limited liability companies, but often two forms are united – a joint stock company and a limited liability company.

The fifth feature – foundation of full liability partnerships goes beyond a national economy, and, for instance, Estonian and Latvian companies unite.

The progress towards international cooperation is characterised by registered changes of owners and managers. For instance, as of August 29, 2008 Latvian, Estonian, and Lithuanian citizens are members of the Board at "Agro TRADE Latvia" Ltd.

3. Groupings of enterprises (entrepreneurs)

The statistical information (from the Register of Enterprises) published in the newspaper *Dienas bizness* (on January 31, 2008) on the largest 3000 enterprises in the Baltic countries was used for analysing the formation of enterprise (entrepreneur) groupings and the quantitative indicators of their performance.

Among the largest enterprises, there were 45 companies (mostly joint stock companies), the name

Forms of business partnerships

Partnership agreement (1937)

A partnership is an association of two or more persons created on the basis of a partnership agreement for achieving a common goal by common efforts and resources

Business partnership (1991)

A business partnership is created by two or more persons or legal entities which, according to the agreement made invest their property or labour in the common enterprise for doing business

Full liability partnership in the form of personal partnership (2000)

A full liability partnership is a personal partnership, the goal of which is to do business by using a common firm

Limited partnership in the form of personal partnership (2000)

A limited partnership is a personal partnership, the goal of which is to do business by using a common firm

European Economic Interest Grouping (2007)

The goal of a grouping is to facilitate or expand the economic activity of its partners

Source: laws of the Republic of Latvia

Figure 2. Analysis of comparing the goals of business entities created by agreement

of which included the word “group”. But attitudes to the formation of entrepreneur groupings are very different in the analysed countries: an absolute majority of groupings (78%) operate in Lithuania, nine groupings (20%) in Estonia, and only one in Latvia. It motivates to do an extensive analysis and to determine the impact of formation of groupings on the size of enterprises or output capacity.

The breakdown of the 200 largest enterprises by country was analysed for this purpose.

Another and different relationship was identified – the majority of large enterprises are located in Estonia (36.7%), slightly less in Lithuania (34.3%), but the fewest – in Latvia.

One can conclude from this analysis that the capacity of enterprises (turnover) is impacted by other factors, yet in Latvia these facts coincide: the fewest groupings and the fewest large enterprises.

The breakdown of enterprise groupings by industry and by type of economic activity was analysed further. It was revealed that enterprise groupings emerged

mostly in commerce where 45% of the analysed 300 enterprises are operating.

The second largest part of enterprise groupings or 27% is engaged in processing, but the third – in construction (15%). Other groupings are engaged in the sector of services, energy supply, and other industries.

By additionally analysing the list of fast growing enterprises and companies, it was ascertained that there are few enterprise groupings in it – only 4%. This phenomenon might have two causes:

- 1) stable enterprises with an even pace of development operate in groupings;
- 2) lack of sustainability for part of enterprises which vanish after short and extensive breakthroughs.

4. Groupings of enterprises with foreign capital

A lot of enterprises which are founded with foreign capital involvement operate in Latvia. The interests of foreign businessmen in Latvian

Table 1

Proportion of businessmen (companies) with foreign capital involvement in the total number of businessmen in Latvian regions in 2004-2006

Latvian statistical regions	Proportion of companies with foreign capital involvement, %	
	2004	2006
Riga region	12.7	12.2
Pieriga region	5.6	6.2
Kurzeme region	5.7	5.7
Zemgale region	4.2	3.6
Vidzeme region	3.2	2.9
Latgale region	2.7	2.5

Source: authors' calculations according to data of the CSB and the Register of Enterprises

Table 2

Proportion of companies with foreign capital involvement in Latvian cities and regions

Latvian planning regions and cities of national importance	Proportion, %	
	2004	2006
Riga	79.3	78.3
Jūrmala	1.7	1.7
Pierīga region	7.9	8.6
Liepāja	1.9	2.1
Venstpils	1.5	1.3
Kurzeme region	5.6	6.0
Jelgava	1.0	1.0
Zemgale region	3.0	2.7
Daugavpils	1.4	1.3
Rēzekne	0.3	0.1
Latgale region	1.9	2.1
Vidzeme region	2.3	2.3

Source: authors' calculations according to the CSB data

regions are characterised by estimates arranged in Table 1.

One can conclude from the estimates included in Table 1 that foreign businessmen are more interested in industrial regions – Riga, Pierīga, and the seaports of Kurzeme.

It is an interesting process that foreigners from the city of Riga move to the territories of Pierīga – it is supported by the fact that the proportion of enterprises with foreign capital involvement decrease in Riga, but an increase is observed in Pierīga region.

The co-activity of foreigners is much smaller in the agricultural region of Zemgale, and very small co-activity is observed in Vidzeme and Latgale, although industry is quite developed in Valmiera, Daugavpils, and Rēzekne.

Proportions of companies with foreign capital involvement are very dissimilar (Table 2).

As we can see in Table 2, almost four fifth of the companies having Latvian and foreign capital are located in Riga (78-79%), but if Jūrmala and Pierīga region are included, they account for 89%.

In Kurzeme region, joint companies operate not only in the industrial and port towns of Ventspils and Liepāja, but also in the region's territory, establishing industrial enterprises also in primary production.

Foreign businessmen are not interested in the city of Jelgava as they prefer the rest of the territory. In Latgale the situation is different – the majority of them have chosen the town of Daugavpils.

Conclusions

1. In the interest of entrepreneurship, the forms of business partnerships are used in Latvia for many years. The legal names for these partnerships have changed, but after the Commercial Law was passed (in 2000), they are called personal partnerships which have two types: full liability partnerships and limited partnerships.
2. After Latvia joined the European Union, a possibility emerged for the establishment and operation of European economic interest groupings which also have a legal and economic basis for contractual relations.
3. New business partnerships are more often founded in heavy industries in Latvia over the recent period. Such business activities could be explained by entrepreneurs' desires for using the effect of economic concentration in a more rational and extensive way to strengthen economic efficiency and competitiveness.
4. The possibility for establishing European economic interest groupings in Latvia is reluctantly used, but groupings of entrepreneurs (enterprises, companies) operate in the forms of capital partnerships. The possibilities and advantages of groupings in the Baltic countries are most actively used in Lithuania and Estonia, most often in commerce and processing industries.
5. Groupings with foreign capital involvement most actively emerge and function in Riga, Pierīga, and Kurzeme.

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Kopsavilkums

Rakstā sakāroti pētījumu rezultāti par līgumattiecību veidošanos un to attīstību uzņēmumu un uzņēmējdarbības (komersantu) sadarbības veicināšanai nacionālā un starpnacionālā (internacionālā) līmenī. Analizēta dažāda veida līgumsabiedrību dibināšanas un darbības pamatprincipu attīstība – mainība vai stabilitāte, izvērtējot to fluktuāciju vai transformāciju ekonomisko saturu un saimniecisko nozīmi.

Noskaidrots, ka Latvijā un citās Eiropas valstīs analizētajā 70 gadu periodā uzņēmumu līgumsabiedrību veidi ir vairākkārt mainījušies, bet to ekonomiskā un tiesiskā būtība saglabājusies.

Jaunas būtiskas iespējas ienesa Eiropas Ekonomisko interešu grupas kā uzņēmumu sadarbības formas aktualizēšana Latvijā, veicinot Eiropas Savienības valstu uzņēmēju (komersantu) starpvalstisku integrāciju kā konkurētspējas paaugstināšanu globālajos tirgos.

Savdabīgas ekonomisko interešu grupas reālas sadarbības un integrācijas veicināšanai veidojas un darbojas investīciju starptautiskās plūsmās.

Atslēgas vārdi: līgumi, uzņēmumi, sadarbība, investīcijas, ekonomiskās intereses

Optimising the Use of Territorial Development Measures: Case Study for Lithuania

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Abstract

Our previous study, conducted with the technical assistance of the World Bank (2007) diagnosed characteristics of the lagging territories in Lithuania and found that there were significant territorial differences in the country that were not widely reflected in previous rural development programming documents. This was the case, even though the logic of territorial development is that conditions in different places require different combinations of measures and actions. Studies of the CAP by ESPON (2006) conclude that most CAP measures are non-territorial, with the exception of LEADER which was hailed as one of the more efficient and effective mechanisms under the CAP for addressing territorial development. Thus the focus of this study is on Axis 3 Measures and LEADER.

This study was undertaken to analyse the measures programmed and expenditure planned under Axis 3 of the Lithuanian RDP. These measures are assessed in relation to the Government of Lithuania's set goal of more balanced territorial development in the National Rural Development Strategy 2007-2013 and Rural Development Plan for Lithuania 2007-2013. Then we compare Lithuania's Axis 3 measures to those programmed by a selection of other countries in the EU. Finally, we draw lessons from other countries that may be applicable to Lithuania in the future, and suggest how these lessons can be applied in order to enhance balanced territorial development. We make recommendations for the Lithuanian RDP in terms of measures selected, implementation means and approaches to targeting.

Keywords: rural development, lagging areas, CAP Pillar II, territorial development.

Introduction

According to the neoclassical economic growth theory, it is debatable whether a government should intervene in economic and social development of regions at all, or leave everything to market mechanisms. The latter approach leads, according to this economic theory, to the equalisation of all disparities. This development theory, however, does not explain the persistent disparities in growth and development observed in the real world. More recent developments in endogenous growth theory and the new economic geography (Krugman, 1995) provide a better foundation for understanding such disparities, and the importance of location in assessing causes and remedies for such disparities.

Problem territories are regions with severe economic and social problems, a low standard of living and often a polluted environment (Ku ar, 2006). Contemporary regional policy is based not only on the promotion of inward investments into the region and on the development of small and medium enterprises, but also on the promotion of endogenous development, that is, on potentials that are coming from a region itself. If endogenous factors were

poorly developed, then central governments with their special instruments should help to activate them (Ku ar, 2006).

A democratic government is obliged to care for the weakest in its territory, because it is obliged to ensure a minimum welfare for all citizens. The state can otherwise face severe economic, political and social consequences. Problem regions and problem sub-regions as an instrument of regional policy are therefore still inevitable (Ku ar, 2006). So when a territory or social group lags too far behind, the government ends up spending more on social safety net programmes for these persons or regions.

The territorial development concept suggests that the blanket application of national policies may not be equally suited to very different contexts. Accordingly, the planning and management of territorial development programmes is best devolved as much as possible to people most familiar with local conditions, such as the Local Action Groups (LAGs) established as delivery mechanisms for the EU funded LEADER programme.

The study conducted in 2007 provided guidance on diagnostic indicators that were used to capture

territorial differences in social and economic well being in Lithuania, and on how these indicators might inform decision making on the allocation of rural and regional development funds (Ribašauskienė, Kairytė, and Meyers, 2007a; Ribašauskienė, Kairytė and Meyers, 2007b; Kairytė and Meyers, 2009). In the previous programming period there was little spatial targeting of the EU supported measures for rural and regional development in Lithuania and with the exception of less favourable areas, funding has been concentrated in the more economically advantaged areas. The study found that the productive investment measures funded by the EU-supported Rural Development Programme in 2004 – 2006 benefited in preference to farmers in the more productive rural territories, while lagging areas benefited more from LFA payments. The study developed a combined rural development index, which showed that lagging or severely lagging municipalities are more remote from urban centres and/or located on the border with Russia, Poland, or Belarus. No lagging or severely lagging municipality is adjacent to or contains a city. So it raised the issue of how best to improve growth prospects for such areas, especially through the use of Axis 3 measures and LEADER.

Extensive European research has shown that one of the main instruments to support rural development – the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP), has a mixed impact on balanced territorial development, and historically favoured more advanced territories (ESPON 2.1.3, 2004). However, it is promising to note that during the 2007 – 2013 programming period, it is anticipated that the LEADER approach will have an expanded role in planning and managing other measures programmed under the rural development pillar of the CAP.

While funding for the rural development pillar of the CAP is set to increase in coming years, past experience has shown that the EU countries allocated only slightly more than the minimum for Axis 3 measures (diversification of economic activities and quality of life) thought to typify territorial development (European Commission, 2006). Up until now, the majority of funding for the rural development pillar goes to farmers and processors to invest in farm modernisation and agro-processing facilities. However, for the current programming period it is expected that the EU countries will spend an average of 19% of Pillar II budget on Axis 3. Countries

which devote the highest shares of their European Agricultural and Rural Development Funding to Axis 3 include the Netherlands (35%), Romania (30%), Bulgaria (30%) Malta (30%) and Poland (25%) (European Commission, 2007). It is therefore an opportune time to conduct a comprehensive examination of the planned use of Axis 3 measures in Lithuania as well as the measures LAGs are expected to implement, and to debate how their choices may be improved.

This study is intended to contribute to the analytical process of the CAP Monitoring Committee during the mid-term evaluation of the 2007-2013 Rural Development Programme, and provide input for Lithuania policy makers in the context of the CAP Health Check for future programming periods.

1. Appropriateness of measures for balanced territorial development

1.1. Territorial aspects in Lithuanian RDP objectives, axes and priorities

While the overall objective of Lithuania's National Rural Development Strategy and Rural Development Plan 2007-2013 aims at "reducing disparities between rural and urban areas as well as remote regions", only two of the twelve priority criteria to be applied during the programme implementation make reference to lagging regions or less favoured areas¹: actions creating new working places, additional income sources with a special focus on the regions lagging behind and diversification of activities in the less favoured areas as well as less economically developed regions. These horizontal priorities will be taken into consideration when decisions are being made on which grant or payment applications will be financed. These horizontal priorities are applied to Axis 3 and Axis 4 in the form of selection criteria which are ranked in order of importance (the ranking determines the weight given the criteria in selecting funding applications). According to these rankings, territorial selection criteria will only be used when choosing among projects that satisfy higher level priorities, otherwise criteria pertaining to gender, age, not having received grants in the past, will be deemed more important. The only exceptions

¹ young farmers, full-time commercial farms, those who have not yet received the EU support, innovative applications, cooperative initiatives, improved marketing/production of high-value-added-products, activities benefiting the environment, action creating new working places or additional income in lagging regions, diversification of activities in less favored areas as well as less economically developed regions, actions strengthening human capital, actions promoting local initiatives, actions strengthening business development skills

were those measures pertaining to LEADER, where all the selection criteria are related to institutional capacity.

1.2. Territorial approach in Axis 3 measures and resources

The total value of the RDP for Lithuania is over EUR 3 billion (Table 1). This included financing from EAFRD (55.8%), the Government of Lithuania (16.6%), and co-financing from project beneficiaries. Even though a good deal is expected from Axis 3 measures, the anticipated expenditure on these measures is relatively modest at 17%. However, close to 50% of this budget is in the form of private co-financing from beneficiaries, with only 12% of both EAFRD and Government funding for the entire RDP going to these measures. However, if we count Axis 4 (LEADER) as a complement to the territorial development objectives of Axis 3, it increases to over 18%.

The importance of the LEADER approach needs to be emphasised, with smaller funding reaching a wide range of stakeholders among the rural population, and smaller well targeted projects having a sustainable impact on the skills and knowledge of local people, animating and encouraging them to undertake new innovative projects. In countries like Lithuania, where the tradition of entrepreneurship was debilitated during the Soviet times, support for experiment with innovative business ideas is extremely meaningful for local economic development. Smaller scale projects are also less demanding in terms of private co-financing and allow for a more simplified and transparent application process, which is crucial in the rural environment. Comparison of allocations for the different measures of Axis 3 shows that

the greatest share of allocations in Lithuania being assigned to Business creation and development (36.4 %), Rural tourism (30.7 %) and Diversification into non-agricultural activities (28.2 %) (Table 2).

In the case of LEADER, the biggest allocation (94.2 %) is assigned to the implementation of local development strategies designed to achieve the aims of Axis 3, including running the LAGs. The implementation of the local development strategies is linked to all the measures under Axis 3 on improving quality of life in rural areas. LAGs will be able to provide in their local development strategies all the measures from the list of measures of Axis 3. Moreover, LAGs will be able to envisage new measures targeted at achieving Axis 3 objectives which are not provided in the Rural Development Programme. The RDP states that the LEADER approach might be extended to include additional measures under other axes during the programme period, when more experiences and lessons learned have been collected.

2. Comparison to selected other Member States

The previous research has indicated that countries which are “richer, with smaller and more efficient agricultural sectors” are more likely to allocate higher shares of funding to measures focused on agro-environment, diversification, and the non-farm economy. Conversely, less wealthy countries with larger and less efficient agricultural sectors tended to allocate more funding to competitiveness oriented measures (e.g., farm modernisation, agri-business investment) (Ramniceanu and Ackrill, 2007; ESPON, 2004; World Bank, 2007). This suggests that

Table 1

Lithuanian RDP budget by axis and funding source

	EAFRD		Gov of Lithuania		Private Contribution		Total (EUR million)	Axis % of NRDP	Axis % of EAFRD & Gov Funding
	EUR million	% of NRDP	EUR million	% of NRDP	EUR million	% of NRDP			
Axis 1	697.6	47.9	232.5	16.0	526.0	36.1	1456.2	46.6	41.2
Axis 2	659.7	76.3	164.9	19.1	40.2	4.6	864.8	27.7	36.5
Axis 3	206.7	38.5	68.9	12.8	260.6	48.6	536.2	17.2	12.2
Axis 4	109.6	63.1	27.4	15.8	36.6	21.1	173.6	5.6	6.1
TA	69.7	75.0	23.2	25.0	0.0	0.0	93.0	3.0	4.1
Total	1743.4	55.8	517.0	16.6	863.4	27.6	3123.8	100.0	100.0

Source: Rural Development Programme for Lithuania 2007-2013

Table 2

Lithuanian RDP Axes 3 and 4 allocations by measures

Measure code	Measure	Public Expenditure, million EUR	EAFRD % of public	Private million EUR	Total Cost, million EUR	% private	% of total
311	Diversification into non-agricultural activities	75.6	75*	75.6	151.3	50	28.2%
312	Business creation and development	97.7	75*	97.7	195.4	50	36.4
313	Encouragement of rural tourism services	82.3	75*	82.3	164.6	50	30.7%
322	Village renewal and development	20.0	75	5.0	25.0	20	4.7%
Total Axis 3		275.6	75	260.6	536.2	49	100.0%
413	Implementation of local development strategies designed to achieve the aims of Axis 3 (running the LAG included)	127.0	80	36.6	163.5	22	94.2%
421	Inter-territorial and transnational cooperation	4.2	80	0	4.2	0	2.4%
431	Support for acquiring of skills and animating the inhabitants of LAG territories	5.8	80	0	5.9	2	3.4%
Total Axis 4		137.0	80	36.6	173.6	21	100.0%
Total Axis 3, 4		412.6		297.2	709.8	42	

*If a project is implemented under LEADER method, as provided for in Article 70 (2) (b) of Regulation (EC) No. 1698/2005, the Community funding shall cover 80 percent and the national funding shall cover 20 percent of public eligible expenditure accordingly.

Source: Rural Development Programme for Lithuania 2007-2013

countries tend to select allocations which seem to best fit their conditions and needs. Within this spectrum, Lithuania has been classed as having a “balanced approach” (Ramniceanu and Ackrill, 2007), however if we look at the track record of countries in shifting funds from the rural development pillar of the CAP to direct payments, Lithuania is one of three countries that has shifted the maximum amount allowable. This study will compare Lithuania to a selection of both new and old member states. We first looked at all of the approved RPDs for the EU member countries to find those that may be the best for more detailed comparison, especially those with similar economic and geographic conditions to Lithuanian and/or that target lagging regions. With the short-listed countries or regions, we compared the selection of measures and relative importance (share of Axis 3 budget) and allocations. We also looked at which Axis 3 measures are available to be implemented through LEADER in different countries.

2.1. Selection criteria for comparison cases

The selection of comparison countries was based on the following criteria:

- 1) similar socio-economic and geographic situation (neighbouring countries and the Baltic region; Poland, Latvia, Estonia);
- 2) countries with advanced LEADER experience, and which have extensively integrated LEADER into Axis 3 implementation, and provide more ways to use Axis 3 measures (Ireland, Finland, the Northern Ireland);
- 3) where balanced territorial development or targeting lagging regions is a strategic policy priority (the Northern Ireland, Finland);
- 4) countries that use a large spectrum of Axis 3 measures (provide more choices for ways to use Axis 3) (Finland, the Netherlands, Ireland); and
- 5) countries that show the priority of Axis 3 and 4 by allocating a greater share of funding to them (the Netherlands, the Northern Ireland).

So Lithuania is compared to Latvia, Estonia, Poland, Ireland, the Northern Ireland, Finland, and the Netherlands.

2.2. Comparison of measures the countries selected and funding allocations

When comparing the importance of Axis 3 funding across all the countries, Lithuania is among the top ten countries. However, the neighbouring countries (Poland, Latvia, and Estonia) allocate higher shares of their budget to this axis. It is interesting to note that two of the comparison countries (Ireland and Finland) allocate less than Lithuania to Axis 3. These two countries are part of a group that have lower allocations to Axis 3 but which have the highest allocations to Axis 2 (environmental measures).

Comparing budget allocations in more detail with a subset of countries, we looked at all axes and at EAFRD, national and private funding. Lithuania is neither the highest nor lowest in these rankings, while Ireland and Finland are the only countries with lower funding shares for Axis 3 and LEADER combined. The ranking differs somewhat depending on the used aggregate (Table 3). We consider Axis 3 and Axis 4 (LEADER) together, because the Northern Ireland and Ireland do not separate them in terms of funding allocations. Using total funding for Axis 3 and 4, the Northern Ireland has the highest allocation (34.1%), the Netherlands is a close second (33.%) and Estonia is the third (31.4%). Lithuania, Poland, and Latvia have all allocated 23-24% for Axis 3 measures. If we consider only EAFRD funding, the Netherlands is the highest (39.7%), then the Northern Ireland (29.2%), while Estonia is at a similar level with Poland and Latvia at about 21-24% and Lithuania is slightly lower at 18%. The reason Estonia's relative position falls when only EAFRD is considered is that it has the highest level of private co-financing planned in Axis 3 measures, nearly 60% compared to 50% for Lithuania, Latvia and the Netherlands, and less for the other countries.

The Netherlands, Estonia, and Latvia in that order have the highest shares for only Axis 3 funding. If only Axis 3 is considered, Ireland and the Northern Ireland cannot be compared, and Finland is the only one lower than Lithuania.

If only EAFRD funding of Axis 3 is considered, Poland and Latvia are second and third behind the Netherlands. The highest funding shares allocated for only Axis 4 are in the Netherlands and Estonia, and Lithuania is the third in this ranking.

In general, higher shares of funding devoted to Axis 3 programmes means a greater priority to rural development, diversification, non-agricultural activities and a lower priority being

given to the development of agriculture. Likewise, it suggests a greater emphasis being placed on territorial development and less of an emphasis on sectoral development. Greater allocations to Axis 4 also represent a strong emphasis on territorial development, since LEADER is the principal mechanism for bottom-up planning and implementation of local development programmes.

The selection and relative allocations to measures in Axis 3 and Axis 4 are also an indicator of priorities, and Lithuania allocates its Axis 3 budget more broadly than most countries and its Axis 4 budget more concentrated than most. Looking at more detail into the measures selected for Axis 3, the emphasis is quite varied across countries (Table 4). All of the compared NMS allocate the largest share of funding to the "business creation and development" measure. Latvia allocates 60 percent and Estonia nearly 80 percent of Axis 3 funds to this measure and most of the rest into "basic services" (Latvia) and "village renewal" (Estonia). Finland puts most funding into "diversification into non-agricultural activities" and slightly less into "business creation". Lithuania spreads most funding across those two measures plus rural tourism, while the Netherlands also adds significant funds to rural heritage in addition to these three. Ireland and the Northern Ireland put all funding in the Axis 4 "quality of life/diversification" measure (in these two RDPs Axis 3 implemented under Axis 4, total Axis 3 and 4 budget). So the pattern is quite varied, showing the priorities of each country. However, new member states all place a similar emphasis on business creation. There is less difference in the funding of Axis 4 measures, which is mostly meant for Measure 413 "quality of life/diversification". However, the Netherlands and, to a lesser extent, Latvia fund a broader array of measures in Axis 4.

2.3. Comparison of Axes and measures available to LEADER

There is a much broader scope of measures available to LEADER in some countries than in others, and Lithuania is among those with fewer options. In most of the comparison countries, LEADER has access only to use a subset of Axis 3 measures. However, Latvia, Estonia, Finland and the Netherlands use the LEADER approach for some Axis 1 measures; and Finland and the Netherlands also have some Axis 2 measures available for LEADER. Other things equal, giving LAGs the opportunity to use a wider array of measures in their development plans, and it would appear that Finland and the Netherlands provide the most flexibility to their LAGs in choosing which measures are best suited for their local conditions.

Table 3

Comparison of budget allocations for the comparison countries

	Axis 1	Axis 2	Axis 3	Axis 4	TA	Axis 3 + LEADER
Lithuania	%	%	%	%	%	
EAFRD only	40.0%	37.8%	11.9%	6.3%	4.0%	18.1%
Public	41.2%	36.5%	12.2%	6.1%	4.1%	18.3%
Total	46.6%	27.7%	17.2%	5.6%	3.0%	22.7%
Poland						
EAFRD only	40.7%	33.5%	19.4%	4.8%	1.5%	24.2%
Public	41.7%	32.2%	19.9%	4.6%	1.5%	24.5%
Total	52.9%	22.1%	19.2%	4.8%	1.1%	23.9%
Latvia						
EAFRD only	46.8%	28.1%	18.7%	2.5%	4.0%	21.2%
public	47.7%	26.8%	19.1%	2.4%	4.1%	21.5%
total	58.9%	15.1%	21.8%	1.9%	2.3%	23.7%
Estonia						
EAFRD only	36.5%	37.4%	12.5%	9.6%	4.0%	22.1%
public	37.6%	36.2%	12.9%	9.3%	4.1%	22.1%
total	37.0%	28.4%	24.1%	7.3%	3.2%	31.4%
Ireland*						
EAFRD only	10.3%	79.6%	0.0%	10.0%	0.1%	10.0%
public	11.2%	78.8%	0.0%	9.9%	0.1%	9.9%
total	12.4%	75.0%	0.0%	12.5%	0.1%	12.5%
Northland Ireland*						
EAFRD only	9.9%	60.2%	0.0%	29.2%	0.0%	29.2%
public	11.0%	58.1%	0.0%	31.0%	0.0%	31.0%
Total	20.2%	45.7%	0.0%	34.1%	0.0%	34.1%
Netherlands						
EAFRD only	29.8%	29.8%	29.8%	9.9%	0.6%	39.7%
Public	29.9%	29.7%	29.8%	10.0%	0.6%	39.8%
national funding top up	30.9%	67.6%	1.4%	0.0%	0.0%	1.4%
Total	34.3%	32.3%	26.6%	6.6%	0.3%	33.2%
Finland						
EAFRD only	11.0%	73.4%	9.5%	5.3%	0.9%	14.7%
Public	7.6%	81.6%	6.5%	3.7%	0.6%	10.2%
Total	12.1%	73.0%	9.4%	5.0%	0.5%	14.4%

*LEADER and Axis 3 implemented together

Source: Rural Development Programmes, selected countries

Conclusions and recommendations

Overall, it can be concluded that Lithuania has launched a fairly balanced RDP that gives significant attention to territorial development under Axis 3 and the LEADER approach. Lithuania is in the middle of the compared countries' range with regard to giving priority to territorial or rural development, as opposed

to sectoral or agricultural development. But being in the middle also means there can be room to increase the emphasis on rural and territorial development measures.

Lithuania's allocation of 11.9% of EAFRD funds to Axis 3 measures is only slightly above the minimum required allocation for Axis 3, while many countries

went well over this share. The comparisons in this report are not even the highest figures in the EU. In Germany, where RDPs are done for each Länder, the RDPs for Saxony and Mecklenburg allocate 39% and 41% of the EAFRD funds to Axis 3 alone. This is typical for the lower income regions in Germany, which appear to be targeted by giving larger funding “envelopes” for Axis 3 measures. The comparisons suggest there is room for Lithuania to increase the funding priority for Axis 3 measures if and when the opportunity permits.

Territorial development criteria could receive greater weight among project selection criteria in NDRP. In the priority selection criteria, the criteria that have a territorial dimension are rather far down on the list, usually 4th or 5th, and 3rd only once. Since these criteria are applied sequentially, it can easily happen that all funds are dispersed before any of these criteria come into play. There are two possible remedies. One would be to move one or more territorial priorities in the selection criteria to a higher level. A second would be to apply several criteria in ranking projects so that the territorial criteria with some predetermined weighting always are considered in funding decisions. It may be easier to transition to the second approach than to the first, but either one would achieve a higher consideration for territorial factors in selection decisions.

It is important to be prepared to adjust the NRDP as conditions evolve and new needs and opportunities arise. The main idea is to be able to respond to the strategies and priorities of the LAGs, which may find needs in their communities that, are not on the current list of measures. A wider use of Axis 3 measures would provide more choices for actors of different territories. For example, Measure 321 “Basic services for the economy and rural population” is the second most important measure in Latvia and Poland in terms of funding share and could be useful for Lithuanian countryside. On the other hand, a measure such as 331 “Training and information for economic actors”, could help in development of human resources in the territories, informing and directing local leaders and entrepreneurs towards perspective directions of the regions. It is not to say that the choices made were inadequate; but as LAGs develop and mature, the opportunity for them to broaden the scope of activity may be important.

Increased territorial development funding could allow Lithuania to enhance the rural development support system providing rural residents and local governments with information, coordination, consultation, and technical assistance. This could be conceptualised as an advisory service that provides to non-agricultural activities and non-farm entrepreneurs the type of consultation and

information that has long been delivered to the farm business community. It could even be an expansion of the current advisory services, for example Lithuanian Agency for Agricultural Consultation, to include a wider range of expertise to stimulate non-agricultural entrepreneurship. Ideally, such a “rural business” advisory service would also pay special attention to territorial peculiarities, with regard to local advantages and needs and play an important role in territorial development and successful implementation of Axis 3 measures.

Lithuania could expand the range of measures accessible under LEADER beyond Axis 3. As seen in the comparisons of measures available to be used by LEADER, several countries provide a much broader range of options in this list of measures. Finland has the most extensive list with nearly all measures in Axis 3 plus a few more in Axis 1 and 2. As earlier, the Lithuanian RDP already anticipates the possibility of expanding the list of measures that are in the LEADER toolkit. Moreover, it is also important to acknowledge the role of funds beyond the NRDP in supporting the work of LAGs. The EU programmes as INTERREG are already implemented in Lithuanian rural regions, and may be appropriate instrument for LEADER. Compatibility and complementarity of different programmes in the area should be assessed, synergies explored, giving the LAGs another – local project coordinators function.

Territorial development criteria could receive greater weight among project selection criteria in NDRP. In the process of project selection, the priority selection criteria that have a territorial dimension are rather far down on the list, usually 4th or 5th, and 3rd only once. Since these criteria are applied sequentially, it can easily happen that all funds are dispersed before any of these criteria come into play. There are two possible remedies. One would be to move one or more territorial priority criteria to a higher level. A second would be to apply several criteria in ranking projects so that the territorial criteria with some predetermined weighting always are considered in funding decisions. It may be easier to transition to the second approach than to the first, but either one would achieve a higher consideration for territorial factors in project selection decisions.

Finally, if the programme targets balanced territorial development, it should include a territorial development aspect in all levels of objectives and measure descriptions, so that the importance of territorial development at the level of global objectives would also be articulated at the level of measure targets. Incorporating territorial development into implementation mechanisms and

Table 4

Axis 3 and 4 allocations by measures

Measure code	Measure	Lithuania % of total	Poland % of total	Latvia % of total	Estonia % of total	Ireland** mil euro	N. Ireland** mil euro	The Netherlands*** % of total	Finland % of total
311	Diversification into non-agricultural activities	28.2%	14.4%	0.0%	0.0%	**	**	16.5%	43.5%
312	Business creation and development	36.4%	42.7%	60.7%	78.9%	**	**	14.5%	39.7%
313*	Encouragement of rural tourism services	30.7%	0.0%	12.4%	0.0%	**	**	32.3%	4.1%
321	Basic services for the economy and rural population	0.0%	30.7%	23.7%	0.0%	**	**	7.6%	6.0%
322*	Village renewal and development	4.7%	12.3%	0.0%	21.1%	**	**	6.4%	3.2%
323*	Conservation and upgrading of the rural heritage	0.0%	0.0%	3.3%	0.0%	**	**	19.7%	1.0%
331	Training and information for economic actors	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	**	**	0.0%	2.5%
341	Skills acquisition for reparation/implementation of local development strategies	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	**	**	3.0%	0.0%
Total Axis 3		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	**	**	100.0%	100.0%
411	Local development strategies A1 competitiveness	0.0%	0.0%	25.6%	18.0%	0.0	0.0	20.3%	4.9%
412	Local development strategies A 2 environment/land	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0	0.0	10.1%	2.4%
413	Quality of Life/diversification** (under Axis 3) L*	94.2%	86.0%	54.5%	72.0%	564.5	132.9	39.5%	71.5%
421	Implementing cooperation projects	2.4%	1.3%	7.1%	6.0%	0.0	7.0	20.3%	8.1%
431	Acquiring skills, motivating inhabitants, running LAGs	3.4%	12.8%	12.8%	4.0%	0.0	0.0	9.8%	13.0%
Total Axis 4		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	564.5	139.9	100.0%	100.0%

*For Poland funding is shared by these three measures and shown under 322; **For Ireland and the Northern Ireland Axis 3 implemented under Axis 4, total Axis 3 and 4 budget; *** included national top up funding; L* - budget for running LAGs included in 413 for Lithuania
Source: Rural Development Programmes, selected countries

rural development evaluation indicators could help to manage and monitor the territorial development processes.

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Problem of the Baltic Coastal Erosion in Latvia

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Abstract

The aim of the article is to determine the historical development and assess the losses caused by the coastal erosion in Latvia, to analyse the experience of European countries of coastal protection against erosion as well as to develop recommendations for further actions for efficient solution of this problem according to the EU Recommendation concerning the implementation of integrated coastal zone management. Statistics, international and national conceptions and researches on the situation of problems of coastal areas were analysed within the framework of this study.

Key words: erosion, integrated coastal zone management, cost benefit analysis, environmental issue, anthropogenic impact, Baltic Sea coastline, accelerated sea-level rise.

Introduction

Coasts are widely acknowledged as being some of the majority valuable ecosystems on the Earth in terms of biodiversity and productivity, but at the same time, they are the most coveted by humans (e.g., tourist resorts, residential areas, huge infrastructures, industries). Coastal areas are increasingly valued by society; both directly and indirectly, and undoubtedly provide an essential overall service to humankind and national economy (CCIRG, 1996). The growing urbanisation that coastal areas have experienced in the recent decades represents a major pressure on the maintenance of their socio-ecological functions, such as protection, provision of biological and inherent resources, recreational, cultural and aesthetic values. The European report (EEA, 2006) on the states of the coast warns about the increasing anthropogenic pressure on coastal areas which is particularly high in the southern sector of the Baltic Sea. About 15 million people live in the Baltic drainage area within 10 km of the coast. The population of the Baltic Sea basin is increasing much faster than that of the inland areas, and the high concentration of roads, ports, airports, industrial, and power facilities will intensify and coastal degradation will continue to have a significant impact.

According to the 4th Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change assessment report it can be anticipated that coasts will be exposed to increasing risks such as coastal erosion as a consequence to the climate change and sea-level rise. It will add to the complexity, uncertainty, intensity, and prevalence of coastal impact in a variety of ways. Low-laying areas such as deltas, estuaries, coastal plains and barrier coasts are especially vulnerable to suffering the

consequences of climate change (IPCC, 2007). There are emerging estimates of the physical impacts and economic costs to coasts in Europe from the sea level rise and flooding from storm events. The results using the DIVA database and model produced from the European Union DINAS- COAST research project (DINAS-COAST Consortium) developed for Europe in the PESETA project (Nicholls, Klein 2005) show impacts increasing dramatically without adaptation: in the 2080s under the A2 SRES scenario some 19 000 km² of land in Europe could be permanently lost, potentially affecting some 1.4 million people in Europe experiencing flooding each year, and with the estimated economic costs of EUR 18 billion per year (at current prices). Adaptation could significantly reduce these costs till approximately EUR 1 billion per year (Nicholls, Tol 2007).

These trends show that it can be anticipated that the pressure of uses in coastal areas will continue or even intensify, and this will require the development of assessment and management instruments capable of dealing with them. However there is a long history of coastal management policies, to date these have not been implemented in an integrated manner (EEA, 2007).

The aim of the article is to determine the historical development, and assess the losses caused by Latvian coastal erosion, especially in the form of impact on the regional development, to analyse the experience of European countries of coastal protection against erosion as well as to develop recommendations for further actions for efficient solution of this problem according to the EU Recommendations concerning the implementation of integrated coastal zone management (ICZM). Statistics, international and national conceptions and researches on the situation

of problems of coastal areas were analysed within the framework of this study.

Materials and Methods

Comparative, analytical and historical methods have been mainly used in the paper, taking into consideration the large amount of literature, the research character and non-solved questions related to the coastal erosion problems in Latvia.

The concept of erosion

Coastal erosion is the natural process of wearing away material from the coastal profile due to imbalance in the supply and export of material from a certain section. It takes place in the form of scouring in the foot of the cliffs or in the foot of the dunes. Coastal erosion takes place mainly during strong winds, high waves and high tides, and storm surge conditions (*acute erosion*), and may result in net coastline retreat over time (*structural erosion*) (Eberhards, 2003). The rate of erosion is correctly expressed in volume/length/time, e.g., in m³/m/year, but the erosion rate is often used synonymously with the coastline retreat, and thus expressed in m/year. Human influence, particularly urbanisation and economic activities, in the coastal zone has turned coastal erosion from a natural phenomenon into a problem of growing intensity. Coastal erosion is usually the result of a combination of factors - both natural and human induced - that operate on different scales. Most important natural factors are: winds and storms, near shore currents, relative sea level rise (*a combination of vertical land movement and sea level rise*) and slope (*weathering*) processes. Human induced factors of coastal erosion include: coastal engineering, land claim, river basis regulation works (especially construction of dams), dredging, vegetation clearing, gas mining, and water extraction (EUROSION).

Latvian coastal zone and erosion

Europe's coast is under growing threat from erosion, contrary to the development of a wide range of measures to prevent the coastlines from retreating. The previous two decades prior to this article witnessed a certain change of dynamic equilibrium conditions in coastal development of the Baltic coasts area. The activation of coastal processes has been observed along the entire coastline. Such increase in coastal erosion is affected by the increasing frequency of the extremely strong and disastrous storms of the Western and Northern fetches combined with the wind-induced sea level rise. It must be highlighted that, despite the fact that the Baltic Sea has the least coastal erosion in Europe, almost all of the problem

areas are located along the Polish and Latvian coasts. Over 47% of the Polish coastline and 33% of the Latvian coastline is subject to substantial erosion. One of Latvia's principal geographical features is its strategic coastline with one million population living within 5-10 km of the coastal area, which is subject to anthropogenic influences and characterized by a variety of beaches and coastal environments (Pruszek and Zawadska, 2008).

Latvian coasts occupy nearly 500 km, but over a half of the total length during the previous decades prior to this article has been subjected to notable changes, presumably due to global warming, anthropogenic factors, and increasing damage of storms (Eberhards, Lapinskis, 2005). From time immemorial erosion knows as dilemma for both: the Baltic Sea coasts and the Gulf of Riga. Historical evidences from the 19th century give information on fishermen's houses and even the St. Anna Church washed out due to erosion. The ability of the coastal environment to withstand change is limited as the soft geology is highly susceptible to erosion by natural processes - long-shore sediment, and waves (Eberhards, 2003).

The previous 100 years are well known by both - rapid growth of economics and wasteful management that simultaneously developed the trade and production mainly in coastal areas near the extensive harbours. In 1950s-1960s the significant enlargement of Latvian harbours was observed although the strategy how to minimise the anthropogenic impact was not developed. The increase of erosion has resulted in a loss of coastal territory within the dimension of 50 to 200m; therefore it was required to transfer coastal roads and railways away from eroded territories Jūrkalne, Ventspils, Engure etc. (Eberhards, 2003). Reduction of sediment input from the Lielupe and the Daugava rivers, construction of breakwaters and structuring of the cascade of dams on the Daugava river as well as dredging of sand for construction purposes from the Lielupe lower stream have essentially reduced the amount of sediments reaching the sea, and caused the deficit of sediment output feeding the foreshore and beaches. This deficit in its turn has enhanced the coastline retreat in the areas adjacent to the Daugava river mouth in the end of the 20th century.

The findings have shown that Latvian Baltic Sea coastal zone during the previous decades has lost the area of 1000 ha on average subjected by increasing damage of storms presumably as a result of global warming, similarly to other coastal areas worldwide. Particularly strong coastline erosion occurred during extremely storm events of 1992 and 2001, 2003 and 2005, which usually occur only once in a hundred years (Eberhards, Lapinskis 2005). The erosion rates of 20 to 30 metres during a single storm event have

been recorded. It is found out that during 1950s–1960s the long-term mean rate of the cliff retreat has been 0.5–0.6 reaching a maximum of 1–1.5 m/year. Since 1980/1981 the rates have increased 2–5 times, reaching 1.5–4 m/year. During the windstorms of 1993, 1999, and 2001 the average rates of erosion throughout each single storm were 3–6 m, with a maximum of up to 20–30m at the dune coast of the Cape Bernāti (Eberhards, 2003).

With oncoming global climate change and the threat of accelerated sea-level rise (ASLR), the existing risk of flooding and storm surges will be exacerbated significantly over 50000 inhabitants of Latvia in the time frame of upcoming 70 years following this article (EEA,2007). Powerful storms increase the water level more than 1.8-2m; therefore the Latvian low-lying areas are expected for flooding every 2-4 to 10 years in cold seasons because of disrupted dunes or salt water flow in the Lielupe, the Daugava and the Gauja estuaries. It is estimated that under a 1m accelerated sea-level rise scenario the recurrence of devastating storm floods that presently have a probability of 1 in 100 will decrease to a 1 in 10 or even 1 in 1 probability (Pruszek, Zawadska 2008). While in the world scene coasts have been recognised as potentially hazardous regions where the population concentrated in low-lying areas frequently face extreme events, moreover multilateral forms of strategic measures are taken, there is no particularly single strategy developed for mostly threatened areas of Latvia notwithstanding their economic importance – Riga, Jūrmala, and Ventspils.

Since 4 May, 1990 when Latvia proclaimed the renewal of independence, and concurrent alteration of economics, the part of governmental land properties have been allocated to private owners. Frequently in some cases the ownership rights for properties in coastal areas have been obtained in unconsidered and chaotic way. This time period has been advantageous for implementing any idea regardless of the non-compliance with alternating legislation particular in environmental protection. Acting on short-term economic principles and non-considering impacts related to coastal area were conducted towards the degradation of general ecosystem and increase of vulnerability on the coastal erosion. Unwillingness to adjust certain environmental legislation is still occurring according to concrete discrepancies in the legislation and unclear and unsolved issues. The problem is the absence of Land Book for coastal area; therefore it is impossible to verify the data. Insignificant achievements solving this problem demonstrate the lack of a unified strategy as a source to be used for integrated and corresponding governmental actions. It confirms that this might be considered as one of the main factors causing increase of notable national

economic losses as a result of costal erosion. It can be considered that such strategic approach might be one of major steps towards optimal solutions.

Integrated coastal zone management

The complexity of coastal systems combined with the significant economic interests along our coasts creates an important challenging issue for the authorities and researchers involved in coastal questions. Erosion impacts, oil and gas production, transportation, navigation, commercial fishing, recreational activities, and land development all contribute to this challenge.

In 2002, the EU recognised the unique status of coastal zones by stating that the “the coastal zone is of great environmental, economic, social, cultural and recreational importance to Europe”. In addition, the EU stressed the importance for member states to implement an integrated management of coastal zones, especially so in the light of climate change and sea level rise. The integrity of several activities in this type of management should provide a foundation for environmentally sustainable, economically equitable, socially responsible and culturally sensitive, safe coastal zones. The European Union formulated eight principles of Integrated Coastal Zone Management (Recommendation of the EU Parliament):

1. A broad overall perspective (thematic and geographic).
2. A long-term perspective.
3. Adaptive management and a sound knowledge basis.
4. Reflection of local specifics.
5. Involvement of all parties concerned in the management process, based on a shared responsibility.
6. Support and involvement of relevant administrative bodies at national, regional and local level.
7. Working with natural processes and respecting the carrying capacity of ecosystems.
8. Use of a combination of instruments to gain most advantage from the programme.

Although these recommendations have initiated a rethinking of traditional planning approaches by promoting a reconciliation of economic, social and environmental interests, the detailed instruction must be developed especially taking into account the novelty of such plans. The authors of the article emphasise that these recommended principles are ideological rather than a methodological approach. The authors considering that the USA methodology is advanced mainly due to the ecological and economic impacts of erosion, the USA has a considerable stake in shore management, erosion, and hazards planning

and management. Specifically, the USA approach has an interest in:

- protecting public safety;
- protecting public infrastructure along the shoreline;
- preserving and restoring natural shoreline features;
- protecting the recreational and economic benefits of beaches;
- minimising private damages from coastal storms and erosion (Impact of Coastal Erosion on Coastal Communities, 2007).

A recent European survey of the current response to sea-level rise and climate change shows a few countries engaged in proactive planning, while most are ignoring the issue, or only at the beginning of recognising its significance. While a proactive response is assessed to favour minimisation of the actual impacts and need for reactive responses, ignoring sea-level rise and climate change will almost certainly increase the vulnerability for coastal areas.

The strategy of Latvia for integrated coastal zone management is considered as part of the National Spatial Planning without the analysis of the influence of various sectors as well as the economic and social studies on the quality and implementations of the spatial plans of municipalities and districts being carried out on a regular basis. In accordance with the conclusions of the EU ICZM, there are no developed ICZM equivalent policies in Latvia, only some fragmented tools are in place to address coastal issues. Mainly the national impact is not assessed. The strategies for ICZM have not yet been elaborated by a number of countries (Denmark, Latvia, Lithuania), while others are in the process of including ICZM elements in their National Spatial Planning Strategies (Sweden). Finland has drafted its National ICZM Strategy and Germany has optimised its legislative instruments according to the principles of ICZM. Poland has stepped up its efforts to move from its multi-sectoral legal framework towards the formulation of a National ICZM Strategy (International Ocean Institute, 2006). Regarding Poland's National Strategy the authors found out that same parts such as public participation and co-decision in the Baltic Sea Region are still unsolved. However, initial steps to enforce this element in ICZM are being taken as well their coastal defence is stronger than in Latvia.

It has been identified that one of the key principles of any effective ICZM policy is to have a view of problems faced by coastal zones in a wide context. Many well-intentioned efforts towards ICZM, in the past, have failed because they were looked at in isolation. Although the analysis of Latvian ICZM shows that holistic thematic and geographic perspective is not fully comprehensive due to the

gaps in the evaluation of a problem. Actions are subordinated to four administrative/planning levels: local, district, planning region, and national. The necessity to involve environmental and socio-economic monitoring with relationship with adaptive management have been proposed by various projects. The Report does not refer to any application of adaptive management, although, the elements of adaptive management are present in the National Planning documentation. Coastal conservation measures have been taken, such as protection and strengthening of dunes, grazing management of meadows, removal of alien species plants and shrubs, reed cutting have been performed within this project. It remains unclear however how these activities would be sustained for long periods of time, since they mostly are project-based. The conservation of cultural heritage is given a lower priority compared to that given to the preservation of the natural environment. Relationships between local residents and local governments may be stressful enough due to the specific management actions needed. Residents usually consider that nature protection measures are exaggerated, or even suspect that the introduced restrictions are deliberately aiming at forcing down land prices. Since there are no specific organisations responsible for ICZM, there is no responsible organisation to initiate such voluntary agreements. The research and education requires financial sustainability, especially to maintain coastal monitoring. Data portals on coastal dynamics are much lacking, information provision is lacking and economic instruments may be helpful since gaps exist between the regulatory basis and capacity to enforce implementation.

The findings of authors highlight the lack of governmental interest regarding erosion problems in Latvia. The argument of that can be explained by the absence of risk management and the use of economic tools; therefore losses of hazards stay unknown as a result of lacking estimation management. In this paper hazards mean “a potentially dangerous event of natural or human origin” which intensity and occurrence probability are estimated by studying the return periods and site predisposition. The stakes are the human, economic or environmental values of the elements exposed to hazard. The risk is the result of the convergence of one or more hazards, and one or more of the stakes. Over the previous decade prior to this article, the stakes have been rising on Latvian coasts as more and more investments have been concentrated in that area. The littoral gradually evolved from the “territory of emptiness” to the modern day “coasts of conflict”. Considering fact that approximately 45% of the Latvian seacoasts lie within the borders of Natura 2000 sites at the terrestrial part of the coast as well as approximately 20% are

covered by cities and ports with nearby territories, it could forecast the increase of conflicts. (Statement on the Progress of Implementation, 2006) Taking into account 400 coastal defence which mostly are build up by private owners within the previous couple years, it is clear that the vulnerability has become allowing for assessment. There are hidden threats in fact that private owners can choose and use wrong protection of coast zone that can promote erosion process. Individuals living on the coast usually do not start worrying about erosion until their property or home is visibly threatened. At that point, their choices can be considered as more constrained than they would have been if coastal processes had been considered prior to building or buying the land and structure. To have access to the maximal range of options, individuals need to be informed of erosion and flooding risks as early and often as possible. The approaches available to individuals are constrained by three factors: local and state rules and regulations (including building standards) that pertain to the land use and development in shoreline areas, an individual's economic wherewithal, and the information and knowledge possessed by that individual regarding the erosion hazard and adjustment options. Individuals learn about legal constraints and technical feasibility from municipal building inspectors, planners, code enforcement officers, or hired technical consultants and coastal engineers. To the extent allowed by the local and state codes and personal financial means, homeowners can implement measures to reduce the erosion hazard when a structure is first built, redeveloped, or threatened by erosion.

Coastal erosion management taking into account the best European practice is primarily based on economic considerations (cost-benefit analysis). This approach involves a systematic quantification of internal and external benefits associated with various activities in the coastal economic-ecological systems, with ICZM and without ICZM.

Conclusions and Recommendations

It can be concluded that there are two main problems connected with coastal zone: human activity with very often disastrous results, and the sea level rise as a result of climate warning. Anthropogenic forcing of the climate system is primarily achieved through the release of greenhouse gases to the atmosphere due to industrial activities. The second anthropogenic factor as the major causality for the coastal erosion is constrained with human activities related to economic activities such as ports industries, tourism etc. Human activities that can alter natural processes include dredging of tidal entrances, construction of jetties and groins, hardening of shorelines with seawalls, beach nourishment, and construction of harbours

and sediment-trapping dams. Shoreline engineering structures, often built to protect development, can be undermined by ongoing erosion. Without sustainable coastal management all anthropogenic factors are affecting each other and making coastal zone unprotected against erosion.

The coastal erosion and accretion indicator measures change in the shoreline dynamics and efforts to directly counteract the adverse effects of those dynamics. Detailed **monitoring** of these changes is significant, especially if is taken into account that the effects of climate change could increase substantially in the next 100 years. The information on shoreline changes can help predict future changes, and prepare and develop **adaptation policies for climate change** effects. Coastal erosion and related flood and landslide phenomena normally generate high economic, social and environmental costs. In order to prevent and to avoid these costs it is necessary to have thorough and detailed information about the real impacts in the past and in the present. This indicator belongs to the set of 3 indicators that monitor progress towards achieving the goals for coastal sustainability set out in the EU Recommendation concerning the implementation of ICZM - "To recognise the threat to coastal zones posed by climate change, and to ensure appropriate and ecologically responsible coastal protection". The indicator has 3 measurements:

- 1) the length of protected and defended coastline;
- 2) the length of dynamic coastline and;
- 3) the area and volume of sand nourishment.

Integrated Coastal Zone Management is recognized as a constructive way of tackling problems that result from the pressures and conflicts of the use in many coastal areas. This holistic approach takes account of the whole range of activities taking place in the coastal zone, and promotes integrated planning to cope with management problems which are often found in coastal areas. Another equally important aspect is that ICZM is not simply concerned with human use of coastal areas but also physical and biological environment.

This research is a present evidence of the fact that there is a lack of appropriate governmental strategies or policy instruments regarding erosion problems in Latvia. Related to that fact there is absence of risk management and economic tools to use for measurement and evaluation the erosion hazards.

The authors propose that it is necessary to implement the following tasks or recommendations for the development of integrated government strategy for solution of erosion problems:

- to carry out a comparative evaluation of erosion problems in Latvian coastal area, and to develop a financial model adaptable for several scenarios and based on the elaborated methodology;

- to estimate the costs of wash off lands, taking into account value added, financial revenues as well as macroeconomic and microeconomic factors;
- to appraise sustainable coastal protection possibilities and their necessity in concrete region determining the optimal balance between satisfaction of needs and economically justified solutions;
- to elaborate a damage calculation model for the costs of coastal land loss caused by erosion, taking into account both individual/private losses and optimising the common balance of natural economics.

The implementation of these tasks could determine the range and context of erosion in coastal areas and allow working out definite actions for efficient solution of the problem according to the EU Recommendation concerning the implementation of ICZM.

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Contribution of Regional Higher Education Institutions for Regional Development

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Abstract

The influence of higher education on the state and regional development has been researched widely in the USA, the European Union countries as well as in Australia. Latvia has a shortage of such kind research. GDP per capita in cities with higher education establishments is higher as in other cities of the country in the Republic of Latvia. All study programmes and higher education establishments in the Republic of Latvia have to be accredited: the possible periods are six years or two years. In regional higher education establishments of the Republic of Latvia most of the study programmes are accredited for the maximum period – six years. Regional higher education establishments with bigger experience in higher education are more active in developing new study programmes and closing old – fashioned study programmes. Recently established regional higher education establishments are active in development of new study programmes.

Key words: higher education, regional development, higher education quality.

Introduction

The influence of higher education on the regional development is topical and famous topic for the research in many countries around the world: those topics are studied in highly developed countries: in the United States of America, Australia, the United Kingdom, the Netherlands, Italy, Spain as well as by international organisations, like the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, some research is started also in Latvia. The current paper observes the research results on higher education influence in the developed countries as well as analyses the data on GDP per capita in Latvian cities, and the situation of study programme offers and quality evaluation results in regional higher education establishments in Latvia.

Universities and Regional Development

The influence of higher and professional education on regional development is analysed by many scientists in different countries, the attention has been paid also by the OECD (Arbo, 2007), where partnerships between the higher education institutions and their regional stakeholders are analysed by reviewing patterns of interaction, highlighting experiences and disseminating good practices: the review includes the analysis of 14 regions in Australia, Brazil, Canada, Denmark, England, Finland, Korea, Mexico, the Netherlands, Norway, Spain, and Sweden. The regions were selected after the negotiations of OECD and interested regions, relevant public authorities and higher education institutions, based on the criteria of

regional engagement and the willingness to devote the necessary resources to the accomplishment of the respective research.

Internationally well-known is Finland for its successful use of higher education and innovation policy in Finnish economic development (Jauhiainen, 2006).

Fumi Kitagawa notices that “Many national governments have recognised the crucial role played by universities in the economy as powerful drivers of innovation and economic change” (Kitagawa, 2004). In the article good examples are mentioned: rapid growth of the sub-regional economies in Santa Clara County in California (Silicon Valley) associated with the contribution of Stanford University, and in and around Boston, influenced by Massachusetts Institute of Technology, good examples are Cambridge in the United Kingdom and Twente in the Netherlands (Kitagawa 2004).

There is a deep and wide analysis on the economic development impacts of universities on the region: do size and distance matter? The research is made in American universities and regional economies after 1980 (Goldstein, Drucker, 2006). In the USA several surveys were conducted as well as case studies evaluation of many scientific articles, which are devoted to higher education influence on regional economic development issues. In Goldstein and Drucker researches in the USA official statistical data were used and made multiple regression analysis. It is proved that activities of higher and professional education establishments make good influence to respective region's economic development, and

creates significant number of new jobs. It was mentioned that education quality is very essential (Drucker, Goldstein, Drucker, 2006).

American scientists Ian A. Miners and John E. Young have made research on the influence of special created entrepreneurship study programmes on the state economic development. In their research they have mentioned that the research results could be applied to other countries. The research of Miners and Young underlines that in many countries more and more attention is paid to university based entrepreneurship programmes as vehicles to state economic development (Miners, Young, 1995).

Issues of the European Union regional innovation strategies are researched also by European researchers from Wales in supervision of Dylan Henderson (Henderson, 2000). In their research the experience of Japanese scientists is used, and it underlines that there are significant national differences, and used research and observation methods of scientists from Wales. The European Commission supported activities for regional development are analysed in details (Henderson, 2000).

Education and training for innovations in small and medium size enterprises are analysed by several European scientists, for example, Stuart Macdonald's, Dimitris Assimakopoulos and Pat Anderson's research (Macdonald, Assimakopoulos, Anderson, 2007). The above mentioned researchers have analysed offers of universities and their influence on the state economic development, special attention paying to the use of the European Social Fund financing for development of additional study programmes and offers to interested without additional payment. Researchers have analysed also university marketing issues. Significant number of respondents has mentioned that they are interested in universities offers of special courses (Macdonald, Assimakopoulos, Anderson, 2007).

The European Commission has conducted a research on entrepreneurship in higher education, especially within non – business studies (Surlemont, Fartunova, Vrbka, Bager, Volkman, Sloka, etc., 2008). One of the main objectives of the research was: to evaluate how business education could best contribute to new start – ups and to the exploitation of business ideas. Participants in the research were as follows: the EU Member states, candidate countries and EFTA/EEA countries. Final recommendations were prepared for public authorities, for activities at the level of institutions, for other relevant players and the business world as well as for coordination and support at European level (Surlemont, Fartunova, Vrbka, Bager, Volkman, Sloka, etc., 2008).

Higher education and small and medium size enterprises relations are researched by British scientists David Johnson and Fiona Tilley (Johnson,

Tilley, 1999). In Johnson's and Tilley's research it is mentioned that higher education establishments and small and medium size enterprises often are involved in the same professional cooperation networks. The authors have stressed that official cooperation often is complimented by informal relations, which support higher education establishments development and increase of study quality as well as development of small and medium size enterprises. The above mentioned authors have underlined that often higher education relations with small and medium size enterprises are underestimated as well as influence of this cooperation on the United Kingdom's economy. With regrets the authors conclude that the successful influence of this cooperation is not enough evaluated on political level and strategic planning (Johnson, Tilley, 1999).

The influence of higher education establishments on the regional economic development is studied in Joshua Drucker's and Harvey Goldstein's research (Drucker, Goldstein, 2007). Besides wide and long-term researches on the influence of universities on regional development in the United States of America, Drucker and Goldstein have recommended to make research also how higher education policy in the European Union countries influences regional economic development as well as they suggested to evaluate, in which extent more developed regions are influenced by higher education and in which extent development of less developed regions is influenced by higher education establishments and their study quality (Drucker, Goldstein, 2007).

Australian scientists Robert Freestone, Susan Thompson and Peter Williams have studied long-term student on-job training (one year length) influence on study quality and regional development (Freestone, Thompson, Williams, 2006). The above mentioned authors have underlined that there are positive and negative sides of so long on-job training time, which are expressed by students, by employers and academic personnel (Freestone, Thompson, Williams, 2006).

American scientists David R. Godschalk and Linda Lacey have analysed distance education's influence on study quality and regional development (Godschalk, Lacey, 2001). The mentioned above American scientists have concluded that the provision of effective distance education requires good and wide team work of educators, qualitative study materials, access to library resources and other support materials for studies and technique use, including web – based support resources as well as mutual student communication, which is an important part of qualitative higher education. The authors have analysed good examples on the use of e-libraries, for example, at Berkley University in California, Faculty of Architecture and Planning Faculty at New York

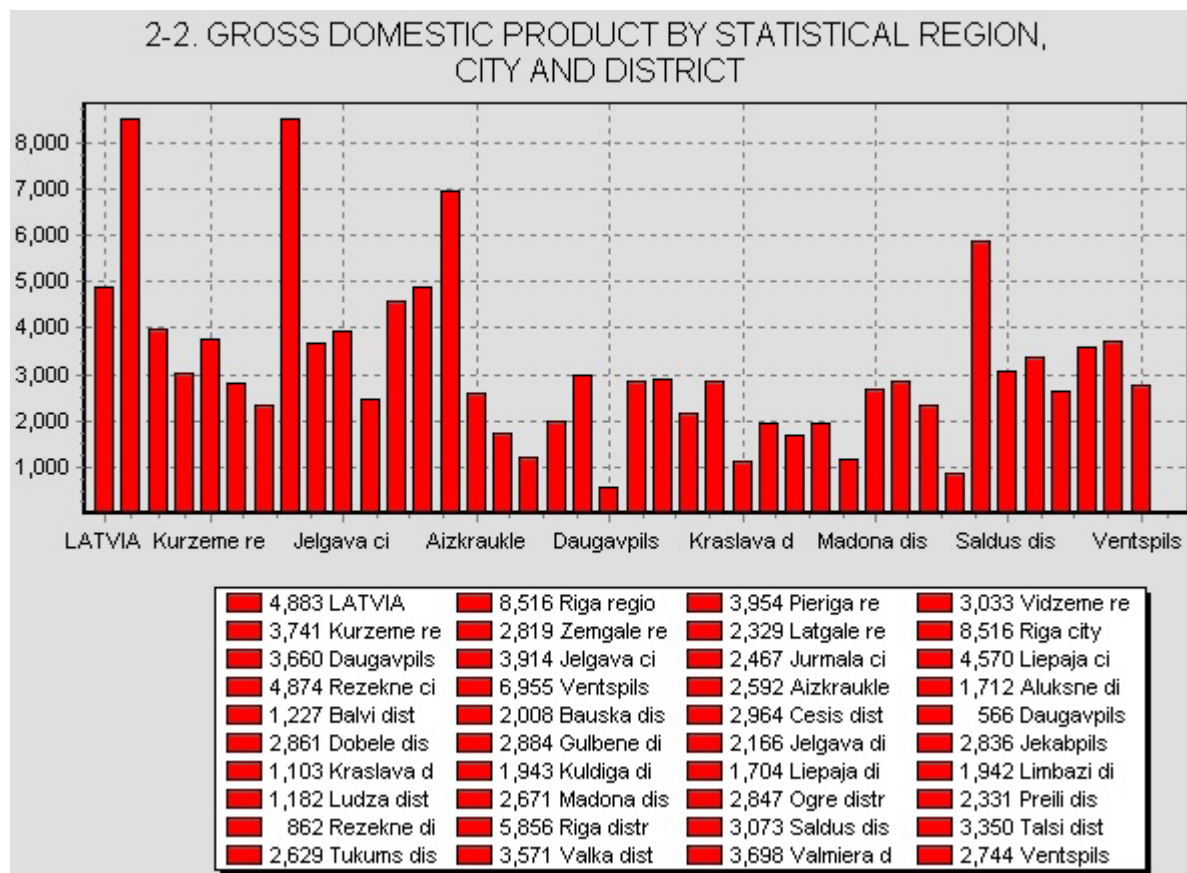
State University and other American Universities. Godschalk and Lacey have stressed that there could be problems of student research in implementation of distance education studies. The mentioned above authors have pointed out scenarios of universities development for next thirty years in relation to economic needs and possibilities to provide qualitative higher education (Godschalk, Lacey, 2001).

Italian researchers Luciana Lazzeretti and Ernesto Tavoletti have studied higher education excellence and local economic development; it was a wide known and examined case of the entrepreneurial University of Twente (Lazzeretti, Tavoletti, 2005). The article examines experience of university, established in depressed and undeveloped region and its influence on successful regional development. The research was conducted using studies of other research results, as well as case studies, many site visits and interviews (at University of Twente and University Maribor, Slovenia, where many academics and students from University of Twente were), and analysis of economic data in long run. In the Netherlands the University of Twente was among the first ones to respond actively to changes in higher

education establishments primary responsibilities for maintaining the quality of education. "The University of Twente developed a strong entrepreneurial vision inside its own organization, thanks to the will and ability of its leadership, who was able to create a favourable climate and to design an effective infrastructure for successful academic spin – off companies. The new – born companies allowed the university to be engaged in the production of what is defined as "social knowledge", giving the institution the opportunity for effective interactions with the local economy and embedding the University in the region (Lazzeretti, Tavoletti, 2005).

Issues on innovation and regional growth in the enlarged Europe and the role of local innovative capabilities, perherality and education are analysed in Riccardo Crescenzi research results (Crescenzi, 2005).

Problems of human capital and economic growth in Spanish regions are analysed by Miguel – Angel Galindo Martin and Augustin Alvarez Herranz, where the authors have examined whether a better education process and social capital can improve the economic growth process in the area and it can



Source: CSB data [Electronic resource] : <http://data.csb.gov.lv/Dialog/Saveshow.asp> - accessed on December 20, 2008

Figure 1. GDP per capita in 2006 in Latvia by Statistical Regions, cities and district (LVL)

explain the differences in per capita GDP (Martin, Herranz, 2004).

Higher education in regions and HE quality evaluation in Latvia

In Latvia up to now there are not many and deep researches made on higher and professional education establishment influence on regional development. Several researches are done by Ina Brikše, Daina Pakalna, Līga Paula, Ilze Trapenciēre, Inga Vilka etc. (Latvia: HDR, 2006). Figure 1 shows the data on GDP per capita in Latvia in 2006. The data show that GDP per capita is bigger in cities, where higher education establishments are located, so the nearness of higher and professional establishments in region contributes to the involvement of young and educated persons in different economic activities: development of entrepreneurship, and participation in different international research and cooperation projects. GDP per capita during 1996 – 2006 has grown faster in cities having higher education establishments (CSB, Latvia, 2008).

Not only the location of higher and professional higher education establishments, but also the quality of studies obtained in these higher education establishments is important. Higher education quality in Latvia for more than 10 years is organised

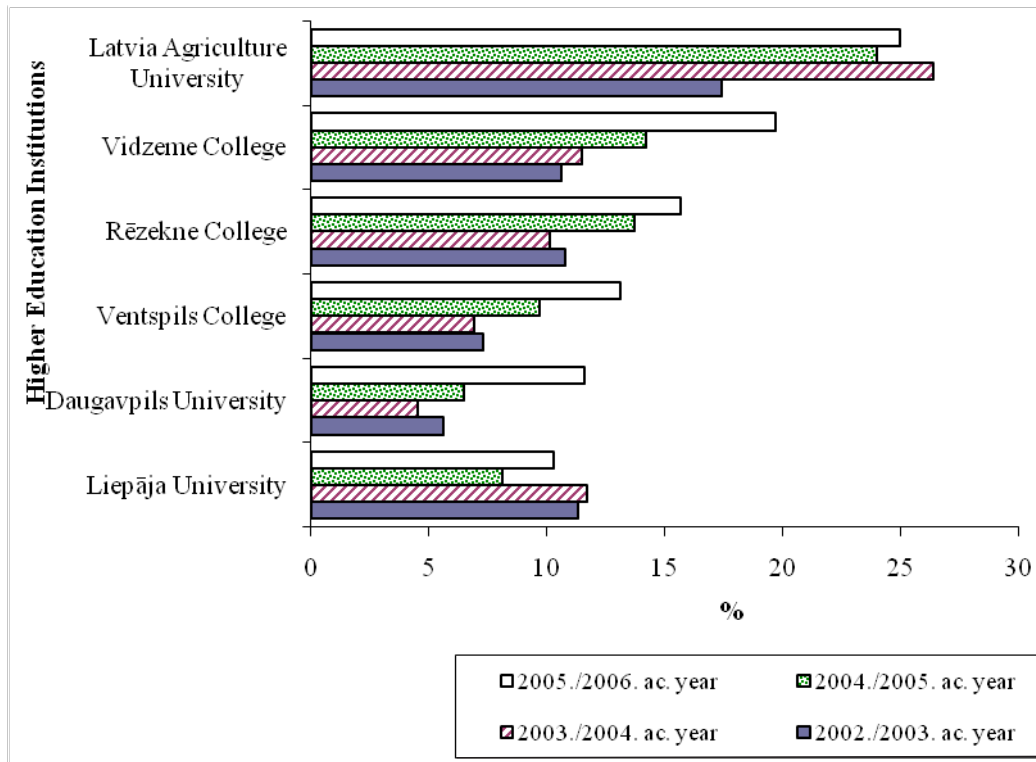
by Higher Education Quality Evaluation Centre by participation of international experts (Cabinet Regulations No. 821, 2006) and decision on the study programme accreditation is taken by the Accreditation Committee, decision on accreditation of higher education establishment is taken by Higher Education Council. The results on accreditation as well as expert evaluations and recommendations are publicly available at Higher Education Quality Evaluation Centre webpage (HEQEC, 2008). This information is used by students and potential students to evaluate higher education establishments and situation with the study programmes and higher education establishments in quality aspects. The mentioned above webpage provides the Self Evaluation Reports of study programmes that include the information on teaching staff qualifications, their experience, and professional experience and research activities. The study programme syllabus as well as study course descriptions with the requirements for obtaining credit points, and requirements for individual work are available on this webpage. The evaluation reports of international experts are available there. Decisions of the Accreditation Committee are the following: accreditation for six years (full accreditation), limited accreditation (for two years) or refuse of accreditation. The examples of regional higher education establishment study

Table 1

Study programme quality in regional higher education institutions in the Republic of Latvia in December, 2008

Regional Higher Education Establishment/College	Accred. for 6 y.	Accred. for 2 y.	Licensed	Closed
Daugavpils University	49	1	8	38
Latvia University of Agriculture	69	2	6	21
Liepāja University	44	1	6	39
Rēzekne Higher School	35	2	7	15
Ventspils University College	10	0	2	5
Vidzeme University College	10	0	3	0
Daugavpils Medicine College	3	0	1	0
Jēkabpils Agrobusiness College	3	0	0	0
Liepāja Maritime College	3	0	1	1
Liepāja Medicine College	2	0	1	0
Malnava College	2	0	1	0
Olaine College of Mechanics and Technologies	3	0	0	1
Social Integration State Agency	5	1	2	...
State Borderguard College	1	0	0	0

Source: made by the authors, data from Higher Education Evaluation Centre, December 30, 2008



Source: B.Sloka, J.Dzelme, J.Vaivads, et al, Correspondence of Professional and Higher Education Establishments to Labour Market Needs, University of Latvia, 2007, 231 pp.

Figure 2. Dropout dynamics in the state established higher education establishments in regional HEI of all the students in 2002–2006,%

programmes accreditation results (at the end of 2008) are presented in Table 1.

The data of Table 1 show that regional higher education establishments with more experience in higher education field (Daugavpils University, Latvia University of Agriculture, Liepāja University) are active in development of new study programmes and getting licences for implementation of new higher education study programmes as well as closing down not topical study programmes. For example, in Daugavpils University 11 study programmes were licensed and 38 study programmes were closed: mainly old – fashioned study programmes for teacher education on December 30, 2009. Latvia University of Agriculture has licensed 6 study programmes and closed 21 study programmes being not topical, Liepāja University licensed 6 study programmes and closed 39 non topical study programmes (HEQEC, 2008). Recently established regional higher education establishments (Ventspils University College, Vidzeme University College) are active in development and implementation of new and modern study programmes.

Often not all students are able to graduate in time. In regional higher education establishments usually this number is around 10 – 15 % (Sloka, Dzelme,

Vaivads, 2007). During the previous years among the regional higher education establishments in Latvia the leader is Latvia University of Agriculture, which could be related to high demand for study quality. The information on deducted students in state established higher education establishments in Latvia in 2002 – 2006 is presented in Figure 2.

Conclusions

A lot of researches on the influence of higher education on the state and regional economic development are done in the world. Latvia lacks such researches.

GDP per capita is bigger in Latvia's cities with higher education establishments than in other cities, also the growth of GDP is bigger in cities with higher education establishments.

In regional higher education establishments most of the study programmes are accredited for six years, less are accredited for two years.

Regional higher education establishments with bigger experience in the field of higher education (Daugavpils University, Latvia University of Agriculture, Liepāja University) are active in development of new study programmes and also active in closing down old-fashioned study programmes.

New regional higher education establishments (Ventspils University College, Vidzeme University College) are active developers and offerers of new study programmes.

In regional higher educational establishments dropouts equal to 10 – 15% during the previous years.

Latvia has a space for higher education establishment significant influence on regional development. In the current situation the experience of successful examples abroad have to be studied and new entrepreneurial ideas developed.

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Legal Analysis of the Responsibilities of the Commission and the Member States

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Diego Rasetti

Temporary agent of the European Commission

“Taxpayers should have reasonable assurance that the funds of the European Union are managed in a legal and regular manner”

(European Commission (2005b), *Communication on a roadmap to an integrated internal control framework*, COM(2005)252 final, page 2)

Abstract

The discharge procedure constitutes one of the principal responsibilities of the European Parliament. It is by means of the discharge procedure that “*the right to ask a public official for an accounting of his administration*” is realised. Thus the discharge procedure constitutes not only the formal act of closing of the accounts, but also represents an opportunity for a political judgement on the way the Commission has discharged its responsibilities. This contribution is aimed at pointing out specific profiles of the procedures through which, in co-operation with the Member States, Commission can discharge its general responsibility for the implementation of the budget. The authors analyse the Commission’s interpretation of the current rules governing the Structural Funds and the Cohesion Fund in order to clarify the shared management responsibilities of each party (member state and the Commission). With the same aim the position and responsibilities of the member states are described with reference to the current programming periods, in 2007-2013 the aim being to increase the coherence, complementarity and efficiency of the overall structure of the implementation system, including clarification of the obligations on the Member States to co-operate.

Key words: budget, financial management, the Commission, regulations, member states.

Introduction

In the field of “shared or decentralised” management the exercise of presentation of the accounts has traditionally proved to be extremely difficult. The separation of responsibilities as regards implementation deprives the European Parliament of a real interlocutor: on the one hand the Commission does not hesitate to point out the responsibilities specifically allocated to the member states whenever the management on the ground is challenged. The implementation of the Community budget is thus subject to a twofold external control. To the institutional control by the Court of Auditors is added the control carried out by the Commission. The first is rather “declaratory” in nature since the European Court of Auditors is not a court of law and its observations do not have any direct financial consequences. At the second level, the Commission’s observations do have direct financial consequences due to the financial corrections which, despite the limits of this instrument, the Commission could impose (Cipriani, Pisari, 2004; Cipriani, Mare, 2003;

Cipriani, 2007). The aim of the contribution is to point out specific profiles of the procedures through which, in co-operation with the Member States, the Commission can discharge its general responsibility for the implementation of the budget. Following the set aim, the tasks for the contribution are advanced:

- 1) to view the historical background of the EU financing;
- 2) to study the shared management of the Structural Funds;
- 3) to analyse the annual report of the European Court of Auditors, and the responsibility of the Commission.

The Court of Auditors has so far given only a partially positive statement of assurance on payments from the European Union’s budget, pointing out that the main problem lies in the area where Member States are primarily responsible for ensuring financial control of the EU expenditure.

1. The historical background

A. Article 205, first subparagraph of the Treaty of Rome creating the European Economic Community defined the responsibility for the implementation of the Community budget as follows: “*The Commission shall implement the budget, in accordance with the provisions of the Regulations made pursuant to Article 209, on its own responsibility and within the limits of the appropriations*”¹. This provision remained unchanged until 1992 when, with the Maastricht Treaty, a few words were added to indicate that the budget is implemented “*in accordance with the principles of sound financial management*”. In fact, the Maastricht Treaty only “confirmed” a concept which had already been introduced two years before in the Financial Regulation applicable to the general budget of the European Communities. Indeed, a Regulation of 1990 had stipulated that “*the budget appropriations must be used in accordance with the principles of sound financial management, and in particular those of economy and cost-effectiveness. Quantified objectives must be identified and the progress of their realization monitored*”.²

It may be observed in this respect that the concept of “*sound financial management*” made a late appearance in the provisions of the Treaty concerning the implementation of the budget. Indeed, as early as in the Treaty of 1957 establishing the European Economic Community, auditing the budget had been entrusted to an Audit Board with the purpose of establishing that “*the financial management has been sound*” (Article 206 TEC). This same concept was taken up again by the Brussels Treaty of 1975, which created the European Court of Auditors.

It was more than convenient that the concept of “*sound management*” should figure from then on among the criteria meant to inform the implementation of the budget.

B. The increasing volume of Community expenditure and the predominant weight of agricultural and structural expenditure (almost 80% of the budget) was probably the reason behind the second amendment of Article 205 TEC (today Article 274 TEC) concerning the responsibility of the Commission in the implementation of the budget. It was in 1997, in the Amsterdam Treaty, that the following sentence was added to the first subparagraph: “*Member States shall cooperate with the Commission to ensure that the appropriations are used in accordance with the principles of sound financial management*”. But once again, following a modification which had taken place in 1990, the Financial Regulation had already foreseen that “*Member States and the Commission shall cooperate to ensure the adequacy of systems for decentralised management of Community funds. Such cooperation shall include the prompt exchange of all necessary information*”.

This addition in Article 274 TEC could be regarded as a “translation” at the budgetary level of Article 10 TEC which, within the framework of the general principle of cooperation, asks the member states to facilitate “*the achievement of the Community’s tasks*”.³ The same applies to Article 280 TEC, whereby member states are required to take the same measures to counter fraud affecting the financial interests of the Community as they take to counter fraud affecting their own financial interests.

C. Article 274 TEC has remained unchanged since 1997. However in 2002 the Council carried out a complete re-modelling of the Financial Regulation. The new Financial Regulation continues to require that the Commission shall implement the budget “*on its own responsibility*” and that member states “*shall cooperate with the Commission so that the appropriations are*

¹ The Financial Regulation applicable to the general budget of the European Communities, adopted by the Council of Ministers, As the Commission indicates, constitutes the European Union’s financial bible.

² Article 2 of the Financial Regulation of 21.12.1977 applicable to the general budget of the European Communities as amended by Regulation n° 610/90. This provision incorporated in a successive amendment of the Financial Regulation (Regulation n° 2333/95 of 18.9.1995), stipulates that the “*mobilization of Community resources must be preceded by an evaluation to ensure that the resultant benefits are in proportion to the resources applied. All operations must be subject to regular review, in particular within the budgetary procedure, so that their justification may be verified*”.

³ In this context, the Court of Justice considered that under the terms of Article 10 TEC, member states are required to facilitate the carrying out by the Commission of its mission, consisting in particular of ensuring that the provisions of the Treaty and the measures taken by the institutions pursuant thereto are applied (see, for example the judgments of 12.9.2000 (Commission v. the Netherlands, C-408/97, European Court reports 2000, p. I-6417, point 16) and of 7.3.2002 (Commission v. Italy, C-10/00, European Court reports 2002, p. I-2357, point 88).

used in accordance with the principle of sound financial management”.⁴ This Regulation also provides for a number of specific obligations on the member states when tasks that are part of the implementation of the Community budget are delegated to them. This involves in particular regular checks to ensure that the actions to be financed from the Community budget have been implemented correctly, the prevention of irregularities and fraud and the recovery of funds wrongly paid.⁵ The Financial Regulation states that *the implementation methods should guarantee that the procedures for protecting Community funds are complied with, whatever the entity responsible for all or part of this implementation and must confirm that final responsibility for budgetary implementation lies with the Commission in accordance with Article 274 of the Treaty.*

2. Shared management of the Structural Funds

A. Shared management is defined in Article 53 of the Financial Regulation (see Council Regulation (EC, Euratom) No 1605/2002 of 25 June 2002 on the Financial Regulation applicable to the general budget of the European Communities, OJ L 248 of 16.9.2002, p. 1), as one of the ways in which the Commission implements the Community budget. This task is laid on the Commission by Article 274 of the Treaty: *“The Commission shall implement the budget [...] on its own responsibility and within the limits of the appropriations, having regard to the principles of sound financial management.”*

The Member States have an obligation to cooperate with the Commission to ensure that appropriations are used in accordance with the principles of sound financial management, which reflects the general obligation to cooperate correctly (Articles 274 and 10 of

the Treaty). Furthermore, Article 280 of the Treaty requires the Member States to *“take the same measures to counter fraud affecting the financial interests of the Community as they take to counter fraud affecting their own financial interests”* (Commission of Independent Experts, 1999).

Under Article 274 of the Treaty, making no distinction based on the mode of management, the Commission’s responsibility for implementing the budget is general. The arrangements for the Commission to discharge this responsibility in the context of the shared management of the Funds, and the obligations on the Member States, are set out in the sectoral legislation. In the case of the Structural Funds and the Cohesion Fund, the shared management is the way in which the legislator choose to have the Community budget implemented, and the Commission has no discretionary power to choose another means of implementation; it *“is not able to act in any other way than as laid down in sectoral legislation.”* (Point 16(c) of the Resolution of the EP containing the comments being an integral part of the decision on the discharge for 2002 - general budget of the EU (Commission) (SEC(2003)1104-C5-0564/2003-2003/2210 (DEC) . A5-0200/2004, 21.4.2004).

Article 53(3) and (5) of the Financial Regulation, on methods of implementing the budget, sets out the general operating principles which apply to all areas of the budget which employ shared management. It first states that *“Where the Commission implements the budget by shared management, implementation tasks shall be delegated to Member States in accordance with the provisions of Titles I and II of part two.”* and then that *“In cases of shared or decentralised management, in order to ensure that the funds are used in accordance with the applicable rules, the Commission shall apply clearance-*

⁴ Article 48 of the Financial Regulation applicable to the general budget of the European Communities n°1605/2002 of 25.6.2002. Article 27 of this same Regulation specifies in addition the conditions of use of the Community funds in accordance with the principles of economy, efficiency and effectiveness. Specific, measurable, achievable, relevant and timed objectives shall be set for all sectors of activity covered by the budget.

⁵ Article 53(6) of the Financial Regulation n° 1605/2002. A draft amendment of this Regulation (document COM (2005) 181 of 3.5.2005) envisages strengthening these obligations by the following text: *“In order to ensure in shared management that the funds are used in accordance with the applicable rules and principles, the Member States shall take all the measures necessary to: (a) satisfy themselves that actions financed from the budget are actually carried out and to ensure that they are implemented correctly; (b) prevent and deal with irregularities and fraud; (c) recover funds wrongly paid or incorrectly used or funds lost as a result of irregularities or errors. To that effect, the Member States shall conduct regular checks and shall put in place an effective internal control system. They shall bring judicial proceedings if necessary for the purposes of points (b) and (c)”*.

of-accounts procedures or financial correction mechanisms which enable it to assume final responsibility for the implementation of the budget in accordance with Article 274 of the EC Treaty and Article 179 of the Euratom Treaty.”

Articles 155 to 159 of the Financial Regulation then state that the general provisions of the Regulation apply to expenditure carried out under the Structural Funds and the Cohesion Fund save as otherwise provided for. These exceptions concern payments by the Commission, automatic decommitments, aspects concerning the management and selection of projects, and inspection procedures, provided the sectoral Council Regulation contains provisions to that effect.

- B. The Commission considers that the regulation in force allows its obligations concerning the implementation of the budget to be reconciled with the specific features of the Union’s cohesion policy and its management system which, under the Council Regulations, make the Member States responsible in the first instance for the management, monitoring and day-to-day financial control of the resources of the Funds. The existing structure includes arrangements which allow the Commission to discharge its general responsibility by ensuring the existence and proper operation of the management and control systems. The relevance of this problem had been highlighted by the obligation on the Member States which joined the Union in May 2004 to establish management and control systems which could have guaranteed that their initial implementation of the Structural Funds and the Cohesion Fund would have ensured effective use of Community funding. In 1999 with a view to contributing for improvement of the management by the Commission, following allegations regarding fraud, mismanagement and nepotism at the European Commission, the European Parliament promoted (by a resolution of 14.1.1999 and of 23.3.1999) the setting up of a Committee of Independent Experts charged with examining the practices in force at the Commission. Accordingly “*the balance of decision-making power and effective control of direction and expenditure has passed decisively to the Member States*”.

3. The annual report of the European Court of Auditors (2006 and 2007)

- A. The conclusions of the European Court of Auditors (ECA) pinpointed the following aspects⁶:

- Several errors were detected in the expenditure declared by the member states and reimbursed by the Commission;
- Member States’ management and control systems were ineffective or only moderately effective;
- The Commission’s systems to mitigate the weaknesses of the member states were only moderately effective.

Following that, the ECA made recommendations to foster, implement, and improve:

- the provision of transparent and reliable information on financial corrections and recoveries; the quality of the Annual Activity Reports of the Commission’s Directorates-General for Regional Development, Employment and Social Affairs;
 - the Commission’s Action Plan on the Integrated Internal Control Framework (which the Commission adopted in 2006 with the aim of making progress towards receiving from the ECA a positive statement of assurance on the annual expenditure from the Structural Funds);
 - the effectiveness of the Commission’s supervisory controls to mitigate the risks of failure in Member States’ systems; and the sound closure procedures for the 2000-2006 programming period; and the primary controls in member states;
 - the feedback mechanisms in the Structural Funds’ control systems; the simplification of the rules for the management of the Structural Funds for 2007-2013; and the full implementation of the Funds’ legal framework for 2007-2013;
 - the impact of the Commission’s audit work by improving the use of the suspension of payments and financial corrections of errors, and ensure adequate consistency, comparability and usefulness of the annual summaries.
- B. To implement the recommendations in the ECA’s annual report for 2006, the Commission’s Action Plan sets out the activities and initiatives

⁶ European Court of Auditors’ Annual Reports on the 2006 financial year

to be taken in 2008 with a view to strengthen the Commission's supervisory role so as to reduce errors by member states and prevent consequent loss to the EC's budget ⁷. The Commission highlighted that "*A reduction in the level of error found by the Court depends on a partnership between the Commission and the member states to make consistent improvements in the capacity of member states' internal control systems to prevent errors. The Action Plan will mean that the Commission will contribute to these efforts through stronger supervision, more efficient correction mechanisms and improved information.*"

- C. The European Court of Auditors' Annual Reports on the financial year of 2007 highlights for the very first time, an unqualified ("positive") Court's audit opinion on the EU accounts. Nevertheless the opinion on underlying transactions is broadly similar to that of previous year.

On one hand the Court acknowledges the improvements in the preparation of the accounts, and concludes that they give a fair presentation, in all material respects, of the financial position, results and cash flows of the European Communities ⁸. The Commission has made significant efforts since 2000 to address the weaknesses in supervision and control. It has implemented an internal reform programme and, in 2006, launched the action plan to further improve the supervisory and control systems of the Union. On the other, the Court concludes that in several relevant areas⁹ the payments are still materially affected by errors, although to different degrees. According to the Court, supervisory and control systems covering these areas are judged to be "*at best, only partially effective*". In many

areas of the EU spending, there continues to be a high level of inherent risk of error and weaknesses in *supervision and control* by the Commission, and the relevant authorities within the Member States (Communication to the Commission, 2008).

The "Cohesion" accounting for EUR 42 billion of expenditure is the area most affected by error. The Court estimates that at least 11% of costs claimed should not have been reimbursed. The Court's 2007 audit findings concerned payments in respect of the 2000-2006 period, as spending for the 2007-2013 period for 2007 is only in the form of advances. Any improvements in the control systems for the new period will only become evident in future years ¹⁰. For "Agriculture and natural resources", where EUR 51 billion was spent in 2007, the Court found that "Rural development" continues to account for a disproportionately large part of the overall error rate, whilst the error rate for EAGF expenditure is estimated to be slightly below the materiality threshold (2%). In the areas under shared management, much of the EU budget is disbursed to millions of beneficiaries across the Union. The rules and regulations governing the payments are often complex. The payments are, in many cases, based on the self-declarations of the final beneficiaries themselves. These inherently risky circumstances lead to errors both by final beneficiaries and by those paying out the funds. As most errors occur at the level of the final beneficiary, they can often only be detected reliably by detailed controls carried out on-the-spot by the Commission or by the relevant authorities of Member States. Such checking is costly and so usually only a small proportion of individual claims are covered.

⁷ To be mentioned, above these initiatives, the drafting of the updated *joint audit strategy* (including the audit of high-risk management bodies) and the *Integrated Internal Control Framework* (including the examination of the reliability of national monitoring and reporting systems for recoveries and financial corrections) and the *guidance on good practice for primary controls and certification*; the *preventive actions* for both the closure of the 2000-2006 programmes and projects and the 2007-13 programming period; further *implementing actions* to improve primary control at national level and to report on financial corrections by Member States; *effective actions* to increase the impact of Commission audit activity with a view to establish and implement a policy for suspending payments as soon as possible following detection of serious weaknesses in a national system

⁸ As regards the legality and regularity of underlying transactions, the Court gives unqualified opinions for revenue, commitments and payments in two areas, "Economic and financial affairs" and "Administrative and other expenditure"

⁹ For the other areas of expenditure, "Agriculture and natural resources", "Cohesion", "Research, energy and transport", "External aid, development and enlargement", and "Education and citizenship".

¹⁰ Annual activity reports and declarations of the Directorates General of the Commission, a key part of the reform programme, now present a picture that is more in line with the Court's own assessments but some reservations still appear to underestimate the problems. 2007 was only the first year for which Member States were required to produce an annual summary of available audits and declarations.

The Court suggests that any measures for the future to be undertaken in order to improve the present situation need to take into account some specific considerations on *tolerable risk* and *simplification*. The Court's advice is that the benefits of efforts to reduce errors have to be weighed against the costs. Indeed, some risk of error is unavoidable and must be tolerated. Therefore the appropriate (or tolerable) level of risk needs to be agreed on at the political level for the different individual areas of the budget. Due consideration needs to be given to simplification, not least in areas such as rural development and research, because well designed rules and regulations which are clear to interpret and simple to apply decrease the risk of error and enable streamlined cost-effective control arrangements. The Court suggests applying the principles of clarity of objectives, realism, transparency and accountability when designing arrangements for the EU spending.

4. The responsibility of the Commission

A. The Commission "*shall implement the budget*" under the terms of Article 274 TEC.

The European Parliament stressed that "*even though the day-to-day management is shared, financial responsibility remains indivisible and ultimate responsibility for implementation lies with the Commission*" (European Parliament (2004), *Resolution containing the comments which are an integral part of the decision on the discharge for implementing the general budget of the European Union for the financial year 2002, Section III – Commission*, 21 April.)

In this respect, it is the Community authorising officer who is materially responsible for the implementation of the budget. He is responsible "*for implementing revenue and expenditure in accordance with the principles of sound financial management and for ensuring that the requirements of legality and regularity are complied with*". Moreover, the authorising officer is also required to put in place an organisational structure "*having due regard to the risks associated with the management environment and the nature of the actions financed*". The implementing rule of the Financial Regulation also specifies that in the event of "*shared management*" the Commission "*shall first carry out document and on-the-spot checks into the existence, relevance and proper operation within the entities to which it entrusts implementation, in accordance with the rules of sound financial management*" of the procedures applied, of control systems, of

accounting systems and procurement and grant award procedures (Financing the EU, 2004).

As remarked by the Court of Auditors, in the case of "*shared or decentralised management*" the asset is different: the Commission does not normally give its "approval" to the national systems. It establishes common basic standards for management and control in the member states and provides guidelines in the form of handbooks and practical notes. The Commission's assurance on the proper functioning of the national systems is "declaratory", because it is mainly based on statements produced by the bodies entrusted by the member states with the management and control of Community funds. The reliability of such an assurance is presumed in the absence of evidence to the contrary, as a corollary of the existence of specific responsibilities entrusted to the member states.

On the one hand, certain provisions of the Financial Regulation, supplemented by sectoral rules, require the member states to cooperate with the Commission "*so that the appropriations are used in accordance with the principle of sound financial management*" to "*conduct regular checks to ensure that the actions to be financed from the Community budget have been implemented correctly*", to "*prevent irregularities and fraud*" and to "*recover funds wrongly paid*". On the other hand, the Commission can effectively carry out itself controls, but limited in number and in extent. Its services are unable to check systematically the reliability of information on the numerous national systems, in particular as regards the Structural Funds. This shows that within the framework of "*shared management*" the Community authorising officer commits and validates the appropriations without normally having any genuine control of the way the management and control systems on the ground work.

B. The implementation of the budget is thus no more than the utilisation of the appropriations; it does not include any genuine underlying decision, as is normally the case in national budgets. It has been observed that by giving exclusive responsibility to the member states for the implementation of the Community measures carried out in their territory would mean changing the nature of the "delegation" of tasks, which would then rather appear as a form of "devolution". This would involve in fact a kind of "restoration" process, the member

states taking back the competences that they had formerly delegated to the Community. The main justification for the Community budget would then be represented, within logic of “financial equalisation”, by a transfer of appropriations resulting from the solidarity between member states.

Nevertheless, it should be highlighted that the reason of the simple existence of a major part of the Community budget, and of the Commission’s management powers in respect of it, is based on Article 5 TEC, on the ground that “*the objectives of the proposed action cannot be sufficiently achieved by the Member States and can therefore, by reason of the scale or effects of the proposed action, be better achieved by the Community*”. In the present situation, the perspective is to assist to an evolution of the system, where the authorisation are transformed into a “procedural” operation, the management is no longer “shared” but is rather “separated” and the Commission functions in respect of the member states as an “external” controller rather than as a genuine partner in the management of the actions¹¹. It should be noted that the Economic and Financial Affairs Council underlined “*the need for a strict distinction between internal control and external audit. External bodies are not part of the internal control framework*” (Council of Ministers (2005), *Conclusions of the Economic and Financial Affairs Council meeting*, 8.11.2005. point 13).

- C. Let us analyse the state of the play and the role of the member states. The member states finance the budget through national contributions. Furthermore, they play a key role, through the Financial Perspectives, in the definition of the policies financed. Moreover, they contribute in a

decisive way to the adoption of the Regulations laying down the methods of management of these policies. Finally, member states are also recipients (directly or through their nationals) of the Community payments, the daily management of which is moreover in the hands of their national administrations. If this situation should move towards a further reduction of the responsibility by the Commission, then the measures that are the subject of “shared management” would inevitably be subject to nothing more than self-audit by the member states themselves¹¹.

Such a situation raises an objective risk of a conflict of interests and goes far beyond the principle of reciprocal fair cooperation and support between member states and the European Institutions and could jeopardize the managing and implementing of a relevant part of the budget. Indeed, this risk is foreseen in several provisions of the Financial Regulation: Article 52(1) prescribes that “*All financial actors shall be prohibited from taking any measures of budgetary implementation which may bring their own interests into conflict with those of the Communities*”.

- D. As regards **2000-2006**, accordingly with the principles of decentralisation, partnership and cooperation, the Council created a structure for the method of managing the funds¹² set in the Regulation (EC) No 1260/1999¹³ (the basic Regulation governing the Structural Funds) and in the Regulation (EC) No 1164/94¹⁴ (establishing a Cohesion Fund).

In the system of shared management, the Commission’s responsibilities are defined so as to allow it to discharge its responsibility for

¹¹ For this opinion and more advices reported in this article, see Gabriele CIPRIANI, “*The Responsibility for Implementing the Community Budget*” in CEPS Working Document No. 247/June 2006 and “*Rethinking the EU Budget: Three Unavoidable Reforms*” in CEPS paperbacks, 30 November 2007.

¹² As regards the Structural Funds, the legislator decided that the action of the Structural Funds and the EAGGF Guarantee Section concerning rural development measures should be “*complementary to, or intended to contribute to, the action of the Member States*” (preamble 27 to Regulation (EC) No 1260/1999) and so should “*complement or contribute to corresponding national actions*” (Article 8(1) of Regulation (EC) No 1260/1999). In case of rural development measures the Structural Funds and the EAGGF GS provide assistance by part-financing measures decided on at national or regional level. The clearest reflection of this principle is additionality (Article 11 of Regulation (EC) No 1260/1999). Regulation (EC) No 1260/1999 defines for the Structural Funds various arrangements for implementing the budget based on a decentralised structure resting on partnership and cooperation between the Commission and the Member State.

¹³ See Council Regulation (EC) No 1260/1999 of 21 June 1999 laying down general provisions on the Structural Funds, OJ L 161, 26.6.1999, p. 1. Regulation as last amended by the 2003 Act of Accession, OJ L 236, 23.9.2003.

¹⁴ See Council Regulation (EC) No 1164/94 of 16 May 1994 establishing a Cohesion Fund, OJ L 130, 25.5.1994, p. 1. Regulation as last amended by the 2003 Act of Accession, OJ L 236, 23.9.2003.

the implementation of the Community budget by verifying that the member states are carrying out the tasks entrusted to them correctly. With that end in mind and to ensure the respect of the treaty and of the acts adopted by the Community institutions, the Commission notably intervenes at four levels in order to:

- **take the decisions** required for the implementation of the Structural Funds where the statutory requirements are respected;
- **ensure**, in cooperation with the member states, that management and control systems exist and are functioning smoothly, which may include making on-the-spot checks, including sample checks, on operations and management systems or asking the member state to make those on-the-spot checks itself;
- **ensure** the efficiency of assistance: by analysing (through the annual reports and the final implementing report) the progress of the implementation of assistance in terms of the objectives laid down; in financial terms, it could bring to the application of automatic decommitments, the suspension of payments when the statutory requirements are not respected and the formulation and, where necessary, the adoption of the corrective measures required to support the sound financial implementation of assistance. Finally, by evaluating the results;
- **carry out** inspections and on-the-spot audits of operations and systems, particularly through sample checks on them, without prejudice to those carried out by the member states, and applying financial corrections when irregularities and failings are detected and the member state has made no such correction.

As regards inspections, the sectoral legislation has **two pillars**, the first being a series of provisions allowing the Commission to ensure the compliance of the Member States' management and control systems¹⁵ and the second being a further series of rules which define the arrangements for the financial corrections to be applied when irregularities are detected during audits¹⁶.

In the case of the Structural Funds and the Cohesion Fund¹⁷, the aim of ensuring the existence and sound operation of management and control systems is mentioned in Article 35 of Commission Regulation No 2342/2002 laying down detailed rules for the implementation of Council Regulation (EC, Euratom) No 1605/2002 on the Financial Regulation applicable to the general budget of the European Communities (OJ L 357, 31.12.2002) is achieved by the provisions mentioned in the sectoral legislation).

The purpose of these checks is to ensure the existence and smooth functioning of the management and control systems or to check individual operations financed. In addition, Articles 5 and 6 of Regulation (EC) No 438/2001¹⁸, state that the Commission is to receive from the Member States, within three months of the approval of the assistance, a description of the management and control systems in place and that it is to satisfy itself in cooperation with each Member State that these systems meet the standards required by the Council Regulation concerned. The operation of the system is to be reviewed regularly. The Commission and the Member States adopt bilateral administrative arrangements to coordinate the methodology and implementation of inspections and exchange results. Cooperation continues throughout the programming period through reviews which take place at least once a year at meetings between national and Community auditors.

¹⁵ More specifically, Article 38(2) of Regulation (EC) No 1260/1999 allows the Commission to carry out on-the-spot checks, including sample checks, or require the Member States to do so.

¹⁶ The mechanisms for financial corrections under the Structural Funds as described in Article 39 of Regulation (EC) No 1260/1999 and in Regulation (EC) No 448/2001, (see Commission Regulation (EC) No 448/2001 of 2 March 2001 laying down detailed rules for the implementation of Council Regulation (EC) No 1260/1999 as regards the procedure for making financial corrections to assistance granted under the Structural Funds (OJ No L 64, 6.3.2001 p. 13).) are detailed in Commission decision C(2001) 476 of 2 March 2001 "Guidelines on the principles, criteria and indicative scales to be applied by the Commission departments in determining financial corrections under Article 39(3) of Regulation (EC) No 1260/1999".

¹⁷ Regulation (EC) No 1164/94 and its implementing rules provide for a similar mechanism for managing the Cohesion Fund. See Article 12 of Regulation (EC) No 1164/94 and Article 5 of Regulation (EC) No 1386/2002.)

¹⁸ See Commission Regulation (EC) No 438/2001 of 2 March 2001 laying down detailed rules for the implementation of Council Regulation (EC) No 1260/1999 as regards the management and control systems for assistance granted under the Structural Funds, OJ L 63, 3.3.2001 p. 21

E. As regards **2007-2013**, the new regulations¹⁹ in force point out the importance of the controlling systems as regards organisation, efficiency, transparency, procedures and contents of the activities. The Commission, which is attentive to the recommendations of the two Institutions responsible for monitoring the implementation of the budget, acted in order to develop the instruments required to coordinate its work with that of the member states.

The initiative is described and analysed in the Communication to the Commission - Communication from Commissioners Hübner and Pöhl to the Commission giving an interim progress report on the action plan to strengthen the Commission's supervisory role under shared management of structural actions {SEC(2008) 2755} /* SEC/2008/2756 final */ dated 5.11.2008²⁰.

To sum up, the Commission has encouraged the conclusion of administrative arrangements on audits with the member states in order to step up the coordination of checks and the exchange of results between the Commission and the member states concerned, and apply joint audit methods.

The Commission has developed the concept of the contract of confidence with the Member States. This is a voluntary commitment by the Member States which assures the Commission that the resources required to allow checks on the regularity of the underlying transactions are in place and providing a global approach to checks on a particular programme, Fund or region, in line with an audit strategy approved by the Commission, and improved annual reporting on the results of that strategy (Commission staff working document, 2007).

But, as the Court of Auditors noted in its Opinion 2/2004, although the principles or standards

required to ensure the effective and efficient internal control of the Funds are already "*either fully or partially in place*", others will need to be developed and introduced, to ensure that "*the extent and intensity of checking ... make an appropriate balance between the overall cost of operating those checks and the overall benefits they bring.*" Accordingly, on the basis of its experience with the current rules, the Commission wishes to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of the management and control systems in the next programming period.

One of the main Commission obligations was to propose legislation which clearly defines the responsibilities and obligations of both parties in shared management and the arrangements for their cooperation. In detail, these include firstly the definition of essential minimum standards which national management and inspection systems must meet and the financial corrections to be applied where irregularities revealing the non-compliance of these systems are detected.

The role of the Commission, from the point of view of budgetary management, is to supervise the existence and smooth functioning of the national management and inspection systems and must describe how these will operate to prevent irregularities. As regards audit, the Commission will continue to concentrate on evaluating management and control systems and on the procedural and management weaknesses identified by risk analysis, without giving up its right to inspect individual operations where necessary, for example when a Member State fails to follow up an irregularity.

F. Accordingly, the management of the operational programmes has been reassessed, with a view to implement and increase the principles of coherence, transparency, security and

¹⁹ (Council Regulation (EC) No 1083/2006 of 11 July 2006 laying down general provisions on the European Regional Development Fund, the European Social Fund and the Cohesion Fund and repealing Regulation (EC) No 1260/1999 OJ L 210, 31.7.2006, p. 25–78 and Commission Regulation (EC) No 1828/2006 of 8 December 2006 setting out rules for the implementation of Council Regulation (EC) No 1083/2006 laying down general provisions on the European Regional Development Fund, the European Social Fund and the Cohesion Fund and of Regulation (EC) No 1080/2006 of the European Parliament and of the Council on the European Regional Development Fund OJ L 371, 27.12.2006). Still in force the Commission Regulation (EC) No 438/2001 of 2 March 2001 laying down detailed rules for the implementation of Council Regulation (EC) No 1260/1999 as regards the management and control systems for assistance granted under the Structural Funds.

²⁰ As a general evaluation, before carrying out a detailed analysis of the action plan initiatives, "*Overall, the results set out in this progress report show that under the Action Plan the Commission is exercising its supervisory role more effectively to address both the causes and effects of the high rate of error found by the European Court of Auditors in structural actions expenditure.*" (page 4)

proportionality. In terms of the delivery system, legislation has been streamlined and rules simplified for managing cohesion policy. In particular there is:

- One set of management rules

There is now a single Commission implementing regulation for the 2007-2013 programming period, which replaces 10 existing regulations for the 2000-2006 programming period. The rules for management of programmes financed by the Cohesion Fund have been aligned with those of the Structural Funds. The fact that there will now be only one set of rules will make management of the Funds easier and less costly for member states.

- One set of eligibility rules for expenditure

Member states will be able to use national eligibility rules rather than European eligibility rules in addition to national eligibility rules, thus greatly simplifying project management for Member States.

- Simplification of financial management

The financial plans, the setting of the intervention rate and the EU reimbursements will now be made at a higher level (at programme or priority axis level, instead of at measure level, as before). This will simplify management of the programmes by member states and the Commission, and limit the cases where financial plans need to be modified, thus giving a wider autonomy to the national authorities in charge of the management of operational programmes.

- Increased proportionality and simplification for control systems

For smaller programmes (total eligible public expenditure under EUR 750 million and Community co-financing under 40% of total public expenditure), certain requirements on control arrangements can be carried out by national bodies established according to national rules, thus reducing the need to comply with certain Community audit requirements (Commission staff working document, 2008).

Also the degree of Community intervention in the management and control procedures should depend on the size of the Community contribution to the assistance. The principle followed is that the Community rules lay down a common threshold of minimum conditions to which all management and internal control systems involved in the management of the Community Funds must conform in any event. At the same time it allows the Member States to apply their own rules and management and inspection structures where part-financing is

mainly national and the Community contribution is below a certain threshold. These arrangements would in any case apply only if the Commission received assurance on the reliability of the national management and inspection systems.

- Clearer rules on information and communication

Citizens and potential beneficiaries of the Funds in all member states will automatically have the same access to information on funding opportunities and awards from the Community budget for Cohesion Policy, thus reducing the time and effort they have to spend in finding such information.

- Electronic government in practice.

5. The allocation of responsibilities on the Member State

- A. The Member State, in a decentralised structure, has three levels of responsibility.
 - a) Through cooperation with the Commission, it is the guarantor of the sound management of Community resources and takes primary responsibility for correct financial implementation through the managing authority, (responsible for “*the correctness of operations*” and acting in response to any observations or requests for corrective measures to the management, monitoring and control system required by the Commission, the compatibility of operations with the Community policies and the preparation of the data or reports which the Commission requires to monitor a programme); the paying authority (which certifies expenditure and ensures that the managing authority and intermediate bodies have complied with the regulation in force); the application of the relevant national rules on eligibility where there are no Community rules; an effective *ex-ante* evaluation for the preparation of the plans, the assistance and the programme complement, the mid-term evaluation and its updating.
 - b) The member states shall take responsibility in the first instance for the financial control of assistance”, in particular by:
 - verifying that management and control arrangements have been set up and are being implemented in such a way as to ensure that Community funds are being used efficiently and correctly and providing the Commission with a description of these arrangements;

- certifying expenditure, ensuring that it is compatible with Community law and the use of the Funds in accordance with the principles of sound financial management;
 - taking the corrective measures required by the Commission;
 - providing a final declaration by an independent body on the closure of the assistance in the case of the Structural Funds or the project in the case of the Cohesion Fund.
- c) The member state bears responsibility in the first instance for investigating irregularities and making the corrections required.
- B. The implicitly concerned general principles are valid both in the programming period 2000-2006 and in the 2007-2013. In particular in the new programming period the role of the member state should concentrate on the obligation to:
- Provide the Commission at the beginning, before implementation of a programme and before being able to make interim payments, with adequate assurance, delivered by an independent body approved by the Commission, attesting the quality and conformity of their management and control systems in terms of defined standards, and certifying that their accounting system is correct. Only the satisfactory implementation of the corrections of the management and control system foreseen in the action plan will allow the Commission to make the interim payments.
 - Provide annual assurance delivered by an audit authority on the expenditure declared and the correct operation of the management and control system and/or the detection and correction of the weaknesses identified by on-the-spot checks on the use made of the Structural Funds.
 - Provide a declaration of the validity of the amounts certified on closure of the operational programmes based on the audits and checks on the operations carried out during programming.
 - Execute the financial corrections to the beneficiaries of the Funds who do not comply with the conditions governing the grant from the Structural Funds is primarily a matter for the Member States, who will deduct the expenditure concerned from the declarations to the Structural Funds.

Discussion and conclusions

The Structural Funds include a series of specific instruments which the European Union has established to realise its Cohesion policy objectives of strengthening economic and social cohesion. Between 2000 and 2006, the Structural Funds comprised the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF), the European Social Fund (ESF), the European Agricultural Guidance and Guarantee Fund, the Financial Instrument for Fisheries Guidance and the Cohesion Fund. For the period from 2007 to 2013, the Structural Funds are the ERDF, the ESF and the Cohesion Funds. The Structural Funds support both the EC Treaty's objectives for economic and social cohesion and the Lisbon Strategy for Jobs and Growth. The Commission has responsibility not only for the money under its direct control but also for verifying that Member States are correctly carrying out the tasks assigned to them by the legislation establishing the Structural Funds.

For 2007-2013, Latvia has been allocated approximately EUR 4.6 billion in total: EUR 1.5 billion under the Cohesion Fund, EUR 2.9 billion under the Convergence objective, and EUR 90 million under the European Territorial Cooperation objective. As laid down in Latvia's National Strategic Reference Framework (NSRF), the EU funding will be invested in three strategic objectives: 1) development and efficient use of human resources; 2) strengthened competitiveness and progress towards a knowledge-based economy; 3) improved public services and infrastructure as a precondition for balanced national and territorial development. The funds will concretely contribute to fields including urban development, which is currently concentrated around a few large areas. The ERDF (an amount of EUR 267 million) will support the development of 17 cities. The focus will also be on improving the efficiency of public administration, a prerequisite for management of the EU funds. The EU contribution will help compensate for gaps in the education system and will boost the creation of new businesses and improvements to the national road network.

For the Programming Period 2007-2013, the new SF regulation maintains the N+2 requirement (Article 93, Council Regulation (EC) No 1083/2006 of 11 July 2006 laying down general provisions on the European Regional Development Fund, the European Social Fund and the Cohesion Fund and repealing Regulation (EC) No 1260/1999). The pressure on compliance with N+2 has focussed the two regions on ERDF absorption, and deflected attention from the quality of the interventions supported (in line with original programme objectives). It is therefore recommended to reconsider the design of the N+2 requirement in order to allow for a better adaptation

of the rule to specific thematic areas or regions which experience particular difficulties.

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Stratēģiskās vadīšanas ieviešanas nepieciešamība un iespējas lauku tūrisma uzņēmumos

Necessity and Opportunities of Implementation of Strategic Management in Rural Tourism Enterprises

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Abstract

Development tracks of tourism business from starting position are different. Many enterprises fail in this track. Business is successful if it is supported by innovations. If business leaders have well developed strategic thinking, which is used in business strategic management, then their business develops very rapidly and successfully. The analysis of rural tourism enterprises business environment is carried out, and the proposals of implementation of strategic management in rural tourism business are developed in this article.

Key words: business environment, strategic management, rural tourism.

Ievads

Introduction

Tūrisma uzņēmumu var definēt kā uzņēmumu, kurā, uz tūrisma darbību orientētu, vienotu mērķu īstenošanai apvienoti cilvēki un materiālie līdzekļi. Tūrisma uzņēmējdarbība ir ilgstoša un sistemātiska darbība, saistīta ar kapitāla ieguldīšanas un jauna produkta radīšanas procesu tūrisma jomā. Katrs uzņēmējs plāno veiksmīgi attīstīt uzņēmējdarbību. Toties uzņēmuma attīstības ceļš no uzņēmējdarbības sarta pozīcijas var būt dažāds.

No sākuma tas var attīstīties sekmīgi, pēc tam, zaudējot kongruenci starp iekšējo vidi (R), ārējo vidi (E) un uzņēmuma vērtībām un kultūru (V), t.i., nepietiekami izmantojot iekšējo resursu attīstības iespējas, ko sniedz ārējā vide, cieš neveiksmi (1. att., I ceļš). Iespējamais otrais biznesa attīstības ceļš (1.att., II)- mazais uzņēmums, kad biznesa fokusējās uz noteiktu tirgus nišu vai vietējo tirgus un praktiski neattīstās. Trešais biznesa attīstības ceļš ir veiksmīgāks- tas pakāpeniski kļūst efektīvāks un produktīvāks (1. att., III). Ceturtais biznesa attīstības ceļš saistīts ar inovācijām- jaunu produktu un procesu ieviešana veicina konkurētspējas attīstību un uzņēmējdarbības izaugsmi (1.att., IV). Toties ātru biznesa izaugsmi nodrošina piektais biznesa attīstības ceļš (1. attēls, V), kurā uzņēmuma vadītājs ir stratēģisks līderis ar stratēģiskās domāšanas spējām, prasmīgi reaģē uz pārmaiņām ārējā vidē, izmanto iespējas un savā uzņēmumā attīsta stratēģisko vadīšanu.

Ikviens tūrisma uzņēmums valstī darbojas pārmaiņu laikā- mainās starptautiskā, ekonomiskā,

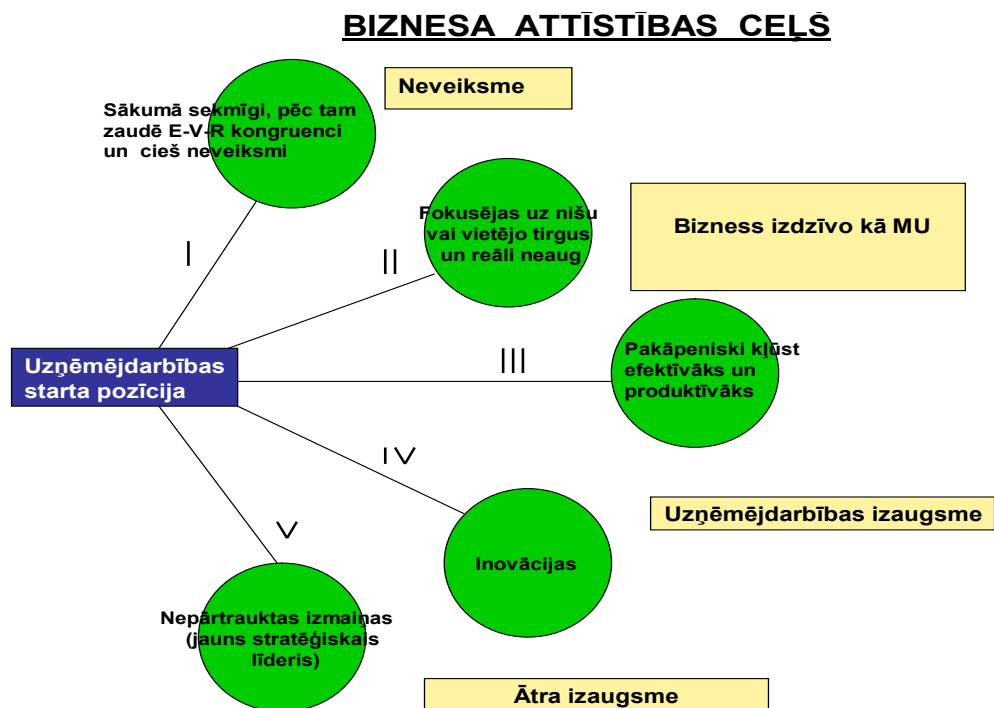
politiskā, tehnoloģiskā vide. Straujas izmaiņas notiek tūrisma nozares vidē. Palielinās konkurentu skaits, mainās tūristu vēlmes, izsaucot izmaiņas pieprasījuma struktūrā. Nenoteiktības apstākļos uzņēmuma izdzīvošana un attīstība atkarīga no iespēju, ko sniedz ārējā vide, izmantošanas, kā arī uzņēmuma spējām pielāgoties mainīgajai videi.

Pētījuma mērķis ir izanalizēt stratēģiskās vadīšanas ieviešanas nepieciešamību ārējās vides pārmaiņu laikā un izvirzīt priekšlikumus stratēģiskās vadīšanas ieviešanai lauku tūrisma uzņēmumos.

Pētījuma mērķa sasniegšanai izvirzīti šādi **uzdevumi:**

1. veikt mazā uzņēmuma stratēģiskās vadīšanas skaidrojumu;
2. pierādīt stratēģiskās domāšanas nepieciešamību un izdevības mainīgajā vidē;
3. iztīrīt faktorus, kas iespaido lauku tūrisma uzņēmuma izdzīvošanu un attīstību mainīgā vidē;
4. izstrādāt priekšlikumus stratēģiskās vadīšanas ieviešanai lauku tūrisma uzņēmumos;
5. piedāvāt aktuālas idejas lauku tūrisma uzņēmuma izdzīvošanai ekonomiskās krīzes apstākļos.

Pētījuma objekts ir stratēģiskais menedžments, tā pielietošanas iespējas lauku tūrisma uzņēmumos. Pētījums balstās uz kontentanalīzes, sintēzes, salīdzināšanas, statistisko datu analīzes metožu bāzes.



Source: Thompson, J., Martin, F. 455.lpp

1. attēls. Biznesa attīstības ceļš
Figure 1. Business development tracks

Rezultāti un diskusijas Results and discussions

Kā rāda statistikas dati¹, tūristu un lauku tūrisma uzņēmumu skaita dinamika mūsu valstī ir augoša. Neskatoties uz to, ka Latvijā tūrisma nozares statistika liecina par nozares izaugsmi, ir jāreķinās, ka arī tūrisma nozarei vispārējā ekonomiskā krīze nepaies garām. Tāpēc tūrisma uzņēmumiem laikus jāpūpējas ne tikai par izdzīvošanu, bet arī attīstību. Lauku tūrisma uzņēmumi (viesu mājas, brīvdienu mājas, uzņēmumi, kas darbojas lauku teritorijās un sniedz dažādus tūrisma pakalpojumus) pārsvarā ir mazie uzņēmumi (MU). Menedžments MU ir vienkāršāks nekā lielajā. Parasti MU nav sarežģītas analīzes un plānošanas. Veiksme lielā mērā atkarīga no stratēģiskā līdera, viņa kultūras, vērtībām un vadīšanas stila uzņēmuma mērķu nosprašanās un īstenošanās. Uzņēmuma vadībai jāpieņem tādi lēmumi, kas virzīti ne tikai uz uzņēmuma izdzīvošanas iespējām, bet arī uz attīstību mainīgajā ārējā vidē dinamiskas konkurences apstākļos, kuros katrs konkurents cenšas darīt neiespējamo, lai kļūtu par uzvarētāju.

¹ www.em.gov.lv 15.10.2008.

Mazā uzņēmuma stratēģiskās vadīšanas būtība un priekšrocības Essence of strategic management of a small enterprise

Nosakot firmas stratēģiju tiek pieņemts lēmums par virzienu, kādā bizness attīstīsies, par vietu tirgū, kā arī par atsevišķu biznesa veidu un ražoto produktu attīstības iespējām. Uzņēmuma vadīšana ir saistīta ar tā ieinteresēto pušu interesēm un tās uzdevums ir radīt firmai priekšrocības salīdzinājumā ar konkurentiem. Stratēģiskā vadīšana (stratēģiskais menedžments) nodrošina ne tikai racionālu firmas rīcībā esošā resursu potenciāla izmantošanu ikdienas apstākļos, bet arī tādas vadīšanas stratēģijas attīstību, kas ļauj pielāgoties izmaiņām ārējā vidē. Stratēģiskās vadīšanas (SV) pamatā ir pārmaiņas ārējā vidē, to iedarbība uz uzņēmuma iekšējo vidi, uzņēmuma reakcija uz pārmaiņām un, atbilstoši, pārmaiņu vadīšana iekšējā vidē.

Stratēģiskais menedžments ir mijiedarbība starp uzņēmumu un tā ārējo vidi, kas sastāv no izvēlēto mērķu īstenošanas un cenšanās sasniegt vēlamu stāvokli ar resursu sadali, kas ļautu efektīvi un

rezultatīvi uzņēmumam darboties mainīgā ārējā vidē (Hofer,C, Schendel,D, 1978).

Stratēģiskais menedžments ir vadīšanas process ar mērķi nodrošināt uzņēmuma misiju, vadot uzņēmuma un ārējās vides savstarpējo iedarbību (Higgins, 1999).

SV ir tāda vadīšana, kuras pamatā ir cilvēka potenciāls, kas orientē darbību uz pieprasījumu, elastīgi reaģē uz izmaiņām ārējā vidē, izdarot atbilstošas izmaiņas uzņēmuma iekšējā vidē, lai sasniegtu konkurētspējīgu priekšrocību un sniegtu ilgtermiņa izdzīvošanas iespējas mainīgajā ārējā vidē, sasniedzot nospraustos mērķus. Nepārtrauktos ārējās vides pārmaiņu apstākļos stratēģijas izpilde nav stratēģijas īstenošana atbilstoši nodefinētai stratēģijai. Stratēģijas izpildes mērķis ir radīt nepieciešamos nosacījumus stratēģijas īstenošanai. Stratēģijas izpilde nozīmē- tādu stratēģisko izmaiņu veikšana organizācijā, lai tā būtu gatava stratēģijas īstenošanai. Stratēģijas izpildes procesa atšķirība ir tā, ka tas nav stratēģijas īstenošanas process, bet rada tikai bāzi stratēģijas īstenošanai un mērķu sasniegšanai. Ļoti bieži firmas nav spējīgas īstenot stratēģiju nepareizi veiktas analīzes vai izdarīto secinājumu dēļ, vai neparedzētu ārējo vides izmaiņu vai nemācēšanu izmantot firmas personālu dēļ. Vērtēšana un kontrole ir loģiski noslēdzošs process SV, kas veido atgriezenisko saiti starp procesa gaitu un mērķiem.

Stratēģiskā kontrole, atšķirībā no parastās vadības kontroles, virzīta uz to, lai noskaidrotu, kādā mērā stratēģijas īstenošana virzās uz mērķu sasniegšanu, vai turpmāk ir iespējams īstenot pieņemto stratēģiju un, vai tās īstenošana sasniegs mērķus. Korekcijas iespējamās gan stratēģijā, gan mērķos.

SV nosaka nevis „rīkojies tā un būs panākumi”, bet- „ ja rīkosies noteiktā veidā, tad var gūt panākumus”. 1. tabulā veikta SV salīdzināšana pēc dažiem parametriem ar parasto uzņēmuma vadīšanu.

Stratēģiskās vadīšanas atšķirības salīdzinājumā ar parasto vadīšanu.

- SV nesniedz tiešu un detalizētu nākotnes ainu. Tā nav uzņēmuma iekšējās vides detalizēts nākotnes apraksts ārējā vidē, bet tā ir kvalitatīvu nodomu kopa nākotnes stāvoklim,
 - kādā uzņēmumam būtu jābūt,
 - kādai jābūt tā ieņemamajai pozīcijai tirgū un biznesā,
 - kādai jābūt organizācijas kultūrai,u.c.
- SV nav rutīnu normu, shēmu un procedūru kopa. Tajā nav teorijas, kura paredz, ko darīt, risinot dažāda veida uzdevumus noteiktās situācijās. SV ātrāk ir filozofija vai biznesa un vadīšanas ideoloģija. Katrs menedžeris to dara savādāk. Protams, eksistē rekomendācijas un problēmu analīzes un stratēģijas izvēles loģiskās shēmas, kā arī stratēģiskās plānošanas un stratēģijas īstenošanas shēmas. Praktiski, SV ir

1.tabula

Stratēģiskās vadīšanas salīdzināšana ar parasto uzņēmuma vadīšanu
Comparison of the strategic management and the conventional management

Parametrs	Parastā vadīšana	Stratēģiskā vadīšana
Misija	Preces ražošana/pakalpojuma siegšana ar mērķi gūt peļņu	Uzņēmuma izdzīvošana ilgtermiņā sabalansējot uzņēmuma iespējas un tā ieinteresēto pušu intereses ar mainīgo vidi.
Menedžmenta uzmanības fokusēšana	Skats uzņēmuma iekšienē. Resursu racionāla izmantošana.	Skats uz ārējo vidi. Jaunu iespēju meklēšana konkurences vidē. Adaptācija mainīgajā vidē.
Laika faktors	Orientācija uz īstermiņa un vidējā termiņa perspektīvu	Orientācija uz ilgtermiņa perspektīvu
Vadīšanas sistēmas bāze	Funkcijas un organizācijas struktūras, procedūras, tehnika, tehnoloģijas	Cilvēki, IT sistēmas, tirgus
Personāla vadīšana	Cilvēks kā uzņēmuma resurss, kas pilda noteiktas funkcijas	Cilvēks uzņēmuma pamatā, tas ir galvenā uzņēmuma vērtība un veiksmes avots.
Vadības efektivitātes kritēriji	Peļņa, racionāla resursu izmantošana	Organizācijas savlaicīga un precīza reakcija uz jaunu tirgus pieprasījumu.

Source: izmantots Thompson,J.,Martin,F. 2005

- uzņēmuma vadības intuīcijas un mākslas simbioze vadīt organizāciju uz mērķu sasniegšanu;
 - personāla augsts profesionālisms un radošums, kas nodrošina organizācijas saites ar apkārtējo vidi, organizācijas un tās ražotās produkcijas atjaunošana, kā arī nosprauto plānu īstenošana;
 - visa personāla aktīva līdzdalība visefektīvāko ceļu meklēšanā, lai sasniegtu organizācijas mērķus.
3. Lai uzņēmumā ieviestu SV, ir jāizveido struktūras, kas nodarbošies ar ārējās vides analīzi un uzņēmuma problēmām, lai pielāgotos ārējās vides izmaiņām, kā arī marketinga, sabiedrisko attiecību u.c. struktūras.
4. Stratēģiskās izvēles kļūdas noved pie bankrota, it sevišķi tādiem uzņēmumiem, kuriem nav alternatīva biznesa vai kuri īsteno stratēģiju, kas nepieļauj korekcijas.
- SV iekļauj izpratni, cik sekmīga un stingra ir organizācija un tās stratēģijas un kā, apstākļiem mainoties, rodas iespējas izdzīvot un attīstīties. Ārējās vides izmaiņu dinamika paaugstinās. Uzņēmuma izdzīvošana, izmantojot parasto vadīšanu, ir problemātiska.

Stratēģiskās domāšanas attīstība Development of strategical thinking

Stratēģiskās vadīšanas pamatā ir stratēģisko lēmumu pieņemšana. Tos veic vadītājs, kuram ir attīstīta stratēģiskā domāšana. Stratēģiskā domāšana ietver pagātnes, tagadnes un nākotnes kategorijas: nākotne, kā reāla un sasniedzama vīzija; tagadne, kā esošā kompetence, t.i., tilts starp pagātni un nākotni; pagātne, kā spēja mācīties no tās, īstenojot pārmaiņas tagadnē. Stratēģiskās domāšanas virziens vērsts no nākotnes uz tagadni. Lai sasniegtu vīziju, tiek nosprausti stratēģiskie mērķi, pamatojoties uz esošajām kompetencēm, kas balstās uz pagātnes pieredzi un mācīšanos.

Stratēģiskās domāšanas spējas attīsta atsevišķi indivīdi. Tās var attīstīt arī visā organizācijā, kas izpaužas šādā veidā: iekšējā vidē tiek ģenerētas idejas, derīgās idejas tiek uztvertas ārējā vidē, tās sintezējot, attīsta informāciju lai radītu jaunu produktu, izveidotu jaunas stratēģijas un iekarotu jaunas pozīcijas tirgū.

Stratēģiskās domāšanas pamatā ir mācīšanās, kas ietver (Thompson, J., Martin, F. 147.lpp):

- sapratni, kā izvēlēties stratēģijas;
- sapratni par esošām kompetencēm, atsevišķu resursu stratēģiskajām vērtībām un saiti starp tiem;
- zināšanas par konkurentiem, to darbību un nākotnes iecerēm;

- izpratni par iespējamiem jauniem konkurences avotiem;
- spēju dalīties ar informāciju, mācīties no uzņēmuma ārējiem partneriem;
- sapratni par vides attīstību, iespējām un draudiem ārējā vidē;
- sapratni par konkurentu aktivitātēm, paredzot iespējamus jaunus konkurences draudus;
- pieredzi, nākotnes stratēģiju izstrādi;
- spēju īstenot nepārtrauktu stratēģijas uzlabošanu nenoteiktā dinamiskā vidē.

Campbell and Alexander (1997) piedāvā stratēģiskās domāšanas pieeju, akcentējot šādus trīs elementus:

- 1) labās pieredzes meklēšana;
- 2) gatavība nepārtrauktām, neparedzētām un negaidītām pārmaiņām;
- 3) uzvedība un kultūra.

Bez skaidras vīzijas un virziena, bez personāla līdzdalības un vēlēšanās nākotnē strādāt un meklēt iespējas pārmaiņās stratēģiskā domāšana ir ierobežota. Stratēģiskā domāšana ir būtiska uzņēmuma mērķu nospraušanā, stratēģijas izvēlē un ieviešanā. Stratēģiskā domāšana veicina sinerģijas attīstību.

Ansoff (1968) sinerģijas jēdzienu skaidro tādā veidā, ka kombinācija no atsevišķām daļām veido nozīmīgāku rezultātu, nekā gadījumā, ja šīs daļas operē atsevišķi.

Efektīvu sinerģiju nodrošina šādi četri atslēgas elementi (Thompson, J., Martin, F. 152.lpp):

1. efektīva vadība, kas uzsver sadarbības, dalīšanās pieredzē un mācīšanās nozīmi visā organizācijā;
2. organizatoriskā struktūra, kas pieļauj sadarbību un iekšējo konfliktu novēršanu;
3. atbalsta sistēmas, kas veicina dalīšanos pieredzē un zināšanu pārnesi;
4. atbilstoša atzinība, jo organizācijas atsevišķas nodaļas var gūt labumu no palīdzības citām.

Sinerģijas nodrošināšana ir biznesa veiksmes atslēgas elements. Sinerģijas attīstības potenciālu veido stratēģiskie resursi – informācija, finanses, personāls, marketinga, vadīšana, uzņēmējdarbības vide.

Stratēģiskās vadīšanas ieviešana lauku tūrisma uzņēmumos

Implementation of strategic management in rural tourism enterprises

Lauku tūrisma uzņēmuma veiksmes atslēgas faktori ir personāla pamatkompetences un atšķirīgās prasmes, kas nodrošina konkurētspējīgo priekšrocību. Ideālā variantā tās

- nodrošina pieeju svarīgiem tirgiem vai to segmentiem;

- veic nopietnu ieguldījumu, lai uztvertu patērētāju labumus, ko tie gūst no piedāvātā produkta;
- rada grūti atdarināmus produktus ar augstu pievienoto vērtību;
- nodrošina iespēju ne tikai izdzīvot, bet arī attīstīties mainīgā vidē.

Sinerģija lauku tūrisma uzņēmumos parādās šādos aspektos:

- konkurētspējas veidošana, ko lielā mērā nodrošina personāla saskaņota un efektīva darbība;
- dažādu tūrisma produktu ražošanas un pakalpojumu sniegšanas procesu savstarpēja mijiedarbība un atkarība, spēja balstīt cits citu.

Sinerģiju mazā tūrisma uzņēmumā ir iespējams attīstīt, daloties ar informāciju, pieredzi, apmainoties idejām, izmantojot dažādas iespējas, ko sagādā ārējā vide. Vadības līmenī sinerģiju var iegūt, savienojot darbinieku individuālos mērķus, uzņēmuma kultūru, vērtības ar uzņēmuma stratēģiskajiem mērķiem.

Lauku tūrisma uzņēmuma attīstību nenoteiktības apstākļos virza stratēģiskais līderis. Viņam ir attīstīta stratēģiskā domāšana, viņš māk novērtēt esošo situāciju, apzinās organizācijas stiprās un vājās puses, mērķus, pieejamos resursus, iespējas, ko uzņēmums var izmantot, māk saskatīt draudus, tos novērtēt un pieņemt lēmumus, kas ļauj mazināt vai neitralizēt šos draudus. Stratēģiskajam līderim, viņa vērtībām uzņēmuma mērķu nosprausā un īstenošanā ir atslēgas loma.

Tūrisma uzņēmuma stratēģija tiek izstrādāta ilgtermiņā. Tā iekļauj šādus elementus: mērķi, vīziju, misiju, SVID analīzi, stratēģiskos virzienus. Atbilstoši stratēģiskajiem virzieniem tiek izstrādāts rīcības plāns, kurā tiek uzrādīti konkrēti pasākumi, to izpildes laiks, investīcijas, to avoti.

Priekšnoteikumi stratēģiskās vadīšanas ieviešanai tūrisma uzņēmumos ir šādi:

- straujas izmaiņas ārējā vidē, ko raksturo izmaiņas valsts fiskālajā politikā, monetārajā politikā, jaunas valsts atbalsta programmas, ES investīciju iespējas u.c. ;
- IT tehnoloģijas, kas ļauj zibenīgi ātri uztvert jaunu informāciju, t.sk. par jauniem tūrisma produktiem, rada iespējas imitēt tūrisma produktus u.c.
- jaunu tehnoloģiju attīstība (jaunas rezervācijas iespējas, tūrisma pakalpojumu sniegšana virtuālā vidē, tūrisma pakalpojumu sniegšanas procesa nepārtrauktas uzlabošanas iespējas);
- globalizācija, (sadarbības iespējas starptautiskajalpā, lielāka izvēle pakalpojumu saņēmējiem);

tūrisma biznesa internacionalizācija (iespējas iekļauties starptautiskā tūrisma produkta ražošanā);

- tūristu vēlmju izmaiņas (pieaug pieprasījums pēc aktīvā tūrisma ekoloģiski tīrā vidē, mainās tūrisma demogrāfija- arvien vairāk ceļo gados vecāki cilvēki);
- konkurence par resursiem, t.sk., cilvēku resursiem;
- jaunas iespējas, ko sniedz mūsu valsts iesaiste ES un dažādās starptautiskās organizācijās (ārvalstu tūristu, kas izvēlas lauku tūrisma, skaita pieauguma tendences; lētās avioflīnijas, atvieglota robežšķērsošana, bezvīzu režīmi ar daudzām valstīm);
- cilvēka lomas izmaiņa vadīšanas procesā, u.c.

Lauku tūrisma uzņēmuma stratēģiskais menedžments iekļauj:

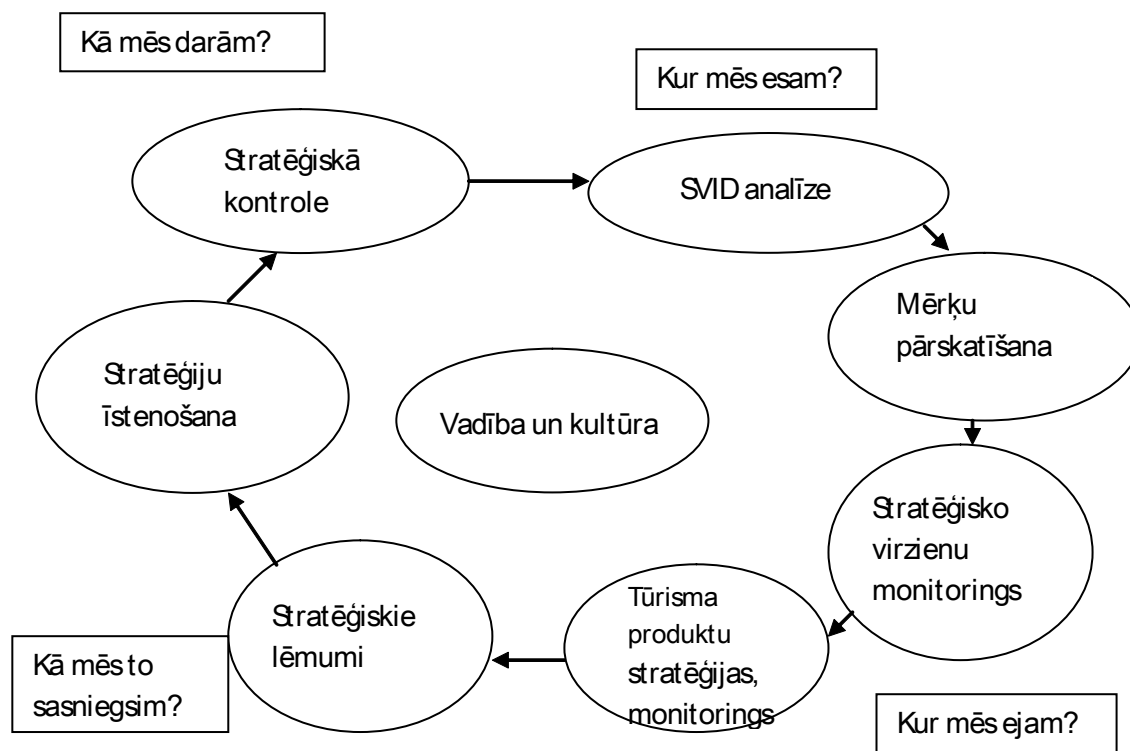
- sapratni par ārējās vides spēkiem, kas iespaido uzņēmuma darbību, to izmaiņu cēloņus un attīstības tendences;
- sapratni par nākotnes iespējām, ko sniedz ārējās vides izmaiņas, un šo izmaiņu negatīviem aspektiem, kas apdraud uzņēmuma darbību;
- lēmumus par pieprasītiem tūrisma produktiem un pakalpojumiem skaidri definētos tirgos;
- efektīvu resursu menedžmentu, lai attīstītu un ražotu tirgū pieprasītos produktus, sasniedzot augstu kvalitāti ar izdevīgām cenām un nodrošinot tos patērētājiem tieši laikā;
- sapratni, kā atslēgas stratēģiskie resursi var būt pārveidoti un lietoti, lai gūtu jaunas tirgus iespējas.

SV dinamiska 5 savstarpēji saistītu procesu kopa- vides analīze, misijas un mērķu noteikšana, stratēģijas izvēle, stratēģijas izpilde, monitorings. Ārējās vides analīze ietver valsts politisko, ekonomisko, sociālo, ekoloģisko un starptautisko vidi, kā arī tūrisma nozares vidi (konkurentus, tūristus, sabiedrību).

Iekšējās vides analīze lauku tūrisma uzņēmumā tiek veikta šādos virzienos:

- organizācijas mērķi, stratēģiskie attīstības virzieni, kultūra, vērtības,
- personāls, tā kompetences, kvalifikācija, intereses, lojalitāte pret uzņēmumu,
- vadības stils, vadības intereses,
- tūrisma produkta ražošana (konkurences stratēģijas),
- finanses (naudas plūsma, rentabilitāte u.c.),
- mārketing (tirgus izpēte, tūrisma produkts, cenas, tūrisma produkta virzīšana tirgū).

Misijas un mērķu noteikšanai stratēģiskajā vadīšanā ir īpaša nozīme, jo uzņēmuma mērķiem un misijai jābūt sabalansētai ar katra darbinieka



2.attēls. **Stratēģiskā menedžmenta izpratne tūrisma uzņēmumā**
 Figure 2. **Understanding of strategic management of a tourism enterprise**

mērķiem, tiem jābūt motivējošiem attiecībā pret katru personāla locekli. Pretējā gadījumā personāls var nebūt lojāls firmai. Tāpēc misijas formulējuma izstrādes procesā tiek iekļauts viss personāls. Ikviens no personāla locekļiem saskata savas izdevības (izaugsmi, sociālos labumus u.c.) uzņēmuma misijas izpildē un atbalsta centienus mērķu sasniegšanā. Izstrādājot mērķus, jāņem vērā uzņēmuma ieinteresēto pušu intereses. 2. attēlā atspoguļota SV procesa izpratne lauku tūrisma uzņēmumos. Centrā ir uzņēmuma galvenā vērtība- cilvēkpotenciāls, ko raksturo vadība, personāls, organizācijas kultūra, vērtības. SVID analīze parāda esošo firmas situāciju, tās stiprās un vājās puses, iespējas un draudus. SVID analīzes rezultāti ļauj precizēt stratēģiskos mērķus un izdarīt korekcijas uzņēmuma stratēģijā līdz pat, atbilstoši, stratēģisko virzienu maiņai, kā arī izdarīt korekcijas atsevišķu tūrisma produktu konkurences stratēģijās. Konkurences stratēģijas tiek attīstītas katrā firmā ražotajam produktam atsevišķi, norādot veidu, kā sasniegt un uzturēt šī produkta konkurētspējīgo priekšrocību. Tiek izdarīti stratēģiskie lēmumi atbilstoši ārējās vides izmaiņām, kuri tiek īstenoti stratēģijas izpildē, kas iekļauj sevī jaunattīstītās stratēģijas īstenošanu un stratēģisko kontroli. Process ir nepārtraukts, tādā veidā tiek nodrošināta SV.

Nobeigums Conclusions

Lauku tūrisma uzņēmuma stratēģiskā vadīšana ļauj firmai attīstīties ekonomikas recesijas apstākļos, izmantojot diversifikācijas stratēģijas, paplašinot tūrisma pakalpojumu sniegšanas iespējas, vai attīstot biznesu citās nozarēs, piemēram, ekoloģisku produktu ražošanā, zvēru (piemēram, briežu), putnu (piemēram, strausu, tītaru, pīļu) audzēšanā, dīķu saimniecību attīstībā u.c.

Stratēģisko vadīšanu lielā mērā nodrošina visa personāla iekļaušanu vadības procesā, saskaņojot uzņēmuma vīziju, misiju, mērķus ar katra darbinieka vīziju, misiju un mērķiem. Tāpēc, veicot menedžmenta darbības analīzi, jāņem vērā šie faktori.

Secinājumi

1. Lauku tūrisma uzņēmuma izdzīvošanas un attīstības iespējas lielā mērā nodrošina uzņēmuma stratēģiskā vadīšana.
2. Firmas sekmīgai stratēģiskai vadīšanai nepieciešama aktuāla informācija par ārējās vides izmaiņām, kā arī sinerģijas procesu attīstība.
3. Lauku tūrisma vadītājam jābūt stratēģiskajam līderim ar stratēģisko domāšanu.
4. Lauku tūrisma uzņēmuma stratēģiskā vadīšana nodrošina firmas attīstību ekonomikas recesijas apstākļos.

Priekšlikumi**Proposals**

1. Lauku tūrisma uzņēmumiem ieviest stratēģisko vadīšanu, kas ļaus ne tikai izdzīvot ārējās vides pārmaiņu apstākļos, bet arī attīstīties.
2. Lai nodrošinātu firmas sekmīgu darbību ar aktuālu informāciju par ārējās vides izmaiņām ir lietderīgi izveidot ārējās vides izmaiņu izpēti un analīzes sistēmu firmā. Šīs sistēmas pamatā ir šādas aktivitātes: preses materiālu analīze, dalība profesionālās konferencēs, firmas darbības pieredzes analīze, personāla uzskatu apzināšana, izmaiņu apspriešana firmas iekšējās struktūrās u.c.
3. Lai attīstītu stratēģisko domāšanu un stratēģiskā līdera spējas, nepieciešams mācīties; tam nolūkam ieteicams tūrisma firmu vadītājiem apmeklēt kursus, kas piedāvā iemaņu izveidi stratēģisko spēju attīstībā.
4. Lai lauku tūrisma uzņēmums varētu paplašināt attīstības iespējas, nepieciešams izmantot diversifikācijas stratēģijas, t.i., paplašināt tūrisma pakalpojumu sniegšanas iespējas, vai attīstīt biznesu citās nozarēs, piemēram, ekoloģiski tīru produktu ražošanā, zvēru (piemēram, briežu), putnu (piemēram, strausu, tītaru, pīļu) audzēšanā, dīķu saimniecību attīstībā u.c.

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Evolution of Land Rent Theory and its Significance for the EU Agriculture

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Abstract

The economic globalisation process makes the economic factors rotate faster. As a result transaction costs of global system functioning increase and a coordination mechanism is needed - especially in agro-food sectors. There exists a crucial question whether a land factor is still capable to generate economic rents which would be the determinants of comparative advantages? On the one hand, D.Ricardo's land rents are vanishing, H.George's rents are provoking financial crisis, monetarists assumptions are becoming insufficient, while on the other hand, the land factor gains new environmental applications and there is still a hope that land rents have its origins in a real value. This paper aims at presenting the evolution of the land rents theory starting from classical economics. One makes an attempt to find the most adequate conception of land rent creation at present day, searching for new sources of comparative advantages in the institutional factors. One argues that Ricardian land rents are vanishing and the institutional rent is the only durable economic rent in the European agricultural sector regarding chosen direction of the CAP evolution. The institutional rent comes from the reduction of the transaction costs by contractual integration process in agro-food sector that however requires a retransfer of financial means from the integrator to the farming producers. In the non-integrated structures drainage of value added by the market mechanism intensifies along with the increase of production specialisation and market risk.

Key words: land rent, transaction costs, new institutional economics (NIE).

Introduction

An economic rent means additional revenue which is linked to any production factor over the transfer income needed to induce the factor to serve those services in this implementation (Begg D., Fischer S., Dornbusch R., 1993). Thus, an economic rent appears in the situation of permanent assets rarity or if there is not any possibility to evaluate the resources and include it *ex ante* into account. If an asset is evaluated in the market mechanism and its supply can increase, an economic rent will disappear, becoming a sort of cost. Theoretically, a rent cannot take negative values, but the process of its creation does not coincide with the process of profit-taking. Therefore negative residual income of rare assets means that economic rent has been intercepted by other enterprises.

Let us notice that the land factor fulfils first of the conditions – is characterised by permanent rarity. This feature has been noticed by the economists in the beginning of the 18th century in the physiocrats' school who regarded the land rent as the only kind of a pure product manufactured by the farmers and consumed by the landlords in shape of lease rent. In the Physiocrats' theory there exists the assumption of a zero accumulation of a "barren class" – nowadays of industry, in which the average incomes were reduced to zero by the competition and the rents did

not exist. The physiocrats' school confined to state the fact of land rent creation in farming but did not take on explaining what the source of land rent is. Is the rent substance created by the relatively higher land productivity and does result from real processes of goods production, or rather subjective regarding the exchange value and assets scarcity? Physiocrats also did not take on the situation in which the farming producer is simultaneously the land owner and does not obtain the rent. Who takes over the rent then and what are the economic consequences for agriculture and all the economy? The above dilemmas fall under the key problems which the theory of land rents encounters, and it shall be highlighted that nowadays they become more and more important. To emphasise them we can implement a following simplification: if the land rents do not come from real production processes they can become a speculation object and the destabiliser of the market economy, if they are conditioned by the land productivity, on the contrary – they are the indicator of the extended reproduction and the basic factor of farming development. The aim of the following paper is, firstly to find a theoretical solution of the above problem through the analysis of the land rent evolution and the deduction from the consecutive versions which were formed from the 18th century up to now. Secondly, an attempt was made

to form and formalise the land rent theory which is adequate on the current conditions of agriculture sector functioning in the EU member states and thirdly to propose recommendations for agriculture development within the CAP (Common Agricultural Policy). One formulates a hypothesis that Ricardian land rents are vanishing and the institutional rent is the only durable economic rent in the European agricultural sector regarding chosen direction of the CAP evolution.

Differential rents

In literature of the mainstream economy David Ricardo is considered to be the author of land rents' theory. Among the precursors we can find A. Smith and T. Malthus who differentiated four forms of land rent – due to fertility differences, location, extra capital expenditures and general rent (Smith A., 1954). In "The wealth of nations" A. Smith from the beginning pays attention to different sources of land rents' origin. Firstly it is the farmers' labour, secondly the land factor reward, thirdly "monopoly price" paid for using the land (Smith A., 1954 and Mieszczankowski M., 1964). T. Malthus similarly searches for the sources of land rent in land scarcity though it does not consider it as a monopoly prize, stating that "when concerning cereal if it comes to the quantity actually produced sold on the indispensable price!" on the contrary to A. Smith who thought that "farming products when being sold always reach the monopoly price" (quoted after Ricardo D., 1957). From the above we can conclude that at the very beginning of defining the rent the discrepancies appeared.

The key issue when assessing the sources of land rents is adapting the adequate value theory. In this direction the following analysis develops in post-classical trends of land rents. Two attitudes arise – the supporters of the value theory based on labour and subjective value theories (including the theory of production marginal cost). In view of the value theory based on labour the issue of land rents is the most widely elaborated by D. Ricardo and Marxist economy.

Ricardian trend which as the first one developed the issue after A. Smith assumed only the existence of differential rents and negated the existence of absolute (general) rent. "If the high price of cereal was a result and not the reason of rents the price would change accordingly to the increase or drop and the rent would be the element of the price. However, the price of cereal is established by the cereal

produced by the highest labour input and the rent even to the smallest extent does not constitute and cannot constitute its price (...) For the price is always defined by the income gained from the last part of capital which does not pay any rent (Ricardo D., 1957). Thus, marginal plots (and marginal portion of capital) simultaneously define the value and market price of cereal, and if the value stated this way will be higher from the borne costs plus an ordinary income then the rent appears – but it is always the differential rent (Blaug M., 2000).

Absolute rents

So K. Rodbertus brought the mechanism of creating a land rent down to the so-called "organic capital composition" which in farming was to be immanently lower than in the industry (Rodbertus K., 1959). This conception is significant because it belonged to the key categories in the analysis of value added (surplus value) which was carried by K. Marx. As it was mentioned it is the Marxism economy that took on the widest analysis of the absolute rent within the concept based on labour. *De facto* it was the polemic with D. Ricardo, identifying the absolute and differential rent on the basis of a theorem of decreasing marginal efficiency of resources (Mieszczankowski M., 1964). Quoting the reasoning of K. Marx the absolute rent constitutes the crops prices because on conditions of a growing demand the prices must increase to the level which will allow to cultivate the worst lands that means it will pay the rent to its owner. In other case they will not be assigned for production purposes. Hence, the rent of marginal grounds is not the consequence of the crops price growth but on the contrary: "this circumstance that the worst soil should bring the rent to let it be cultivated would be the reason of the crops price growth to the level when this condition can be fulfilled" (Marx K., 1959).

In the view of the value theory based on K. Marx paper the absolute rent is defined as the product value surplus² over its production price which appears for two reasons:

- monopoly of the land ownership,
- lower "organic capital composition" in agriculture from the social average, i.e. a lower relation of capital to the labour factor (on the condition that profit rates equalise in all the economy).

Marx did not prove the basic assumption of the presented theory of absolute rent – that there exists the mechanism which brings the agricultural profit rate to the average. His contemporary economists reproached the lack of a free competition in the

¹ Covering production costs.

² Therefore it is not a monopoly price!

agricultural sector which prevents it. The mechanism seems to be the most faulty when this sector is in a bad economic condition. Does the assent to a lower profit rate than the average questions the existence of an absolute rent? Not necessarily – the acceptance of a lower profit rate in agriculture in times of recession theoretically should keep the implementation of land rents on the previous level (Mieszczankowski M., 1964).

Scarcity rents

H. George, an American economist, defined the land factor much wider than D. Ricardo and K. Marx, i.e., as a resource which is neither the capital nor labour. So it is a residual interpretation which in practice covers much wider range of natural resources than traditionally considered land. In this approach the land was separated from the ground, and thus the difference in comparison to other resources is that it cannot be withdrawn from the production as labour and capital (no matter if its products are useful in an economic sense). It can only be appropriated or got rid of the ownership passing it to another entity.

Land rents are a part of the product which goes to the landlords or owners of other natural resources due to the ownership. The above definition partly covers other concepts formed in the 19th century. Nevertheless H. George specified that in an economic sense rents are only the payment for using the land excluding any inputs to improve it. In other words the land rent concerns the “virginal” land and it should not be mistaken with the capital and labour revenues involved into the manufacturing processes.

The land resource as a residual resource covers numerous values of an inflexible supply. In a primary definition it mostly covered resources, natural powers and the opportunities provided by the nature such as: arable land, unpolluted air, water supplies, natural resources, mountain chains, seas and oceans, lakes, rivers, icebergs, forests etc. – in this group we can include all lands of tourist and recreational interest. Nowadays to this list we can also add: radio waves and an access to various frequencies, air-routes, communication and telecommunication infrastructure including internet access, political balance in the world regarded as the main resources control, national cultures which heritage is permanently connected with land, time as an element of transaction costs, sovereignty of nations and inviolability of land, sea and air borders (Backhaus J.G., 1997).

All resources mentioned above are determined by widely implied location factor and they generate specific economic rents ranked by H. George among land rents. Their market value results most of all from their scarcity and is determined exclusively by the demand on specific services. For this reason rents connected with the location factor are particularly prone to speculation and in a moment when they exceed acceptable borders they can lead to a global crisis. The current financial crisis which started in the USA real estate market is certainly of such a basis.

Thus, land rents become destimuli of economy development. Hence H. George in his concept of a single tax postulated a take-over of an entire land rent by the State³ in a sense of taxation of a land itself without the existing improvements.

Many economists of a mainstream protested against H. George’s concept many times since it was created but it is also easy to find the votes for (Foldvary F.E., 2008) as well as the attempts of its adaptation in modern economies – *de facto* the solutions based on its function, in practice also in Poland⁴. Despite common belief eminent representatives of marginal economy mostly supported interventional theses of H. George within the nationalisation of land rents (Menger C., 1976, Walras L., 1990 and Pareto V., 1964).

Rents of an inflexible supply of the land factor

The mainstream economy developed the land rent interpretation of A. Marshall focusing on market factors, i.e., demand-supply mechanism. In this concept only land supply flexibility decides on the rent existence. The rent of an income surplus of a particular factor over its supply price is reached only by those factors which are characterised by an inflexible supply. Otherwise the rent will drop to zero if the supply of such factor would grow. This reasoning concerns also the land factor – each cultivated hectare reaches the so-called transfer price which is established on the basis of land demand plus the differential rent when the income from this factor exceeds the transfer price (Robinson J., 1948). Similar reasoning but even more simplified was presented by P. Samuelson – the level of land rent indicates the intersection point of fully inflexible curve of land supply with the demand curve (Samuelson P.A., 1958). So a land rent exists and varies due to the demand function course. On these conditions each arable land brings the rent which is included in production costs, constituting the price. The rent must be paid in case

³ “This, then, is remedy for the unjust and unequal distribution of wealth apparent in modern civilization, and for all the evils which flow from it; we must make land common property” – (George H., 1981).

⁴ A land tax in Poland is an example.

of a leased land – otherwise the leaseholder quits the cultivation. A producer alike who is simultaneously the land owner must obtain the rent – otherwise it is more profitable to sell the land. Only the state can overtake a part of the rent in form of taxes.

The above reasoning is presented in many contemporary economic text-books. So, according to the approach originating from neoclassical economy this is the supply limitation which created the absolute rent due to scarcity, while the land of different quality creates differential rents.

In the author's judgement it is a big simplification to reduce the sources of land rent to a low land supply flexibility. The single fact of resource immobility does not create any additional value, and it constitutes only the source of market failure. It leads to the above mentioned interpretation of H. George in which the land rent is considered as a destabiliser of the market economy. Disputable seems to be to put down this feature to arable land which in individual agriculture rarely becomes an object of speculation. Neoclassical theory of a land rent does not explain the above mentioned problems; therefore there are premises to develop it into a wider theorem holistically seizing creation process and realisation of a land rent. A further part of this paper treats that issue.

Institutional rents

According to the transaction costs theory of O. Williamson the price of specific assets increases if the transactions are concluded within inefficient institutional structures, it means without appropriate contractual protection (Williamson O., 1998). The food of high exchange value needs a specific resource which one generates additional transaction costs – for instance the costs of selection, costs connected with the lack of deliveries on time, or the costs regarding the inappropriate chemical composition or pollution. At the same time it is assumed that the growth or drop of the purchased resources caused by the interaction between demand and supply influences the prices and sales; whereas the change of transaction costs is not directly reflected in the sale price of final products (this one is determined in the marginal entity), but is *ex post* reflected in costs and causes the fluctuation of economic rent. The height of transaction costs depends on the company organisation, especially on the delivery, production and sale management structure. Therefore it is not included into price by the market mechanism. It is due to the fact that transaction costs are characterised by big uncertainty (which is impossible to measure!) when concerning

the magnitude, situation and time of its appearance – many of these appear *ex post*, and therefore it is impossible to account them in the production and strategic plans of an entity. It especially concerns the food sector. So if it is possible at all to talk about “transaction costs market” or the markets of the “organisation factor” then in the food sector it is very un-transparent.

For that reason (meaning the lack of *ex ante* market evaluation of transaction costs) there appears the opportunity to implement the institutional rent by individual farms. This mechanism functions in the following way:

As it was previously mentioned the agro-food sector market is inefficient due to the significant narrowing of marketing channel in the domain of processing industry and a big capital concentration in this sub-sector in relation to agriculture. For this reason the processing companies gain the monopoly rents and can impose the “price dictate” for farming products. On these conditions transaction costs which agricultural production is subject to do not reflect the sale prices, despite what the transaction costs theory of O. E. Williamson assumes. This theory, as we know, emphasises three variables which determine the transaction costs level. Two of them, this is limited rationality and opportunism arise from the information access barrier, the third one from the assets specificity which determines the mobility of resources involved in the processing. While in non-farming sectors the negative influence of the above variables can be weakened by appropriate contracts, in farming the organisational solutions are not efficient. The transaction costs source in this sector is not the opportunism of rural households but general biological determinants of agricultural production. Additionally, the rural households have a limited influence on the assets mobility level, punctuality and frequency of transactions. The effective reduction of the transaction costs linked with gaining good quality agricultural resources requires financial means transfer from the integrator⁵ to the farming producers that would counteract the drainage of value added by the market mechanism. In the non-integrated structures this drainage intensifies along with the increase of production specialisation and market risk. In practise the participation of farming producers in processing margin is an equivalent for the guarantee of lower transaction costs of purchasing the high quality resource. This participation can be seen as a capital involvement of the integrator in agricultural production (e.g., when the farming machines are its

⁵ By higher prices, capital involvement or income stabilising mechanisms which are to compensate the production risk growing alongside with producing structure specialisation.

possession or the higher sale price is guaranteed). This way the agricultural producers gain the rent which concludes form the higher level of governance structure integration called the institutional rent.

The above reasoning is an attempt of a deductive way of presenting the mechanism of value added creation which constitutes the institutional rent. However to formulate on this basis the theory of creation and realisation of a land rent we should identify underlying basic assumptions:

- a land rent is a payment of an arable land resource, i.e., such which is used to produce food, provides environmental services (including agrotourism) and producing alternative energy sources;
- arable land has the utility of its own (no matter the appropriation);
- the surplus rate in economy equals;
- market mechanism is efficient and expectations of its participants are rational;
- transactional costs of production based on land factor are higher than zero and they significantly influence the entities' performance.

The above assumptions let to formulate a hypothesis (which apparently close to K. Rodbertus' and K. Marx⁶ opinions) that the source of land rent is a positive difference between a potential capital productivity in farming and the capital productivity on other economy sectors. The potential capital productivity in farming estimated by the land market (reckoned as a relation of a surplus to assets – current and non-current) is theoretically higher than in other economy sectors. In other words in farming we encounter a lower cost to revenue relation or a higher ratio of value added to assets than in agricultural surrounding. It results from the complementarity of land factor to a used capital in creating utility. Simplifying the problem – the land to some extent replaces capital and some utilities sold to consumers are of a zero cost. If the rent is not obtained by the farmers - owners of land it means that a potential productivity differs from the real one and that the rent is intercepted by the agricultural surrounding in its margins. However such an organisation of agricultural production that landowners gain rents is possible in market assessment expressed in land prices.

However in long-term the differential rents disappear due to the economic globalisation influence and levelling of soil productivity in all specialisations. The potential absolute rent remains but it is difficult to benefit from farming on conditions of the monopoly

of processing sectors. Nevertheless contractually integrated structures create an institutional protection for absolute and differential rents. The rents performed thanks to this institutional protection are regarded as institutional rents.

Valorisation of land rents and its signification for agricultural policy in the EU⁷

To describe the possibilities of implementing the concept of institutional rents in the EU farming a methodology of empirical verification must be elaborated and tools of land rent valorisation. Empirical valorisation of land rent mechanism creation seems to be relatively simple because it is enough to carry an analysis of efficiency and absorption coefficients in agriculture and its surrounding. Theses on the flow of rent from farming sector to other sectors are also possible to verify using traditional method of "productivity surplus" (Gburczyk S., 1990) based on the tables of input-output model or analysing the integration efficiency coefficients (e.g. Adelman's index) in agri-food sector.

If it comes down to valorisation of land rents we should again make an assumption of arable land market efficiency. For it is relatively the most objective and available mechanism of market value. Basically, the analysis is carried for arable lands used for production of agricultural resources or providing environmental services. Referring to the previous parts of this paper we can acknowledge that the income surplus in farms (including subsidies) over the material and financial inputs, payments of own labour of the rural family and current assets alternative costs constitutes the performed economic rent which consists of absolute and institutional rent. However it must be remembered that the process of rent creation does not have to cover its realisation and in the household's performance only a part of the land rent can be shown while the other part flows to the agricultural surrounding.

The real value of land rents varies according to:

- analysis horizon;
- the moment of estimation – actual or future value;
- structure of farm management – institutional rent appears in integrated structures.

From the point of view of this paper's aims the cognitive values are mostly in actual value (discounted)

⁶ The main difference consists in a fact that K. Rodbertus and K. Marx took under consideration the real productivity having its sources in a labour, expressed by the relation of capital to the number of employees. In the author's concept one considers potential productivity estimated in the market mechanism assuming rational expectations of economic entities.

⁷ In this part a fragment of following article has been used – (Czyżewski B., 2008).

of an infinite stream of land rents. We take into consideration an infinite stream of payments because the land is in a very long time the only renewable and indestructible production resource. Discounted value of land rents equals the current value of land. Less useful seem to be the capitalisation of the rent stream until the stated moment in the future due to the fact that it is difficult to establish this moment for a renewable resource as land. So the current value of land rents of a particular land resource can be calculated in two variants (Woś A., 2006).

- in non-integrated governance structures on the condition that only the absolute rent is being realised and potential other residual incomes are intercepted by agricultural surrounding due to the lack of institutional protection;
- in integrated governance structures on the condition that the absolute and institutional rent is being realised and institutionally protected.

In a sphere of carried inquiries there is mostly the second case in which it is proposed to use Gordon's model (Bringham E.F., Gapenski L.C., 1990) known from implementation on the capital market – see Formula 1b. In this model the perpetual rent is discounted on the condition that annual payments grow accordingly to the constant rate. Interpretation for the modern theory of land rents assumes that a constant growth of residual income results from the existence of institutional rent which is reinvested in production assets (s) and from the long-term growing trend of labour and capital factor in relation to the land factor (t) which is of a constant value. In case of non-integrated structure the discounted value of land rents is calculated according to Formula (1a).

$$L_0 = \frac{R_0(1+t)}{r-t} \text{ assuming that } t < r \quad (1a)$$

$$L_i = \frac{R_0(1+s+t)}{r-(s+t)} = \frac{R_1}{r-(s+t)} = \frac{F_0 \cdot i + R_0}{r - \frac{F_0 \cdot i}{R_0}}$$

$$\text{assuming that } s+t < r \quad (1b)$$

$$R_0(1+s+t) = F_0 \cdot i + R_0 \cdot \quad (1c)$$

where:

- L_0 – discounted value of land rents in non-integrated management structures and current land price.
- R_0 – annual value of an absolute rent – in practice the lease in particular area.
- t – constant, long-term rate of an absolute rent growth due to increasing trend occurrence of

a labour and capital factor in relation to a land factor.

L_i – discounted value of land rents in integrated management structures.

F_0 – value of specific production assets in a base time.

r – annual return rate of alternative assets.

s – constant rate of residual income of an institutional rent.

i – institutional multiplier or a return rate of a contractual integration – it determines an extended reproduction of production assets (specific assets) within contractual flows from the surrounding.

The proposed formulae have big cognitive values on micro- as well as macro-scale. The above formulae indicate inversely related dependence between the land rent level and interest rates in economy. Moreover, the answer to a question is possible whether the carries macroeconomic and agricultural policy let the realisation of land rents in individual farms or whether they flow to the surrounding? The proposed approach bases on the comparison of rents realised in rural households with those which would result from the prices on the arable land market. This way we can identify potential rent flows to the surrounding, and the directions of macroeconomic policy changes which could stop them. The assessment concerns also the magnitude of necessary budgetary retransfers. Certainly some barriers create the deformation of a land market via specific statutory limits resulting in lower liquidity. Nevertheless still it is the best of possible mechanism that can be used of land rent's estimation in Poland.

It is worth focusing on how to use the valorisation of land rents in agricultural policy of the EU? Land rents provide numerous functions very important for the agricultural sector development:

Firstly, if the absolute rent does not exist in the individual farms performances it is a signal that there is no reproduction process, so the farm or a group of farms stop providing their economic functions and the assets degrade. If there is no institutional rent there is no process of extended reproduction, so the farm does not develop. These are important guidelines for reorientation of the used CAP's tools, macroeconomic and fiscal. The above situation does not mean that the land rents do not exist but that they are in some amount intercepted by the market mechanism and other entities use them. This situation can be corrected by the adequate budgetary retransfers or fiscal tools.

Secondly, the positive result ($L_i - L_0$) has important implications for agricultural policy of the EU. It indicates to what extent the process of restructuring

of agricultural sector took place, i.e., what are the rates of extended reproduction, competitiveness and profitability of farms not included in the land price. It is a guideline how the flows within institutional structures complete budgetary transfer. In practice this value shows how much the structural support of Pillar II of the CAP addressed to specific households can be lowered in order to unburden the tax-payers assuming that the role of the state was intercepted by institutional flows. Moreover the income growth which is not estimated by the market impact on all macroeconomic policy because it causes particular growth of global demand and starts the multiplying effects.

Thirdly, for a very long time attention has been paid in literature to the following topic – the loads of individual households for the state should not exceed the differential rent. However, if this differential rent in a classical form disappears linking it with the agricultural tax seems harmful. Meanwhile the institutional rents resulting from good organisation of production structure should be inviolable source of comparative advantages and especially protected determinant of restructurisation and agricultural development in Poland. Hence the rent on the one hand protects from the negative results of globalisation, while on the other hand it is complementary in respect of state intervention and the CAP, and this way simply unburdens the EU tax-payers.

Conclusions

From the above considerations the origin of land rent theory was shown as well as an evolution of opinions on land factor and its income from the classical economics times. Also it attempted the adaptation of various land rent concepts to modern processes taking place in the EU and Polish agriculture. As a result theoretical frames were formed which are a hybrid of neoclassical opinions and the value theory based on the labour: the source of land rent is a positive difference between a potential capital productivity in farming and the capital productivity on other economy sectors, and one has proposed an adaptation of Gordon's model to calculate the value of land rents. Of a neo-classical character (to be precise of a new classical economics) there is this assumption of market effectiveness and rational expectations of entities. The input of a theory based on labour is included in an opinion that the land has its own utility and its value comes from not the scarcity but potentially high productivity within generating the real flows. Thus the first and second aim of the article has been achieved. However, it must be stressed that the proposed concept should be

approached cautiously because it is only a deductive attempt of theory adaptation to changing economic reality which needs to be verified by statistical data. The third aim has been also completed – the value of institutional rents shows how much the structural support of Pillar II of the CAP addressed to specific households can be lowered in order to unburden the tax-payers assuming that the role of the state was intercepted by institutional flows.

Another interesting conclusion is that paradoxically from all the presented classical theories it is Marxist approach which becomes the most up-to-date because it has the most common points with the author's concept of land rent adequate for today's reality of the CAP. The history described a circle. Marxists explanation of the land rent substance basing on organic capital composition was disproved by the reality of post-war years of the second half of the 20th century. This time brought a dynamic growth of capital-absorption in farming, the drop of the employment rate in agriculture as well as production intensification till the possible limits of ecosystem. Industrial model of agriculture which struggles with food overproduction problem and low prices of farming products denied the existence of sources of land rents in the theory based on labour and land utility. In times of industrial farming directed to produce cheap food, the marginal utility of land was dreadfully low, threatening this resource with degradation. Many economists regarded the land factor function as *constant* announcing almost its full substitution with capital. The changes which *de facto* are forced by the consumer in highly-developed countries in reality depend on reversing the land utility trend form decreasing to the growing one. In globalisation times the natural environment and land factor regain its previous utility for consumers and even gain a new one which proof is the growing dynamics of land prices. The land factor in highly-developed countries becomes more and more complementary in comparison to capital. In this context the reality is closer to Marxist theory of a land rent which searched for its sources in agriculture than to a simplified neo-classical vision which made the rent's level fully dependent on food demand function and land scarcity.

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Perception of Health Information in the Community Fulda-Südend and Kohlhaus

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Abstract

The project CHANCE “Community Health Management to Enhance Behaviour” is a project of ten partners within the EU-programme GRUNDTVIG/ “Lifelong Learning Programme” (12/2007 – 11/2009). As part of this project a quantitative research study concerning the perception of health information has been carried out in households in Fulda-Südend and Kohlhaus, Germany. Therefore a questionnaire with 40 questions was developed by the seven international partners. The national health system and the media for health information in each country had been analysed before.

The survey was done in spring/summer of 2008. Thus 195 individuals were asked for sources of health information, health, attitudes and behaviour, competencies, consumption of food, living and wishes for health in the community – on the condition that about 50% had to be vulnerable groups like migrants, elder people and families with children. Especially, they were asked for the knowledge about the campaign “5 a day”.

186 questionnaires could be analysed.

The results show that the perception of health information was influenced by age, gender, migration background and the status of health. Doctors are the most important source for health information. The campaign “5 a day” was rather unknown in the various groups. Health information in the media like internet or brochures do not reach most of the groups, except the younger people.

The results will allow conclusions to the perception of official health information in these communities. On the basis of these results the hypothesis were generated, and proposals were suggested for interventions in these communities in winter and spring 2008/2009.

Key words: perception of health information, community, development of hypotheses for interventions, migrants.

Introduction

General aims

The project CHANCE “Community Health Management to Enhance Behaviour” is a project of ten partners within the EU-programme GRUNDTVIG/ “Lifelong Learning Programme” from 12/2007 – 11/2009 (Figure 1).

Seven partner universities are integrated:

- University of Applied Sciences Fulda, Germany (Co-Ordinator)
- Latvia University of Agriculture Jelgava, Latvia
- Liverpool John Moores University, Liverpool, United Kingdom
- Universitatea de Vest din Timisoara, Timisoara, Romania
- Uppsala University, Uppsala, Sweden

- Vienna University of Technology, Faculty of Architecture and Spatial Planning, Vienna, Austria

- University of Vienna, Vienna, Austria.

Three local German partners participated:

- Federation of Home Economics (dgh e.V.)
- German National Association of Senior Citizens’ Organisations (bagso e.V.)
- Consumer Centre Hesse (VZ Hessen e.V.).

Special local partners will be found and integrated in the other countries.

The general aims of the project are

- the analysis of different European health information systems, and comparison of these health information systems on the European level;
- the analysis of the specific resources and needs of different European communities, and comparison

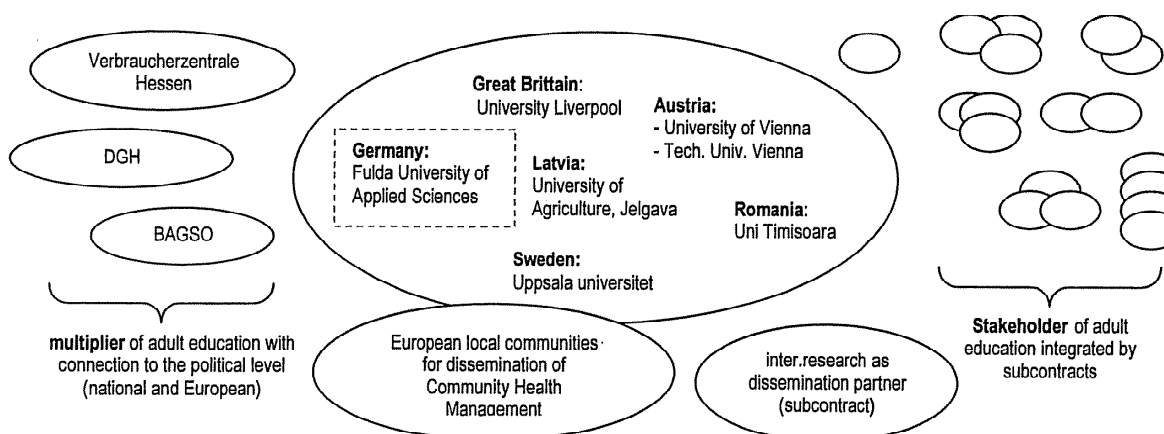


Fig. 1. Partnerships in CHANCE

	Part A	Part B	
Target	community's structure	households' resources	perception of health information
Target group	local (adult) actors	adult inhabitants in households	
Research method	qualitative research	quantitative and qualitative research	
Duration	6 months	6 months	
Result	- local network - community's resources	- households' resources - households' barriers - need for information	- conclusion to the perception of official health information in a community

Fig. 2. Methods in the first work packages of CHANCE

- of these structures on the European level;
- the analysis of the health knowledge and the perception of health messages in different communities and relating them to the local community's structure;
- the initiation of a local network;
- the development, implementation and evaluation of specific community-related offers for health information and education.

The community approach includes interventions which are specifically developed for one unique community. The partners had elected communities in each country, in Germany Fulda-Südend and Kohlhaus.

The research methods are a mixture of qualitative and quantitative research (Figure 2).

At first, the analysis is given on the national health system and the media for health information in each country. From the national perspective health promotion and prevention in Germany are a task of the health insurance system und public health service. There exist different parallel and/or competing action

plans, programmes, strategies and recommendations. A total national concept on health information is missing. Obviously the comparison of the different local activity programmes for the vulnerable groups comes to the result that there is a great gap in the health information for the group of migrants.

Specific aims in Germany

The paper will describe selected results of the quantitative research in Fulda-Südend and Fulda-Kohlhaus.

The specific aims in this community were:

- the analysis of the health knowledge of individuals in households;
- the analysis of the perception of health messages (the same individuals);
- the survey with about 200 people in households. 50% of the individuals should be members of the vulnerable groups like elderly, migrants, families and one-parent-families (presetting through the grant agreement with the EACEA);

- the development of hypothesis for the interventions, using the results of qualitative research.

A questionnaire with 40 questions was developed in collaboration with the international scientific partners.

The topics of the questionnaire:

- sources of health information (question 1, 2 and 5);
- implementation of health information in daily life (question 3);
- competence to solve problems (question 4);
- community, surroundings, living (size, ownership, tenant), participation of activities in the community (questions 6, 7, 8, 12, 13, 14 and 27);
- health competence: duration and forms of sport activities, nutrition, appreciation of health, television consumption, hygiene, body height, weight (questions 9, 10, 11, 15, 16, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26 and 31);
- household: support (e.g., cooking, care) for those persons in the households, who need help, size of households (questions 17, 18, 19, 32 and 33);
- socio-demographic data of age, gender, education, job, appreciation of income (questions 29, 30, 34, 35 and 36);
- migration background (questions 37, 38, 39 and 40);
- proposals for changes with regard to health in the community (question 28).

The 40 questions included 5 open, 5 half open and 30 closed questions. Single or multiple responses were possible in the half open and closed questions. Single responses could be dichotomous yes-no-answers or questions or ranking rather

rating scales. Open questions are needed for data like weight and body size or age. The open questions were necessary for more information and proposals.

The individuals were chosen through random sample on two methods. One part was selected according to the random-route-method by inclusion of all streets (Raithel, J., 2006, 57). The households had been informed through the local press and a paper in each private post box in Südens. Another part of the questionnaires was given to local groups in Südens and Kohlhaus (e.g., parents in kindergarten and schools, patients of a doctor, Turkish sports club). Here the cluster sample was used.

A pre-test with 20 questionnaires (14 face-to face, 6 via telephone) was arranged. Some questions were adapted. Data collection had been anonymous.

The survey was managed through six students of the University of Applied Sciences in Fulda in the time period from the end of May to the middle of June 2008 between 9-12 am and 3-7 pm from Monday to Saturday. The individuals were interviewed in their own households, the students filled up the questionnaires. Each third individual, who was ringed, was interviewed. Oral interviews accounted for 92 questionnaires. So the rate of return was 33%. The interviews lasted from 30 minutes till 1 ½ hour.

Some individuals of different groups filled up the questionnaire by themselves. These groups received 235 questionnaires, of which 103 were returned, so the rate of return was 44%.

Eight questionnaires from 195 were not completely filled up, one was invalid, so 186 could be analysed. The analysis was made by SPSS 15.0.

Table 1

Age groups (n = 186)

Age groups	in percent
under 20 years	12.4
21-30 years	16.1
31-40 years	19.9
41-50 years	15.1
51-60 years	9.7
61-70 years	12.4
71-80 years	10.2
81 and more years	3.2
no data	1.1

Results

The population of Fulda-Südend is 4.688 inhabitants, while the population of Fulda-Kohlhaus amounts to 1.160 inhabitants. The urban area is structured by a mixture from houses with 3 – 4 floors, private houses and block of flats/ residential buildings and many companies.

64.5% (120 persons) were female, 35.5% (66 persons) male.

The following table shows the age distribution.

Forty-two individuals had a migration background. The migration background distribution by the age groups: about 14% in the age group under 20 years, about 23% in the age group 21-30 years, about 40% in the middle age between 31-60 years and about 21% more than 61 years (Table 2).

46.8% of 169 individuals lived in families with child/children, of which 37.3 % are living with a partner and child/children, and 9.5 % only with child/children. 21.3 % are alone in households, 26% are together with a partner and 5.9 % are living together with other person (Table 3).

The main information source for all ages (n= 186) is the doctor. For the younger people under 20 and

between 21-30, the media like internet and television are important too. For the individuals under 20 the Chemist's shop and newspapers are on the place four and five, converse for the individuals between 21-30. The population of the age group of 31-60 rank the internet on the third place, while those being older than 61 consider newspapers. The television is on the place four for the group classes between 31 and 80, while the place five is different (Table 4).

The health knowledge of individuals in households was analysed concerning the knowledge about the campaign "5 a day". Four answers had been possible. Under 20 years 47.8% did not know anything, 39.1% had known the correct answer (5 portions of fruits/vegetables a day). In the age group 21-30 33.3% thought "5 meals a day" had been the right answer, 30% did not know anything, and 26.7% had known the right answer. In the age group between 31-40 years 51.4% had known the right answer, 40.5% thought it means "5 meals a day". So, this age group showed the highest percentage of knowledge (Table 5).

The knowledge rate of "5 a day" was accounted for 39.3 % of the women, while 31.3% for the men.

Table 2

Age groups and with/without migration background (n = 182)

Age groups	with migration background n = 42	without migration background n = 140
under 20 years	14.3 %	12.1 %
21-30 years	23.8 %	14.3 %
31-40 years	11.9 %	22.1 %
41-50 years	14.3 %	15.7 %
51-60 years	14.3 %	8.6 %
61-70 years	9.5 %	12.9 %
71-80 years	7.1 %	11.4 %
81 and more years	4.8 %	2.9 %

Table 3

Living situation (n = 169)

Living situation	in percent
alone	21.3
with others	5.9
with child/children	9.5
only with a partner	26.0
with partner and child/children	37.3

Table 4

Ranking of the information sources within the ages (n = 184)

Age groups	Ranking of the information sources				
	1	2	3	4	5
81 and more years	doctor	chemist's shop	newspaper	-	-
61-80 years	doctor	chemist's shop	newspaper	television	internet
31-60 years	doctor	chemist's shop	internet	television	newspaper
21-30 years	doctor	internet	television	newspaper	chemist's shop
under 20 years	doctor	internet	television	chemist's shop	newspaper

Table 5

Knowledge of "5 a day" and age groups (n = 180)

Age groups	5 meals a day	5 bottles of water a day	5 portions of fruits/vegetables a day	do not know
under 20 years	8.7 %	4.3 %	39.1 %	47.8 %
21-30 years	33.3 %	10.0 %	26.7 %	30.0 %
31-40 years	40.5 %	0.0 %	51.4 %	8.1 %
41-50 years	42.9 %	7.1 %	39.9 %	10.7 %
51-60 years	35.3 %	0.0 %	41.2 %	23.5 %
61-70 years	13.6 %	4.5 %	31.8 %	50.0 %
71-80 years	29.4 %	0.0 %	23.5 %	47.1 %
81 and more years	16.7 %	0.0 %	16.7 %	66.7 %

Table 6

Knowledge of "5 a day" and sex (n = 181)

Sex	5 meals a day	5 bottles of water a day	5 portions of fruits/vegetables a day	do not know
female	34.2 %	2.6 %	39.3 %	23.9 %
male	21.9 %	6.3 %	31.3 %	40.6 %

More men (40.6%) did not know anything compared to women (23.9%). 34.2% of women thought it means "5 meals a day", while 21.9% of men gave the same answer. "5 bottles of water" was the answer for 6.3% of the men, and only 2.6% of the women (Table 6).

In a cross tab knowledge of "5 a day" and appreciation of health was linked. 81.9% of the individuals with the right answer appreciated their health very good or good (Table 7). 73.6% with the answer "5 meals a day" assessed very good or good (Table 7).

Table 7

Knowledge of “5 a day” and appreciation of health (n = 179)

appreciation of health	5 meals a day	5 bottles of water a day	5 portions of fruits/vegetables a day	do not know
very good	13.2 %	14.3 %	15.2 %	5.7 %
good	60.4 %	57.1 %	66.7 %	56.6 %
neither nor	18.9 %	28.6 %	12.1%	28.3 %
bad	7.5 %	0.0%	4.5 %	9.4 %
very bad	0.0 %	0.0 %	1.5 %	0.0 %

Table 8

Knowledge of “5 a day” and migration background (n = 179)

Migration background	5 meals a day	5 bottles of water a day	5 portions of fruits/vegetables a day	do not know
with	30.0 %	5.0 %	32.5 %	32.5 %
without	30.2 %	2.9 %	38.1 %	28.8 %

The right knowledge of “5 a day“ was with 32.5% not so good among individuals with migration background, on the contrary to persons without migration background (38.1%) (Table 8).

Conclusions

The hypotheses could be generated on the basis of these results:

- The information “5 a day” is differently perceived in the several age groups.
- Age groups use different sources of information.
- The perception of the information “5 a day” is influenced with the appreciation of the own health.
- The information “5 a day” is differently perceived by men and women.
- The perception of the information “5 a day” is worse among migrants.

The generated hypotheses are the basis for the interventions, which will be arranged in winter and spring 2008/2009.

The proposals for interventions on the basis of these hypotheses are:

- group specific offers for health education in the community;
- transfer of the health information from the

national and regional level to the local area is necessary;

- food literacy is important;
- active participation of the several local groups;
- more generation offers;
- inclusion of different health experts and health suppliers;
- implementation of a network with local actors and experts.

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Healthy Lifestyle in the Elderly's View in Romania and Latvia

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Abstract

A healthy lifestyle at the old age is one of the indicators of life values. The aim of the paper is to identify and compare healthy lifestyles for the elderly in a typical microdistrict in Latvia and a comparable size community in Romania from the points of view of physical exercises, eating habits, social and physiological feeling of comfort. The research was carried out within the framework of GRUNDTVIGT Project No. 134240-LLP-1-207-DE-GRUNDTVIGT-GMP "Community Health Management to Enhance Behaviour" (CHANCE). The research results showed that eating habits in Latvia and Romania are slightly different. In both countries, the elderly not very often use fresh food in their everyday life, or healthy, relative newly introduced products as grain bread and cereals. Daily physical exercises of the elderly are impacted by the type of their housing. The family and social environment are important for their social and physiological feeling of comfort. A healthy lifestyle is impacted by traditions established along generations which are influenced by their social life, the place of residence and the type of housing, and the social relations in the neighbourhood.

Key words: the elderly, healthy lifestyle, households.

Introduction

Long-term development cannot be imagined without healthy individuals keeping a healthy lifestyle, especially after analysing changes in demographical processes related to globalisation, which includes further aging of the society not only in Latvia and Romania, but also in the whole Europe.

People in Latvia understand that the terms "healthy lifestyle" and "life quality" are closely interrelated, yet studies reveal that the Latvian elderly consider their health an instrument for providing the quality of life rather than a part of their life quality (Bela B., 2006). In this connection, the Latvian Sustainable Development Strategy 2030 includes the need for promoting a healthy lifestyle and improving the health care system as well as reducing social inequality, so that an increase in well-being would ensure satisfaction with life in all societal groups (Latvijas ilgtspējīgas attīstības..., 2007) – especially for the elderly and rural residents whose life was evaluated as bad by around 70% of the surveyed elderly (Bela B., 2006).

In Romania people affirm that health is their most valuable asset, but practically they do not do anything in order to maintain or improve it. Preventive medicine is scarce, people only go to the doctor if they are feeling really sick.

The aim of the paper. The paper reviews the discussions on healthy lifestyles and the attitudes of the elderly to them within the context of life quality.

Its aim is to identify and compare the elderly's views on and attitudes related to healthy lifestyles in Latvia and Romania.

The following tasks are set forth to achieve the aim:

- 1) to conceptualise a healthy lifestyle as one of the factors influencing the quality of life during aging;
- 2) to ascertain how the population in Latvia and Romania perceive a healthy lifestyle and their care for health;
- 3) to identify what geological, psychological, and social factors impact the health behaviour of people;
- 4) to identify what healthy lifestyles are characteristic of the elderly.

The research topic is a subjective evaluation of healthy lifestyle of the elderly. However, the research object is limited by including only the elderly living in private households and residing in a typical urban microdistrict in Latvia and suburb in Romania.

Theoretical framework

The World Health Organisation's definition states that health is "a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity". This made us conclude that health care results might not be completely understood without having a perfect understanding of life quality. The WHO defines life quality as a wide concept, which is impacted in a complex way by an individual's state

of health, psychological state, beliefs, relations with other people and the most significant environmental factors (Smith A., 2000).

Both care and carelessness for one's own health is a result of interaction among psychological, physical, and social factors. Ann Bowling calls it the biopsychosocial health model or "health lifestyle". A health lifestyle is "intentional health behaviours based on the alternatives available in each particular situation" (Bowling A., 2002).

Health behaviour is:

- 1) an activity carried out by a person considering himself / herself healthy in order to prevent a disease;
- 2) activities that are carried out irrespective of the state of health in order to prevent diseases;
- 3) any behaviour performed by a person with the purpose to protect, promote, or preserve his/her health irrespective of an understanding of his/her state of health;
- 4) an activity for reducing the risk of getting ill, and a behaviour having as purpose to promote health.

The care for health is a general notion of one's health as a measure of values that ensures sufficient life quality, a sufficiently long life, and a good physical feeling.

The care for health is exposed as a holistic lifestyle (system of health habits), in which health is included in the basic values of life and in the concept of life quality. Knowledge on the constitution and functions of one's own organism and delivery of information on available health care services allow people to adequately act in case of illness (system of disease habits).

Therefore the health behaviour determines three types of categories:

1. Individual categories.
2. Social and cultural categories.
3. Capability categories.

What does it mean to care for health? Does it mean preventing diseases and abstaining from unhealthy habits or trying to maintain the functionality of the body and mind given by nature; not only maintaining, but also promoting one's own health?

Research methods. The research in this paper is focused on sociological surveys in the form of interviews and on data processing using statistical research methods. The research is unique due to the fact that it was carried out in two new EU member states simultaneously. A typical part of a town, specific to each country, was chosen for the research object. The research subject in this paper is the elderly.

Research results

RAF microdistrict in the city of Jelgava acquired its name from Riga Autobus (minibus) Factory which was located in Jelgava. Dwelling houses were built for the factory's employees in the vicinity of the factory. The microdistrict is situated in the North East of Jelgava, on the right bank of the river Lielupe, around 3 km away from the centre of Jelgava towards the capital city of Riga. As of January 1, 2008, 4520 residents lived in the microdistrict's territory which was chosen for the research. The average size of households in RAF is 2.89. Natural gas and electric power is supplied to RAF microdistrict; it has a centralised water supply system and a sewage system which is connected to the city's water treatment plant. A block in the RAF microdistrict consists of five-storey and nine-storey dwelling houses which were built in the 1970s. The chosen territory has a school with a pool, a sports hall and a sports ground, which is available also to the microdistrict's residents, 2 kindergartens, 4 small food stores, a baker's store, a household goods store and 3 shopping centres, a café and a fast food restaurant, a post office, 2 drugstores, a dentist's office, a doctor's office, a library, 3 gambling halls, 3 playgrounds for children, a dry cleaning shop and a laundry, a footwear repair shop, a petrol and gas station, and a car repair shop. There is a forest just across Loka Magistrale Street, which is a favourite resting place for Jelgava residents. Next to the forest, there is a guarded complex of private garages, a tombstone shop, and Bērzi cemetery. Since the RAF microdistrict was built during the Soviet times, no church is available.

Dumbravita is a suburb of Timisoara, which has developed from a small village during the first 20 years, becoming a suburb of Timisoara. It has 2915 inhabitants and 1417 households. The average size of households in Dumbravita is 2.06. There is a school, 1 kindergarten; there are several churches and a relatively large forest – 648 ha. 27 teachers work in Dumbravita and 2 doctors. There are very few unemployed people out of those of working age. A little more than half of the population is represented by the females – 52.63% and the rest by the males. There are Romanians, Hungarians and German nationality inhabitants, mainly Orthodox and Catholics.

Empirical information was simultaneously gained during May-June 2008 while conducting a quantitative survey of communities in the RAF microdistrict in Jelgava and in Dumbravita a suburb of the town of Timisoara. The total number of respondents was 255 in Jelgava, of whom 44 were at the age of 61 and older (8 males) – 26 Latvians and 18 Russians. In Dumbravita 200 individuals were questioned, of whom 90 were at the age of 61 and older. In Jelgava the elderly live as singles (43%) or together with a partner or a child

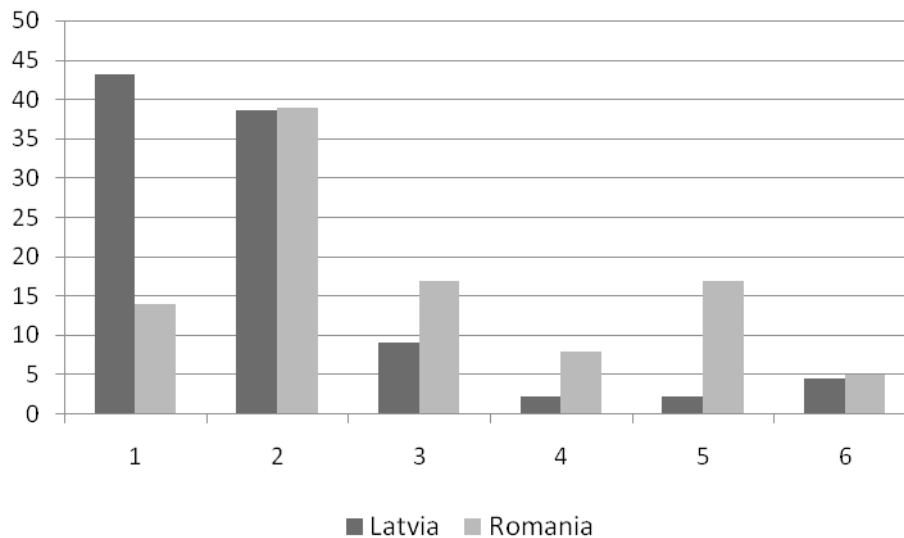


Figure 1. Number of individuals in the households of the elderly in Latvia and Romania

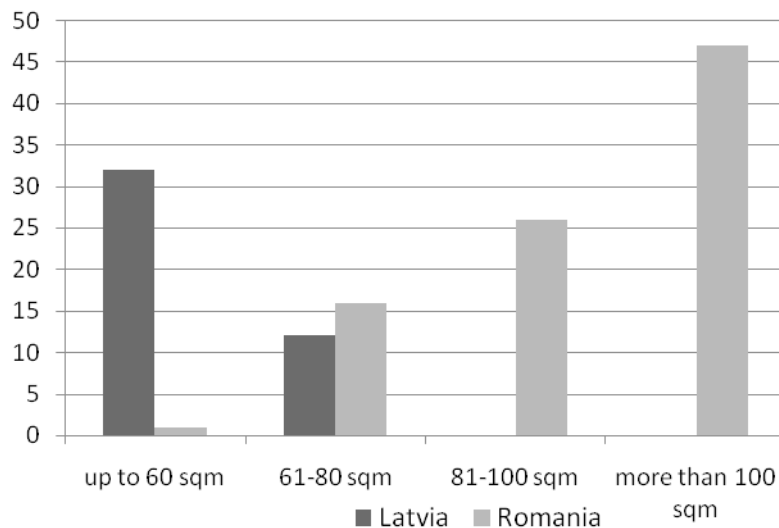


Figure 2. Size of the homes of the elderly in Jelgava and Dumbravita

(39%), the rest of them – in households of several individuals. In Timisoara the majority of the elderly live in couples, the size of other households is about the same, but the proportion of the single elderly is only 13% (Figure 1).

The elderly in Romania evaluate their material position, as compared with the residents living in their community, as equivalent, but some of them - as above the average. In Latvia the elderly evaluate their material position as the same or worse, but no one evaluates it as better than that of his/her neighbours. The Romanian elderly evaluate their material position as slightly better, as compared with their community residents, than it is in Latvia.

Both the elderly in Dumbravita and those in Jelgava feel well in their homes, and they like their apartments or houses. In Jelgava 73% of the elderly are the owners of their apartments, while in Dumbravita – 97%. In both countries the proportion of apartment owners among the elderly is slightly above the average indicator.

In Jelgava the size of apartments is less than 60m² in most cases, whereas in Timisoara it is more than 100 m² (Figure 2).

The elderly try to cope with their household work themselves. Almost two thirds of the Latvian elderly believe that they need no help in their household work, but 25% of them need it in cleaning up their

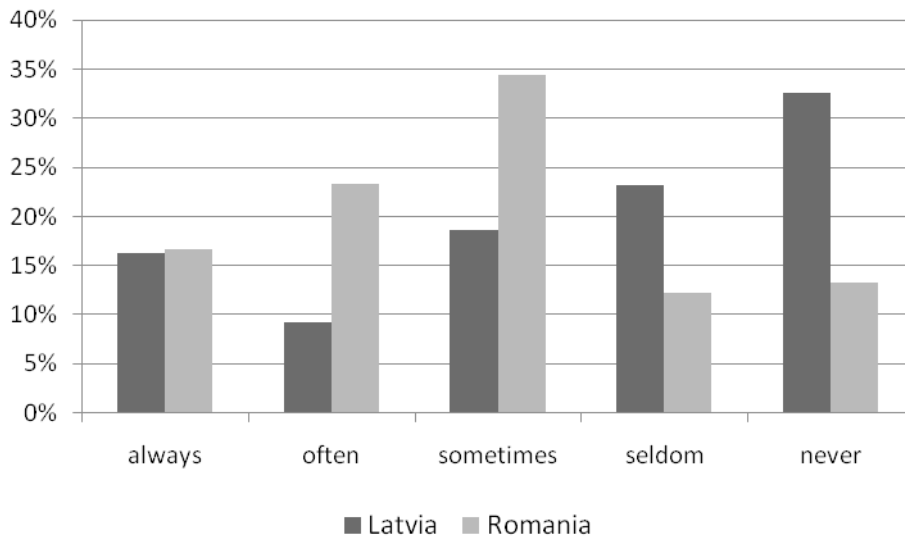


Figure 3. I read the information on packages about the ingredients and energy value of food products

apartments. The Romanian elderly need help only for shopping, cleaning up their apartments, and filling in documents.

55% of the elderly in Latvia and respectively 51% in Romania believe that they are well informed about a healthy lifestyle from the points of view of physical exercises, healthy food, and social and psychological feeling of comfort. 41% of the Romanian elderly and 23% of the Latvian elderly said they were partially informed about a healthy lifestyle from the point of view of physical exercises. The Latvian elderly feel to be better informed than the Romanian elderly about physical exercises. 78% of the Romanian elderly and 61% of the Jelgava elderly are well informed about healthy food, while 16% of the Latvian elderly and only 1% of the Romanian elderly feel uninformed. The Romanian elderly also feel to be better informed about the social and mental feeling of comfort as an element of healthy lifestyle.

The majority of the elderly in both countries does not believe that keeping a healthy lifestyle is boring.

In Latvia the elderly get information about healthy lifestyles mostly from TV, followed by a doctor and friends, whereas in Romania the main source of information about healthy lifestyles is a doctor, followed by TV and the family. For the Latvian elderly, the family as a source of information takes the fifth position after neighbours. It might be explained by the fact that the Latvian elderly live mostly as singles, but the Romanian elderly mostly live in families.

Therefore if the Latvian elderly have **problems**, they mostly try to handle them themselves (57%) as compared with the Romanian elderly – 45% of them do the same. But the Romanian elderly do not put their

problems on others because they have not chosen as option that they do not solve their problems.

If there are health, food, or movement problems, the Romanian elderly ask a doctor first and then try to solve them in the family, whereas in Latvia it is vice versa – they try to solve their problems by the help of the family and only after they go to see a doctor.

The largest part of the elderly spends more than three hours **outside their homes**. It, of course, depends on the age and health condition. But there are different opinions about doing physical exercises. The largest part of the Romanian elderly believe they do physical exercises for more than 5 hours a week, but almost a third of the elderly from the RAF microdistrict believe they do not do physical exercises at all. It could be explained by the form of inhabitation, the type of home, and national traditions. In Latvia, TV is watched for a longer time than in Romania.

For the RAF elderly, the five most important establishments of infrastructure are the market place, health service, recreational area, food stores, and social care. The elderly from Dumbravita place the church in the first position, followed by the health service, recreational area, school, kindergarten, but the least important are the sports clubs, social centres, and educational service. The sports clubs, pool, sports ground and sports hall as well as educational institutions, kindergarten and school are the least important for the RAF elderly, too.

The elderly in both countries have similar eating habits when consuming milk, sweets, cakes, cereals, wine, beer, and lemonade. More than 50% of the surveyed consume milk everyday, and 85% at least once a week. More than half of them consume sweets at least once a week. The elderly of both countries do

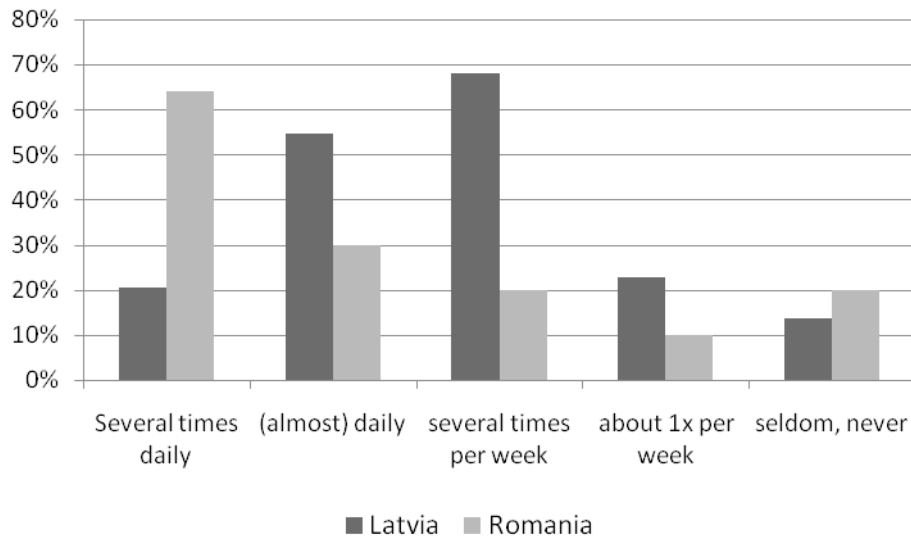


Figure 4. Wheat bread consumption frequency for the elderly in Latvia and Romania

not consume cereals, lemonades, wine, and beer as daily foods. The elderly in Latvia more often drink tea, whereas in Romania – drinking water. In Latvia there are slightly more elderly who consume vitamins everyday, but in both countries more than half of the elderly use vitamins very rarely or never.

The Romanian elderly consume more margarine everyday, but the Latvian elderly prefer butter. The Latvian elderly consume more vegetable oil everyday than the Romanian elderly. Fish is included in the diet of the Romanians more often than in that of the Latvians. Yet the Latvians eat more cheese as compared with the Romanians. The Romanians more often consume fruit and vegetables, but the Latvians eat potatoes even several times a day. Rice and macaroni are more often consumed by the Romanians. Grain bread is consumed everyday by 25% of the Jelgava elderly, but the Romanians eat it very rarely. The Romanians used to eat wheat bread almost at each mealtime. In Latvia wheat bread is more favourite among those who speak Russian at home; the Latvians eat rye bread more often than the Russians.

86% of the respondents in Latvia cook food at home themselves, in Romania respectively 64%. In Romania 58% of the elderly go shopping themselves, while 75% do it in Latvia. Both the Romanian and Latvian elderly, when buying food products, sometimes read the information on product packages, but 16% of the respondents do it always. The Romanians more often spend their money on healthy food than the Latvians.

The largest part of the elderly believes that their health is very important or important, but about half of the elderly in both countries regard their health

as good or very good. Yet in Latvia the elderly have more rarely assessed their health as very good. Half of them believe their health will not change over the further three years. However, the second half of the Latvian elderly are more pessimistic compared with the Romanians. The elderly in both countries are not very interested in active sports, but if they were the leaders of their microdistricts, they would construct recreational and sports grounds and a green zone restore a health trail in the forest, repair sidewalks, install benches, make flowerbeds, organise various activities for the elderly, for instance, gymnastics exercises, tea evenings, or dancing.

Conclusions

The opinions of the elderly proved that a healthy lifestyle include not only healthy food, physical exercises, but also a social and psychological feeling of comfort. A feeling of comfort is important to the elderly living in multi-apartment houses not only in their apartments, but also in the backyards, stairways, on the street or sidewalk as well as in the nearest vicinity.

It is specific in Timisoara that the elderly spend more their time outdoors, therefore less time is spent watching TV.

In Latvia the first adviser in health care is the family, followed by a doctor; in Romania it is vice versa. It could be explained by the availability of health care in each country.

There are different eating traditions in Latvia and Romania. A healthy lifestyle is impacted by the traditions established by generations in their social life, the place of residence and the type of housing, and the social relations in the neighbourhood.

The elderly have stable eating habits that have formed over their life, therefore they relatively rarely use "new" products like cereals and grain bread.

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Consequences of Agrarian Reforms in Latgale

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Abstract

The paper presents the results of economic investigations on the consequences of agrarian reforms in Latgale region, Latvia in the twentieth century. It has been concluded that the restitution of land property and the agrarian reform created intellectual and legal basis for the manifestation of personalities, entrepreneurship and talents. The analysis of the use of agricultural land revealed no positive impact of the reform. As a result of the reform Latgale demonstrates a high level of unemployment, increased negative long-term migration balance of inhabitants, and deteriorating age structure – the percentage of children has dramatically decreased. All the demographic processes and indicators of Latgale appear to be worse than those of the rest of Latvia. The agricultural production in Latgale has shown the most dramatic decrease in comparison to all other regions of Latvia.

Key words: Agrarian reform, gains, land use, employment, population density, production.

Introduction

Topicality of the Theme

Publications of scientific investigation results and economic literature provide detailed descriptions, analyses and evaluations of the processes and results of the recent three agrarian reforms that took place in the twentieth century. It is well known that in the 1920s a lot of small natural farms emerged in Latgale, as just a very small part of Latgale's inhabitants were employed in the infrastructure objects. Therefore, this region served as a source of cheap workforce for other regions, and thus competed with the Polish and Lithuanian agricultural workers.

During the 1940s large-scale collective farms and state owned collective farms were established on the basis of agricultural farms. During the 1950s another composition of inhabitants was formed with different mentality, interests and social status due to the migration and generation alternation processes.

The aim of the last agrarian reform of the 1990s was the restitution of ownership of all the small land plots eliminating the large collective farms created during the 1950s.

Processes and results of the last land reform particularly in Latgale region were studied in detail by Stanislavs Šķesters (with co-authors), and the study results were published in 2008. The investigations revealed the need to analyse in detail the consequences of agrarian reforms as well as to render comprehensive evaluation of these consequences in the context of the development of contemporary society and its interests.

Consequences of the reform may be defined and evaluated according to several different indicators:

- the operation level (complexity) and intensity of land and other assets;
- the entrepreneurship activities in the territory;
- the employment level of the rural district, area or the entire planning region;
- the inhabitants' total income tax sum, calculated *per capita*, or other indicators;
- the development index of territories (rural districts, areas, towns);
- the directions and ranges of migration of inhabitants;
- the mobility of inhabitants as employees;
- the GNP calculated *per capita* or as to 1 ha of territory or other indicators;
- the production amounts and levels of agricultural branches of production;
- the inflow of investments into the production sphere.

This composition of indicators, certainly, may not be considered as exhaustive nor complete, there may appear other and quite different ones as well. One article (publication) may, of course, comprise the results of investigation of just a few indicators.

The aim and tasks

The aim of the paper is to show the results of the study of the consequences of agrarian reforms, to make analysis and synthesis, to draw conclusions and form evaluations.

The research tasks subordinated to the aim are as follows:

- to provide conceptual evaluation of intellectual personal and public gains;

- to analyse the land use during the recent years of the post-reform period;
- to investigate the impact of the reform and the employment of Latgale's inhabitants;
- to evaluate the changes of population density during the period to be investigated.

Materials and Methods

Statistical data, data of Latvian Institute of Statistics and those of the State Regional Development Agency as well as special literature, the author's personal experience and accumulated materials have been used to carry out the research tasks.

Investigation methods appropriate for the tasks have been applied – analysis and synthesis for data processing and interpretation, the dynamic row analysis method to use the process development, scientific discussion, and the method of logical constructions to form evaluations and draw conclusions.

Results and Discussion

1. Intellectual, personal, economic and public gains

Restitution of ownership in Latgale region and privatisation of the property of socialist large collective farms (cattle, machines, buildings) created intellectual and legal basis for the manifestation of personalities, entrepreneurship, and talents. Each inhabitant of the former Latgale could become an owner and use the newly acquired social status. Assuming that a Latgalian land owner's family consists of 4 persons, one may presume that new opportunities were created for every second family of the present day Latgale.

At the same time, we have to remember that the absolute majority of the pre-war Latgale inhabitants had their natural agricultural farm as their only workplace and the only means of subsistence. The logical question in that respect is: why has it not found its reflection in the results and consequences of the last land reform? The answer to the question is given by the analysis of migration of Latgale inhabitants in respect of 20 to 50 years (Central Statistical Yearbooks, years 1950-2008). Previously Latgale inhabitants were scattered among towns, other agrarian territories as well as emigrated abroad. They were substituted in Latgale by other people, predominantly incomers during the socialist period, employed in the industry and branches of infrastructure growing fast at that time. Following the recent economic reform, they were mostly left without property and unemployed.

By making use of the possibilities of personal expression, the possibilities of the reform process, the acquired education and practical experience

as well as the land market and lease conditions, several individual or family farms further growing as industrial agricultural enterprises are developed and functioning in Latgale.

One may consider as a gain the fact that many specialists with higher education in Latgalian agriculture and other sectors became farm owners and managers. For example, 1176 farm managers of Latgale had higher education in 2007 (CSY, 2008). It is the highest proportion of farm managers with higher education among the regions of Latvia.

However, the number of farms in Latgale is the largest as well, so the proportion of farm managers with higher education is 3% in Latgale, while in the rest of Latvia accounts for 4.7–6.3%.

The proportion of farm managers with professional education in Latgale is the lowest.

On the whole, only every fifth manager in Latgale has professional or higher education. Thus, the potential of farm management quality level is far from being exhausted.

The free market possibilities to sell one's own agricultural products may be also considered as a gain provided by the reform. However, just 12.6% of the enterprises are commercial (in 2007), selling at least 75% of their products. Two thirds of the total number of farms in Latgale are still practicing natural farming, but 22% - semi-natural farming (CSY, 2008).

The gain is also the freedom of choice in the formation of farm production capacities. Having analysed the use of this gain, it has been found out that industrially oriented commercial farms (ELV >100) constitute just 0,1% of the total number of Latgale's farms, but 82.5% of the total number are still practicing natural farming, and semi-natural farming the ELV of which is less than 2 units (CSY, 2008).

2. Use of agricultural target lands in Latgale region

Analytical calculations are made taking into account the financial support regulations of the EU, where the category of used or operated land may be applied to a just once mowed land or pastured fallow land. Therefore the statistics shows that the unused land in Latgale constitutes less than 10% of the total area of utilised agricultural areas (UAA) (CSY, 2008).

Further we operate with the data arranged in Table 1 for a more thorough analysis of agricultural use of land.

The calculations given in Table 1 reveal several aspects, directions or tendencies of the use of land.

The total area of utilised agricultural area (UAA) grows every year, while its use intensity does not

Table 1

The use of land during the post-reform period in Latgale from 2003 to 2007

Indicators	2003	2005	2007
Number of farms	45 141	45 880	39 491
Total area of farmland, thousand ha	704.1	790.4	762.7
UAA, thousand ha	454.9	500.3	505.7
Cropland area, thousand ha	203.2	227.4	216.6
Proportion of cropland within UAA, %	44.7	45.4	41.8
Cornfield area, thousand ha	179.9	209.3	202.1
Proportion of cornfield area within UAA %	39.5	41.8	40.0
Proportion of cornfield area within cropland, %	88.5	92.0	93.3
Remaining land area, not intensively UAA (for cornfields), thousand ha	275.0	291.0	303.6
% of UAA	60.4	58.3	60.0
The average farm:			
Total area, ha	15.6	17.2	19.3
UAA, ha	10.1	10.9	12.8
Cropland area, ha	4.0	4.6	5.1

Source: CSB data and authors' calculations

grow as the cropland proportion within the UAA in recent years is diminishing.

No significant progress has been achieved also in respect of the allocation of cropland for cornfields.

The remaining UAA not used for cornfields increases year by year and occupies 60% of the total area.

The process of concentration of land properties and applications is going on, as the number of farms diminishes, while the average farm area as well as the area of cornfields increases. Nevertheless, the average area of cornfields (5.1 ha) shows the majority of farms as small ones and not able to use high-productive machines for the production of market products.

More than two thirds of the total farm area, as an average, is used for pasture or preparation of grass for cattle-breeding, part of it remaining as unused land.

On the whole we may conclude that the amount of rationally unutilised agricultural area is large in Latgale, and energetic people have vast opportunities there.

3. Employment

Vast territories of unused or extensively used land may be related to the employment level of inhabitants which is shown by the data and calculations of Table 2.

One may conclude from the data and calculations of Table 2 that the unemployment level in Latgale is significantly higher, but in the majority of rural districts – dramatically high (NVA data,

October, 2008). Although in Latgale on the whole the unemployment level decreases, the unemployment level in Latgale still prevails other regions.

As a result of the agrarian reform, by eliminating large socialistic enterprises Latgale faced socially dramatic situation. During the occupation period many more immigrants arrived as compared with other regions, and all of them remained without any land properties and any means of subsistence. Thus the national composition of Latgale's inhabitants remains quite diversified affecting, to some extent, the employment level. Between the national composition and unemployment level one may not distinguish any definite proportion, yet certain influence can be felt.

Analysing the employment level of population groups at a giving age (from 15 to 74 years of age) calculated by the Central Statistical Bureau, a similar picture can be drawn (Table 3).

During the entire period of analysis the employment level remains the lowest in Latgale, but Table 3 shows some definite progress as well. During the last two years employment has grown, which could be explained by the fact that after Latvia joined the EU significant investments have flown into Latgale as an area that needs special support. As a result, new workplaces have been created, especially developing industrial branches which provide work opportunities for low-qualified workforce.

Table 2

**Unemployment level in Latgale compared to other regions of Latvia
in the period from 2002 to 2007, %**

Planning region	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	Decrease in comparison to 2002
Latgale	17.0	15.0	12.80	12.80	10.80	8.00	2.14
Zemgale	10.40	9.70	10.80	6.10	6.70	6.50	1.60
Kurzeme	12.60	9.50	10.60	10.80	7.50	5.20	2.42
Vidzeme	10.50	9.00	9.40	8.20	6.40	6.60	1.59

The unemployment level in Latgale is higher than in any other region of Latvia

Latgale:Zemgale	164	160	119	210	161	123	
Latgale:Kurzeme	136	163	121	119	144	154	
Latgale:Vidzeme	163	172	136	156	169	121	

Source: CSY data and authors' calculations

Table 3

**Employment level of populations groups from 15 up to 74 years of age in the
planning regions of Latvia (years 2002 – 2007, %)**

Region	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Latgale	46.0	46.2	47.4	47.4	51.6	56.3
Zemgale	54.8	54.0	52.2	54.7	60.3	59.5
Kurzeme	52.9	54.9	56.2	55.5	57.4	61.6
Vidzeme	56.1	53.7	53.9	56.8	55.6	57.0

Source: CSB data

Nevertheless, in general the situation in Latgale remains unsatisfactory due to several reasons.

- Inadequately developed small- and medium-size entrepreneurship, thus limiting the creation of an adequate number of new workplaces.
- Uneven regional development of the country making Latgale region an economically and socially undeveloped territory.
- Low income level of inhabitants, as a result of which children of low-income families cannot be educated according to the contemporary competitive labour market requirements, which in turn increases the risk of formation of unemployed generations.
- Low mobility of inhabitants, especially those of middle and old age, inability to move to towns or territories where free workplaces are available.
- Unsettled roadway infrastructure preventing the inhabitants to access employment possibilities.
- Emigration of workforce (especially younger generation) abroad and to regions or towns with higher remuneration level.

Figure 1 shows the increase in all the regions, while Latgale is significantly lagging behind. The reason is the aforementioned unemployment level since the employed pay for the unemployed. However,

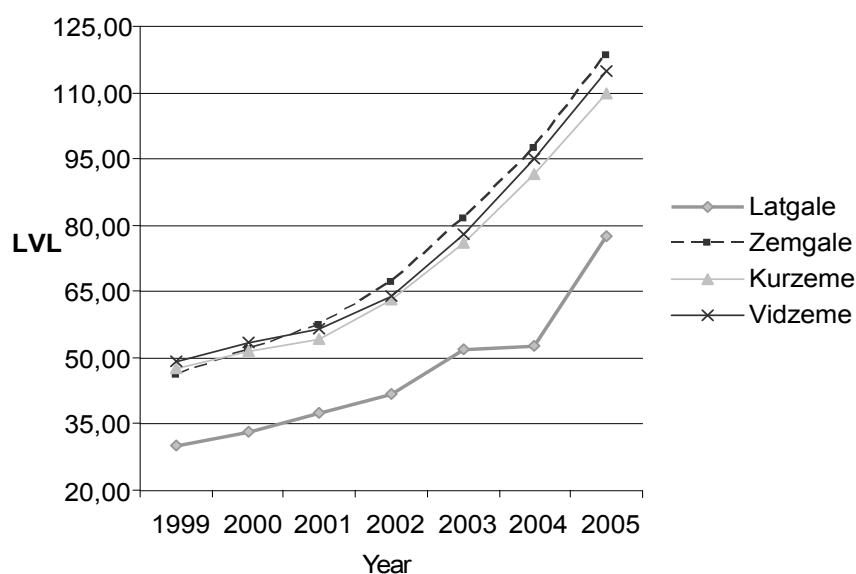
the salary difference is also significant. Latgale is still characterised by the lowest average salary in Latvia (the CSB data).

4. Population density changes

Elimination of agricultural service enterprises in the process of the land and agrarian reform created especially severe situation for Latgale's inhabitants without land property ownership. It could favour not only dramatic idleness, but also migration processes. The actual results of migration are shown in Table 4.

During the latest years the migration balance of inhabitants of Latgale has sharply grown and during the three years period it is about 5000 persons. The last three years of the analysed period are marked by a sharp rise of migration balance also in Kurzeme and Vidzeme, while in Latgale it is different. The causes of difference require a detailed investigation, but the main reason can be related to the land reform processes and, as a result, the radical elimination of small Latgale farms, not able to operate independently and concentration of land in enterprises under the leadership of talented managers.

Migration of inhabitants is directed abroad and towards the large cities and Riga vicinity, where many people see more opportunities to get job and



Source: Authors' calculations according to the CSB. VRAA

Fig.1. Regional income level of inhabitants within agrarian territories *per capita*, in LVL

Table 4

Long-term migration balance of inhabitants of Latvia regions, years 1999-2005, persons

Regions	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Latgale	-380	-599	-928	9	-2395	-1473	-1046
Kurzeme	-554	-1705	-928	-235	-1003	-1251	-917
Vidzeme	-107	-640	-1086	125	-1466	-1428	-1111
Zemgale	-69	361	947	603	-259	-594	-395

Source: CSB data

Table 5

The dynamics of population decrease within sliding five-year periods in Latgale and other regions (time period from 1995 to 2006, %)

Regions	1995-2000	1996-2001	1997-2002	1998-2003	1999-2004	2000-2005	2001-2006
Latgale	4.9	4.7	4.8	4.8	5.2	5.5	5.9
Kurzeme	3.2	3.1	3.6	3.5	3.9	4.4	4.5
Vidzeme	4.4	4.5	4.3	3.9	3.0	3.6	3.4
Zemgale	3.7	3.0	2.3	1.8	1.6	1.7	2.1

Source: author's calculations according to the CSB data

education. There are still not enough investigations made on the reasons for inhabitants leaving their region, but still some tendencies can be observed. So, inhabitants tend to settle near their former place of education, therefore, more contribution to the regional development could be related to Rēzekne High School and Daugavpils University.

Of course, the infrastructure quality is of great importance to keep inhabitants in their dwelling

places and expect them to return back after their studies. In the course of growth of education level, ambitions and requirements are growing as well, so the motivation to return is required.

Table 5 shows the sharpest decrease of population in Latgale region. This tendency increases during each following five year period.

The population decrease rate increases among Kurzeme inhabitants as well.

Table 6

**Number of inhabitants within the planning regions of Latvia
(time period of 1999-2006, thousand)**

Regions	Indicators	1999	2002	2004	2006
	number	389.2	378.1	369.2	359.8
Latgale	chain decrease	-	-11.1	-8.9	-9.4
	chain decrease rate, %	-	2.9	2.4	2.5
	number	324.3	317.1	313.3	308.4
Kurzeme	chain decrease	-	-7.2	-3.8	-4.9
	chain decrease rate, %	-	2.2	1.2	1.6
	number	294.6	292.0	290.2	286.4
Zemgale	chain decrease	-	-2.6	-1.8	-3.8
	chain decrease rate, %	-	0.9	0.6	1.3
	number	258.3	252.8	248.22	243.0
Vidzeme	chain decrease	-	-5.5	-4.6	-5.2
	chain decrease rate, %	-	2.1	1.8	2.1

Source: author's calculations according to the CSB data

Table 7

**Natural population decrease in the planning regions
(years 1999 – 2006, per 1000 inhabitants)**

Regions	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Latgale	8.1	7.6	8.2	9.1	8.9	9.1	9.8
Vidzeme	5.2	4.3	4.8	4.9	5.3	5.5	5.3
Kurzeme	4.1	3.5	4.4	4.0	3.9	4.5	4.3
Zemgale	3.5	3.9	4.7	4.6	3.7	4.3	4.7

Source: CSB data

Quite different is the situation in Vidzeme, where the population decrease rate has diminished in the last five-year periods and is currently radically lower than that of Latgale.

The behaviour of Zemgale's inhabitants is radically different – there is the outflow of population three times less than that of Latgale region. The data for a more thorough analysis are arranged in Table 6.

According to Table 6 the number of inhabitants of Latgale planning region is still the largest, but the chain decrease there is the largest and the rate – the highest. The second largest inhabitants' chain decrease is registered in the less inhabited Vidzeme region. About 40% of the entire Latgale population live in Rēzekne and Daugavpils, and the same proportion of Kurzeme population is registered in Ventspils and Liepāja (www.kurzeme.lv). In Zemgale, as well with its only one republic dimension city – Jelgava inhabits 21% of Zemgale population. Therefore the

investigation of population density in the regions is interesting. The average population density of Latgale in 2005 was 15.11, the appropriate Kurzeme figure being significantly lower – 13.35 and the highest 20.76 – in Zemgale.

The natural population decrease progress is faster in Latgale region (Table 7).

The remaining regions of Latvia are characterised by a twice lower population decrease. Latgale region radically differs also by an unfavourable population age structure (Table 8).

Already in 2000 – the first period of the analysis – the proportion of children was the lowest and the proportion of old-age persons – the highest among the regions of Latvia.

This unfavourable age structure remains without significant changes in the middle as well as in the last year of the analysed period, but the proportion of children has decreased even more, especially in 2006.

Table 8

Population age groups of Latvian regions (years 1999 – 2006, %)

Regions	2000			2002			2006		
	Children under working age (<15 years)	Working age persons (years 15-64)	Pensioners over working age (>64 years)	<15 years	Years 15-64	>64 years	<15 years	Years 15-64	>64 years
Latgale	17.8	58.2	24.0	16.6	59.9	23.5	13.8	64.0	22.1
Vidzeme	20.7	56.6	22.7	19.1	58.5	22.3	15.6	62.8	21.6
Kurzeme	19.8	58.0	22.2	18.5	59.8	21.8	16.0	63.2	20.8
Zemgale	20.1	58.2	21.7	18.5	60.3	21.1	15.6	64.2	20.2

Source: CSB data, 2007

Table 9

Consequences of agrarian reform in Saxony and Latvia

Indicators	Saxony (1998)	Latvia (2001)
Agricultural land, thousand of ha	1038	2485
Crop capacity, t /ha	6.1	2.1
Grain pick, thousand of tons	2406	928
Milk yield, kg/cow	6176	4055
Milk production, thousand of tons	1534	846

Source: J.Beļavnieks, 2003

5. Discussion

The founder of the contemporary economics theory Adam Smith (2006) in his research has revealed the special importance of the division of labour in the production effectiveness. In the agrarian sphere of nowadays that means the necessity of specialisation and concentration. The realisation of this causes no problems in the large agricultural enterprises, but solutions need to be found for the small farms' structure established in Latgale as a result of the agrarian reform.

Jūlijs Beļavnieks (2003), a doctor of agrarian economics, while analysing the consequences of agrarian reform in Europe has compared the main resulting indicators of German lands of Saxony (the former GDR) and Latvia, as in Saxony the mentioned reform had been directed towards restructuring of the former large enterprises, instead of destroying them. Differences of the consequences are shown in Table 9.

As shown in Table 9 Saxony, though smaller than Latvia according to the agricultural land area, is characterised by three times larger grain yield, 2.5 times larger grain pick, and 2 times greater milk production than Latvia. In another study

J.Beļavnieks as the Board Chairman of Latvian Association of Agricultural Statute Companies (2007) states: "During the last 17-18 years, due to revolutionary transformations...not only industry has been "eliminated" in Latvia, but also agricultural production has been significantly reduced. In a comparatively short period of time Latvia as a country exporting agricultural products has been turned into an importing country."

Large role in the formation of positive consequences of the agrarian reform lies in targeted cooperation, applying this form to broader and more diversified collaboration among farms strikingly proved by the activities of the Cooperative Company "Latraps" (Ruža, Galeja, 2008).

The special importance of agrarian reform implementation manner as well as its influence is admitted by A.Vēveris (2008) in his study of economic dimensions of farms and production costs EU FADN, concluding that significant and large differences of agrarian production results of countries partly may be explained by the structure of farms: "For example, the Czech Republic and Slovakia had predominantly large farms".

Conclusions

1. As a result of the last agrarian reform in Latgale region, Latvia, the created intellectual and legal basis allowed the manifestation of personalities, entrepreneurship and talents. This opportunity was used by several self-starters creating and developing commercial enterprises of modern agriculture.
2. The restitution of land ownership and the agrarian reform had no positive impact upon the economic use of land.
3. As a result of the agrarian reform by massively destroying socialistic large scale farms particularly high unemployment level developed in Latgale.
4. During the post-reform years the long-term emigration largely increased, forming its negative balance.
5. The age structure of Latgale population has deteriorated – radically decreases the proportion of children and the proportion of pensioners grow.
6. The decrease of agricultural production in Latgale appears to be more dramatic than in other regions of Latvia.

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Endogenous Development and the European Model of Agriculture: Developing a Theoretical Framework

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Abstract

The European model of agriculture comprises heterogeneous realities and economic actors characterised by different local conducts. Schematising this model, we can distinguish two agriculture typologies: modernised agriculture and traditional agriculture. The first agriculture typology has reached high levels of productivity but it is also a big producer of negative externalities. On the contrary, traditional agriculture is based on virtuous and sustainable productive activities but lacks in terms of productivity. In this article, we will develop a theoretical framework which encompasses the different patterns of endogenous development in both agriculture typologies. For this reason, initially we will refer to the theory of rural endogenous development. This theory searches phenomena of “self-centred” and “conservative” development, which can occur in less favoured agricultural areas excluded by the modernised processes (such as mountainous areas). In regards to the European dualistic model, the paradigm of rural endogenous development will be extended to typologies of modernised agriculture. Finally, we will analyse the neoclassic doctrine of the economic growth and its evolutionary course, stressing the pros and cons of such doctrine by explaining rural endogenous development phenomena.

Key words: endogenous development, rural development, European model of agriculture, traditional agriculture, modernised agriculture.

Introduction

The European model of agriculture, defined for the first time on Agenda 2000, refers to a multifunctional and virtuous model of agriculture that is progressively substituting the productivist model of agriculture that, in the recent past, has been supported by agricultural community policies. The multifunctionality of the new European model is shown in its main functions (Arzeni *et al.* 2001):

- a) *Food functions*: the function of producing quality food in accordance with food safety both from a quality and quantity perspective. Therefore, European agriculture should be sustainable and virtuous but also competitive in the global market without applying for funding or dumping policies.
- b) *Environmental functions*: the function of producing positive externalities such as protection of landscape and biodiversity, reduction of pollution and reduction of all negative externalities produced by agriculture.
- c) *Rural functions*: in this case, it refers to an agriculture that can support the sustainable development of rural communities, in compliance with history and local culture.

After having introduced the multifunctionality of this model, we should clarify that the European model of agriculture comprises heterogeneous realities and economic actors characterised by different local conducts. Schematising this model, we can distinguish two agricultural typologies: modernised agriculture and traditional agriculture. Modernised agriculture has integrally accepted technologies, inputs and more in general industrial values. It reflects faithfully the productivist model and at the same time it is a big producer of negative externalities (erosion of biodiversity, loss of agricultural landscapes, loss of traditional peasant culture, *etc.*). By contrast, traditional agriculture typology encompasses those fragile and less favoured areas where the paradigm of modernisation could not be applied effectively, efficiently and profitably. For such reasons, traditional agriculture is firstly based on local elements, such as farmers' knowledge, biodiversity and traditional agricultural techniques. Therefore, traditional agriculture is virtuous: in fact, it unconsciously protects biological and cultural local elements, at the base of those agricultural activities, which are socially and environmentally sustainable.

Dualism in the model of European agriculture is, as we will discuss in the first paragraphs of this

article, a bequest of modernisation processes in agriculture. Such dualism has already been identified and analysed by Rossi-Doria in 1958, who described <<la polpa e l'osso>> (the “beef” and “bone”) in the agriculture of Southern Italy (Rossi-Doria M., 1958). According to Rossi-Doria, “beef” is represented by modern agricultures insisting on fertile and productive lands, while “bone” is made up of mountainous areas, latifundium areas and, in general, areas characterised by unfavourable social and/or pedo-climatic conditions. Rossi-Doria’s lesson about the dualistic agriculture of “beef” and “bone” can be summarised in the following way: different realities must correspond to different public policies (Rossi-Doria M., 1958). This principle has not been applied yet at the European governance (De Benedictis M., 2002).

Other interesting observations on dualistic agriculture between modernity and tradition are made by T.W. Schultz. However, he refers to developing countries rather than to the European context. According to Schultz, even though traditional agriculture has a low production level, it cannot produce more; consequently it cannot contribute valuably to the economic development. On the contrary, since modernised agriculture produces in plenty, it can contribute to the economic development more than it has thus far (Schultz, 1964). Schultz indicates the solution of such a paradox: it is necessary to modernise traditional agriculture in developing countries through exogenous inputs (such as technology) mainly through investments on education and farmers’ training. Hence, according to Schultz, paraphrasing Schumpeter, it is necessary to “destroy” traditional agriculture in poor countries to “create” economic growth.

Through this article, we aim to create the theoretical basis necessary to undertake the study of the dualistic model (modernity/tradition) of European agriculture. For this purpose, we will analyse some theoretical frameworks taken from sociological and economic literature. Firstly, we will refer to the sociological theory of endogenous rural development, related to fragile agricultures, that we will extend to modernised agriculture. Lastly, we will outline a theoretical framework taken from economic literature emphasising the pros and cons of these approaches.

1. Economic development and modernisation of agriculture

As is commonly known, economic development has determined a sequence of different societies: first the rural one, later the industrial one, and today the post-modern one. Those different societies were modified according to the dominant economic sector

(De Masi D., 2003). The social transformations, produced by the passage from one dominant sector to another, do not concern only production and exchange relations but the whole society personal relationships, languages, shared values, aesthetics, *etc.* The centre of an economic sector is therefore evident in its ability to transform and to make itself similar to its surroundings, including the agriculture sector. Hence, a traditional agriculture has existed in the rural society period, a modernised one has existed in the industrial society period, and we expect to have a new and different agriculture in the post-modern period. In spite of the radical changes, imposed from outside and consequently called exogenous ones, agriculture has got its own peculiarities that it keeps almost by force of habit. An example can be seen in the existence of a familiar productive structure, not always dominant but persistent, with a scale and an intensity that appear minute compared to other sectors. Unlike industrial activities, agricultural activity does not contribute to environmental deterioration and, in some cases; it even prevents the environment from being deteriorated. Also economists indicate not deteriorating the environment as a positive externality. Some valid examples of positive externalities can be: production of salubrious and high quality food, production of landscape, protection of environment and preservation of genetic local resources both vegetable and animal ones.

2. Agriculture from rural society to modernity

Rural society mostly reflected agricultural sector in its practices, values, recognised models and relations, patriarchal family, good neighbourly practices, home place coinciding with workplace, conviviality, and production of private consumption. They all encompassed and reproduced agricultural sector values that were consequently extended to daily practices. In rural society, agriculture was not only the dominant economic activity, but represented the fundamental element of the entire economic system.

The beginning of industrial processes, financed by the primitive accumulation of capital, has progressively imposed new values created by the French Enlightenment and the Anglo-Saxon Pragmatism (such as rationalism, mechanism and secularism *etc.*) (De Masi D., 2003). Industrialisation practices that have been entirely moulded by such new values, have initially ruled within industries; for instance with the standardisation of products and processes, the specific qualification of the operators, the economy of scale, the myth of efficiency and the maximisation of productivity, *etc.* (De Masi D., 2003).

When industrial practices have over-flown from manufactures, extending towards the core of social organisations and of civil living (hospitals, prisons, schools, universities, army and maybe churches), imposing values, relations and “modern” rhythms, society has been eventually industrialised.

Therefore, modernisation is a combination of all those socio-economic and cultural changes originated from industrialised processes. These processes obviously have not left out the agricultural sector. Indeed, “farm” is progressively transformed into “industry”: the integration of industrial inputs (industrial chemistry, seed production, mechanics, etc.) has increased together with the overall weight of the agro-industrial system. Besides, the final output is not so different from any other industrial product, within the seasonal and perishable limits of agricultural products. As it is commonly known, the so-called *commodities* are defined by a high production, by relatively low production costs, and by almost total separation from territorial characteristics (altimetry, climate, local genetic variability) *etc.* In the final analysis, the modernised model of agriculture is based on three characteristics peculiar to the industrial sector: concentration, intensification and specialisation (Arnalte E. *et al.*, 2006):

Evaluating positive aspects of the industrialisation of agriculture is quite controversial. However, it cannot be denied that the industrialisation of agriculture has sorted the millenary problem of food sustenance, at least in Europe, Japan and the United States, even creating considerable agricultural surplus. But in the last decade, the limits of this agriculture have clearly exploded. Indeed, modernised agriculture is the cause of negative externalities and at the same time it cannot guarantee food security as it is testified by a decade of food scandals (e.g., bovine spongiform encephalopathy). *Last but not least*, another element of crisis in modernised agriculture is the so-called *agricultural squeeze* (squeeze of agricultural profits) essentially linked to the structural increase of variable costs and in particular of the energetic ones (Arnalte E. *et al.*, 2006).

Besides, modernisation is not spread equally on all agricultural areas. In fact, some agricultural areas were excluded from modernisation because they were intrinsically incompatible with exogenous technologies. Modernised processes in such areas, like mountainous ones, have not found an environment suitable to their introduction. In these difficult areas, we can often assist to the development of an obstinate and involuntary tendency to keep together biological (both natural and man-made ones) and cultural elements, based on local productive activity. The agriculture developed in this context is proved to be multifunctional, and also a producer of goods

and services for public use (mostly landscape and biodiversity).

Therefore, modernisation has created, both directly and indirectly, a dualistic agriculture modernity/tradition type. Summarising: modernised agriculture presents very high peaks of physical productivity, but lacks of socio-environmental inputs due to the negative externalities produced. On the contrary, traditional agriculture is an unconscious producer of positive externalities. However, its decline has been caused by economic inefficiency which represents its weak point. At the light of the multifunctional model of European agriculture, we need different patterns of development for the two agricultural typologies: traditional agriculture has to regain economic sustainability without losing its socio-environmental virtuosity, and modernised agriculture has to regain its lost virtuosity still within a context of economic efficiency. The two rural development patterns, outlined until now, will be deepened in the next paragraphs.

3. Theory of rural endogenous development

The theoretical reference, utilised as a starting point to provide the framework of the dualistic model of European agriculture, is the paradigm of the rural endogenous development. This paradigm has been elaborated and discussed in the last decades of 1900, within sociological and agro-economic literature (Ploeg J.D. van der 1992; Slee B., 1992, Iacoponi L., 1993). It attempts to interpret the birth of self-supported development processes in particular rural areas excluded by modernised processes. This paradigm has developed further and its most recent reinterpretation has been renamed “New paradigm of rural development”, but its basic assumptions, that will be described now, are the same.

The development model taken from this paradigm is “self-centred”, because mainly based on (but not exclusively) endogenous resources, traditional techniques and local knowledge, such as agricultural biodiversity, locally spread techniques and local informative atmosphere. At the same time, the development model is “conservative”; for instance, local elements, being at the base of the productive process, are preserved, protected and exploited to that end (Iacoponi L., 1993; Sortino A., 2007). The paradigm is based on the three following starting assumptions: 1) the local choice of the development options; 2) the check or local monitoring of the development process; 3) local appropriation of development assets (Slee B., 1992).

Exogenous elements, as the so-called modern *inputs*, essential to the attainment of an efficient

economics, are not uncritically refused but inserted, once they have been deconstructed and reconstructed, in accordance with the “local style of farming” (Ploeg J.D. van der, 1992). It means that a technology can be redesigned and modified instead of being applied integrally: its main components can be rearranged in order to distinguish it from the original exogenous model to adjust it to the local needs (Ploeg J.D. van der 2006). Then, the last aspect is one of the paradigm’s crucial points, able to distinguish the endogenous development from a simple endogenous preservation and from an exogenous development. The endogenous conservation, namely the attempt to preserve the countryside, managing it as it was a museum, indeed does not entail any insertion of external components into the local history or tradition, which in some contexts often transforms into folklore. The exogenous development, that has affected the most profitable agriculture, vice versa imposes a strong and fast change of the natural environment through a copious integration of chemistry and technology, to increase the productivity of land, work and capital factors.

4. Original sources of endogenous development

According to Slee and Lowe, previous rural development policies have been influenced by different Liberal, Marxist or Keynesian theoretical approaches (Slee B., 1992; Lowe P., 2006). These approaches utilise different analytical instruments, but share the common goals: industrialisation, specialisation and integration to promote rural and dependent exogenous development for rural areas (Lowe P., 2006).

The endogenous approach to the rural development, and alternative to Keynesian and Neo-liberalist policies, has arisen in Europe, according to Lowe, in the 1980s of the previous century from a series of practical experiences of alternative development.

With the concept of “endogenous approach to rural development”, Lowe indicates a sustainable development “led from inside” and based on local elements (natural, human and cultural). Lowe identifies four original sources (that are summarised just below) of endogenous development, which have represented an opposition “in daily practices” to Keynesian and Neo-liberalist paradigms (Lowe P., 2006).

First source: the progress of some rural and semi-urban areas in the 1970s and 1980s with internal dynamics unknown until then. Some researches have tried to identify the key-success of these regions (flexible work markets, dynamic nets of small companies, communitary market, informative

and technological atmosphere, local institutions regulations, rules and customs) and if the experience could be repeated in other regions (Ploeg J.D. van der *et al* 1995; Iacoponi L., 1993). The most sensational example in Europe has concerned Italy after the 1960 in the previous century. Several areas located in the north-east and in the centre of Italy (the so-called NEC regions), characterised by a rural economy and by a society based on sharecropping, far from big industrialised centres, have experimented a rapid economic dynamism rooted in the rural and based on the nets of industrial and agro-industrial districts (Sotte F., 2006). In this case, the development model, which has been less-sustainable in environmental terms, is alike the endogenous development model, because it is based on local elements such as human capital, locally shared values, technological and informative atmosphere.

Second source: movements and regional agencies that, trying to overcome the failures of Keynesian and Neo-liberalist policies, have attempted to promote in local communities forms of development less dependent from exogenous resources. In particular, local action comprised rural diversification and support to local productive activities. Such movements and agencies can be found in the marginal areas of different European countries: Ireland, France, Scottish Highlands, Iceland and rural Wales, Austrian and Italian mountain communities and groups for the development of the villages in the North Sweden (Lowe P., 2006).

Third source: the debate on rural sustainability, including Cork declaration, that has attempted to match the economic development of rural communities with the environment protection and with the quality of life in rural areas, without which it is difficult to keep sustainable economic activities and employment; to avoid the depopulation of rural areas and to protect the environment (Lowe P., 2006).

Fourth source: a boost to “self-reliance” and to local self-organisation’s abilities promoted by environmentalists’ movements and development, radical activists that work at close contact with groups of particularly marginalised areas. These ones have transferred Schumacher’s thought of “small is beautiful” to the community economics field, trying to reassert the local control on economic activities, to protect the community from the homologous effect of globalisation (Lowe P., 2006). Lowe lists some examples of such kind of development based on the concept of “small is beautiful”, present in the outskirts of the South Spain, West Ireland, North Sweden (Lowe P., 2006).

In order to partially integrate Lowe’s ideas, we refer to two exogenous sources that have advocated endogenous development in European rural areas.

We will now discuss the combined action of the two phenomena: a) changes of the European society and the food style of its citizens that have stimulated the endogenous development in rural areas; in particular we refer to the consumers' demand that has moved from standardised products to a diversified range of customised and niche products (Sotte F., 2006; Pieroni P. *et al.* 2007); b) the contribution of new technologies, also IT, that have allowed small-middle companies to reach competitive levels (through external network economies), once reached only by large-sized companies (Sotte F., 2006).

5. A new pattern of endogenous development for modernised agriculture

The paradigm of endogenous rural development, as we have seen, rises in the context of rural areas excluded by modernised processes. At the light of the European model of agriculture that we have defined dualistic, this paradigm has been refined and extended to modernised agriculture. It is reckoned that the latter agriculture typology, in the attempt of restoring the lost virtuosity, accepts the even partial return of virtuous elements from tradition (for example good agriculture practices, use of autochthonous seeds, crop rotations etc.), trying obviously not to come out from sustainable economic field.

Therefore, two patterns of endogenous rural development are set up. They will be summarised more clearly here below. The first pattern, already analysed mainly in sociological literature, concerns the development of fragile agricultures (Ploeg J.D van der, 1992). It is focused on local resources and it is supported, in order to achieve economic sustainability, by the introduction of exogenous elements duly accustomed in accordance with environment and "local feeling". The second pattern of endogenous development, emerging from the hypothesis here formulated, concerns the qualitative evolution of modernised agriculture or, according to other authors, agriculture "qualitative modernisation" (De Benedictis M. 2002). With the perspective of converting environmental sustainability of productive activities, this agriculture typology prepares for the acceptance of past virtuous elements' return, duly readjusted to the new productive structure. In a preceding paper by the authors (Sortino A., Chang M., 2007) some indicators of the return of techniques have been underlined. For example: a reduction of synthesis products which are used in agriculture, expansion of organic agriculture; increasing the demand of traditional/typical products.

The endogenous development *pattern* that concerns modernised areas is related to a sort of quantitative decrease in production. It does not always match

with worse economic performances, since products from tradition mostly fetch higher prices in advanced economies. Therefore, in such development context of quantitative decrease, the term "post-productivity" is a perfect synonym for "post-industrial".

6. Endogenous rural development and neoclassical doctrine

The theoretical inspiration of this paragraph originates from the analysis of some researches made by agriculture economists who, a few years ago, have studied the possible theoretical connections between the endogenous rural development paradigm and neoclassic economy (Iacoponi L. 1993; Romano D., 1996). In this paragraph, we will identify the evolutionary process of the neoclassical growth theory, from the exogenous Solow's theory to the most recent models of endogenous growth.

The neoclassical economic theory comprises at its core the "endogenous growth theory", called also the "new growth theory", born to fill some gaps from the *tout court* neoclassic growth theory elaborated mainly by Solow in the second half of 1900. The main gap in Solow's theory was evident in its representation of a country's growth governed by exogenous elements: population growth rate and technical progress rate (Solow R., 2000). According to this theory, every single country has reduced possibilities to be able to influence its own economic growth. In addition, the long term convergence of countries is conjectured at the world level. A part from the initial conditions, world countries' economies should reach a similar stable state characterised, in particular, by the same gross domestic product (GDP) *per capita* (Solow R., 2000). The "new growth theory", without questioning any basic assumption of the neoclassical theory, considers that the economic growth of a country could also depend on endogenous level like public and private investments on knowledge, education and training. In this way, the missing convergence is justified by the fact that, rich countries can invest big resources on human capital, consequently making their labour force more productive, whereas poor countries are obliged to renounce it. They do not have even the resources to guarantee primary education, that is of minor importance compared to the demand of satisfying other needs, even more essential (starvation and sub-nutrition in the countries of the Third World). Education, as we all know, in many countries, is considered to be a luxury.

The "new growth theory" aims to provide a descriptive scheme of reality (Pasinetti, L. 2000), and consequently of post-modern society and immaterial production, where knowledge, training, language, but also affection make more and more economic wealth

(De Masi D., 2003). Even the paradigm of endogenous rural development is particularly at its ease in the post-modern context. Such assertion is confirmed by the demand growth of those users enjoying landscape-environmental services, produced by endogenous agriculture as well as by the added value created by services included in food and agriculture assets (for example, traditions, healthiness, environment protection) of the same agriculture. This appears as a good starting point to search for possible contact points between the two theories.

Our opinion is that both theories assign a fundamental role to “human capital”, namely, a growth and development force, as it is even corroborated by agricultural economics literature. Moreover, as Pasinetti says, the introduction of the concept “*physical quantity*” of human capital has occurred within the “new growth theory”, <<without any apparent need to consider the logical foundations or the conditions on which it could quantitatively be represented>> (Pasinetti L., 2000). All the more reason for validating this criticism in a context of endogenous rural development where traditional agricultural skills and “informal” knowledge, namely, the one handed down from father to son (e.g., traditional cheese-making techniques), cannot be compared to “study hours” or “school years”.

The differences between the “new growth theory” and the paradigm of endogenous rural development are instead several; many of these have been already identified and discussed in previous researches made by agricultural economists. We highlight the four main differences existing, and we list them below.

A. The first difference is pretty obvious: the different meaning assigned to the terms “growth” and “development”, in the literature of the previous decades; indeed, the first term mainly conveys the idea of quantity, while the second one refers to the idea of quality (life quality, food security, biodiversity *etc.*) (Romano D., 1996).

B. In the new growth theory, there is no hypothesis of any development sustainability, something which is instead implicit in the theory of endogenous rural development (Romano D., 1996).

C. Endogenous growth models have been formulated from simple assertions and deep simplifications (Solow R., 2000). By contrast, the starting assertions of endogenous rural development cannot be easily summarised in simple mechanics to be inserted in models of economic growth.

D. The new growth theory is macroeconomic. However, in those rare cases when the endogenous rural development paradigm was applied, the analysis of the agricultural system and the rural system could not be expanded further (Romano, D. 1996).

E. The new growth theory does not entail, and does not aim to do it, the processes of adjustment of external elements into a non-modernised context or the processes of re-adjustment of traditional elements into industrialised agriculture that characterise, as we have seen, the two *patterns* of endogenous development identified in this article.

Conclusions

Our contribution is essentially theoretical, and it has concerned the European model of agriculture and the hypothesis of its endogenous development. We have schematised this model into two agriculture typologies: modernised agriculture and traditional agriculture. This distinction is not new in literature: Rossi-Doria and T.W. Schultz have already described agriculture activity in a similar way.

In Europe, since the post-war modernised agriculture has been the reflection of the dominant productivist paradigm. Today this paradigm is on crisis because of the externalities produced, such as the agricultural squeeze, the new sensitivity felt by European consumers (the so-called new European food model), and also in part because of the new community agricultural policies. On contrary traditional agriculture for its ability to create virtuous assets and services (rural landscape, genuine food *etc.*) looks more receptive to post-modernity challenges (De Stefano F., 2003).

The theories that have been critically analysed in this article take form from sociological sciences and, in particular, we have referred to the theory of endogenous rural development, extending it to modernised and less virtuous agricultures. Moreover, we have created an economic background, starting from the ideas of some Italian economists, searching for possible contact points between the endogenous rural development theory and the new theory of neoclassical growth, known in literature also with the name of theory of endogenous growth. The conclusion is that the tools offered by the neoclassic theory, which for its own nature promotes an exogenous and global development (Iacoponi L. 1993), are not the most suitable for the study of endogenous development phenomena that can entail traditional agricultural and, through the return of traditional techniques, modernised agriculture.

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Essence and Employment of Human Resources in Business of Latvia

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Abstract

The research focuses on the characteristics of human resources in business based on two aspects – human and his/her capabilities. Literature studies on human resources have led to the analysis and specification of the essence, development and place of the notion in business as well as the characteristics of the change in resource relations due to the economic development, thus justifying the ongoing increase of the importance of human resources. In business different facilities like working capacity, legal capabilities and entrepreneurial skills analysed in economic, legal and management aspect, and under the business interaction are viewed as condition for the formation of human resources in business environment. The research on the availability and use of human resources in the national economy of Latvia shows that demographic situation in Latvia is worsening, while business experiences a decrease in the number of employers and an increase in the share of employees. The highest number of employed persons is observed in agriculture and forestry, manufacturing industry, trade, and repair of equipment.

Key words: human resources, business, employees, employers, skills.

Introduction

The society of the 21st century stands in the period of changes – the industrial age has passed and the age of knowledge society has started. The process of changes during the Industrial age was slower; however nowadays the increase of technological innovations is more rapid, the impact of globalisation intensifies, and the business environment rapidly changes. It is essential to recognise the main factors affecting economy, so the national economy could develop under the existing economic crisis and conditions of dynamic competitiveness. Latvian National Development Plan for 2007 - 2013 (adopted in 2006) identifies human resources as the main resource. Human as creator and carrier of knowledge becomes the key driving force and beneficiary of development. It means that human resources are the biggest value in the country, since the economic cycle is based on business that in its turn is based on knowledge, while a human is a source of knowledge. Any business idea, any resource may be transformed only with the help of human's work and knowledge.

The issue on the use of human resources becomes particularly topical to achieve the reduction of depressive situation in the national economy. Rapid development and introduction of contemporary technologies in work places require continuous modification and improvement of knowledge, skills and abilities determined by inconstant requirements for the use of human resources.

However it is significant to be aware that the comprehension on the essence and importance of human resources has changed during the course of development of economics and society.

Lately several researchers have studied the issues related to employment and unemployment of human resources. Hence I. Dovladbekova (2007) and E. Eteris (2007) have based their research on the analysis of the labour market – the unemployment rate and the proportion of the population under the working age in the EU and Latvia. The researches done by J. Saulītis (2007) and D. Barānova (2007) describe the development tendencies of employment in Latvia, and the aims and priorities of the employment policy. A. Vilciņa (2000) has performed the study of socio-demographic situation in Latvia.

I. Kalve (2007) has analysed human resources under the context of business based on the outlook of employers and employees relations. I. Čurkina (2003), U. Ozoliņa (2007) and M. Peļše (2004, 2007) have characterised the role of human capital in the economic growth, particularly emphasising the impact of education on the development of human resources. Also a professor V. Bikse (2004, 2007) has studied the impact of education on the development of human resources, particularly emphasising the great importance of entrepreneurial skills. Frequently human resources are analysed only in one aspect as manpower; however such characteristic is incomplete, since manpower denotes only a human physical strength utilised in the production process.

The research exploits the notion “human resources” in a broader sense. It encompasses both a human him/herself (human physical capacity) and human skills where intellectual potential and skills being topical exactly under the business aspect are extremely essential in the implementation process of human resources.

The research **hypothesis** was set based on the previous recognitions – the significance of human resources in business has dynamically developed, while the use of human resources in production sectors of Latvia is various and inconsistent.

The research **aim** is to study and assess the essence, significance and use of human resources in Latvia. The following **tasks** are advanced to achieve the set aim:

- 1) to study historical development of the essence of human resources;
- 2) to determine the place and role of human resources in business;
- 3) to analyse the use of human resources in the production in Latvia.

The following initial sources of information and materials were used to deal with the advanced research tasks on the analysis of the use of human resources: data of the Central Statistical Bureau, laws of the Republic of Latvia, special literature and other materials. The monographic descriptive method, the method of analysis and synthesis, and statistical research methods were used for the purpose of the study.

Results and Discussions

1. Essence and development of human resources

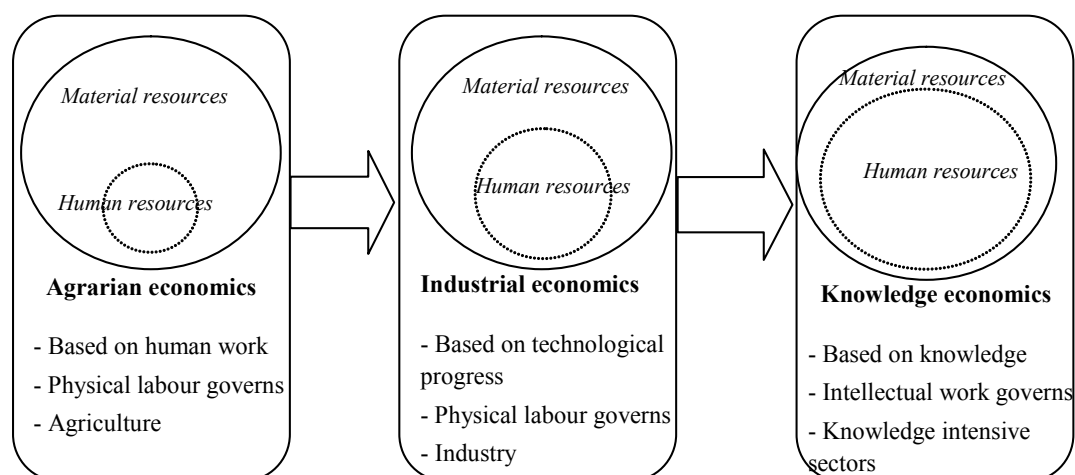
The roots of the human resources notion trace back already to the ancient society (between BC 10 and BC 5). At that time people were not aware of the notion “human resources”, so they spoke about one of the aspects of human resources – labour force. The ancient world characterises for the institution of slavery when the labour of slaves served as the basis of economic life; therefore several ancient thinkers (M. Cato the Elder, Aristotle, I. Columella) have analysed a specific type of labour force – labour of slaves. Factors affecting labour productivity were viewed – working conditions, “love for work”, and human skills and abilities determining labour division in the society.

During the period of Classical economic thought (middle of the 17th century – middle of the 19th century) production resources were analysed, labour and labour force being one of the most essential factors. W. Petty (1623 - 1687), an English economist,

wrote that labour was the father of wealth and its active factor; while land – the mother of wealth. Later significant recognitions were defined by A. Smith (1723 – 1790). He continued to develop the idea on creation of the wealth of nation; although he believed that the wealth of nation might be increased in two ways: firstly, by the help of knowledge and skills (it related to labour force) and, secondly, with the relation between usefully and less usefully employed labour force. A. Smith was one of those who considered the body of labour force knowledge and skills as the source of labour productivity (Čurkina I., 2003). J. Say (1767 – 1832), a French economist, and J.Ch. Leonard de Sismondi (1773 – 1842) continued A. Smith’s ideas (Krilovs L., 2003). It means that already at that time human resources were analysed from two aspects – labour force, and human skills, abilities and knowledge.

The period of Agrarian Economics was followed by the age of **Industrial Economics**. It was characterised by wide application of machinery and mechanisms in mass production as well as organisation of manufactory work based on workers’ specialisation in performance of particular functions. Human resources became more notable; as human knowledge and labour force were necessary to start machinery operate. Industry became a leading production sector at that time.

Nowadays outline an expressed tendency to direct towards **knowledge economics**. Nevertheless investing in new technologies is extremely important also in the age of knowledge society, though exactly educated human resources are perceived as the main precondition of all achievements. Consequently a human, and not technologies, is in the centre of the knowledge economics. Knowledge and wisdom of human resources, and their skilful application is the main resource for the national growth, since knowledge determines the quality of labour force, ensures more efficient use of capital and development of technologies, thus promoting economic development. Therefore the main resources are targeted towards stimulation of an individual’s intellectual curiosity, creative thinking and cognitive skills (Berdņikovs A., 2007). P. Drucker notices that a worker of physical labour is a recent past. A knowledge employee who makes work things s/he has acquired in a systematic education, i.e., notions, ideas and theories, is the basic economic resource, and not a person who makes work physical capabilities or muscles. Also Latvian National Development Plan for 2008 - 2013 identifies human resources as the main resource to achieve the living standard of developed countries. The long-term strategy of Latvia envisages transition to the development of sectors with high value added. Thus the development of knowledge



Source: made by the authors

Figure 1. Change of resource relations as the result of economic development

intensive sciences will be one of the main directions of knowledge economics.

Studies on human resources became more topical with the emergence of growth theory which underlined human resources as one of the most relevant economic growth factors. Both foreign researchers as R. Barro (1996), P. Romer (1989) and A. Dreher (2002), and Latvian scientists – G. Libermanis (2006), V. Bikse (2004, 2007), U. Gods (2008), I. Dovladbekova with the co-author Ē. Šumilo (2006) etc. in their studies consider human resources as the main economic driving force.

The summarisation on the studies of human resources leads to the conclusion that scientists interpret human resources differently. Part of the researchers emphasise their quantitative aspect (employment, underemployment, labour productivity etc. indicators), while the others stress qualitative aspects of human resources – skills, acquirements and knowledge of those able to work. However the fact that the meaning of human resources in contemporary production increases is unambiguous (Figure 1).

2. Human resources under the aspect of business

G. Libermanis (2006) and V. Bikse (2007) break all the resources into two groups: human resources and material resources. Labour, land and capital fall under the category of material resources. While J. Barney (1996), one of the most famous researches, professor of California University and a theoretician of management science has developed a theory on the resources in a company. He classifies all the resources being at the disposal of a company into 4 groups: financial resources (cash, retained earnings, resources related to shareholders,

debtors, banks etc.), material resources (land, real estate, equipment, and raw materials), non-material resources (strategic planning, control and coordination system, inner culture, reputation, and relations among departments), and human resources. Human resources comprise not only the company employees (management and workers), but also their experience, skills, knowledge and relations.

Pretty often the notion “human resources” is used as synonym indicating all the population of Latvia. Under the mentioned perspective human resources include the population under working age, population of working age, and population over working age.

Other authors (Ruskule S., Ivans U., 2005) understand human resources as all the employees of a company who applying their knowledge and experience together with financial, material and information resources target and develop the operation of a company.

In 2006 the experts in the discussion “Human Resources” of a commission of strategic analysis displayed two the most essential aspects characterising human resources.

Firstly, human resources consist of a **human itself**. Human shall exist physically, so one could speak on the beginning of human resources. Although such characteristics is incomplete, as humans and human resources is not one and the same. Human is a physical being, while resources possess three relevant features: *validity, value and availability* for production of goods and services. Yet not a human itself is used for the production of goods, but his/her skills and abilities.

So, secondly, **skills** characterise human resources. Human resources possess the ability to do something – certain skills and abilities that are used to achieve

the target. R. Garleja (2006) writes that human resources are the body of human and his/her skills, abilities, capabilities, and health.

The research focuses on the analysis of three groups of skills - working capacity, legal capabilities and entrepreneurial skills. Defined skills are viewed from the aspect of three sciences, economics, law and management, and their interaction in business.

Working capacity shall be considered when analysing human resources from business aspect, as business is a long-term or systematic economic activity undertaken by a legal or physical entity, related to capital investment and directed towards the production and sales of goods, execution of different works, rendering of services, trade etc. The population of working age (between the age of 15 and 62) who sell their knowledge, skills and abilities in the labour market are necessary to produce, to deal with trade and performance of different works. It means that the notion of human resources is narrowed, and only the population of working age is considered as human resources. R. Garleja (2006) writes that human resources are humans' ability to be economically productive; it is intellectual capital consisting of knowledge and skills how to apply the knowledge in operation. I. Lapa (2006) believes that human resources comprise not only the employees of a company, but also their experience, skills, knowledge and relations. In compliance with these definitions human resources are economically active population of working age (employed and unemployed excluding housewives, pupils and students, retired persons, disabled persons) who possess certain skills and capacities (working capacity).

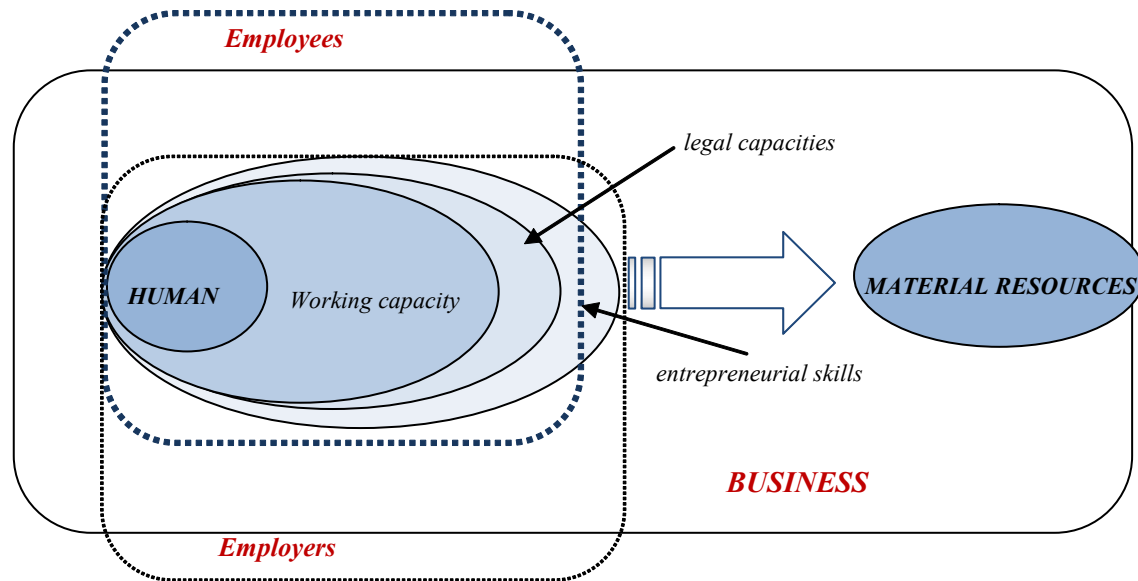
It means that a human as type of resources possesses knowledge, skills and abilities which may be encompassed in one word – **working capacity**. From this aspect all persons possessing working capacity – ability to manage and achieve the set targets in order to increase their competitiveness may be considered as human resources. Under such conception human resources include both pupils under working age and population over working age.

Article 37 of the Labour Law (June 20, 2001) determines that it is prohibited to employ a person who is under 15 years of age, and who until reaching the age of 18 continues to acquire a basic education. Under the legislation of the Republic of Latvia a person who has reached the age of 15 may be considered as person of working age and thus being able to enter into legal labour relations. The law "On State Pensions" (02.11.1995) states that as of July 1, 2008 the retirement age is 62 years, and it is equal both for men and women. It means that in compliance with the legislation of the Republic of Latvia the population of age between 15 and 62 years

are considered as human resources of working age. Although people also below the age and activity limit set by the law possess working capacity. These are potential skills to be used in business and promoting the economic growth of the state.

Legal capacities are also abilities essential for further working activities of the population. Legal capacities encompass abilities to undertake something – responsibility, management, coordination etc. Frequently these capacities are determined by legal enactments. A person having reached the age of 15 years is able to perform work; however s/he is not allowed to undertake legally important activities independently. It leads to another capacity necessary both for employers and employees, namely, legal capacity or capacity to act. The Civil Law distinguishes physical and legal capacity to act. Part 4 of the Civil Law (January 28, 1937) states that the capacity to make independent lawful transactions and undertake responsibility for the consequences of the made transactions is attributed to a natural person's legal capacity to act. D. Bergmanis in the official newspaper "Latvijas Vēstnesis" (1999) writes that legal capacity expresses itself in two aspects: firstly, in the capacity to make lawful transactions independently ("capacity to act") – to obtain and undertake rights and obligations as well as in the ability to account for violations of the rights under the obligations arisen as a result of transactions or actions similar to the mentioned afore; secondly, in the capacity to pay for damages caused to other persons. In compliance with the Civil Law full or civil capacity to act starts at the moment a person comes to age, i.e., becomes 18 years old. On company level these are abilities to manage certain processes and define certain rights, obligations and responsibilities. Human resources in business shall be viewed from two aspects – employees and employers. In compliance with the *Labour Law* an **employee** is a natural person who, on the basis of an employment contract for agreed work remuneration, performs specific work under the guidance of an **employer**. Both employers and employees require legal capacities and working capacities, yet **entrepreneurial skills** are skills possessed only by an employer. These are not working capacities possessed by the majority of people, but an aggregate of special capacities necessary to undertake risk to manage and appropriately combine other production resources as well as organise the resources for the production of goods and provision of services.

The word "entrepreneurial skills" in English means abilities of an employer to undertake something or to do something. In short entrepreneurial skills are the basic factor of management combining other resources into a single production process, and functioning of the market management is endangered.



Source: made by the authors

Figure 2. Place of human resources and division of capacities in business

Professor A. Vedļa (2000) uses the notion “ability to venture”. It is a specific feature of the character, which encourages a person as subject under management to set and achieve high goals, based on personal initiative, continuous, independent, creative searches, free of fair and risk. Economic subject is characterised by management – activity encompassing the satisfaction of certain and achievement of possibly greater profitability of the used resources. On contrary ability to venture or entrepreneurial skills mean that people possess abilities, energy, talents, skills, and knowledge to be applied in order to gain more profitability and increase their competitiveness. Also experts in the European Commission Report (2008) have emphasised entrepreneurial skills as features necessary to any person, and found that any person shall develop skills of a manager, social and personal competences as well as entrepreneurial abilities.

Therefore evaluating human resources under the context of business it is essential to nominate all the components: human and his/her skills and capabilities – working capacities, legal capacities and entrepreneurial skills. The research has identified the place of these components in business (Figure 2).

According to the above mentioned the authors nominate two definitions for the notion “human resources”:

1. The classification of the science of economics understand people who possess skills, abilities, knowledge and working capacities – ability to manage un achieve the set targets to increase his/her competitiveness as human resources.
2. Under the business aspect – human resources include only persons who are capable of work,

capable to act, and are economically active at the same time possessing skills, capacities and knowledge applicable in the production of goods and provision of services.

3. Availability and use of human resources in Latvia

The characteristics of the quantitative aspect of human resources lead to the conclusion that rapid aging of the population is occurring in the greatest part of economically developed countries, especially in Europe. Also the **demographic situation** of Latvia is worsening. In Latvia the total number of population has decreased by 15% during the period between 1990 and 2008. In 1990 the population of Latvia equalled to 2 668 140 persons; while in 2008 the number has decreased to 2 270 894 persons. The decline in birth rate and increase of emigration are the main factors defining the decline in the number of population. In 2007 the natural increase of population per 1000 inhabitants resulted in 4.3 persons; while the balance of migration in 2007 and 2006 represented 642 and 2451 persons respectively (CSB).

The analysis of human resources under the aspect of business shows a similar situation. Since 1990 the number of population of working age has decreased (between 1989 and 2008 the number of population of working age has decreased by 1.17%). The number of the population under working age essentially declines with every year; it shows the **aging of the society** (in 2008 the number of population falling under this group has decreased almost 2 times, i.e., by 48.6% compared to 1990). It evidences that the quantitative parameters of human resources will not facilitate the

Table 1

**Employed population broken down by labour status in Latvia for the period
between 2002 and 2007, thou. population**

Indicators	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	Average increase rate, %
Employer (owner)	31.8	32.2	34.6	35.9	37.3	36.0	2.6
<i>Chain increase rate, % - $t_{m(k)}$</i>	-	1.3	7.5	3.8	3.9	-3.5	
Self-employed person	61.7	61.4	62.9	60.8	72.4	65.3	1.6
<i>Chain increase rate, % - $t_{m(k)}$</i>	-	-0.5	2.4	-3.3	19.1	-9.8	
Total – employers	93.5	93.6	97.5	96.7	109.7	101.3	1.8
<i>Chain increase rate, % - $t_{m(k)}$</i>	-	0.1	4.2	-0.8	13.4	-7.7	
Employee (hired person)	852.6	876.0	885.9	915.3	961.5	1000.1	3.0
<i>Chain increase rate, % - $t_{m(k)}$</i>	-	2.7	1.1	3.3	5.0	4.0	
Unpaid person who helps other family member in his/her company, private practice, farm-stead	42.8	37.3	34.3	23.9	16.3	17.6	-15.0
<i>Chain increase rate, % - $t_{m(k)}$</i>	-	-12.9	-8.0	-30.3	-31.8	8.0	
Total – employees	895.4	913.3	920.2	939.2	977.8	1017.7	2.6
<i>Chain increase rate, % - $t_{m(k)}$</i>	-	2.0	0.8	2.1	4.1	4.1	
Total employed persons	989.0	1006.9	1017.7	1035.9	1087.6	1119.0	2.5
<i>Chain increase rate, % - $t_{m(k)}$</i>	-	1.8	1.1	1.8	5.0	2.9	

Source: authors' calculations according to the data of the Central Statistical Bureau, 2004, 2008

development of economic growth model; however qualitative factors shall be emphasised, as the quality of human resources is the factor able to increase the competitiveness of Latvian production in the market. The state will be able to developed business with the help of competitive and knowledgeable human resources. At present in Latvia the number of enterprises on 1000 inhabitants is one of the lowest among the EU member states. In 2007 the largest number of established companies was registered; thus almost reaching the figures of 1994; however the year 2007 characterises also for the largest number of liquidated companies amounting to 11 186 units. In 2006 the economically active enterprises established in Latvia according to their size are broken down as follows: micro enterprises (up to 9 employees) - 74.9%, small enterprises (up to 49 employees) - 20.9% and medium-sized enterprises (up to 249 employees) - 4.2%. In general small and medium-sized enterprises (SME) accounted for 99.3% of all the enterprises.

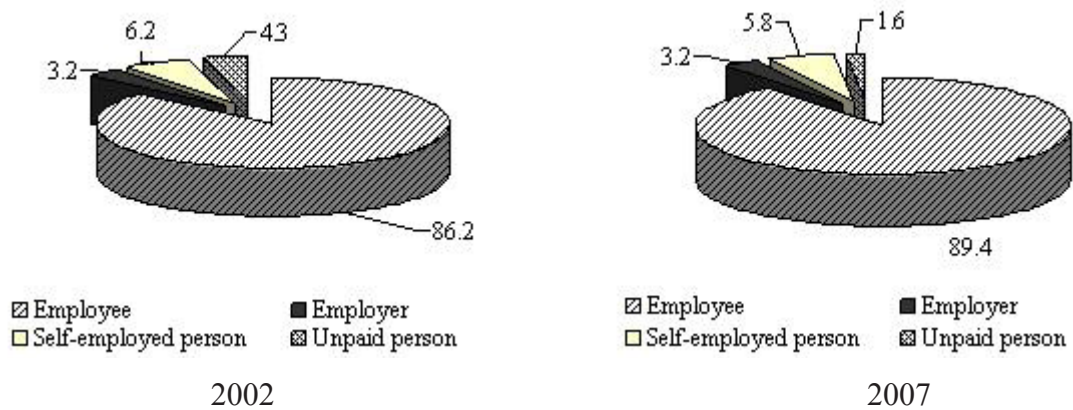
Based on the previous facts the research has focused on the analysis of employed population by the status of labour relations for the period between 2002 and 2007. The data of the Central Statistical Bureau were used for the calculations, where according to

the EU methodology the population of age 15-74 fall under the category of employed persons.

The following conclusions may be drawn according to the information of the Central Statistical Bureau and made calculations:

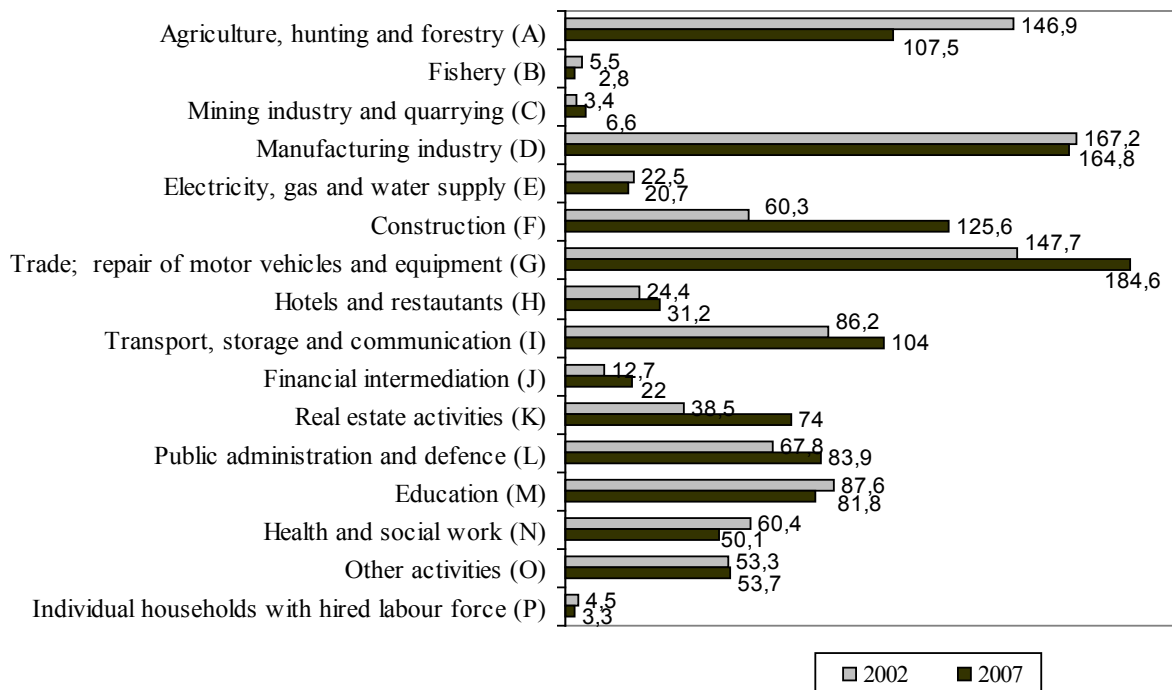
- During the research period the number of employees has grown more rapid (annually by 3.0% on average) than the number of employers (annually by 2.6% on average), thus designating on the concentration of production and increase of the number of employees per one company. If in 2002 one employer provided jobs to 26.8 employees, then in 2007 this figure equals to 27.8 persons.
- Between 2002 and 2007 the number of employed persons has consistently increased reaching 1119 thousand persons in 2007.
- Positively that the number of people who work without receiving wage, thus increasing risk for social security, has radically declined. The most rapid decrease in the number of such workers was observed in 2005 and 2006, mainly due to the accession of Latvia to the EU and the following economic growth in the state.

Further research focuses on the structure of employed population by their status, and whether it



Source: made by the authors according to the data of the Central Statistical Bureau, 2004,2008

Figure 3. Structure of employed population by status in Latvia in 2002 and 2007, %



Source: made by the authors according to the data of the Central Statistical Bureau, 2004, 2008

Figure 4. Changes in the number of employed population by kind of activity in Latvia in 2002 and 2007, thou. population

has changed during the period of six years (2002-2007). The information is summarised in Figure 3.

In 2007 compared to 2002 the share of employers of the total number of employed population has not changed (3.2%); although the share of paid employees has increased (by 3.2%). It was mainly achieved due to the decrease of the number and share of unpaid employees.

The estimation of the sectors having determined the most dynamic changes in the use of human resources is done by evaluating the research information.

The analysis of the changes in the number of employed population by sectors (in 2002 and 2007) leads to the conclusion that the changes experience both upward and downward fluctuations. The most rapid increase of employment is observed in construction and the sector very closely related to construction, namely, real estate activities, rent and other commercial activities.

The number of employed persons has decreased in agriculture due to several factors: firstly, narrowing of production, and secondly, production concentration

allowing the use of more efficient technologies, where less people are employed.

The decrease of persons employed in education is a negative factor; though it is caused by the demographic situation in the country.

Agriculture and forestry, manufacturing industry, trade and repair of equipment are three governing sectors employing the greatest part of the population.

Nevertheless it shall be noted that essential economic changes have occurred (economic crisis) that from 2008 may significantly affect the changes of employees by sectors. The number of employed persons has increased greatly in trade, transport and communications, and public administration.

Conclusions

1. The essence and importance of human resources have changed due to the development of economic processes. The importance of human resources is going to increase on condition of the knowledge economics.
2. Human resources in business are broken down in employees and employers, where the breakdown is affected by the skills possessed by individual persons.
3. Between 2002 and 2007 the number of employers has annually increased by 1.8% on average, thus providing for the annual increase in the number of employees by 2.6% on average.
4. In 2007 compared to 2002 the share of employers (3.2%) of the total number of employed population has not changed; though the share of employees has increased (by 3.2%). It was mainly achieved due to the decrease of the number and share of unpaid employees.
5. In Latvia the largest number of employed persons is observed in agriculture and forestry, manufacturing industry, trade and repair of equipment, yet the number of employed rapidly decrease in agriculture and forestry.

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Social Capital Development Scenarios in Zemgale Region

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Abstract

In economics of advanced countries the role of traditional economic resources lessens and currently greater attention is drawn to mutual relationships which influence social capital. The farmers of Zemgale region who had quite similar economic starting positions in the beginning of the 1990s today have very different development rates. These differences can be explained by farmers' social capital, and its formation in the course of time. Therefore it is important to evaluate social capital development possibilities in regions. Three social capital development scenarios could be applied in Zemgale region: creation of 1) Single Information centre; 2) Co-operation system and 3) Lifelong education system for farmers. In the current situation farmers do not have additional stimuli to develop social capital. In addition, groups' social capital development has additional benefits on other groups and on regional development as well as it influences the success of entrepreneurship. The proposed scenarios are not mutually exclusive and can be implemented simultaneously, moreover implementation of them could go far beyond the borders of one region, and they can be implemented also in other regions.

Key words: social capital, development scenarios, information, long-life education, co-operation.

Introduction

It has been recognised that traditional resources (natural, physical, and human) partly determine economic development processes. They create a way where economic actors have mutual relationship, and organise development and growth. Analysing farming development processes in Zemgale, one can conclude that the biggest number of farms have almost ceased their economic activities, and currently rent or even have sold their lands. Besides, economic activities have slow down not also in the farms with insufficient technical basis, but also in the farms with good starting capital, i.e., farms that are even better than the newest farms founded currently, and being modern and profitable.

During the period of 2002-2007 several social capital researches have been done in Zemgale farms. The research results show that the development of social capital is important for individual actors; their economic activities also have impact on other actors' performance in regional context (Strīķis V., Peļše M., Leikučs J., 2005, 2007, Peļše M., 2006, 2007). The author has concluded that the growth of farms is related to farmers' family, employees in farm as well as municipality, region and even state where the farm is located. Therefore we need to undertake additional measures to stimulate farmers' social capital development. If farmers' social capital is well developed, then it creates positive effect on the factors connected with a farmer; investing of financial capital, expansion of human capital possibilities to develop, and in general it has an effect on regional

development. It is important to evaluate social capital development instruments, taking into account the object group, time, space, and situation.

The research's hypothesis – currently farmers do not have sufficient stimuli to develop their social capital. The research object is development scenarios of social capital in Zemgale. The aim of the research is to create farmers' social capital development scenarios and evaluate them. The tasks are:

- to outline interpretation of social capital concept within the context of growth process;
- to create farmers social capital development scenarios in Zemgale;
- to evaluate these scenarios.

Monographic, abstract-logical, analysis and syntheses as well SWOT methods were used in the research.

Results and Discussions

In peer reviewed literature the concept of social capital has essentially different interpretations. Many authors recognised that social capital has many elements, it is a resource. There are two things that must be noted: first, social capital consists of some aspects of social structure, and second, elements of social capital facilitate certain actions of actors within the structure (Piazza-Georgi B., 2002). In his turn M. Woolcock (Woolcock M., 2001) in his research of social capital point out that each individual social network and trust level is closely connected with the society. M. Woolcock also studied organizations' social capital and free market's self organizing

capability, stressing D. Hume and A. Smith idea of very big and complex systems, capable to organise themselves without outside planning and authorities.

The concept of social capital is based on the idea that social relations and norms give opportunity to reach valuable resources and improve individual welfare (Fafchamps M., Minten B., 2001), families' welfare (Narayan D., Pritchett L., 1997), communities (Bowles S., Gintis H., 2002), and even regional and nations growth (Knack S., Keefer P., 1997). Although the researchers point out fact that social relationships have important effects on economic success and it has sound theoretical and empirical background, however, the influence of sociological factors within the context of regional economic problems is still unclear (Burt R., 2004; Durlauf S.N., Fafchamps M., 2004). In enterprise as well as on local and regional level social capital could be considered as feature of social organisation system, for example, trust, norms, collaboration which improves the society's efficiency (Wolz A., Fritzsich J., 2005). Also the fact that these are qualitative categories that are difficult to measure should be taken into account. One of the biggest problems is the lack of appropriate statistical data. Practically variables in researches are supported by availability of data and not theoretical considerations.

Scenarios of farmers' social capital development in Zemgale were created based on the research results of farmers' social capital in Zemgale region during 2005, 2006, and 2007. They are:

- 1) establishing a Single Information Centre;
- 2) establishing a Co-operation System;
- 3) establishing a Lifelong Education System;
- 4) maintaining the current situation.

The field of performance of the selected scenarios goes beyond one region's boundaries and functions in a wider range.

Vision for implementing farmers' social capital development scenarios

Establishing the Single Information Centre for farmers. A single network of information being directly linked to other European information networks is established on the basis of Latvian Agricultural Advisory Centre. The network enables farmers to get information on topical issues: topical information on agricultural industries, scientific achievements in agriculture, alternative occupations in rural areas, marketing issues (what and where to buy or sell, product prices), available educational and training courses, NGOs activities, opportunities for entertainment etc. The network will have a weblog, enabling communication between farmers and between farmers and agricultural specialists. An information system for exchanging foreign experience will be set up, especially within the

scope of Europe, offering opportunities for training abroad, gaining new experience etc. There will be a co-ordinator who is a specialist in rural development and an employee for the single information network in each rural commune, providing advice in issues of agriculture and public activities. Employees having an appropriate educational background, capabilities and skills will be selected for this job.

Results: farmers will get a lot of information on the spot, thus, saving their time. The information network will enable farmers to get new knowledge and make new contacts. It will be possible to get new virtual communication partners via the Internet, which will be later transformed into broader contact networks that are important social capital elements.

The Co-operation System for farmers. The need for a co-operation system will be analysed and ascertained in several agricultural industries and regions on the basis of the existing professional societies and associations. Modern foreign experience in the field of co-operation will be analysed and adapted to Latvian conditions. An optimal model for the Latvian co-operation system will be developed. A new co-operation system, corresponding to farmers' interests, will be popularised and implemented in Latvia.

Results: farmers will get new contact networks linked with their occupation, have opportunities to buy necessary resources for increasing output, and to sell their products at a better price, thus, maximising profits. It requires farmers to trust other co-operative members and to collaborate with each other – these are important social capital elements.

Establishing the Lifelong Educational System for farmers on the basis of Latvia University of Agriculture and its subsidiaries as well as vocational or professional schools. Any farmer can choose a lifelong educational programme that will be reviewed every year according to the latest changes. The study programmes offered by educational institutions will stress concrete specialisation fields, the studying of several sciences useful in rural areas, opportunities of newest information resources and marketing strategy issues. At the same time such fields as psychology, communication, business etiquette and others, especially those important for increasing social capital, will not be ignored.

The Lifelong Educational System is based on three types of studies:

- 1) a winter school or a network of study courses at the regional level;
- 2) a network of individual consultations;
- 3) a network of distance education.

Results: Farmers engage in the process of improving their competencies, providing advantages

for increasing human capital and subsequently social capital as well. New contact networks based on knowledge emerge.

Maintaining the current situation. The main sources for gaining knowledge are as follows: farmers use services of companies engaged in agricultural production, information from journals, newspapers, television, the Internet etc. It is possible to ask agricultural consultants available in any rural commune for assistance (whose educational and competency levels are different) and services offered by Latvian Agricultural Advisory Centre. Farmers have a free choice to establish public organisations which are mostly located in district centres and major Latvian cities, and participate in their activities. Disregarding the fact that agricultural co-operatives did not perform well in the recent years, new co-operatives have been set up, however, they are not numerous.

Results: Farmers are able to increase their own social capital, using their own initiatives.

SWOT analysis

SWOT analysis for each scenario will be done to evaluate farmers’ social capital development scenarios. This tool has been created in the 1960s in the USA as organisation’s complex evaluation instrument, made by consultants. Today two types of SWOT analysis exist – free and classical. Classical SWOT is very close to the basic model created in the 1960s, and it is designed to measure as precise as possible competitiveness of companies, products or services, to locate development and improvement possibilities. Free SWOT analysis consists of idea to identify *strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and treats*, however, pragmatic evaluation is not used (Kalve I., 2005).

The SWOT analysis of farmers’ social capital development scenarios is included in Table 1 and Table 2.

The fact that SWOT has been made for scenarios which may change in the course of time their strengths and weaknesses, and also opportunities and threats

Table 1

SWOT analysis for the Single Information Centre and Co-operation System scenarios

Single Information Centre		Co-operation System	
Strengths	Weaknesses	Strengths	Weaknesses
+ convenient use + comprehensive information + new contact networks + fast access to information + opportunity to use both IT tools and a consultant + contacting is easy at the European and world levels	- the Internet is not available on the whole territory of Latvia - insufficient number of Internet users - development of a single network is labour intensive - problems with knowledge of foreign languages	+ new business partners on equal conditions + increasing competitiveness in respective industries + new contact networks + cost reduction opportunities	- a reliable leader is needed for establishing and managing the system - not always it is possible to make common decisions - not always initiatives are welcome - distrust might arise among co-operative members
Opportunities	Threats	Opportunities	Threats
+ to improve access to the Internet and purchase of computers in rural areas + to update available information fast; to send it + opportunities to get new ideas for work and recreation	- possible Internet connection or computer failures - the consultant can make errors or provide false information thus causing distrust among customers	+ opportunity to become the initiator for establishing a co-operative and to attract his/her idea’s supporters + new international level co-operatives can be established + opportunity to get additional financing assigned for promoting co-operatives + to reduce production and sales costs	- the negative Soviet times co-operation experience can hinder establishing new co-operatives - the complicated Latvian legislation hinders establishing new enterprises

Table 2

SWOT analysis for the Lifelong Educational System and Maintenance of Current Situation scenarios

Lifelong Educational System		Maintenance of Current Situation	
Strengths	Weaknesses	Strengths	Weaknesses
+ opportunity to get useful information + new contact networks + different approaches for gaining knowledge are offered + voluntary participation + self-confidence is raised; knowledge is improved and renewed + professional occupations are diversified	- insufficient capacity and experience of the existing educational institutions to establish such a system - strong one's own initiative in obtaining knowledge is required - competent specialists have to be attracted to establish and maintain the system - it is a time-intensive process - it requires additional financial resources	+ based on one's own initiative + several trustees are gained + free unlimited options	- no system - the role of contacts is underestimated - information accessibility and transparency is insufficient - corresponding lifelong education does not exist - many co-operation failures
Opportunities	Threats	Opportunities	Threats
+ to co-operate with pedagogues and specialists at the international level + to increase the number of participants continuously + to get additional funds for the purpose of education leading to improving human capital	- lack of qualified lecturers - lack of enterprising people - insufficient financing to establish and maintain the system	+ to get involved in new contact networks by showing one's own initiative + some individuals can become leaders, establish new informal organisations	- informal organisations might fall into decline due to inability to find an appropriate leader and material interests - fragmentation of information carriers can cause confusion to its users - non-systematised information can delay use of opportunities for support

shall be taken into account. It is possible to identify the main conclusions based on the provided SWOT analysis.

Conclusions, proposals and suggestions

1. Proposed social capital development scenarios are not contradictive to one another and there is possible to implement them simultaneously. The lowest development of farmers' social capital will be in case of "Maintenance of current situation" scenario, it does not give additional stimulus for farmers' social capital in a region.
2. Relatively better advantages have scenarios of creating Single Information Centre and creating Life-long education system. Each of them has six strengths, the number of weaknesses, opportunities and treats are also quite equal.

3. The scenario of creating Co-operation system has most emphasised future perspectives and does not have so many strengths.
4. The scenario "Maintenance of current situation" has been evaluated as the worst, taking into account fact that scenario strengths and opportunities outweigh its treats and weaknesses.
5. Proposed social capital development scenarios go far beyond the borders of regions; their implementation is possible even on the state level.

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Kopsavilkums

Pasaules attīstītākajās valstīs tradicionālo resursu loma ekonomikā arvien samazinās, lielāks akcents tiek likts uz savstarpējām attiecībām, kuras būtiski ietekmē sociālo kapitālu. Zemnieku saimniecības Zemgalē, kur sākotnējie attīstības apstākļi daudzām bija vienādi, šodien ir dažādās attīstības fāzēs, un šajās atšķirībās savu lomu nospēlēja sociālais kapitāls, kāds bija katra lauku uzņēmēja rīcībā un kā tas veidojās un pilnveidojās laika gaitā. Tādēļ svarīgi ir novērtēt sociālā kapitāla palielināšanas iespējas reģionā. Sociālā kapitāla attīstības scenāriji Zemgalē varētu būt trīs: Vienotā informācijas centra izveide, Kooperācijas sistēmas un Mūžizglītības sistēmas izveide zemniekiem. Pašreizējā situācija zemniekiem nepiedāvā pietiekoši daudz papildus stimulu sociālā kapitāla paaugstināšanai, pie tam jāņem vērā, ka sociālā kapitāla attīstībai vienai iedzīvotāju kategorijai reģionā ir papildus ieguvums arī pārējām iedzīvotāju grupām, teritorijai, arī uzņēmējdarbības veiksmi. Piedāvātie sociālā kapitāla scenāriji viens otru neizslēdz un tos var ieviesti vienlaicīgi, pie tam šo scenāriju realizācija pārsniedz viena reģiona robežas un tos var apbērt arī pārējos Latvijas reģionos.

Atslēgas vārdi sociālais kapitāls, attīstības scenārijs, informācija, mūžizglītība, kooperācija.

Характеристика действий в рамках II колонны общей сельскохозяйственной политики в годах 2007-2013 Characteristics of Actions within the Framework of Pillar II of the Common Agricultural Policy for 2007 – 2013

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Abstract

The aim of the research was to analyse the CAP for 2007-2013. The programme was worked out on the basis of the decree of the Council (WE) from 2005 and the Parliament bill from 2007. The programme includes 4 priority axes which were divided into 21 actions. Most actions (10) were concentrating within the framework of Axis 1 related to the competition. Axis 2 was dedicated to the environment, Axis 3 - to life quality, and Axis 4 - to the local community.

Key words: rural areas development, priority axes, operating actions, financial support.

Введение

Идею Общей Сельскохозяйственной Политики записано в Римском Трактате с 1957г. Цели Общей Сельскохозяйственной Политики - ВПР [WPR] охватывали следующие элементы: 1. увеличение продуктивности сельского хозяйства через введение технического прогресса, рационализации продукции и оптимальное применение факторов продукции, 2. обеспечение соответствующих условий жизни сельскохозяйственному населению, 3. стабилизацию рынка сельскохозяйственных продуктов и представление возможности потребителям покупки сельскохозяйственных продуктов по благоразумным ценам. С этого времени сельскохозяйственная политика прошла несколько этапов развития, а последняя реформа, согласованная в Люксембурге (в 2003г) произошла во времени нашего входа в Европейский Союз. В этом периоде были изменены формы поддержки сельскохозяйственного сектора. Больше воздействие сделано на развитие сельских территорий. Начато поддерживать не только развитие производительных функций сельского хозяйства, но также сосредоточено внимание на поддержке непроизводительных функций. Близкой стала идея сельского хозяйства одинаково, как многофункционального, так и уравновешенного.

На 2008-2009 годы запланировано, в рамках определений реформы с 2003 года, оценку нынешней формы Общей Сельскохозяйственной

Политики. Будут подданы дискуссии факторы, устанавливающие одинаково, как I опоры ВПР [WPR], связанную с непосредственными платежами и рыночным вмешательством, так и II опоры ВПР [WPR], ответственную за развитие сельских территорий.

Материалы и методы исследований

В июле 2007 года Европейская Комиссия приняла польскую Программу Развития Сельских Территорий [PROW], разработанную на период 2007-2013 годов. Она является наибольшей программой среди всех стран Европейского Союза, которая была разработана на основании консультаций с общественными и хозяйственными партнёрами, а также с негосударственными организациями. Программа определяет объём и форму поддержки сельских территорий в очередной, 7-годовой финансовой перспективе.

Основанием разработки [PROW] был Закон от 7 марта 2007г о поддержке сельских территорий с участием средств Европейского Сельскохозяйственного Фонда для Развития Сельских Территорий (EFRROW) (Закон , 2007). На основании этого закона разработано [PROW] на период 2007-2013 годов, которая то программа является операционным документом, определяющим цели, приоритеты и принципы поддержки сельских территорий.

В исследованиях применены методы описательного анализа, которые дали возможность объективно посмотреть на совокупность начинаний, связанных с программой, предназначенной для динамического внедрения процесса модернизации сельского хозяйства и быстрого развития сельских территорий. В сфере исследуемой проблематики находится характеристика финансовых инструментов, которые будут происходить одинаково, как с бюджета Европейского Союза [ЕС], так и с отечественных публичных средств.

Принципы создания программы развития сельских территорий на период 2007-2013 годов

Во время конструирования ПРОВ [PROW] на период 2007-2013 годов, принято методологическое предположение, что программа будет реализована соответственно Стратегии Развития Страны (Стратегия Развития Страны (СРК), 2006). СРК [SRK] является основным стратегическим документом, принятым Советом Министров, который представляет собой пункт отнесения для других государственных стратегий и программ. Одним из приоритетов там заключённых является развитие сельских территорий, которое должно дать возможность эффективного управления естественными ресурсами, сохранение соответствующего состояния среды, совместно с сохранением биологической разновидности.

Вторым документом, определяющим рамки ПРОВ [PROW] были ведущие направления экономического развития Европейского Союза, определённые в Лиссабонской Стратегии, которые должны привести к увеличению конкурентоспособности европейской экономики, скорейшего образования новых мест работы и развития авансированных технологий. Программа была вынуждена отвечать на новые вызовы, поставленные перед Общей Сельскохозяйственной Политикой в 2003 году, где возникла потребность применения принципа модуляции (редукция непосредственного платежа) и ассигнования полученным таким способом средств с мыслью о развитии сельских территорий. Таким способом, часть освобождённых средств из I-ой опоры ВПР [WPR] будет можно перенести ко II-ой опоре ВПР [WPR]. Сверх того, установлено, что одновременно с уменьшением экономического значения сельскохозяйственного сектора (уменьшающаяся доля в ПКБ [PKB]), должна увеличиваться непродуктивная роль сельского хозяйства, ответственная за предоставление

традиционных культурных ценностей, сохранение сельского пейзажа и специфических экосистем. Направления развития ПРОВ [PROW] нашли отражение в распоряжении Совета Европейского Сообщества [WE] с 2005 года, касающегося поддержки Европейским Сельскохозяйственным Фондом развития сельских территорий, в пользу Развития Сельских Территорий [EFRROW] (Распоряжение Совета BE [WE], 2005 года.

Программа Развития Сельских Территорий на период 2007-2013 годов представляет собой объединение целей и задач, которые ставит перед нами Европейский Союз, с внутренними общественно-экономическими обусловленностями страны. Рассуждения привели к выделению 4 пространств (оси), которые охватывают следующие проблемы: 1. конкурентоспособность, 2. среда, 3. качество жизни и 4. местные общества. Общественные приоритеты по поводу их универсального характера, переводятся на более подробные приоритеты страны. Иерархия важности территорий (оси) была сохранена, через направление струи средств помощи на деятельности, которые могут в коротком периоде времени принести наилучшие экономические эффекты (Программа Развития Сельских Территорий, 2007).

Общая характеристика ПРОВ [PROW] на период времени 2007-2013 годов

Программа Развития Сельских Территорий (2007-2013) представляет собой одинаково, как общие, подробные так и оперативные цели ПРОВ [PROW]. Предполагается, что программа окажет вспомоществование экономическому и общественному развитию сельских территорий, через многостороннее воздействие инструментов, связанных с инвестициями, деятельностью поддерживающую инфраструктуру, а также развитие человеческого капитала. Деятельность имеет горизонтальный характер, что следует толковать таким способом, что начинания будут направлены ко всем субъектам, функционирующим на сельских пространствах. Одновременно, в программе указано на потребность принятия во внимание региональной дифференциации, которые-то черты региона являются характеристичными для нашей страны. Эта цель будет достигнута, с одной стороны, через дифференциации критериев доступа к финансовой поддержке, а с другой, натуральным способом, благодаря, между прочими, выделению территорий ОНВ [ONW] и Натура 2000. Выступающие ограничения в доступе к некоторым действиям и невозможность

использования многих действий, позволяет, в свою очередь, на распределение финансовых средств на отдельные воеводства.

Генеральной идеей ПРОВ [PROW] была реализация концепции многофункционального развития сельского хозяйства, с одновременным соблюдением принципов уравновешенного развития. Она предполагает экономическое усиление сельскохозяйственных хозяйств и рост конкурентоспособности сельскохозяйственного - потребительского сектора. В программе обеспечено инструменты в пользу дифференциации экономической деятельности в направлении приобретения и создания альтернативных источников доходов для жителей деревень.

Конструкция деятельности в рамках ПРОВ [PROW] основана на приписке их отдельным осям приоритета и придание им идентификационных свойств, в виде кода деятельности, юридического основания, обоснования, цели деятельности, критериев доступа, а также облика бенефицианта. Эти подробные дефиниции были согласованы с Европейским Союзом, что дало основание Министру Сельского Хозяйства и Развития Деревень для издания соответствующих исполнительных распоряжений. Все виды деятельности сгруппировано в 4 Оси (районы), которые не были одинаковыми, принимая во внимание количество приписанных им видов деятельности. В рамках Оси 1 «Улучшение конкурентоспособности сельскохозяйственного и лесоводческого сектора» приоритеты общества подчёркивали напор на человеческий капитал, трансферт знаний и деловой капитал. Эти приоритеты, в польских условиях, приняли вид факторов роста человеческого потенциала, улучшения профессиональной подготовки и развития инфраструктуры на сельских территориях. Итого в Оси 1 заключено 10 видов деятельности, что составляет 47,6% общего количества начинаний.

В рамках Оси 2 деятельности сосредоточено на среде. Из общественной перспективы приоритеты касались защиты биологической разновидности, защиты почвы и вод, а также противодействия негативным климатическим изменениям. Похожие задачи были поставлены среди отечественных приоритетов. Ось 2 выступает под названием «Исправление естественной среды и сельских пространств» и содержит 4 виды деятельности.

Очередная Ось 3 является связанной с качеством жизни, которая в общественной оптике охватывает улучшение условий жизни, а также увеличение возможности занятости населения. Ось 3 определено как «Качество жизни в сельских

территориях и дифференциация деревенской экономики». Итого в рамках Оси 3 запланировано 4 вида деятельности. И, наконец, последняя Ось 4, связанная с местными обществами и охватывает 3 виды деятельности, для которых определено наименование Лидер [Leader].

В общей сложности в рамках ПРОВ [PROW] на период 2007-2013 годов предусмотрено 21 видов деятельности, причём Оси 2 и 3 насчитывают по 4 вида деятельности, зато Ось 4 – это 3 вида деятельности (Программа Развития Сельских Территорий, 2007).

Характеристики ОСИ 1

«Улучшение конкурентоспособности сельскохозяйственного и лесоводческого сектора»

Виды деятельности, заключённые в Оси 1 являются дифференцированными относительно значения, приоритетов и направлений отдельных форм воздействия на сельские территории. Можно выделить виды деятельности, направленные непосредственно к сельскохозяйственным производителям, следовательно, будущим бенефициантами, а также деятельности посредственного характера, связанные с формированием человеческого капитала. К первой группе можно отнести виды деятельности, связанные с облегчением старта молодых земледельцев, которые адресованы до 33,6 тысяч сельскохозяйственных производителей. В свою очередь, структурными пособиями должно быть охваченных 50,4 тысяч земледельцев, или модернизацией сельских хозяйств – дальнейших 59,4 тысяч земледельцев. К посредственным видам деятельности можно отнести обучения, которые должны охватить 400 тысяч участников, услуги консалтинга адресованы до 570 тысяч сельскохозяйственных производителей или улучшение системы качества продовольствия касается 69 тысяч земледельцев. К видам деятельности, обладающим наименьшим числом участвующих в программе субъектов, можно отнести проекты, связанные с улучшением деревенской инфраструктуры (350) и группы сельскохозяйственных производителей. (350).

Соответственно размеру запланированного объёма действия, критериев доступа, формы и величины финансовой помощи, наибольшую позицию представляют структуральные пособия, охватывающие квоту 2,2 миллиарда ЕВРО. В этой квоте находятся одинаково, так текущие расходы, связанные с платежами для бенефициантов, которым были признаны пособия, как тоже и просроченные расходы по этому поводу,

Таблица 1

Расходы в рамках Оси 1 „Улучшение конкурентоспособности сельскохозяйственного и лесоводческого сектора ” в годах 2007-2013 (в млн. евро)

Спецификация	Публичные расходы	Частные расходы	Итого	Процент с Итого
Профессиональное обучение лиц принятых на работу в сельском хозяйстве и лесоводстве	40,0	-	40,0	0,3
Облегчение старта молодых земледельцев	420,0	-	420,0	3,2
Структуральные пособия	2 187,6	-	2 187,6	16,5
Пользование земледельцами и обладателями лесов с услуг консалтинга	350,0	87,5	437,5	3,3
Модернизация сельскохозяйственных хозяйств	1 779,9	2 669,9	4 449,8	33,6
Увеличение добавочной стоимости сельскохозяйственной и лесоводческой продукции	1 100,0	3 300,0	4 400,0	33,2
Ведение и развитие инфраструктуры, связанной с развитием и приспособлением сельского хозяйства и лесоводства	600,0	-	600,0	4,5
Участие земледельцев в системе качества продовольствия	100,0	-	100,0	0,7
Информационная деятельность и промоции	30,0	12,9	42,9	0,4
Группы сельскохозяйственных производителей	140,0	-	140,0	1,0
Обязанности с периода 2004-2006 для деятельности «Поддержка низкотоварных хозяйств»	440,0	-	440,0	3,3
Всего	7 187,5	6 070,2	13 257,7	100,0

Источник: PROW на 2007-2013 годы.

что ПРОВ [PROW] на период времени 2004-2006 существовал 3 года, а реализация выплат охватывает период 10 лет. Платежи из-за «старых» пособий составляют около 1,5 миллиарда ЕВРО, то есть 67%. Второй, относительно величины уровня запланированных расходов, представляют виды деятельности, связанные с модернизацией сельских хозяйств (1,8 миллиарда ЕВРО), а также увеличение добавочной стоимости сельскохозяйственной и лесной продукции (1,1 миллиарда ЕВРО). Наименьший уровень поддержки касается заводского обучения (40 миллиона ЕВРО), а также на информационную деятельность и промоцию (30 миллиона ЕВРО).

Форма и величина финансовой помощи, предусмотренной на отдельные виды деятельности, является индивидуализированной и соответствующей для данных экономических субъектов. Единичный бенефициант может приобрести наивысший уровень платежа в случае внесения просьбы о модернизацию сельского хозяйства (76,8 тысяч ЕВРО, или 300 тысяч злотых), причём эта квота не может превышать

40% расходов, которые квалифицируются до программы, охваченной помощью. Это означает одновременно, что 60% общих затрат инвестиции обязательно должно быть покрыто бенефициантом. Большой уровень помощи могут приобрести молодые земледельцы (1,8 тысяч ЕВРО или 50 тысяч злотых), но критерия доступа обеспечены оговорками, касающимися возраста (до 40 лет), соответствующими профессиональными квалификациями и исполнением дефиниции начала ведения сельскохозяйственной деятельности. В случае структуральных пособий, критерия доступа обусловлены передачей сельского хозяйства поверхностью 3 гектаров (за исключением 4 воеводств), обладания соответствующего возраста (55 лет), и сознания, что пособие будет выплачиваться до возраста 65 года жизни. Основная величина помощи составляет 229 ЕВРО (896 злотых), а общая величина помощи не может быть большей, чем 405 ЕВРО (1 583 злотых).

Иной характер помощи имеют коллективы земледельцев, которые в случае групп

сельскохозяйственных производителей могут составить 100 тысяч ЕВРО в первом и втором году. При пользовании услугами консалтинга, помощь будет составлять 80% квалифицированных расходов, предназначенных на услугу и не больше, чем 1,5 тысяч ЕВРО на одно хозяйство (Программа Развития Сельских Территорий, 2007 года).

Итого на Ось 1 предусматривается назначить квоту 13,2 миллиарда ЕВРО, причём, публичные расходы определены на уровне 7,2 миллиарда ЕВРО (54,2%) и частные затраты – на уровне 6,0 миллиарда ЕВРО (44,2%). Среди 10 видов деятельности, заключенной в Оси 1 участие бенефициантов должно касаться 4 видов деятельности, в этом наиболее в пределе увеличения добавочной стоимости сельскохозяйственной продукции (3,3 миллиарда ЕВРО) и модернизации сельских хозяйств (1,8 миллиарда ЕВРО) (Таблица 1).

ОСЬ 2 «Улучшение естественной среды и сельских территорий»

В рамках Оси 2, касающейся среды, предусмотрено 4 виды деятельности. Среди них преобладающую позицию занимают два вида деятельности, охватывающие поддержку хозяйствования на территориях, имеющих неблагоприятные условия хозяйствования ОНВ [ONW] и платежи за сельскохозяйственную среду. В первом случае предоставляется помощь в виде годовых оптовых платежей. Эта помощь

является повязанной с непосредственными доплатами (одно заявление). Величина помощи составляет от 81,9 ЕВРО/гектар на горных территориях и 67,6 ЕВРО/гектар в низинной зоне. Помощь направлена до 750 тысяч бенефициантов, представляющих собой свыше 50% общего количества сельскохозяйственных хозяйств страны и на территорию 9,2 миллиона гектаров земельных угодий (54,3 %).

Иначе выглядят платежи за сельскохозяйственную среду, которые охватывают 9 пакетов, дифференцированных относительно характера и объёма воздействия. Эти платежи выплачиваются в оптовом виде, как возмещение за часть потеранных затрат, в связи с соблюдением режимов защиты естественной среды. Оцениваемое число бенефициантов составляет 200 тысяч земледельцев и касается 10% земельных угодий страны. Остальные виды деятельности касаются лесонасаждения земельных угодий и восстановления потенциала лесоводческой продукции. Оба вида направлены на увеличение лесистости страны и достижения состояния лесонасаждения на уровне 30% (Программа Развития Сельских Территорий, 2007). На деятельность начинаний в рамках Оси 2 предусмотрено 5,5 миллиарда ЕВРО, в этом 2,4 миллиарда ЕВРО (44,1%) на поддержку хозяйств на территориях ОНВ [ONW] и 2,3 миллиарда ЕВРО (41,5%) на платежи за сельскохозяйственную среду. (Таблица 2).

Таблица 2.

Расходы в рамках Оси 2 «Улучшение естественной среды и сельских территорий» в годах 2007-2013 (в миллионах евро)

Спецификация	Публичные расходы	Частные расходы	Итого	Процент с Итого
Поддержка хозяйств на горных территориях и других территориях, имеющих неблагоприятные условия хозяйствования ОНВ [ONW]	2 448,7	-	2 448,7	44,1
Программа сельскохозяйственной среды (Платежи за сельскохозяйственную среду)	2 303,8	-	2 303,8	41,5
Лесонасаждения на сельскохозяйственных грунтах, а также лесонасаждения на других, чем сельскохозяйственных	653,5	-	653,5	11,8
Восстановление потенциала лесоводческой продукции, уничтоженного катастрофами и введение превентивных инструментов	140,0	-	140,0	2,6
Всего	5 546,0	-	5 546,0	100,0

Источник: PROW на 2007-2013 года.

Таблица 3

Расходы в рамках Оси 3 «Качество жизни на сельских территориях и дифференциация сельской экономики» в 2007-2013 годах (в млн. евро)

Спецификация	Публичные расходы	Частные расходы	Итого	Процент с Итого
Дифференциация в направлении несельскохозяйственной деятельности	345,6	345,6	691,2	14,4
Создание и развитие микро-предприятий	1 023,6	1 023,6	2 047,2	42,7
Основные услуги для сельской экономики и населения	1 471,4	-	1 471,4	30,6
Возобновление и развитие деревень	589,6	-	589,6	12,3
Всего	3 430,2	1 369,2	4 799,4	100,0

Источник: PROW на 2007-2013 годы.

ОСЬ 3 „Качество жизни на сельских территориях и дифференциация деревенской экономики”

Ось 3 направлена на качество жизни на сельских территориях. Целью деятельности является дифференциация сельскохозяйственной деятельности, через которую жители будут стремиться к поискам несельскохозяйственных источников дохода, а также к промоции занятости вне сельского хозяйства на сельских территориях. С целью достижения этой задачи было установлено 4 вида деятельности, наибольшее значение в этом направлено на создание и развитие микро-предприятий (2,0 миллиарда ЕВРО), а также на основные услуги для экономики и сельского населения (1,5 миллиарда ЕВРО). Оценивается, что в рамках деятельности дифференцирования в направлении несельскохозяйственной деятельности, будет охвачено около 20 тысяч земледельцев, а помощь имеет форму возврата части расходов квалифицированных операций. Максимальная величина помощи, предоставляемой одному бенефицианту, не может превышать 25,6 тысяч ЕВРО (100 тысяч злотых) и не может быть высшая, чем 50% затрат. В случае микро-предприятий, помощь предоставляется по поводу инвестиции, связанных с этими предприятиями и возрастает с 25,6 тысяч ЕВРО (100 тысяч) до 76,8 тысяч ЕВРО (300 тысяч злотых). Это форма помощи тоже имеет характер возврата части расходов квалифицированных операций. Иначе выглядит дело в случае льгот для сельской экономики и населения. Бенефициантом может быть гмина или учреждение территориального самоуправления. Помощь имеет форму возврата части затрат квалифицированного проекта. Максимальная величина помощи в одной

гмине может составить 4 миллиона злотых на проекты в области водно-сточной экономики и 3 миллионы злотых на проекты, связанные с производством энергии из возобновляемых источников (Программа Развития Сельских Территорий, 2007).

В сумме, на деятельность в рамках Оси 3 запланировано 4,8 миллиарда ЕВРО, в этом публичные затраты составляют 3,4 миллиарда ЕВРО (71,5%) и частные затраты 1,4 миллиарда ЕВРО (28,5%) (Таблица 3).

Деятельность ОСИ 4 – ЛИДЕР [LEADER]

Ось «Лидер» [Leader] поддерживает, прежде всего, реализацию целей, заключённых в Оси 3. Целью этой поддержки является дальнейшее укрепление общественного капитала на сельских территориях, через промоцию идущих снизу инициатив, активизацию жителей деревень в пользу местных обществ, а также обмен наилучших практик. Реализация цели Лидер [„Leader”] опирается на созданию Местных Групп Деятельности, партнёров и представителей трёх секторов: публичного, экономического и общественного. Уровень финансирования этих начинаний является самым низким среди всех целей изучаемых Осей и составляет 1,1 миллиарда ЕВРО, которые сконцентрировано на трёх видах деятельности. Эту величину отражает Таблица 4.

Сравнение расходов между осями

Анализируя все Оси, которые запланировано для реализации в течение лет 2007-2013, приходим к выводу, что целесообразным и продуманным способом не стремимся к созданию одинакового уровня поддержки определённых начинаний,

Таблица 4.

Расходы в рамках Оси 4 на 2007-2013 годы (в миллионах евро)

Спецификация	Публичные расходы	Частные расходы	Итого	Процент с Итого
Внедрение местных стратегий развития	620,5	403,1	1 023,6	86,0
Внедрение проектов сотрудничества	15,0	-	15,0	1,2
Функционирование местной группы деятельности, приобретение умений и активизации	152,0	-	152,0	12,8
Всего	787,5	403,1	1 190,6	100,0

Источник: PROW на 2007-2013 годы.

Таблица 5.

Сравнение расходов между отдельными Осями (в миллионах евро)

Спецификация	Публичные расходы	Частные расходы	Итого	Процент с Итого
Ось 1	7 187,5	6 070,2	13 257,7	53,5
Ось 2	5 546,0	-	5 546,0	22,3
Ось 3	3 430,2	1 369,1	4 799,3	19,3
Ось 4	787,5	403,1	1 190,6	4,9
Всего	16 951,2	7 842,5	24 793,7	100,0

Источник: PROW на 2007-2013 годы.

но скорее к дифференциации финансовых средств. Решительно первое место заняла Ось 1, которая является ответственной за глубокую реструктуризацию сельскохозяйственного сектора, за улучшение конкурентоспособности сельского хозяйства, а также за то, чтобы справиться с растущими требованиями сообщества под давлением остальных стран Европейского Союза. В свою очередь, меньше всех предусмотрено средств для Оси 4 (Таблица 5).

Обращает внимание факт, что пропорции публичных расходов к частным составляют, как: 1,0 : 2,2, что означает потребность высокого вовлечения земледельцев в процесс формирования сельских территорий. Новые принципы программирования и финансирования PROW на период 2007-2013 годов дадут возможность провести унификацию и упростить внедрения деятельности поддержки, а также мониторинг и контроль затрат.

Важным вопросом является также факт, как эти средства были распределены на отдельные годы, так как это изображает возможности реализации задач земледельцами, принимая во внимание срок приобретения финансовой поддержки и собственного вовлечения. Уровень

поддержки в каждом году остаётся на похожем уровне и колеблется от 2,0 миллиарда ЕВРО до 1,8 миллиарда ЕВРО. В свою очередь, каждый год опоздания ослабляет темп модернизации сельскохозяйственных хозяйств и затрудняет приближение к стандартам, обязывающим в Европейском Союзе.

Заключительные замечания

Программа Развития Сельских Территорий на период 2007-2013 годов охватывает 21 видов деятельности, заключённых в 4-х приоритетных осях. В программу не включены деятельности, связанной с поддержкой низкоотоварных хозяйств, которую Европейская Комиссия поднимет в позднейшем сроке. Конструкция программы и выделение соответствующих видов деятельности опирается на распоряжении Совета (WE) с 2005 года относительно поддержки сельских территорий Европейским Сельскохозяйственным Фондом для Развития Сельских Территорий (EFRROW).

Реализованная в настоящее время программа содержит 7-и годовую перспективу времени, и по этому поводу является адресованной к большому количеству земледельцев. В

реализации программы, рядом с земледельцами, участвуют другие экономические субъекты и учреждения местного самоуправления. В свете юридических регулировок, ведомство сельского хозяйства исполняет функцию управляющего учреждения, а Агентство Реструктуризации и Модернизации Сельского Хозяйства, независимо от субъекта, участвующего в программе, исполняет роль конечного бенефицианта, состоящего в утверждении платёжных поручений, ведению бухгалтерских записей происшествий и составлению конечных рапортов.

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Learning to be a Member? Russian Agricultural Producers' View on Supply and Marketing Cooperatives¹

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Abstract

It is not uncommon in Russia that agricultural supply cooperatives as well as marketing cooperatives are instituted by governmental authorities, and agricultural producers are invited to join these cooperatives. Golovina and Nilsson (2009) present an empirical study among members and potential members of such cooperatives, mainly newly established. The data were collected within Kurgan region in early 2008. The findings say that the respondents rank low in terms of attitude towards cooperatives, involvement, trust in colleagues and partners, and view on participation in the governance. The present study investigates whether the fact that the producers have got more experience with cooperatives might improve their views of cooperatives. It is based on the data from the same sample of producers, though collected in late 2008. The findings show, however, that the agricultural producers have become more negative. They are also unwilling to invest and have poor awareness of cooperatives.

Key words: Russia, transition agriculture, cooperatives, socio-psychology, learning.

Introduction

During the past years, especially since 2005, the Russian government considers agriculture as a prioritized branch of the economy. Favourable climatic conditions and extensive land resources provide good prospects for successful development of agriculture. There are, however, large problems in terms of poorly functioning market mechanisms, both when the agricultural producers are buying farm inputs and when they are selling their products (Ioffe and Nefedova, 2001). The federal and regional administrations have during the project "Development of Agro-industrial Complexes" tried to solve those problems by initiating a process of establishing supply and marketing cooperatives in the agricultural sector. The duration of this project was two years (2006–2007), but from 2008 the project continues, transformed into the "State Program of Agricultural Development in 2008–2012". One of the results of these initiatives is the establishment of new agricultural cooperatives in all regions of Russia including Kurgan region.

It is not uncommon in Russia that agricultural cooperatives are established by governmental bodies. Top-down organised cooperatives are, however,

contrary to historical and international experiences as well as to the common theoretical understanding of cooperatives. Russian agricultural administration has much experience in the implementation of similar projects (Franks and Davydova, 2005). As a rule, such campaigns break down after initial reports about the large achievements that should be made.

Centralised cooperative establishments are interesting from a theoretical perspective, as top-down organised cooperatives are rare in cooperative history. The issue is important also from a practical point of view as the need for supply cooperatives and marketing cooperatives in the Russian agriculture may be considered to be urgent (Gardner and Lerman, 2006; Golovina and Nilsson, 2009). The present study is devoted to an investigation of one aspect of such cooperatives. It aims at *exploring whether the agricultural producers may become veritable co-operators when they are learning and getting skills after they have joined a top-down organised cooperative*. If such a progress takes place, these cooperatives may develop into effective vehicles for farmer interests. Without such results, the agricultural producers will remain passive and alienated, and the cooperative firms can hardly be very valuable

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for them. For the sake of clarity it should be noted that production cooperatives are not included in this study.

This paper is structured as follows. Background information about the establishment of top-down organised cooperatives is presented next. An account of the theoretical framework follows, ending up with the identification of variables for the empirical study as well as hypotheses. The following section presents methodological issues concerning data collection procedure and methods. Subsequently, the results of the empirical study are presented, followed by conclusions and suggestions for further research.

1. The process of cooperative establishment

The procedure of establishing cooperatives by agricultural government is rooted in the Soviet traditions. The heads of the regional agricultural administration make agreements with the federal administration about the creation of cooperatives in the rural areas. Planned figures are often quite high for many regions. Thus, no less than 48 agricultural cooperatives were planned to be established in Kurgan region but only 21 were actually created. The regional administration established contacts with the districts' rural administration offices in the same way. Kurgan region consists of 24 districts. However, some heads of administration offices in the rural districts did not share the opinion about the timeliness and soundness of the governmental decisions. They assert that the cooperative campaign will soon fail, and the members will become disappointed and lose even more faith in cooperation. The regional government blames inactivity at the district level, and as a result, cooperatives have been created in almost each district.

Apart from the fact that formalism has been inherent in the cooperative campaign the rural administration has made serious attempts to disseminate information about the advantages of agricultural cooperatives and the principles of cooperation. Furthermore, administration offices made efforts to help newly established cooperatives solve financial and organisational problems. Hence, 130 district seminars and more than 200 rural meetings about cooperation were organized in Kurgan region during 2006. A problem was that the specialists of the regional administration have limited knowledge on modern cooperatives, for example, of different organisational arrangements. They advocated for only one model, namely traditional cooperatives, which is characterised by unallocated equity, collective decision-making, equal treatment, and other cooperative principles. A traditional

cooperative is, however, not necessarily the best one on the existing socio-economic conditions.

The agricultural producers in Kurgan region are in a difficult situation. On the one hand, socio-psychological factors cause difficulties for agricultural cooperative development; on the other hand, existing monopolistic structures in the sphere of agricultural product processing impede profitable functioning of the agricultural producers (Franks and Davydova, 2006). Processing enterprises do not want to work with the products of small individual farmers because of poor quality so they prefer imported primary products. Furthermore, their price policy is unfavourable for the agricultural producers. On such conditions it would have been valuable for the agricultural producers to have well-functioning cooperative firms. There are at present 21 newly established agricultural cooperatives in Kurgan region but these are extremely small. Only 158 producers, most of them individual farmers, have decided to be members of the new cooperatives (Golovina and Nilsson, 2009). Small cooperatives can, however, not realize the main advantages of the traditional cooperative model, especially economies of scale. So, they are weak in relation to the strong corporate processors.

In an overview of cooperatives in the agricultural sectors of the former communist countries Gardner and Lerman (2006, p. 15) say that marketing and supply cooperatives are ...

“... important in farmers' estimation when they see themselves as being exploited by monopoly or monopony power among businesses that sell products to them or buy from them, and it is important in fact when perceptions of exploitation are accurate. It seems highly likely that such market failures exist in the economic environment of the transition economies, where former State monopolies have been transferred to private hands, and in this respect farmer-owned cooperatives can be useful in fostering competition, or in some cases hastening the creation of selling and buying channels which have not yet arisen in the transition.”

The governmental campaign of intensive agricultural cooperative creation was completed by mid 2008. The regional administrations reported about the number of new cooperatives to the federal executives. They did, however, not conduct any analyses which could indicate what the future might be for the newly established cooperative and for agricultural cooperation in general.

2. Theoretical framework

Preconditions for successful cooperatives

Cooperatives exist because their members want to reap benefits when they are making use of

the cooperatives' services. The members could be buyers of goods or services (supply cooperatives), sellers of goods or services (marketing cooperatives), employees (labour cooperatives), borrowers (credit cooperatives), etc. The cooperatives that are investigated in this study are supply cooperatives and marketing cooperatives, and the members are agricultural producers, most of them producers of dairy and meat.

In Russia, there are three types of agricultural producers (Bezlepina, I. et al., 2004; Rylko and Jolly; Sazonov and Sazonova, 2005, 2005; Uzun, 2005):

- *Agricultural enterprises*: former kolkhozes (collective farms) and sovkhoses (Soviet farms), now transformed into production cooperatives and corporations (Epstein 2003).
- *Peasant farms*: often family farms producing mainly for markets.
- *Individual farms*: small private farms, organised by rural dwellers (irrespective of occupation) who produce products mainly for self-sufficient food production but partly for sale;

All of these may be members of cooperatives, and hence they are all included in this study. It should be noted that the concept of farmer applies only to the second and third category, which means that the concept of agricultural producer is used in this study. In the beginning of 2006 Kurgan region had 375 agricultural enterprises, 1973 peasant farms and 190,000 individual farmers. Their average acreage was 6464 hectares, 93 hectares and 1.1 hectares, respectively. Their share of the gross output of agriculture was 32.2 %, 7.3 % and 60.5 %, respectively.

If the members should get benefits from their cooperatives when they are doing business with these firms, the cooperatives must be controlled by the members, and therefore the members must have ownership to the cooperatives. These three member roles must coincide in all cooperatives—user, controller and financier. This is to say that cooperatives by definition are grass root organisations. Against this background the Russian procedure of governmentally organised cooperatives is remarkable.

Nevertheless, there might be a rationale for top-down organised cooperatives – without governmental interference the development of agricultural cooperatives might be even slower than it is today. Perhaps the social and socio-psychological attributes of the agricultural producers are such that they would not organise any cooperative on their own initiative, and a top-down organized cooperative

may be better for them than no cooperative at all. It cannot beforehand be excluded that top-down organised cooperatives might create some prospects for agriculture in transition economies.

A precondition for a top-down organised cooperatives to be of value for their members is that the members at a later point of time get better attitudes, become involved, gain trust in colleagues and partners, and strengthen their belief in cooperative governance. Perhaps the agricultural producers could learn how to become true cooperative members, such that they will govern the cooperative in such a way that they benefit from their membership. If this process does not take place, the cooperatives will fail.

Also the opposite chain of reasoning may be claimed. The fact that governmental bodies establish cooperatives may have the effect that the agricultural producers get weaker incentives to establish cooperatives by themselves. Further, given the international and historical experience from cooperative establishments, it is likely that the top-down organised cooperatives will not be successful, and if so, the agricultural producers will get even weaker incentives so establish cooperatives in the future.

Anyhow, there are good reasons to study various aspects of centralised establishments of cooperatives; preconditions, procedures, outcomes and prospects. The focus of this study is on the members' eventual learning to become active and involved members of cooperatives. Hence, the concept of learning should be clarified.

Learning to become good members

Learning may occur when an individual gets stimuli which are processed in the individual's mind, whereby the existing *cognitive structure* is transformed to a certain degree (Myers, 2005; Solomon, 2006). Whether a learning effect is realized is dependent upon how the individual's cognitive structure is composed when the stimulus arrives. This means that learning takes place successively. For a stimulus to result in learning, the individual's existing cognitive structure must contain elements which are related to the new message such that the new message can be linked to the existing cognitions.

In many cases the new message may be so different from the individual's existing cognitive structure that *defence mechanisms* prevent any learning. One type is selective exposure, which means that the individual does not notice information that does not fit in the existing structure. Another one is selective retention, which is that the individual unconsciously remembers only what is considered to be relevant. Other such defence mechanisms which protect

individuals from unwanted information are selective distortion, selective information retrieval, and selective information search as well as generalisation and discrimination.

These defence mechanisms have the effect of preserving *cognitive consistency* in the individual's mind, i.e., the existing elements in the individual's cognitive structure should be linked to each other, thereby supporting each other. *Cognitive dissonance* is experienced to be quite discomforting. In extreme cases an individual might even be struck by a mental illness, if he or she is forced to accept a new piece of information, which does not fit with the existing cognitive structure.

The way how the stimuli arrive to the individual is of great importance. The most effective learning is the one where the stimuli arrive through personal experiences. Such stimuli are more difficult to avoid and reject, i.e., the defence mechanisms are less preventive. Stimuli that come to the individual from other anonymous individuals can easily be locked out, ignored and rejected, if they pose a threat to the individual's cognitive consonance. When the individual is listening to somebody else, is reading or watching, he or she may interpret this information as being unreliable, and the source may be thought of as not trustworthy.

The situation is different when the source of information is other persons, with whom the individual has personal relations – the so-called *significant others*. The social relations mean that the information is considered more trustworthy and important. Such information becomes even more important for the learning if the information becomes processed in the individual's mind through discussions.

It is evident that when the individual considers the new piece of information to be undesirable, his or her view of the phenomenon that the information describes will be poorer, and vice versa. The relationship is, however, not linear. When a stimulus is quite weak there will be no reactions at all. For a reaction (learning effect) should take place, the stimulus should have a minimal amount of newness.

There are a few conclusions from this digression about learning theory. One is that the agricultural producers who are cooperative members have reasonably gone through some learning about cooperative business after they first became members. They have made experiences by themselves, and they have probably talked to others about these experiences. Hence, their views have reasonably changed.

A second conclusion is that the agricultural producers do not necessarily get better views of cooperatives due to the experiences they make during their membership. The result may also be the opposite. If the experiences are considered to be negative, the

attitudes are due to be poorer. The same effect may occur also if the experiences are ambiguous. If so, the agricultural producers are likely to exaggerate the negative experiences and underestimate the positive ones.

Third, how the agricultural producers change their views due to their experiences is much dependent upon which views they held at the outset. If they were relatively skeptical when they joined the cooperative, they might thereafter have selected bad information, distorted relatively good information, remembered the problems, etc. For a process towards democratic control in the interests of the member to be successful, it is necessary either that the new experiences are inarguably positive so that the defence mechanisms are overcome, or that the producers had at least some positive views such that slightly good experiences may be positively assessed. If the members do not at the outset have at least some knowledge about cooperatives they will hardly learn more about cooperative business. Similarly, they must have at least some involvement, at least some willingness to invest, at least some sense of democratic participation, etc. otherwise they will not learn how to become good members.

Members' degree of cooperative orientation

A study of members' learning to become co-operators must comprise variables that are basic for the members' behaviour in relation to the cooperatives. Several prior studies have investigated cooperative members' attitudes, opinions, trust, choice, solidarity, involvement, and many other socio-psychological and behavioural constructs (Cain, Toensmeyer and Ramsey, 1989; Burt and Wirth, 1990; Wadsworth, 1991; Fulton and Adamowicz, 1993; Misra, Carley and Fletcher, 1993; Zusman, 1993; Gray and Duffey, 1996; Gray and Kraenzle, 1998; Richards, Klein and Walburger, 1998). This study must reasonably be based on partly the same variables.

The following six variables are chosen. It should be noted that there are uncertainties when these are linked to previous studies, as these often relate two or more variables to each other.

(1) *The members' assessment of the value of cooperatives.* This is the most basic variable in the sense that it represents the *raison-d'être* of cooperatives. It has appeared in various shapes in prior research. Misra, Carley and Fletcher (1993) identified factors related to members' view on cooperatives. Hakelius (1999) investigated members' values. Nilsson, Norell and Kihlén (in press) focused on members' satisfaction.

(2) *Members' view on conducting business with their cooperatives.* This and the following two variables relate to the three roles that cooperative

members have, i.e., as users, controllers and owners. Especially the issue concerning farmers' choice between a cooperative and an investor-owned business partner has caught the interest of many researchers (Bravo-Ureta and Lee, 1988; Jensen, 1990; Klein, Richards and Walburger, 1997; Zeuli and Betancor, 2005; Lind and Åkesson, 2005; Bhuyan, 2007; Enander, Melin and Nilsson, in press).

(3) *Members' view on participation in the governance of their cooperatives.* Even though member control is essential for a cooperative to work in the interests of the members relatively few studies have been devoted to this very issue. Laursen (2005) shows that the farmers consider themselves to be strongly influential. Österberg and Nilsson (2009) found members' willingness to participate in cooperative governance to be the single most important explanation to member satisfaction.

(4) *Members' view on investing in their cooperative.* Members' view on cooperative finance is another field with limited research. Fahlbeck (2007) found that farmers have a strong preference for unallocated equity. Robinson and Lifton (1993) demonstrated that farmers hesitate to invest in newly established cooperatives.

(5) *The members' trust in each other and in the cooperative.* Numerous prior studies of members' relationship to their cooperatives include trust (Lasley and Baumel, 1996; Borgen, 2001; Hansen, Morrow and Batista, 2002; James and Sykuta, 2005; James and Sykuta, 2006; Österberg and Nilsson, 2009). To the extent that trust is low, the result will be that members hesitate to invest in the cooperative, and they refrain from participating in the governance. There is no room for solidarity and social cohesion so the members will not do much business with the cooperative. Hence this variable is crucial in a cooperative context.

(6) *The members' knowledge about cooperation.* Members' knowledge on cooperative firms, cooperative principles and cooperative work is not investigated in any prior study. As these studies have been conducted in the North America and in the Western Europe, such a variable would be superfluous whereas in a Russian context it is highly relevant.

The constructs and the question for each of the six variables are as follows.

- X_1 *Assessment of the value of cooperatives:* "I think that cooperation is important for effective functioning of farmers (producers) nowadays and in the future";
- X_2 *View on conducting business:* "All members have to be involved in transaction with a cooperative as much as possible";
- X_3 *View on participation in the governance:* "Participation in democratic management

is very important for effective functioning of cooperative and I am ready for this participation";

X_4 *View on investing:* "I wish and I am ready to invest money in cooperative activity";

X_5 *Trust in colleagues and partners:* "I trust my partners and think that they are reliable for collective activities and cooperation";

X_6 *Knowledge on cooperation:* "I have full information on the functioning of cooperative, main cooperative principals and the role of members in the cooperative organisation".

Four of these six variables presented above (X_1 , X_2 , X_3 and X_5) are found also in Golovina and Nilsson (2009) who conducted a survey among agricultural producers in Kurgan region of Russia. Among the 158 members of a variety of supply and marketing cooperatives, 141 were interviewed, which corresponds to a response rate of 89 %. Interviews were also carried out with a random sample of 786 non-members (potential members). This group of respondents consisted of 111 managers of small agricultural enterprises, 452 owners of individual farms, and 223 peasant farmers, with response rates of 83 %, 79 % and 80 % in each group, respectively.

The data collection took place in February, March and April 2008. The data were collected by one of the authors and 21 of her students through personal interviews, by phone and through mail. A question guide or a questionnaire was used, containing identical questions.

The survey comprised of four socio-psychological constructs, which were measured with one question for each. All variables are graded according to a Likert scale, ranging from 1 to 6, where 1 is "strongly disagree", 2 is "disagree", 3 is "weakly disagree", 4 is "weakly agree", 5 is "agree", and 6 is "strongly agree".

The findings from Golovina and Nilsson (2009) tell that the respondents rank low in terms of assessment of cooperatives, willingness to conduct business, trust in colleagues and partners, and view of participation in the governance. Trust has the largest contribution to the prediction of farmers' propensity to participate in agricultural cooperatives. A low level of trust in agricultural communities impedes the cooperative development in Russia, more than any other factor. However, also the other three variables are important for farmers' poor view of cooperatives.

Other results from the Golovina and Nilsson survey are as follows. Half (49%) of the respondents express a negative attitude towards cooperation; whereas 9% "strongly agree" with a statement about the important role of cooperatives for agriculture. Less than half (44%) of the producers are ready to do business with cooperatives, but 56% are not prepared

to do so. Trust is the most hampering factor for cooperative development as 82% of the interviewees distrust their colleagues and fellow-villagers or just "weakly agree" that their partners are reliable for collective action and cooperation. One-quarter (26%) of the potential and present members are aware of democratic institutions in economic and social life and one-third (32%) know about cooperative principles. The willingness to invest in a cooperative is no better as more than one-quarter (28%) of the producers are prepared to do so.

The conclusion from the prior study of cooperative members in Kurgan region is that it is not possible to tell beforehand whether the preconditions for improved view of cooperatives may follow after the agricultural producers have got more experience from their membership. It is certainly true that the members' socio-psychological states are not good, but they may perhaps be good enough. Even though the members are negative, it may be that they are eager to improve the situation. At least they have joined a cooperative, reasonably in the hope that this will improve their living conditions.

Hypotheses

On the basis of the discussions above the following hypotheses are put forward:

- H₀ The members of the agricultural cooperatives get better views of cooperatives as they get more experience from their cooperative membership;
- H₁ The members of the agricultural cooperatives get poorer views of cooperatives as they get more experience from their cooperative membership.

The concept "view" should be interpreted as multifaceted, comprising all the six variables, which are essential for cooperative success according to the account above: "Assessment of the value of cooperatives", "View on conducting business", "View on participation in the governance", "View on investing", "Trust in colleagues and partners" and "Knowledge on cooperation".

3. Methodological issues

Data collection

In order to test the hypotheses a second survey must be conducted among the cooperative members in Kurgan region, parallel to the one conducted by Golovina and Nilsson in early 2008. One difference is that Golovina and Nilsson (2009) report only four of the variables while all the six variables mentioned above are included in the present study. To get best possible comparability the same questions should be put to the same respondents. So the questionnaire

contains the same questions and is identical in all other respects.

Except for the six questions, each of which corresponds to one of the socio-psychological constructs, also two other questions were presented to the respondents. One concerns the respondents' "diagnosis" about why agricultural cooperatives have such a poor development in Kurgan region. The respondents were asked to choose among nine predefined options. The other question concerns the respondents' degree of satisfaction with their cooperatives. The latter question should be answered on a six-graded scale from "very dissatisfied" to "very satisfied".

The Golovina and Nilsson (2009) survey comprised both existing members and potential members. As the aim of the present study is to explore whether the agricultural producers may become veritable co-operators when they are learning and getting skills after they have joined a top-down organised cooperative, only current members should be inquired. It does not make sense to include potential members in this study as these have not made any experiences from cooperatives.

The data were collected in September and October 2008 in the same way as in the data collection round that was conducted in February, March and April. One of the authors and a group of her students conducted personal interviews with the cooperative members.

The respondents were the same sample of members of agricultural cooperatives as in the first data collection round. A question guide or a questionnaire was used, containing the same set of questions. Members of agricultural cooperatives are represented by individual farmers (74%), small agricultural and other enterprises (6%), and peasant farms (20%). Fortunately, it was possible to find and interview all previous members. Because the number of members during the last months has increased to 162, the response rate is 87%.

It may be claimed that the time span between the first survey and the second one is so short that the members may not have had great opportunities to gain experience from their cooperatives. This argument was, however, countered above on the basis of learning theory. Furthermore, observations of other Russian governmental projects indicate that it might be hazardous to postpone the second data collection round. If data were to be collected half a year or one year later, it may be that many cooperatives had already been dissolved.

Method

Tests of the hypotheses were accomplished by means of *t-test for dependent variables*. This test allows a comparison between the differences in

answers of cooperative members on the stage of the cooperatives' formation and after six months of their existence. The analyses reveal the trend of changes in members' opinion (positive or negative) and define the statistical significance of these differences. The analyses comprise all the six variables (X_1 – X_6).

4. Results

The results from the t-test for dependent samples are shown in Table 1. It can be seen that the members rank lower in the five variables at the second measurement occasion. Only "knowledge about cooperatives" increased during the participations in the cooperative activity. The survey from early 2008 was conducted closely after the cooperatives had been established, so members had not very much of experience but they seem to have been rather hopeful. When the second survey was conducted the members have got some experiences, though evidently not very positive ones. During the half year that has elapsed since the previous measurement, the members are more negative in all respects. The changes seem to be quite big. It should also be noted that all differences except for knowledge on cooperatives (X_6) are strongly statistically significant. The p-level for X_6 (0.29) tells that the difference in knowledge about cooperatives changed insignificantly during the agricultural producers' participation in the cooperatives.

One possible explanation to the fact that all figures are lower in late 2008 than they were in the beginning of the year is that the responses from early 2008 were influenced by propaganda by the regional agricultural administration. At that time the producers had hardly any experiences of their own, on which their statements could be based. Especially one might expect the decline in the respondents' general assessment (X_1) to have such roots.

The declined figure for interest in conducting business with the cooperative (X_2) is alarming, as it may mean that the cooperative will not be able to be a good business partner for the producers. There are vicious circles operating here, i.e., if the cooperative's business volume becomes small, it will (due to lacking economies of scale) not be able to give good offers to the producers, and thereby the volume will fall even more.

While prior studies about cooperative members indicate that democratic influence is considered to be very important the Kurgan producers do not view participation in the cooperative (X_3) to be attractive. First, economic democracy as a concept is more or less unknown to them; second, the top-down organisational mode does not imply that they could have very much influence anyhow.

The equity capital of the cooperatives came at the establishments from governmental sources, but

Table 1

T-test for dependent samples

Variable	Groups	Mean	Standard deviation	Differences between means	t	df	p
X_1 Assessing the value of cooperatives	Late 2008	2.6	0.7				
	Early 2008	5.2	0.8	-2.6*	-51.7	140	0.00
X_2 View on conducting business	Late 2008	2.3	0.8				
	Early 2008	5.3	0.7	-2.9*	-31.2	140	0.00
X_3 View on participation in governance	Late 2008	2.0	1.1				
	Early 2008	5.0	0.7	-3.1*	-28.0	140	0.00
X_4 View on investing	Late 2008	2.5	1.0				
	Early 2008	4.2	0.9	-1.6*	-13.5	140	0.00
X_5 Trust in colleagues and partners	Late 2008	1.5	0.7				
	Early 2008	4.4	0.8	-2.8*	-66.3	140	0.00
X_6 Knowledge on cooperatives	Late 2008	4.6	1.1				
	Early 2008	4.4	1.0	+0.1	-1.1	140	0.29

* Differences are statistically significant at $p < 0.01$.

if a cooperative should be viable in a longer time perspective the members should be the providers of capital. As the findings indicate that the members are not willing to invest money (X_4) the cooperatives will have difficulties to develop.

The fact that the members' trust in each other (X_5) has declined drastically is worth noting. One would expect that people, when they become acquainted and socialise, get sympathies for each other. As this is not the case here, a plausible explanation is that the agricultural producers never came to like each other. It may even be so that the producers dislike each other more after they have come to know each other better. The fact that the membership is very heterogeneous, consisting of three quite different types of producers, supports this thought.

Even though this finding is not statistically significant, it is remarkable as the members must reasonably have gained some knowledge during their membership period. A possible explanation is that they have observed the complexities of running a cooperative business, whereby they have discovered that there is much more to learn. Alternatively, the respondents have answered negatively on this question because they are negative in all the other respects, i.e., there is a tendency of generalisation.

The respondents have more knowledge (X_6) in the second data collection round, compared to the first one. Even though "learning by doing" is a slow and cumbersome process the members have gained some knowledge during their membership period. Of course they have observed the complexities of running a cooperative business, whereby they have discovered that there is much more to learn. A reason for the poor knowledge of most cooperative principles might be low involvement in cooperative activity (government, investing, etc.) even after having joined a cooperative organisation.

In the personal interviews with the members it was possible to learn the extent of their satisfaction (dissatisfaction) with cooperatives. More than half (57%) of the members declared themselves to be "very dissatisfied", 26% were "dissatisfied", 8% were "dissatisfied to some extent", 7% were "satisfied to some extent", whereas "satisfied" or "very satisfied" was mentioned by 1% each.

When the members were asked to identify the reasons behind the poor development of cooperatives in Kurgan region, they came up with the following diagnoses:

- insufficient level of knowledge on cooperation, deficiency of local government skills, psychological unavailability to self-supporting cooperation and partnership (95%);

- absence of cooperative education and shortage of professional people to manage agricultural cooperatives (87%);
- financial problems (86%);
- disparity between agricultural and industrial product prices (82%);
- weak protection of the domestic market from imported raw products (68%);
- imperfections in the legislation and the normative basis for cooperatives (66%).

Conclusions and further research

The aim of the study is to explore whether the agricultural producers may become veritable co-operators when they are learning and getting skills after they have joined a top-down organised cooperative. The findings strongly indicate that the learning, which the members have made, has on the contrary made them less positive towards cooperatives. Many members seem to be prepared to leave the cooperatives. They express disappointment with this form of collective action. These findings are arguments for the rejection of hypothesis H_0 and acceptance of hypothesis H_1 : "The members of the agricultural cooperatives get poorer views of cooperatives as they get more experience from their cooperative membership".

As the trends in the members' opinions are quite negative it is not unlikely that many or even most cooperatives will have to cease their operations. More serious is, however, that it is doubtful the agricultural producers within a long future will establish any other agricultural cooperatives as their experiences from cooperatives are so bad.

Many informal institutions are instrumental for successful cooperatives. Such institutions are trust, readiness to be involved in collective action, and attitudes to solidarity, equity and democracy. This study indicates that cooperatives can hardly function effectively if these socio-psychological attributes are not present in the minds of the cooperative members.

The findings of this study speak a clear language about the difficulties of top-down organised cooperatives. Such cooperatives cannot be established in the current socio-economic environment in transition countries. They do not help the cooperative development in rural Russia and perhaps neither anywhere else. They do not only fail to develop the agricultural sector but they also mean that large amounts of public resources are wasted. Another interpretation is that the federal and regional governments might have selected incorrect instruments for implementing their ideas. Hence, an interesting topic for further research would be an investigation about the way the authorities are

working when they are planning the establishment of new agricultural cooperative – what knowledge they have on the rural population, which motives they have, how the decisions are made, etc.

Even though the general picture is gloomy there are one or perhaps two positive examples (out of 21) of successful cooperative organizations in Kurgan region. These seem to be the result of specific qualifications and skills of the leadership, favourable starting conditions (especially financial) and appropriate behavioural characteristics of members. These successful cooperatives would be worth a special investigation, preferably in the form of comparisons between these and the poorly functioning cooperatives.

If a cooperative movement is to be developed in Russia, the agricultural producers must themselves take action to establish cooperative firms. The cooperatives that are thus established may look quite different from the cooperative model that is advocated by the governmental authorities, i.e., the traditional cooperative model. If the Russian legislation would permit other cooperative organisational models, for example such with closed membership or hybrid forms, implying external financiers as co-owners the prospects for cooperative success stories might be brighter. A third suggestion for further research would be an analysis of the preconditions for alternative cooperative structures in the Russian agriculture.

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Role of Clusters in Developing the Competitiveness of the Regions of Latvia

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Abstract

If economic development and competitiveness of Latvian statistical regions are analysed by the methodology given by the World Economic Forum (the definition of three main stages of economic development of regions – factor-driven stage, efficiency-driven stage, and innovation-driven stage), the only Latvian region that can be viewed as a competitive one on the global market is Riga region which is at the transition stage to the innovation-driven one. All the rest of the territory of Latvia is at the efficiency-driven stage; consequently its competitiveness on the global market is relatively low. The Latvian forest cluster which has been identified using the clustering algorithm is situated in one Latvian region – Riga region – with only several cluster participants being situated out of it. Taking into consideration that the economic significance of Riga region is approximately the same as the one of all other Latvian territories all together, it is possible to say that Latvia gets the competitiveness rating owing to Riga region. It is Riga region that has reached the threshold level of competitiveness and where Latvian economic clusters are formed, including the forest cluster which serves as the index and, to a certain degree, the factor of competitiveness of Riga region, i.e., development of forest and other clusters in Riga region encourages the transition of this region to the innovation-driven stage, thus raising competitiveness of Riga region. As to other Latvian regions which are at the efficiency-driven stage and are far behind Riga, they have to find other instruments which would raise their competitiveness, thus creating the background for the formation and development of clusters which in their turn would encourage further improvement of the territory. However, so far, clusters cannot be viewed as competitiveness factors for the Latvian territories outside Riga region due to their development level, since clusters cannot be even formed in such an economic and social environment.

Key words: stages of economic development of regions, economic clusters, competitiveness factor, competitiveness indicator.

Introduction

The theoretical and methodological background of determining the role of clusters used for increasing the competitiveness of regions is presented in M.Porter's theory, and particularly – in the Rhomb Model that is a systemic model for regional competitiveness. One of the rhomb's apexes, i.e., one of the preconditions for regional competitiveness is clusters (Попреп М., 2000.). One can conclude that clusters are a factor increasing the competitiveness of a region. However, considering the fact that regions are at various stages of economic development, and there are various factors for increasing regional competitiveness at these stages (Lopez-Claros A., Blanke J., Drzeniek M., Mia I., Zahidi S., 2006.; Porter M., 1990.), one can assert that at the factor-driven and efficiency-driven stages, clusters are not a factor, but an indicator of regional competitiveness showing that a region

has reached the threshold level of competitiveness allowing the emergence of clusters.

An existence of a tight relationship between the competitiveness of regions and the development of their clusters is empirically proven by using correlation analysis (Vilciņa A., Boronenko V., 2008) in which more than 100 regions were selected as objects for the research done by the World Economic Forum (The Global Competitiveness Report, 2005, 2007, 2008). According to the results of correlation analysis, the competitiveness of regions is related to the development level of their clusters; however, the nature of clusters' role or the "logical" dimension of correlation depends on the development stage at which a researched region is.

In regions that are at the factor-driven and efficiency-driven stages, including Latvian regions, competitiveness is a precondition for successful cluster

Table 1

Economic development stages of Latvian regions, 2006

Latvian statistical regions	GDP per capita, LVL	Economic development stage	Parts of Latvian economic space	GDP per capita, LVL	Economic development stage
Riga region	8973	Transition from innovation to efficiency-driven stage	Riga region	8973	Transition from innovation to efficiency-driven stage
Pieriga region	2853	Efficiency-driven stage	All the rest of the territory of Latvia	1910 - 3118	Efficiency-driven stage
Vidzeme region	2867	Efficiency-driven stage			
Kurzeme region	3619	Efficiency-driven stage			
Zemgale region	2700	Efficiency-driven stage	All the rest of the territory of Latvia	2409 - 3619	Efficiency-driven stage
Latgale region	2409	Efficiency-driven stage			

Source: made by the authors using the data of Latvian CSB

development. Clusters, in their turn, are *indicators* showing that a region is competitive. However, at the innovation-driven stage at which most economically developed regions are, clusters become one of the *factors* increasing the competitiveness of regions. It means that clusters emerge in competitive regions where an environment for competition is developed, a certain business culture exists etc., and their further development increases a region's competitiveness, stimulates it at a new development stage – the innovation-driven stage.

In 2007, Latvia's competition index exceeded its clusters' development index by 41 points (The Global Competitiveness Report, 2008), which might indicate that specifically in Latvia the competitiveness of regions does not promote the development of clusters, but it can be explained by the fact that Latvian regions themselves develop very unevenly, i.e., they differ from each other in terms of competitiveness and cluster development. So, the aim of this research is to determine the role of clusters specifically in the competitiveness of Latvian regions, taking into account the empirically proven role of regions in increasing competitiveness as well as the development stages of Latvian regions.

Results and discussion

It is emphasised in the introduction that the World Economic Forum classifies the economic development of regions into three basic stages: factor-

driven stage, efficiency-driven stage, and innovation-driven stage as well as two transitional stages that are ranked among the basic ones.

The World Economic Forum chose an economic indicator – GDP per capita – as a criterion for classifying regions into economic development stages, defining precise limits for each stage:

- factor-driven stage – GDP per capita is less than USD 2000;
- transitional stage from the factor-driven stage to the efficiency-driven stage – GDP per capita is between USD 2000 and USD 3000;
- efficiency-driven stage – GDP per capita is between USD 3000 and USD 9000;
- transitional stage from the efficiency-driven stage to the innovation-driven stage – GDP per capita is between USD 9000 and USD 17000;
- innovation-driven stage – GDP per capita is more than USD 17000.

Latvian regions can be identified by economic development stages, taking into account the principle of classification developed by the World Economic Forum.

When analysing the economic development and competitiveness of Latvian statistical regions by the methodology of the World Economic Forum, Riga region could be regarded as the only Latvian region being competitive in the global market, which is in transition to the innovation-driven stage. All the rest territory of Latvia is at the efficiency-driven stage,

Table 2

**Involvement of economic entities belonging to the forest industry of Latvia
in the clustering process in 2007**

Name of economic entity	Location of economic entity	Notes about performance and obligations of economic entity
Forest research station "Kalsnava" (government non-profit organisation)	Kalsnava parish, Madona district	Liquidated
Latvian State Forest Science Institute "Silava"(non-profit organisation)	Salaspils, Riga district	Liquidated
Ltd company "Verems" (Rēzekne Special Economic Zone)	Veremi parish, Rēzekne district	One property obligation
joint-stock company "Ludzas mežrūpniecības saimniecība"	Veremi parish, Rēzekne district	One property obligation
public organisation "Kalsnavas koks"	Kalsnava parish, Madona district	Activity is terminated
cooperative of agricultural services "Jaunkalves"	Degole parish, Tukums district	No relevant objects
Ltd company "Andrupenes kokaudzētava"	Krāslava district, Andrupene parish	No relevant objects
Ltd company "Grigāļi"	Rudbāži parish, Kuldīga district	No relevant objects
Ltd company "Kurzemes koksne"	Jaunpils parish, Tukums district	Activity is terminated
Ltd company "Zemgales koks"	Jelgava	Activity is terminated
joint-stock company "Valmieras koks"	Valmiera	Liquidated
Ltd company "Latgales koks"	Kūkas parish, Jēkabpils district	Liquidated

Source: made by the authors using the data of the Commercial Register, Republic of Latvia on the basis of the graph of obligations for the company "Latvijas finieris".

respectively, its competitiveness in the global market is relatively low.

According to the results of determining the role of clusters in regional competitiveness, clusters usually emerge only in competitive regions, thus further increasing their competitiveness.

Some economic entities of the Latvian forest industry located outside the territory of Riga region, and administrative and property obligations that are an economic mechanism (Старк Д., 2002) for establishing a cluster were analysed using a graph of obligations (LR Komercreģistrs, 2007). The analysis showed that real Latvian clusters emerge only in Riga region.

Methodologically, the involvement of an economic entity in the real clustering process was identified in this research as an existence of administrative and property obligations to other economic entities. Table 2 contains the information on 12 randomly selected economic entities that represent the forest industry of all Latvian statistical regions in order to show

the situation with establishing clusters on the basis of administrative and property obligations in the territory of Latvia outside Riga in contradiction to the forest cluster around JSC "Latvijas finieris" that is established in Riga region (Бороњенко В., 2006).

All the economic entities of the forest industry located outside Riga region and selected for analysis either do not function any more or have no affiliated objects. As the only insignificant exception, there are two economic entities in Rēzekne district, both of which have just one property obligation. It has to be admitted that both these economic entities were identified with the clustering algorithm (Бороњенко В., 2006) in the Latvian forest cluster in 2006, and they had obligations to JSC "Latvijas finieris". In 2007 these obligations were terminated.

In order not to limit the present research to the analysis of clusters for just one industry of Latvia's national economy, it is useful to compile and review similar information on economic entities of other industries, for instance, those of the Latvian dairy

Table 3

**Involvement of regional economic entities belonging to the dairy industry Latvia
in the clustering process in 2007**

Name of economic entity	Location of economic entity	Notes about performance and obligations of economic entity
Ltd company "Latgales piensaimnieks"	Daugavpils	One administrative obligation
Ltd company "Limbažu piens" JSC "Preiļu siers"	Limbaži Preiļi	Two property obligations Two property obligations
JSC "Tukuma piens"	Tukums	No relevant objects
JSC "Valmieras piens"	Valmiera	12 administrative and property obligations
JSC "Kurzemes piens"	Liepāja	Liquidated
union of cooperatives of dairy producers "Ventspils piens"	Tārgale parish, Ventspils district	Liquidated
Ltd company "Ventspils piensaimniecības sabiedrība"	Vārve parish, Ventspils district	Liquidated

Note: economic entities were chosen in random.

Source: made by the authors using the data of the Commercial Register, Republic of Latvia on the basis of the graph of obligations for the company "Latvijas finieris"

industry. First of all, the administrative and property obligations of the JSC "Rīgas piensaimnieks" were analysed, which could show the existence of a dairy cluster. It turned out that a small cluster is emerging around this economic entity, which included the following economic entities of Riga region (LR Komercreģistrs, 2007):

- JSC "Latvijas Tirdzniecības centrs";
- Ltd company "Gaļas un piena rūpniecības inženiercentrs";
- dairy cooperative "Latvijas piensaimnieku centrālā savienība";
- organisation "Rīgas sporta klubs";
- Latvian Quality Association;
- Ltd company "Latvijas preču eksports";
- Latvian Personnel Management Association;
- JSC "Rīgas piena kombināts".

One can talk about a really functioning dairy cluster because its partners are interconnected due to administrative and property obligations as well as the economic status and the type of activity are different. This dairy cluster also functions within the borders of one region – Riga region. As to other dairy economic entities located in the rest territory of Latvia, the information on them is presented in the next table.

One can conclude that the situation with clustering in the Latvian dairy industry is similar – almost all the analysed dairy economic entities outside Riga have either 1-2 obligations to other economic entities or no obligations at all. Several regional economic

entities, just like in the forest industry, are liquidated. Yet there is an exception – the JSC "Valmieras piens" that creates a real regional cluster around itself, which is not typical for the general trend, and therefore researchers and scientists have to pay special attention to it. The dairy cluster in Vidzeme region has even more partners than the cluster around the JSC "Rīgas piensaimnieks", and their economic status and type of activity are also different. It is important that some form of economic interaction could be called a cluster.

However, the analysis of economic entities in the dairy industry also proved that a cluster in a region will not emerge if it is not sufficiently competitive; in Latvia it is the same. After being established and developed in Riga region, forest and other clusters promote the transition of this region's to the innovation-driven stage, thus increasing Riga region's competitiveness. However, in the rest territory of Latvia, which substantially lags behind Riga and is at the efficiency-driven stage, one has to think of increasing competitiveness using other factors, creating a basis for establishing and developing clusters that, in their turn, would promote further growth. Yet so far clusters cannot be the factors increasing competitiveness in the regions of Vidzeme, Kurzeme, Zemgale, and Latgale due to a low level of development in Latvia's peripheries because real clusters are not able to emerge in such an economic and social environment.

Conclusions, suggestions, and recommendations

1. From an economic point of view, Latvia has two regions – Riga and the rest territory of Latvia, which is a territorial and economic basis for establishing and developing clusters. According to the methodology of regional economics, Riga and the rest territory of Latvia could be called Latvian economic regions.
2. Taking into account the fact that the economic importance of Riga region can be compared to that of all the rest territory of Latvia, a certain position in global competition ratings is gained by Latvia owing to Riga region that is the only competitive Latvian region on the global market.
3. Only in Riga region, which has reached the threshold level of competitiveness, Latvian economic clusters emerge, including the forest cluster that is an indicator of the competitiveness of Riga region, simultaneously promoting the transition to the innovation-driven stage. However, the rest territory of Latvia is at the efficiency-driven stage and is not enough competitive, so that clusters are not able to emerge and develop there.

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Kopsavilkums

Analizējot Latvijas statistisko reģionu ekonomisko attīstību un konkurētspēju pēc Pasaules ekonomikas foruma metodikas (trīs reģionu ekonomiskās attīstības pamatstadiju – ražošanas faktoru, efektivitātes un inovāciju stadiju – izdalīšanas), par vienīgo globālajā tirgū konkurētspējīgo Latvijas reģionu var uzskatīt Rīgas reģionu, kas atrodas pārejā uz inovāciju stadiju. Visā pārejā Latvijas teritorija atrodas efektivitātes stadijā, un tās konkurētspēja globālajā tirgū ir relatīvi zema. Latvijas meža klasteris, kas tika identificēts, pielietojot klasterizācijas algoritmu, teritoriāli pieder vienam Latvijas reģionam – Rīgas reģionam, un tikai daži klastera dalībnieki atrodas ārpus tā. Ņemot vērā to, ka Rīgas reģiona ekonomiskā nozīmība ir apmēram tāda pati kā visas pārējās Latvijas teritorijas nozīmība, var apgalvot, ka konkurētspējas reitingu Latvija iegūst, pateicoties Rīgas reģionam. Tieši Rīgas reģionā, kurš ir sasniedzis konkurētspējas sliekšņa līmeni, tiek veidoti Latvijas ekonomiskie klasteri, t.sk. arī meža klasteris, kas ir Rīgas reģiona konkurētspējas indikators un zināmā mērā arī faktors, jo meža un citi klasteri veicina šī reģiona pāreju uz inovācijas stadiju, tādējādi paaugstinot tā konkurētspēju. Savukārt, visā pārejā Latvijas teritorijā, kas būtiski atpaliek no Rīgas un atrodas efektivitātes stadijā, jāveicina konkurētspējas paaugstināšana ar citiem instrumentiem, radot pamatu klasteru izveidei un attīstībai, kuri, savukārt, veicinās tālāko izaugsmi. Taču pagaidām klasteri nevar būt par konkurētspējas faktoriem Latvijas teritorijā ārpus Rīgas šīs teritorijas attīstības līmeņa dēļ, jo klasteri tādā ekonomiskajā un sociālajā vidē pat nevar izveidoties.

Kooperatīvu principu vēsturiskā attīstība un raksturojums Historical Development and Characteristics of Cooperative Principles

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Abstract

Cooperative principles are one important feature making cooperatives unique. The paper discloses different interpretations of the “principle” conception, the historical development of principles of cooperatives in the world, different classes of cooperative principles, including the most popular International Co-operative Alliance principles, opinions of different authors on the impact of these principles on the results of activity of cooperatives. The last section of the paper provides the analysis of statistical information about cooperatives in Latvia and historical development of cooperative principles in Latvia.

The main aim of this paper is to find out the historical development of cooperative principles, and the impact of these principles on the activity of cooperatives.

Key words: cooperation, cooperatives, principles, values.

Atslēgas vārdi: kooperācija, kooperatīvās sabiedrības, principi, vērtības

Ievads

Introduction

Kooperatīvs saskaņā ar Starptautiskās Kooperatīvu asociācijas (SKA) (*International Co-operative Alliance (ICA)*) do definīciju ir autonoma personu apvienība, kas izveidota uz brīvprātīgas apvienošanās principa, lai apmierinātu tās biedru kopīgās ekonomiskās, sociālās un kultūras vajadzības ar kopīgā īpašumā esoša un demokrātiski kontrolēta uzņēmuma palīdzību. (Statement of the Co-operative Identity, b.g.)

Kooperatīviem un citām uzņēmējdarbības formām ir gan kopīgas, gan atšķirīgas pazīmes. Pie kopīgajām pazīmēm var minēt, ka abi biznesi ir saistīti ar darbu, kapitāla, menedžmenta tirgu, turklāt biznesa pasaulē kooperatīvajiem uzņēmumiem nav nekādu atļaužu. Bez tam abi biznesa veidi veic līdzīgas operācijas - iesaiņošanu, uzglabāšanu, transportēšanu, apstrādi, produkcijas reklamēšanu, cenu veidošanu u.c. Tos ietekmē arī līdzīgi ekonomiskie faktori - nodarbinātība un bezdarbs, kredītu politika, inflācijas līmenis, nodokļu lielums, situācija tirgū. (Šārs, 1993)

Savukārt pie atšķirīgām pazīmēm var minēt, ka kooperatīvi uzmanību vērš uz labumu radīšanu (tie var būt saistīti un var nebūt saistīti ar peļņas gūšanu) saviem biedriem, savukārt citas uzņēmējdarbības formas koncentrējas uz ienākumu radīšanu saviem investoriem. Bez tam atšķiras arī nosacījumi, kas saistīti ar īpašumtiesībām, kontroli, to, kā tiek sadalīti

iegūtie labumi. Kooperatīvi parasti tiek veidoti, lai labotu tirgus neveiksmes, nevis vienkārši „taisītu peļņu”. (Zeuli, 2004)

Kooperatīvu galvenās atšķirības no citiem uzņēmējdarbības veidiem ir ietvertas vadlīnijās, uz kurām balstās kooperatīvu darbība un kuras padara kooperatīvus unikālus - principos.

Darba mērķis: Izpētīt kooperatīvu principu vēsturisko attīstību, ietekmi uz kooperatīvu darbību.

Izvirzītā mērķa sasniegšanai noteikti sekojoši uzdevumi:

1. Iepazīties ar kooperatīvu principu pirmsākumiem;
2. Izvērtēt kooperatīvu principu ietekmi uz kooperatīva darbības rezultātiem;
3. Izpētīt Latvijas likumdošanā noteiktos kooperatīvu principus.

Pētījuma objekts: Kooperatīvu principi.

Pētījuma priekšmets: Kooperatīvu principu ietekme uz kooperatīvu darbību.

Pielietotās pētījumu metodes: monogrāfiskā, abstrakti loģiskā, analīzes un sintēzes metodes, indukcija, dedukcija, grafiskā metode.

Izmantotie materiāli: Ārvalstu zinātnieku publikācijas, LR normatīvie akti, Lursoft un Latvijas Lauksaimniecības kooperatīvu asociācijas apkopotie statistikas dati.

Rezultāti un diskusija Results and Discussion

1. Principa jēdziena skaidrojums

1. Interpretation of the notion “principle”

Vispārīgā veidā svešvārdu vārdnīcā jēdziens „*principis*” tiek skaidrots kā:

1. kādas teritorijas, uzskatu sistēmas, zinātnes galvenā ideja, pamattēze, galvenais atzinums;
2. noteikta pārlicība, pamatnostādne, kas nosaka cilvēka, grupas, organizācijas darbību, rīcību, nostāju;
3. kāda mehānisma, sistēmas u.tml. uzbūves vai darbības pamatīpatnība. (Svešvārdu vārdnīca, 1999)

Starptautiskā Kooperatīvu alianse principus definē kā vadlīnijas, ar kuru palīdzību kooperatīvs praksē realizē savas vērtības (Statement of the Cooperative Identity, b.g.). SKA ir izdalījusi sekojošas kooperatīvu vērtības (skat. 1.1. attēlu).

D.G.Barton principa jēdzienu skaidro kā galveno vadīšanas likumu, vispārēju vai fundamentālu patiesību, visaptverošu vai fundamentālu likumu. (Szabo, 2006)

Tammy M. Meyer kooperatīvu principu skaidro kā pamatdoktrīnu vai doktrīnu, kas definē vai identificē atšķirīgas īpašības. Principi skaidri nodala kooperatīvus no citām uzņēmējdarbības formām. (Meyer, 1999)

Lielākai daļai kooperatoru kooperatīvu principi ir kā stūrakmeņi, lai novērtētu kooperatīva pamatotību, to, vai kooperatīvs ir unikāls vai nē. Kooperatīvu principu izpratne ir būtiska, lai izprastu kooperatīva identitāti. „Labi principi, kas netiek pareizi saprasti, nodara tikpat lielu ļaunumu kā slikti principi”. (Meyer, 1999)

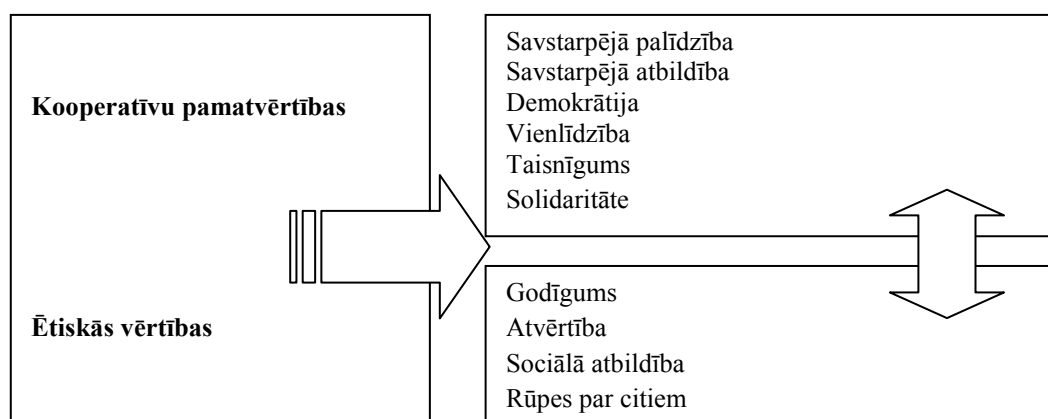
Vēsturiski kooperatīvu principi ir interpretēti un skaidroti dažādos veidos. Dažādām kooperatīvu formām un dažādās valstīs tiek izmantoti dažādi principi. Kā raksta *J. Nilsson*, principi, kurus kooperatīviem ir jāievēro, ir atkarīgi no apstākļiem, kādos tie darbojas. Galvenais nosacījums, kam jābūt pamatā visām kooperatīvu principu interpretācijām, ir - principiem ir jābūt saskaņā ar kooperācijas koncepciju. (Nilsson, 1996)

Apkopojot citu autoru rakstīto, var secināt, ka kooperatīvu principi ir pamats, uz kura balstās kooperatīvu darbība, īpatnība, kas tos padara unikālus, vadlīnijas, kuru ievērošana ir nepieciešama, lai dzīvī realizētu galveno kooperatīvu uzdevumu - kalpot saviem biedriem un aizstāvēt savu biedru intereses. Izprotot kooperatīvu principus, var izprast kooperatīvu būtību.

2. Kooperatīvu principu attīstība

2. The development of cooperative principles

Kā pirmo veiksmīgo kooperācijas piemēru var minēt Ročdeilas taisnīgos pionierus, kas 1844. gadā Anglijā izveidoja patērētāju sabiedrību. Šīsabiedrība, ņemot vērā labākās iepriekš izmantotās idejas kooperatīvdarbībā, pieņēma virkni likumus, mērķus, praktiskus pasākumus, procedūras, kas nodrošināja to ekonomiskos panākumus. Vēlāk šīs vadlīnijas tika apkopotas, izveidojot vienotu kooperatīvo sabiedrību principu kopumu (Ročdeilas principus), kas kalpo par kooperatīvu palīgu arī mūsdienās. Ir sastopami dažādi šo principu interpretējumi, kas atšķiras gan pēc satura, gan principu skaita. Bez Ročdeilas pionieru izstrādātajiem principiem vēsturē sastopami arī citi principu formulējumi, kas domāti citiem kooperatīvu veidiem un citiem apstākļiem (Šulce - Dēličs, Raifeizens) (skat. 2.1. tabulu). Starp



Avots/ Source: Prakash D., 2003

1. attēls. Kooperatīva vērtību sadalījums
Figure 1. Classification of cooperative values

Galveno principu, kas ir pamatā trim kooperatīvajām kustībām, sākot ar 1840-iem, salīdzinājums
Comparison of the main principles underlying the three cooperative movements started in the 1840s

Ročdeilas principi	Raifeizena principi	Šulces – Dēliča principi
1. Brīvprātīga un atvērta līdzdalība	1. Pašpalīdzība, bez valsts palīdzības izslēgšanas	1. Pašpalīdzība bez jebkādas palīdzības no ārpusē (gan privātas, gan publiskas)
2. Demokrātiska kontrole – viens biedrs, viena balss	2. Ierobežots apgabals (1 draudze vai 1 ciemats)	2. Plaša darbības teritorija
3. Pārpalikuma sadale proporcionāli patronāžai	3. Visa pārpalikuma iekļaušana nedalāmajās rezervēs	3. Pārpalikuma sadale proporcionāli veikto darbību apjomam
4. Kapitālam ierobežoti procenti	4. Līdzdalība bez paju apmaiņas	4. Lieli procentu maksājumi par pajām, lai piesaistītu lielu paju apmaiņu
5. Politiska un reliģiska neitralitāte	5. Biedriem ir neierobežota atbildība	5. Biedriem ir ierobežota atbildība (oriģināli neierobežota)
6. Tirdzniecība par skaidru naudu	6. Kooperatīvā var darboties tikai biedri	6. uzņēmuma specializācija
7. Izglītības veicināšana	7. Valdes locekļu brīvprātīgs darbs	7. 10 % no pārpalikuma ieskaitīšana rezervēs

Avots / Source: Craig, 1980; Nilsson, 1996

šiem principu kopumiem ir vērā ņemamas atšķirības, taču ir pieļaujamas arī līdzības, jo visi šie principi ir balstīti uz kooperācijas koncepciju un visiem tiem ir ideoloģiska bāze un tie ir veidoti, ņemot vērā konkrētu praktisku pieredzi. (Thompson, 1994; Nilsson, 1996)

Mūsdienās principu kopums, kas var pretendēt uz vispārēju un universāli pielietojumu principu nosaukumu, ir Starptautiskās Kooperatīvu asociācijas izstrādātie principi, kas ir balstīti uz Ročdeilas pionieru pieņemtajiem principiem. Pirmo reizi SKA šos principus pieņēma 1937. gadā. Laika gaitā tie ir mainīti, uzlaboti, papildināti - 1966. gadā un 1995. gadā. SKA pieņemto kooperatīvu principu vēsturiskā attīstība parādīta 2.2. tabulā.

Aplūkojot SKA izstrādāto kooperatīvu principu vēsturisko attīstību, var secināt, ka izmaiņas tajos nav kardinālas un kopumā visos attīstības posmos tiek saglabātas galvenās normas, kas ir kooperatīvu darbības pamatā. Galvenokārt veikti pārveidojumi, kas saistīti ar pielāgošanos vispārējās situācijas izmaiņām.

Pašreiz pastāvošie Starptautiskās Kooperatīvu alianses pieņemtie principi ietver visas iepriekš nosauktās kooperatīvu vērtības:

Brīvprātīga un atvērta dalība. Kooperatīvi ir brīvprātīgas organizācijas, kas atvērtas visām to pakalpojumus izmantot spējīgām personām, kuras vēlas uzņemties piederības uzlikto atbildību neatkarīgi no to dzimuma, sociālās, rasu, politiskās vai reliģiskās piederības. Bet, kā raksta Serova E.V., piemēram, Rietumeiropas valstīs pienu kooperatīvi gandrīz pilnībā ir aizņēmuši vietējo tirgu. Šādos apstākļos zemniekiem, īpaši tādiem, kas jau

paudzēm bijuši kooperatīvu biedri, nav reālas ekonomiskas iespējas izvēlēties – kļūt vai nekļūt par kooperatīva biedru. Turklāt kooperatīva statūti reizēm ar noteiktiem nosacījumiem ierobežo iespēju izstāties no kooperatīva. Vēsturē ir sastopami piemēri, kad kooperatīvi tikuši veidoti piespiedu kārtā, bet šādas organizācijas nevar uzskatīt par īstiem kooperatīviem, jo to darbība parasti beidzas brīdī, kad izbeidzas ārējā faktora iedarbība, kas var būt gan administratīvas, gan ekonomiskas dabas.

1. Demokrātiska biedru kontrole. Kooperatīvus demokrātiski kontrolē paši biedri. Viņi aktīvi piedalās kooperatīvu politikas veidošanā un lēmumu pieņemšanā. Sākotnējos kooperatīvos visiem biedriem ir vienlīdzīgas balsošanas tiesības (viens biedrs – viena balss), cita līmeņa kooperatīvos balsošana notiek arī demokrātiskā veidā. Marvins A. Šārs raksta, ka principa “viens biedrs – viena balss” gadījumā tiek pārkāpts proporcionālītātes princips. Tādēļ, piemēram, ASV daudzu štatu likumdošanā mehānismu “viens biedrs – viena balss” papildina: zināmos gadījumos vienam cilvēkam var būt vairākas balsis atkarībā no iepriekšējā gada biznesa darījumu apjoma. Pieļaujamo balsu skaitu parasti nosaka pārējie kooperatīva biedri. Serova E.V. min tā saucamos proporcionālos kooperatīvus, kuros balso, izmantojot dalības apjomu kooperatīva operācijās. Šādos kooperatīvos arī pajas, kuras biedri iemaksā savā kooperatīvā, parasti ir proporcionālas iespējamajai līdzdalībai kooperatīva darījumos. *Piemēram, proporcionāla veida pienu kooperatīvā paju apjoms būs atkarīgs*

Kooperatīvo principu vēsturiskā attīstība
The historical development of cooperative principles

Originālā versija (1837. gadā)	SKA pārstrādātie principi (1966. gadā)	SKA pārstrādātie principi (1995. gadā)
1. brīvprātīga un atvērta piedalīšanās; 2. demokrātiska kontrole (viena persona – viena balss); 3. atlikums jāsadala biedriem proporcionāli viņu darījumu apjomam; 4. ierobežoti procenti par kapitālu; 5. politiskā un reliģiskā neitralitāte; 6. preces jāpērk un jāpārdod tikai par skaidru naudu; 7. izglītības sekmēšana.	1. atvērta, brīvprātīga līdzdalība, bez jebkādas sociālas, politiskas vai reliģiskas diskriminācijas; 2. demokrātiska organizācija – kooperatīvu darbību pārrauga personas, kuras ievēlejuši biedri un kas ir pakļautas biedriem, primāro kooperatīvu biedriem ir vienlīdzīgas balsošanas tiesības (viens biedrs – viena balss) un iespēja piedalīties tādu lēmumu pieņemšanā, kas ietekmē kooperatīvu; 3. par daļu kapitālu var saņemt stingri ierobežotu procentu likmi; 4. pārpalikums paliek biedriem un ir jāizdala tādā veidā, kas novērš iespēju vienam biedram gūt labumu uz cita biedra rēķina; 5. biedru un sabiedrības izglītošana par kooperatīvajiem principiem; 6. kooperācija starp kooperatīviem vietējā, nacionālā un starptautiskā līmenī.	1. brīvprātīga un atvērta līdzdalība; 2. demokrātiska biedru kontrole 3. biedru ekonomiska līdzdalība; 4. autonomija un neatkarība; 5. izglītība, apmācība, informēšana; 6. kooperācija starp kooperatīviem; 7. rūpes par sabiedrību.
Citas iezīmes, kas ir ietvertas Ročdeilas sistēmā, bet nav ieguvušas principu statusu, ir: 8. tirdzniecība tikai ar biedriem; 9. brīvprātīga piederība (līdzdalība); 10. tirdzniecība par konkrētajā brīdī pastāvošajām tirgus cenām.		

Avots / Source: V. Buģina, K. Pabērza, izmantojot SKA datus

no biedram piederošā ganāmpulka lieluma. Šāda tipa kooperatīvi arvien vairāk izplatās ES valstī (Серова, 1999, Šārs, 1993).

2. **Biedru ekonomiskā līdzdalība.** Biedru ieguldījums kapitālā, kā arī kontrole pār to, ir vienlīdzīgi. Vismaz daļa no ieguldītā kapitāla kooperatīvam ir kopīga. Biedri parasti saņem ierobežotu kompensāciju par tādu paju kapitāla daļu, par kādu viņi ir parakstījušies, iestājoties kooperatīvā. Pārpalikums tiek piešķirts šādiem mērķiem: kooperatīvā uzņēmuma attīstībai, rezervju veidošanai (vismaz daļa šo rezervju ir nedalāma), biedru atbalstīšanai proporcionāli viņu darījumu apjomam ar kooperatīvu un citu darbību atbalstam, ko apstiprinājuši kooperatīva biedri. Kooperatīva ienākumu sadale proporcionāli biedra daļībai organizācijas darbībās, nevis proporcionāli ieguldītajam kapitālam, sākotnēji var šķist nedemokrātiska, netaisnīga salīdzinājumā ar balsošanu proporcionāli ieguldītajam kapitālam. Taču jāatceras, ka kooperatīva mērķis nav iegūt peļņu

par kapitālu, bet nodrošināt optimālus darbības apstākļus kooperatīva dalībniekiem. Bez tam kooperatīva biedri uzņemas risku, kas saistīts ar kooperatīva darbību un nes mantisko atbildību.

3. **Autonomija un neatkarība.** Kooperatīvi ir pastāvīgas, savu biedru kontrolētas pašpalīdzības organizācijas. Kooperatīvu līgumi tiek slēgti uz tādiem noteikumiem, kas nodrošina demokrātisku kontroli no biedru puses un saglabā kooperatīvu autonomiju.
4. **Izglītība, apmācība, kvalifikācijas celšana un informācija.** Kooperatīvi nodrošina izglītību un apmācību saviem biedriem, vēlētiem pārstāvjiem, vadītājiem un darbiniekiem, lai viņi varētu efektīvi darboties savas organizācijas attīstības labā. Viņi informē plašāku sabiedrību par kooperatīvu būtību un ieguvumiem.
5. **Kooperatīvu sadarbība.** Kooperatīvi visefektīvāk kalpo savu biedru interesēm un nostiprina kooperācijas kustību, sadarbojoties ar vietējām, valstiskām, reģionālām un starptautiskām struktūrām.

Kooperatīvu principi, kas atbalsta (+) vai kavē (-) kooperatīvu konkurētspēju
Cooperative principles promoting (+) or preventing (-) the competitiveness of cooperatives

Princips	Piesaistīt liela apjoma ražotājfirmas	Attīstīt integrētu ražošanas – mārketinga sistēmu	Uztvert labumus no jaunu tehnoloģiju ieviešanas	Uzlabot pašu kapitāla pozīcijas
Demokrātiska kontrole	-	-	-	-
Īpašumtiesības proporcionāli pakalpojumu izmantošanai	+	+	+	+
Pakalpojumi par maksu	+	+	+	+
Atvērta līdzdalība	-	-	-	-
Ierobežota kapitāla atgriešana	-	-	-	-

Avots / Source: Knutson, 1985, Nilsson, 1996

6. Rūpes par vietējo sabiedrību. Šis princips parāda kooperatīvu ietekmi uz sabiedrību, sniedzot savu ieguldījumu tās stabilā attīstībā un īstenojot savu biedru apstiprināto politiku. (Kučinskis, 2004; Zeulii, 2004; ICA, b.g.; Cepova, 1999)

D. Prakash raksta, ka šie kooperatīvu darbības pamatā esošie principi nav atkarīgi viens no otra, bet tie ir savā starpā saistīti: ja viens tiek ignorēts, arī pārējo ietekme mazinās. Autors arī piebilst, ka kooperatīvus nevajag vērtēt pēc tā, kā tiek ievērots kāds konkrēts princips, bet pēc tā, cik labi šie principi tiek ievēroti kā kopums. (Prakash, 2003)

Kamēr daži no principiem, piemēram, rūpes par sabiedrību, tika pievienoti SKA principiem tikai nesen, pirmie trīs principi, kas ietver atvērtību, demokrātisku kontroli un kapitāla avotus un pārvaldīšanu ir fundamentāli un palikuši nemainīgi visos SKA principu pārveides posmos. Kā raksta *A.M.Hind*, šo principu ievērošana nodrošina, ka kooperatīva primārais mērķis ir kalpot saviem biedriem, nevis peļņas maksimizācija, kā tas ir nekooperatīvajā biznesā. Savukārt principi par izglītības nodrošināšanu un sadarbības veicināšanu starp kooperatīviem ir nepieciešami, lai nodrošinātu izaugsmi un turpinātu kooperatīvu eksistenci. (Krivokapic -Skoko, 2002)

Starptautiskās Kooperatīvu alianses principi ir jāiestrādā arī nacionālajā likumdošanā, kas regulē kooperatīvu darbību. Taču jāatceras, ka Ročdeilas principi, uz kuriem balstīti SKA principi, sākotnēji tika izstrādāti patērētāju kooperatīviem, līdz ar to arī alianses pieņemtie principi vairāk ir piemēroti patērētāju kooperatīviem. Tādēļ citas kooperatīvu formas, kuru darbība vērsta uz citu mērķu sasniegšanu, var saskarties ar grūtībām, ievērojot SKA principus.

J. Nilsson raksta, ka „situācijās, kad kooperatīvs uzņēmums pieņem kooperatīvā biznesa principus, kas paredzēti atšķirīgai situācijai (citam kooperatīvu veidam), rezultāts parasti ir neefektīvs”. (Nilsson, 1996)

Bez tam literatūrā var atrast viedokli (Nilsson, Szabo u.c.), ka SKA principi ir novecojuši un neatbilst mūsdienu apstākļiem, kuros darbojas pašreizējie kooperatīvi. *J. Nilsson* raksta, ka mūsdienās, pastiprinoties konkurencei, ražotāju kooperatīviem ir arvien grūtāk ievērot SKA principus. Kooperatīvi, kas stingri ievēro šos principus, saskaras ar dažādām problēmām, kas saistītas ar kapitālu, vāju biedru uzticību, izmaksu pieaugumu, kas nerada ienākumus utt. Rezultātā uzņēmumi kļūst nekonkurētspējīgi. Šādi principi, kam ir ideoloģiskais pamats, bet nav komerciālās bāzes, var izraisīt kooperatīvu pavājināšanos tā vietā, lai tie kļūtu spēcīgāki (skat. 2.3. tabulu). (Nilsson, 1996)

Analizējot atsevišķu principu ietekmi uz kooperatīvu darbību, balstoties uz dažādu citu autoru viedokļiem un izdarot savus secinājumus, var rezumēt:

– Princips par demokrātisku lēmumu pieņemšanu var būt kā kavēklis elastīgas kooperatīva darbības nodrošināšanā. Princips „viens biedrs - viena balss”, kas ir kā pamats, kas pierāda, vai kooperatīvs ir unikāls vai nav, nav pareizs no ekonomiskā viedokļa. Raksta autori kā negatīvus šī principa aspektus var minēt ilgāku laiku, kas nepieciešams lēmumu pieņemšanai (arī tādu, kas var būt nozīmīgi kooperatīva tālākā darbībā). Sevišķi apgrūtināši tas ir liela apjoma kooperatīvos, kas aptver plašas teritorijas un kuros darbojas liels skaits biedru. Kā risinājumu autori iesaka balsstiesību deleģēšanu no biedru vidus izvirzītiem pārstāvjiem.

- Bez tam šis princips var būt kā kavēklis biedru vēlmei aktīvāk iesaistīties kooperatīva darbībā, zinot, ka, pieņemot lēmumu, visiem biedriem ir vienāds balsu skaits, neskatoties uz konkrēta biedra individuālo ieguldījumu, jo, *piemēram, piena kooperatīvā biedrs, kas piegādā lielāku piena daudzumu kooperatīvam, uzņemas daudz lielāku risku nekā cits, kurš piegādā mazāk piena un kooperatīva aktivitātes daudz spēcīgāk ietekmēs lielākā piegādātāja saimniekošanu un ienākumus.*
 - Szabo G.G., saistībā ar lauksaimniecības kooperatīviem iesaka ieviest saliktās balsošanas sistēmu, piemēram, izmantojot proporcionālītātes principu ar skaidru katram biedram piederošu balsu skaita noteikšanu, kas var palīdzēt kooperatīviem spēt noturēt biedrus ar augstāku patronāžu un spēt iegūt vairāk kapitāla no biedriem. (Szabo, 2006)
 - Savukārt Eiropas Komisijas darba dokumentā kā pozitīvs aspekts tiek minēts, ka demokrātiska lēmumu pieņemšana var novest pie noteiktākiem lēmumiem. (Cooperatives in Enterprise Europe)
 - Ierobežota procentu izmaksa (ja tāda paredzēta) par ieguldīto kapitālu kooperatīvā vājina un ierobežo kooperatīva finansiālās pozīcijas un iespējas realizēt jaunas kooperatīva un tā biedru stratēģijas (Szabo, 2006). Arī šis princips var būt kā kavēklis gan jaunu kooperatīva biedru iesaistīšanā, gan jau esošo aktīvākā līdzdalībā.
 - Atvērtās līdzdalības princips, kas paredz, ka biedri var brīvprātīgi iestāties un izstāties no kooperatīva. No vienas puses šis princips ļauj biedram pašam izvērtēt iestāšanās vai izstāšanās lietderību, bet tas var radīt kooperatīva darbības stabilitātes problēmas, *piemēram, gadījumos, ja no kooperatīva izstājas līdz tam aktīvs kooperatīva biedrs.* Savukārt noteikums par atvērtu biedru iestāšanos, tādejādi kooperatīva darbībā iesaistoties ļoti lielam biedru skaitam, var radīt grūtības apzināt visu biedru vēlmes un intereses. Līdz ar to kooperatīvs nespēj pilnvērtīgi pildīt savu pamatuzdevumu - rūpēties par visu savu biedru interešu ievērošanu.
 - Kooperatīva ienākumu sadale proporcionāli biedru veiktajiem darījumiem ar kooperatīvu ir uzskatāma par pozitīvu, jo, atšķirībā no iepriekš nosauktajiem principiem, var kalpot par stimulu biedru aktivitātes palielināšanai. Turklāt tas var būt kā viens no faktoriem, kas liek biedram dot priekšroku darījumu veikšanai ar kooperatīva starpniecību, nevis citiem - nekooperatīviem uzņēmumiem.
 - Kooperatīva biedru izglītošana, apmācība, kvalifikācijas celšana, kas saistīta ar kooperācijas jautājumiem, ļauj biedriem izprast kooperācijas būtību, priekšrocības, salīdzinot ar citām uzņēmējdarbības formām. Tādejādi ir iespēja stimulēt kooperācijas vispārējo attīstību. Bez tam kooperatīvi nodrošina arī savu biedru apmācību jautājumos, kas saistīti ar katra biedra individuālo darbību, *piemēram, graudu ražošanas kooperatīvi sniedz konsultācijas biedriem par to, kā paaugstināt kultūraugu ražību, efektīvāk izmantot pieejamos ražošanas resursus, tādejādi gūstot pēc iespējas lielāku peļņu.*
 - Kooperatīvu sadarbība ļauj kooperatīviem nostiprināt savas pozīcijas tirgū. *Piemēram, piena ražošanas kooperatīvi, sadarbojoties savā starpā, var veidot savus pārstrādes uzņēmumus, tādejādi samazinot piena ražotāju atkarību no lielajiem piena pārstrādes kombinātiem, kas atrodas biznesa kapitāla valdījumā.*
- J. Nilsson, runājot par ražotāju kooperatīviem, iesaka principa „viens biedrs - viena balss” vietā izmantot proporcionālītātes principu, īpašumtiesībām jābūt proporcionālām, līdzdalība nevar būt atvērta visiem, procentiem par biedru kapitālu jābūt pietiekoši augstiem, lai piesaistītu papildus līdzekļus. (Nilsson, 1996)
- Bez SKA principiem ir sastopami arī citi kooperatīvu principu kopumi. D.G.Barton ir izveidojis iedalījumu tradicionālajos, proporcionālajos un mūsdienu principos:
- **tradicionālie principi** - ietekmējuši Ročdeilas principi, bet tradicionālie principi ir vairāk pielāgoti biznesa nosacījumiem. Tie nosaka, ka īpašumu kooperatīvs var iegūt tikai no biedriem un, ka tirdzniecība arī var būt galvenokārt starp biedriem;
 - **proporcionālie principi** rada prasību minimumu kooperatīva darbībai. Tie ir izveidoti, lai nodrošinātu kooperatīvā ekonomisko efektivitāti saspīlētajos konkurences apstākļos;
 - **modernie principi** ir līdzīgi proporcionālajiem principiem, bet tiem ir dažas tradicionālo principu pazīmes (skat. 2.4. tabulu).
- Šiem trim kooperatīvu principu kopumiem ir dažādas variācijas. (Krivokapic - Skoko, 2002; Nilsson, 1996; Szabo, 2006)
- USDA (*United States Department of Agriculture*) ir izdalījis trīs pamatprincipus, kas raksturo kooperatīva uzņēmuma būtību un veido ietvaru kooperatīvu darbības vērtēšanai:
- **lietotājs – īpašnieks princips**, t.i., kooperatīvs pieder tām personām, kas to izmanto;

Tradicionālo, proporcionālo, moderno kooperatīvu principu grupu raksturojums
The characteristics of traditional, proportional, and contemporary classes of cooperative principles

	Kooperatīvu principu grupas		
	Tradicionālie	Proporcionālie	Modernie
Kontrole	1. Demokrātiska lēmumu pieņemšana (viena persona – viena balss) 2. Atvērta līdzdalība	1. Balsošana ir proporcionāli biedru patronāžai	1. Lēmumus pieņem biedri – kooperatīva pakalpojumu izmantotāji uz demokrātiskas vai proporcionālas bāzes
Īpašumtiesības	3. Kapitālu sagādā patroni 4. Balsošanas akciju īpašumtiesības ir ierobežotas	2. Īpašumu nodrošina patroni proporcionāli patronāžai	2. Īpašumu nodrošina patroni
Labumi	5. Tīrie ienākumi tiek sadalīti patroniem kā patronāžas atmaksa uz izmaksu bāzes 6. Dividendes par īpašuma kapitālu ir ierobežotas 7. Darījumi tiek veikti primāri ar biedriem patroniem	3. Tīrie ienākumi tiek sadalīti patroniem kā patronāžas atmaksa uz izmaksu bāzes	3. Tīrie ienākumi tiek sadalīti patroniem kā patronāžas atmaksa uz izmaksu bāzes
Citi	8. Pienākums izglītot		

Avots / Source: Barton, 1989; Nilsson, 1996

- **lietotājs – kontrole princips**, t.i., kooperatīvu kontrolē personas, kas to izmanto;
- **lietotājs – labums princips**, t.i., proporcionālas labumu sadales princips, kad labumi, ko rada kooperatīvs, tiek sadalīti tā lietotājiem, pamatojoties uz to izmantoto pakalpojumu apjomu. (Krivokapic - Skoko, 2002; Meyer, 1999)

Uzsvars šajos principos, līdz ar to arī kooperatīvu darbībā tiek likts uz kooperatīva pakalpojumu izmantotājiem, kas ir arī investori.

3. Kooperatīvu principu raksturojums Latvijā

3. The characteristics of cooperative principles in Latvia

Saskaņā ar Lursoft statistikas datiem, laika posmā no 01.01.1991. līdz 04.12.2008. Latvijā ir reģistrētas 3574 kooperatīvās sabiedrības. No tām formāli darbojas 1971 sabiedrība. (Lursoft, b.g.)

Savukārt Latvijas Lauksaimniecības Kooperatīvu asociācijas (LLKA) dati liecina, ka uz 01.09.2008. Latvijā darbojās 108 lauksaimniecības pakalpojumu kooperatīvās sabiedrības¹ (LPKS), t.sk., 32 graudu LPKS, 30 piena LPKS, 1 medus LPKS, 17 augļu un dārzeņu LPKS, 6 daudznozaru LPKS, 14

lauksaimniecības pakalpojumu LPKS, 8 gaļas LPKS. (LLKA, b.g.)

Latvijas Republikas likumā „Par kooperatīvajām (kopdarbības) sabiedrībām”, kas nu jau ir zaudējis spēku, tika noteikts, ka kooperatīvās sabiedrības savā darbībā vadās pēc šādiem pamatprincipiem:

- darbība kooperatīvajās sabiedrībās ir brīvprātīga, tās ir pieejamas visām personām bez jebkādas sociālās, politiskās vai reliģiskās diskriminācijas. Kooperatīvās sabiedrības biedriem ir tiesības izmantot tās pakalpojumus, kā arī pienākums uzņemties atbildību;
- kooperatīvās sabiedrības pārvalde ir demokrātiska;
- peļņa pieder attiecīgās kooperatīvās sabiedrības biedriem;
- tiek nodrošināta ierobežota dividende;
- tiek nodrošināta kooperatīvā izglītība, daļu līdzekļu paredzot izmantot kooperatīvās sabiedrības biedru un iedzīvotāju izglītošanai, lai popularizētu kooperatīvās darbības principus un metodes;
- tiek attīstīta kooperatīvo sabiedrību sadarbība. (Par kooperatīvajām (kopdarbības)…, 1991)

¹ Lauksaimniecības pakalpojumu kooperatīvā sabiedrība - kooperatīvā sabiedrība, kura sniedz pakalpojumus lauksaimniecības produktu ražotājiem, bet nedarbojas ar lauksaimniecības produktu ražošanu. (Kooperatīvo sabiedrību likums, 1998)

Savukārt pašreiz spēkā esošajā likumā „Kooperatīvo sabiedrību likums” ir noteikti sekojoši kooperatīvo sabiedrību darbības pamatprincipi:

- kooperatīvā sabiedrība ir brīvprātīga organizācija, kurā var iestāties jebkura rīcībspējīga fiziskā un juridiskā persona bez jebkādas sociālās, dzimuma, politiskās un reliģiskās diskriminācijas, ja šī persona vēlas saņemt šīs organizācijas pakalpojumus un uzņemties tās biedra pienākumus atbilstoši sabiedrības statūtiem;
- kooperatīvās sabiedrības darbību vada tās biedri, aktīvi un demokrātiski piedaloties sabiedrības pārvaldīšanā;
- katram kooperatīvās sabiedrības biedram biedru kopsapulcē ir viena balss;
- kooperatīvās sabiedrības kapitālu veido un kontrolē, kā arī iegūto peļņu (lauksaimniecības pakalpojumu kooperatīvajās sabiedrībās – pārpalikumu) sadala tās biedri;
- kooperatīvās sabiedrības izmaksas finansē biedri paši, veidojot uzkrājumus un sedzot zaudējumus. (Kooperatīvo sabiedrību likums, 1998)

Var secināt, ka gan vecajā, gan jaunajā redakcijā par pamatu ir ņemti Starptautiskās kooperatīvu alianses pieņemtie principi, tātad, pamatā patērētāju kooperatīvajām sabiedrībām piemēroti principi. Tomēr principu formulējums ir mainījies, turklāt, piemēram, principi par kooperatīvās izglītības nodrošināšanu, kooperatīvo sabiedrību sadarbības attīstīšanu, kas tiek uzskatīti par kooperatīvu kustības veicinātājiem, jaunajā redakcijā neparādās. Iespējams, ja likumdošanā tiktu atstāta prasība izglītēt kooperatīvu biedrus un pārējos iedzīvotājus, kooperatīvu kustība Latvijā būtu vairāk attīstīta nekā pašreiz un cilvēku izpratne par to būtu dziļāka un plašāka.

Balstoties uz iepriekšējā nodaļā minētajiem kooperatīvo sabiedrību darbību kavējošajiem principiem, var secināt, ka arī Latvijas likumdošanā šie principi ir iekļauti - atvērta līdzdalība, demokrātiska lēmumu pieņemšana, princips „viens biedrs - viena balss”. Šeit gan jāmin, ka liela nozīme ir teritorijas lielumam, kurā sabiedrība darbojas. Latvijā, salīdzinot, piemēram, ar ASV teritorijas mērogiem, princips par atvērtu līdzdalību saistībā ar pārāk lielu biedru skaitu, kas kavē apzināt visu biedru intereses, nav tik aktuāls. Turklāt eksperti iesaka, ka labāk veidot mazāk, bet lielākas un ekonomiski spēcīgākas kooperatīvās sabiedrības. (Dambīte, 2005)

LLKA ir izstrādājusi principus, kas paredzēti lauksaimniecības pakalpojumu kooperatīviem:

- sabiedrība pieder pašiem zemniekiem un zemnieki paši var kontrolēt tās darbību. Tas veicina biedru ieinteresētību, kas ļauj vieglāk pielāgoties īslaicīgām ekonomiskām vai cita veida problēmām;

- kooperatīvo sabiedrību mērķis ir nevis gūt labumu no lauksaimniekiem, bet dot viņiem attīstības iespējas;
- darbojas „atvērto durvju” princips – jebkurš, kurš piekrīt kooperatīva statūtiem, var kļūt par tā biedru;
- risks, visas izmaksas un ienākumi tiek godīgi sadalīti starp īpašniekiem – zemniekiem; kooperatīvās sabiedrības darbības izmaksas finansē biedri paši, veidojot uzkrājumus un sedzot zaudējumus;
- sabiedrību darbībā nav riska, ka attīstībā ieguldītie līdzekļi var nonākt ārvalstnieku rokās;
- kooperācija ir veids, kā mazajiem lauksaimniekiem izdzīvot Eiropas Savienības tirgū un attīstīties, izmantojot kooperatīva piedāvātās iespējas;
- kooperatīvā sabiedrība ir ekonomiska sistēma ar sociālu saturu;
- lēmumu pieņemšana ir demokrātiska – katram biedram biedru kopsapulcē ir viena balss. (LLKA, b.g.)

LPKS principi ir izstrādāti, ievērojot nacionālo likumdošanu un kooperatīvo sabiedrību būtību un atšķirības no citām uzņēmējdarbības formām.

Latvijas Lauksaimniecības kooperatīvu asociācijas informācija un pētījumi liecina, ka kooperatīvo sabiedrību attīstību kavējošo faktoru vidū ir arī tādi, kas saistīti ar kooperatīvo sabiedrību principiem:

- demokrātiska vadība (saistīta ar principu “viens biedrs - viena balss”) var novest pie lēnas lēmumu pieņemšanas;
- nepietiekama biedru līdzdalība kooperatīva resursu nodrošināšanā, lēmumu pieņemšanas procesos;
- dažu kooperatīvu attīstība virzienā, kas ir pretrunā kooperatīvās darbības pamatprincipiem un galvenajiem mērķiem. (LLKA, b.g.)

Secinājumi

Conclusions

1. Kooperatīvu principi ir vadlīnijas, uz kurām balstās kooperatīvu darbība un kas padara kooperatīvus unikālus, atšķirīgus no citām uzņēmējdarbības formām.
2. Kooperatīvu principu pamatlicēji ir Ročdeilas pionieri, kuri, apkopojot iepriekš darbojošos kooperatīvo veidojumu veiksmīgākās idejas, pieņēma virkni likumu, mērķu, praktisku pasākumu, kas vēlāk tika apkopoti Ročdeilas principsos.
3. Ročdeilas principi kalpo par pamatu mūsdienu kooperatīvu darbībai, jo tos kā vadlīnijas kooperatīvu darbības nodrošināšanai pieņēmusi Starptautiskā Kooperatīvu alianse un šie principi tiek iestrādāti valstu likumdošanā, kas regulē kooperatīvo sabiedrību darbību.

4. Literatūrā sastopami dažādi kooperatīvu darbības principu formulējumi, bet vispazīstamākie un visplašāk pielietotie ir Starptautiskās Kooperatīvu alianses izstrādātie principi.
5. Mūsdienu spēcīgās konkurences apstākļos arvien lielāka uzmanība tiek pievērsta tam, lai kooperatīvu principi nemazinātu kooperatīvu konkurētspēju, tādēļ literatūrā sastopami dažādu autoru ieteikumi, kā mainīt kooperatīvu principus, lai tie veicinātu kooperatīvu konkurētspēju.
6. Atsevišķi Starptautiskās Kooperatīvu alianses pieņemtie principi tiek uzskatīti par novecojušiem un kooperatīvu attīstību kavējošiem, piemēram, demokrātiskā kontrole, princips „viens biedrs - viena balss”, ierobežoti procenti par ieguldīto kapitālu, atvērta līdzdalība.
7. Pašreiz spēkā esošajā LR likumā „Kooperatīvo sabiedrību likums” noteiktie kooperatīvu darbības principi ir balstīti uz Starptautiskās Kooperatīvu alianses izstrādātajiem principiem, taču to formulējums, salīdzinot ar likumā „Par kooperatīvajām (kopdarbības) sabiedrībām” (vairs nav spēkā) noteiktajiem principiem, ir mainījies, turklāt daļa principu vairs neparādās.
8. Lai arī pēdējā laikā daudz tiek darīts kooperācijas kustības popularizēšanā (Zemkopības ministrija, LLKA), tomēr, ja no likumdošanas nebūtu izslēgta prasība izglītot kooperatīvu biedrus un pārējos iedzīvotājus kooperācijas jautājumos, iespējams tagad kooperācija Latvijā būtu spēcīgāk attīstīta un cilvēki vairāk izprastu tās būtību un nozīmi savas sociālās un ekonomiskās situācijas uzlabošanā.
9. Latvijas Lauksaimniecības kooperatīvu asociācijas formulētie kooperatīvu principi ir izstrādāti saskaņā ar LR likumdošanu, tajos ir uzsvērtā kooperatīvu būtība, īpatnības, kas tos padara atšķirīgus no citām uzņēmējdarbības formām.
10. Kooperatīvo sabiedrību attīstību kavējošo faktoru vidū ir arī tādi, kas saistīti ar kooperatīvu darbības principiem (to ievērošanu vai neievērošanu).
11. Lai paātrinātu lēmumu pieņemšanu kooperatīvā, kā arī, lai ieinteresētu zemniekus aktīvāk piedalīties kooperatīva darbībā, atsevišķos gadījumos būtu nepieciešams principa „viens biedrs - viena balss” vietā pielietot proporcionālu balsošanas kārtību.
12. Latvijas Lauksaimniecības kooperatīvu asociācijai iepazīstināt kooperatīvu vadītājus ar kooperatīvu principu būtību, lai vadītāji spētu šos principus izprast un izskaidrot kooperatīvu biedriem.
13. Kooperatīvu vadītājiem ietvert principus sabiedrības statūtos, iepazīstināt biedrus ar šiem principiem un kooperatīvu būtību, lai biedri izprastu šo principu nozīmi kooperatīva darbības galvenā mērķa - kooperatīva biedru interešu aizstāvēšanas - sasniegšanā.

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Telpiskās plānošanas loma ilgtspējīgu lauku teritoriju veidošanā Role of Spatial Planning in Creating Sustainable Rural Areas

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Abstract

The theoretical research is about the spatial planning of rural areas in the European Union as well as about legal framework and variety of planning documents for spatial planning in Latvia in the context of rural development. The study provides the proof of necessity for horizontal and vertical cooperation and coordination between different sectors and planning levels in the process of elaboration of spatial plans to ensure that interests of different sectors are incorporated in these documents from one hand, and to provide the elaboration of the sectoral development policies according to the guidelines of spatial plans on the other hand. The research proves that the Ministry of Regional Development and local governments of Latvia have to elaborate a proposal for amendments in the legislation for territorial planning to provide mutual conformity and connectivity between different regulations and laws as well as to organise development of methodological guidelines for territorial/spatial plans in the different planning levels to promote better quality of planning documents.

Atslēgas vārdi: telpiskā plānošana, teritorijas plānošana, lauku teritorijas, lauku attīstība.

Key words: spatial planning, territorial planning, rural areas, rural development.

Ievads

Introduction

Eiropas lauku teritoriju telpiskajā struktūrā ir vērojamas būtiskas izmaiņas, ko nosaka virkne faktoru, t.sk., demogrāfiskās tendences, lauksaimniecisko procesu industrializācija un pārmaiņas Eiropas Savienības (ES) atbalstošajās politikās. Lauksaimnieciskās ražošanas procesi arvien vairāk industrializējas, blakus tradicionālajai lauksaimniecībai, mežsaimniecībai un to produktu pārstrādei, laukos ienāk rūpnieciskā ražošana, loģistika, pakalpojumi, kas agrāk saistījās ar pilsētas funkcijām. Arvien ciešāka veidojas lauku teritoriju funkcionālā sasaiste ar pilsētām. Arī nākotnē pilsētu un lauku teritoriju attiecības veidosies kā savstarpēja partnerība, kuras ietvaros pilsētas nodrošinās pakalpojumus, kultūras aktivitātes, infrastruktūru un pieeju darba tirgum, kamēr lauku teritorijas paralēli lauksaimnieciskās produkcijas ražošanai piedāvās atpūtas iespējas, kvalitatīvu dzīves un dabas vidi. Nozīmīgs instruments lauku teritoriju ilgtspējīgai attīstībai ir telpiskā plānošana, ko nosaka tās starpdisciplinārais raksturs, orientācija uz esošā un nākotnes dabas, sociālā un ekonomiskā potenciāla apzināšanu un izmantošanu teritoriju attīstībai, kā arī iespējas novērst

attīstības konfliktus gan horizontālā, gan vertikālā virzienā.

Analizējot teorētiskos avotus tika konstatēts, ka ar vārdu „lauki” galvenokārt tiek saprastas teritorijas ārpus pilsētām. Tas atspoguļojas arī ES telpiskās plānošanas politikas dokumentos¹, kā arī Latvijas normatīvajos aktos. Turklāt, likumā „Lauksaimniecības un lauku attīstības likums” vārdkopas „lauku attīstība” saturs skaidrots kā nelauksaimniecisko produktu ražošana lauku teritorijā, kā arī ar ūdens un zemes resursu izmantošanu saistīto pakalpojumu sniegšana un ainavas saglabāšana, kas sniedz šī jēdziena samērā šauru interpretāciju. Savukārt, jēdziens „telpiskā plānošana” ir tiešs tulkojums no Vācijas un Holandes plānošanas terminoloģijas. Galvenais, kas raksturo telpisko plānošanu ir zemes izmantošanas plānošanas aktivitāšu ciešā saikne ar ekonomiskās, sociālās un vides attīstības politikām (Alden J., 2006).

Pašreizējā teritorijas plānošanas sistēma Latvijā attīstījās pēc valsts neatkarības atgūšanas 1991. gadā, saglabājot atsevišķus elementus no padomju plānošanas prakses un pirmspadomju perioda, kā arī piemērojot ārvalstu pieredzi. Plānošanas jēdziens spēkā esošajā Latvijas likumdošanā

¹ CEAMT glossary of key expressions used in spatial development policies in Europe. Lisbon, CEMAT conference, 26- 27 October, 2006.- 10 p.

tiek pielietots šauri, apskatot tikai teritorijas jeb zemes izmantošanas plānošanu, savukārt, telpiskā plānošana joprojām nav definēta². Biežās izmaiņas teritorijas plānošanas normatīvo aktu bāzē ir negatīvi ietekmējusi efektīvas un kvalitatīvas teritorijas plānošanas sistēmas izveidi, kā rezultātā vēl joprojām valstī nav izstrādāts hierarhiski augstākais teritorijas plānošanas dokumenta-nacionālais plānojums, savukārt tikai laika periodā no 2007. gada līdz 2008. gadam ir akceptēti reģionāla līmeņa plānošanas dokumenti, kas ir saturiski un konceptuāli atšķirīgi un savstarpēji konkurē. Savukārt, rajonu pašvaldības plānojumi nav devuši būtisku piesešumu vietējo pašvaldību teritorijas plānojumu saturam un kvalitātei.

Tieši vietējās pašvaldības teritorijas plānojums ir pats nozīmīgākais plānošanas dokuments, uz kura pamata pieņem lēmumus par konkrēta zemes īpašuma izmantošanu. Vietējā plānošanas līmenī valstī tika izstrādāti un apstiprināti pirmie teritorijas plānojumi.

Pētījuma mērķis ir analizēt Latvijas teritorijas plānošanas sistēmu Eiropas Savienības telpiskās, kopējās lauksaimniecības un lauku attīstības politikas kontekstā un tās lomu lauku teritoriju ilgtspējīgā zemes izmantošanā.

Mērķa sasniegšanai tika definēti galvenie uzdevumi tā sasniegšanai: analizēt nozīmīgākos Eiropas Savienības politikas dokumentus saistībā ar telpisko plānošanu un lauku attīstību, raksturot Latvijas teritorijas plānošanas tiesisko regulējumu un teritorijas plānošanas praktiskos aspektus dažādos plānošanas līmeņos.

Pētījuma objekts- telpiskā plānošana Eiropas Savienības politiku kontekstā.

Pētījuma priekšmets- Eiropas Savienības un Latvijas telpiskās plānošanas politikas dokumenti un tiesiskais regulējums lauku teritoriju ilgtspējīgai attīstībai.

Pielietotās metodes- kontentanalīze, dedukcijas un indukcijas metodes, zinātniskās literatūras teorētiskā analīze, ES un Latvijas normatīvo aktu analīze, salīdzinošā analīze u.c.

Rezultāti un diskusija Results and Discussions

Lauku teritoriju attīstības plānošana Eiropas politiku kontekstā

Planning of the development of rural areas in the context of the European Union policies

Arvien biežāk atsevišķu teritoriju un reģionu konkurētspēja un labklājība ir atkarīga no to iedzīvotāju un uzņēmēju spējām optimāli izmantot teritorijas attīstības resursus un potenciālu, kā arī konkurētspējas priekšrocības. Pasaules ekonomika kļūst arvien globālāka, tomēr konkurētspēja ir atkarīgā arī no tā, kā tiek veidotas saiknes ar citām teritorijām, lai nodrošinātu, ka atsevišķu teritoriju kopīgās priekšrocības tiek izmantotas koordinēti un ilgtspējīgi. Sadarbība ir aspekts, kas izvirzās telpiskās attīstības priekšplānā³.

Telpiskās plānošanas uzdevums ir panākt harmonisku attīstību visās teritorijās un reģionos un nodrošināt, ka iedzīvotāji var optimāli izmantot attiecīgo teritoriju resursus. Savukārt teritoriālā kohēzija ir instruments, ar kura palīdzību, izmantojot teritoriālās daudzveidības priekšrocības, var panākt ilgtspējīgu attīstību visā ES. Tajā pašā laikā Eiropas telpa ar tās kultūras un dabas daudzveidību būs atslēgas faktors Eiropas nākotnes ekonomikas attīstībā (Kunzmann K., 2006)⁴.

Prognozējot lauku teritoriju nākotnes attīstību, ir jāņem vērā lauku apvidu reālā dažādība, kā arī būtiski ir saprast, ka lauki vairs nav tikai lauksaimniecisko un mežsaimniecisko darbību nodrošinoša teritorija, bet tie ir daudzfunkcionāla vide- dzīves vide, atpūtas vide, dabas un kultūras mantojuma vērtību teritorija (Melluma A., 2005). Atkarībā no konkrētu teritoriju specifiskajām iezīmēm, katra no šīm funkcijām var iegūt vadošo nozīmi, vai arī līdzsvaroti kombinēties ar citām funkcijām. Telpiskajai plānošanai lauku teritorijās ir jāņem vērā katras atsevišķās teritorijas specifiskā situācija un attīstības iespējas, jānodrošina dažādo funkciju realizēšanās visefektīvākajā veidā un jāveido atbilstošas telpiskās attīstības koncepcija. Vienlaikus, veicot plānošanas un attīstības aktivitātes

² Telpiskās plānošanas sistēmas attīstības koncepcija. Projekts. RAPLM.- 2008.- 5 lpp.

³ Green Paper on Territorial Cohesion Turning Territorial Diversity into Strength. EC, Brussels, 2008. <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2008:0616:FIN:EN:PDF>, 3 lpp.

⁴ Kunzmann, K. The europeanization of spatial planning. Regional development and spatial planning in an Enlarged European Union. Ashgate, 2006.

lauku teritorijās ir jāņem vērā starptautiskās attīstības tendences un iespējas.

Pēdējo gadu laikā lauku attīstības jautājumi ir kļuvuši par būtisku Kopējas lauksaimniecības politikas reformas daļu. Lauku rajoni aizņem 91 procentus no paplašinātās ES teritorijas, un jaunajā tiesiskajā regulējumā ir norādīts, ka jāpalielina izaugsme un darbavietu skaits lauku rajonos (saskaņā ar Lisabonas stratēģiju) un jāsekmē ilgtspējība (saskaņā ar Gēteborgas ilgtspējības mērķiem). ES dalībvalstu Eiropas Padomē apstiprinātās Kopienas Lauku attīstības stratēģiskajām vadlīnijām 2007. – 2013. gadam balstās uz vienošanos, ka kopēja lauksaimniecības politika tiks reformēta, lai palielinātu lauku attīstības politikas nozīmi, ka arī stiprinātu tās saikni ar citām Eiropas Savienības kompetences jomām (Vaidere I., 2005). Lauku attīstības politikā 2007-2013. gada programmēšanas periodā priekšplānā ir izvirzītas trīs jomas šādiem trīs tematiskajiem virzieniem:

- 1) lauksaimniecības un mežsaimniecības konkurētspējas uzlabošana;
- 2) lauku vides uzlabošana;
- 3) dzīves kvalitāte un lauku ekonomikas dažādošana.

Ceturrtā aktivitāšu grupa ir saistīta ar Leader programmu, kuras mērķis ir izmantot vietējo iniciatīvu lauku attīstībai.

Papildus ES stratēģiskās pamatnostādnes nosaka, kādas dalībvalstīm ir izvēles tiesības, izstrādājot savas valsts stratēģiskos plānus un lauku attīstības programmas. Valstu stratēģiskajos plānos pamatnostādnes tiek iestrādātas tā, lai pielāgotos situācijai valstī, ņemot vērā konkrētās reģionu vajadzības.

Viens no svarīgākajiem ES reģionālās politikas mērķiem ir ekonomisko un sociālo atšķirību izlīdzināšana jeb Kohēzija reģionos. Teritoriālās kohēzijas izšķirošā loma tika uzsvērta Kopienas kohēzijas stratēģijas pamatnostādnes, kuras tika pieņemtas 2006. gadā un kurās teikts, ka "teritoriālās kohēzijas sekmēšanai ir jābūt daļai no centieniem nodrošināt to, ka visai Eiropas teritorijai ir iespēja veikt ieguldījumu izaugsmes un darbavietu stratēģijā"⁵. Arī Kopienas stratēģiskajās pamatnostādnes lauku attīstībai⁶ uzsvērts, ka ES lauku attīstības programmas var sekmēt teritoriālās kohēzijas mērķu īstenošanu. Līdztekus minētajam ir uzsvērta nepieciešamība veicināt sadarbību, dialogu un partnerību starp dažādiem pārvaldības līmeņiem, kā arī starp organizācijām un cilvēkiem, kas dzīvo

attiecinājās teritorijās un ir tieši iesaistīti attīstības procesos.

Teritoriālā dimensija ir Eiropas Savienības struktūrpolitikas pamatelements. Lauksaimniecības kopējā politika un lauku attīstības politika pieder pie Eiropas Savienības politiku grupas ar dominējošu teritoriālo dimensiju. Tas nozīmē, ka gandrīz visiem pasākumiem, kas tiek īstenoti saistībā ar šiem politikas virzieniem ir vietēja rakstura ietekme, kura skar konkrētas teritorijas. Gan lauksaimniecības kopējā politika, gan lauku attīstības politika līdzīgi kā Kohēzijas politika tiek īstenota, veicot ieguldījumus infrastruktūrā vai nodrošinot atbalstu privātām darbībām, kas rada lielu interesi par pieejamību šiem resursiem, kā arī nereti izraisa konfliktus vietējā, reģionālā un nacionālā līmenī gan vertikālā virzienā, kad reģionu attīstības plāni neatbilst augstākā līmeņa plānošanas dokumentiem, gan horizontālā virzienā, kad izveidojas konflikti starp dažādiem sektoriem vienā plānošanas līmenī. Abos gadījumos ir nepieciešama teritoriāla koordinācija, kas tiek attiecināta uz telpisko plānošanu.

Pēdējo divdesmit gadu laikā Eiropas Komisija ir daudz paveikusi, lai veicinātu reģionalizāciju, kā arī integrētu reģionālo plānošanu un pārvaldību. Jo īpaši liela nozīme bija mēģinājumam izstrādāt integrētu telpiskās plānošanas ietvaru visai Eiropas teritorijai, radot Eiropas Telpiskās attīstības perspektīvu (Perspektīva). Svarīgākais notikums šajā procesā bija Eiropas Telpiskās attīstības perspektīvas apstiprināšana 1999. gadā Potsdamā (Nadin V., 2000). Kā Eiropas teritorijas politikas virzieni attiecībā uz lauku teritorijām tika noteiktas daudzveidīgas un produktīvas lauku teritorijas un pilsētu- lauku partnerība.

2007. gada maijā Leipcigā neoficiālā ministru sanāksmē Eiropas Savienības dalībvalstu atbildīgie ministri par telpisko plānošanas pieņemšanu „Eiropas Savienības darba kārtību: ceļā uz konkurētspējīgāku dažādu reģionu Eiropu” (Teritoriālā darba kārtība). Šajā dokumentā termins „telpa” nomainīts ar vārdu „teritorija” (Schoen P., 2005) un svarīgākie jēdzieni tajā ir teritoriālais kapitāls, teritoriālā kohēzija un teritoriālās attīstības koncepcijas. Ar Teritoriālu darba kārtību tika paplašinātas Eiropas telpiskās attīstības plāna politiskās pamatnostādnes un noteiktas sešas telpiskās plānošanas pasākumu prioritātes:

1. Policentriskas attīstības un jauninājumu veicināšana ar pilsētu reģionu un pilsētu tīklu palīdzību;

⁵ Green Paper on Territorial Cohesion Turning Territorial Diversity into Strength. EC, Brussels, 2008. <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2008:0616:FIN:EN:PDF>, 4 lpp.

⁶ Oficiālais Vēstnesis L 55, 25.2.2006., 26. lpp.

2. Jauni teritoriālās partnerības un pārvaldības veidi starp pilsētu un lauku teritorijām;
3. Reģionālās konkurences un jauninājumu grupu veicināšana;
4. Eiropas tīklu stiprināšana un paplašināšana;
5. Eiropas riska pārvaldības veicināšana;
6. Ekoloģisko struktūru un kultūras vērtību kā attīstības pievienotās vērtības stiprināšana⁷.

Dokumentā pilsētu- lauku partnerības stiprināšanai ir uzsvērtas transporta un informācijas komunikāciju tehnoloģiju tīkla nozīme, enerģijas cenu kāpuma ļoti negatīvā ietekme uz lauku teritoriju attīstību, demogrāfisko izmaiņu negatīvā ietekme uz pakalpojumu dzīvotspēju u.c. Dokumentā noteikts, ka lauku teritoriju nozīmīgāks izaicinājums ir urbāno centru kā izaugsmes polu stiprināšana, informācijas un komunikāciju tehnoloģiju un sekundāro transporta tīklu attīstība lauku teritoriju sasniedzamības uzlabošanai, sociālā kapitāla stiprināšana utml.

Teritoriālajā darba kārtībā ir vērojama pāreja uz konkurences veicināšanu pilnvērtīgi izmantojot reģiona potenciālu un konkurētspējas priekšrocības, kas atbilst pārmaiņām reģionālajā politikā. Pēdējos gados reģionālajā politikā ir notikusi pāreja no pārdaloša atbalsta (teritoriālo atšķirību mazināšana un nacionālās kohēzijas uzlabošana) uz reģionālās attīstības mērķiem ekonomiskai izaugsmei (Steineke M. Jon., 2007). Teritoriālajā darba kārtībā tiek pirmo reizi izmantota un skaidrota jaunā Kohēzijas koncepcija, kurā kā viens no definētajiem uzdevumiem ir reģionālās un valsts teritoriālās attīstības politikas koncentrēšana uz reģionālā potenciāla un teritoriālā kapitāla labāku izmantošanu. Līdz ar to ES politikas pasākumi telpiskās plānošanas kontekstā īpaši uzsver katras teritorijas potenciāla identificēšanu un teritoriālā kapitāla pilnvērtīgu izmantošanu izaugsmes veicināšanai.

Teritorijas attīstības plānošanas tiesiskais ietvars Latvijā

Legal framework of spatial planning in Latvia

Latvijas teritorijas plānošanas sistēmas attīstību būtiski ir ietekmējušas nepārtrauktas normatīvo aktu

izmaiņas. 1994.gadā pieņemtie Teritoriālplānošanas noteikumi⁸ noteica pirmo teritorijas plānošanas sistēmu valstī, kā arī valsts un pašvaldību kompetenci un sabiedrības tiesības līdzdarboties teritorijas plānošanas procesā. Taču jau 1998.gadā tika pieņemti jauni Ministru Kabineta noteikumi⁹, kas ievērojami atšķīrās no iepriekšējiem, bet tūlīt pēc tam tika izdots Teritorijas attīstības plānošanas likums, kurā tika apvienota attīstības plānošana un teritorijas plānošana un tika noteikts, ka rajona, republikas pilsētas un pagasta līmenī teritorijas plānojumu izdod kā pašvaldības saistošos noteikumus. Līdz ar to atkal tika izdoti jauni teritorijas plānošanas noteikumi¹⁰, lai savstarpēji saskaņotu normatīvos aktus.

2002. gadā tika pieņemts Teritorijas plānošanas likums, kas ir spēkā arī šobrīd. Gandrīz vienlaicīgi tika apstiprināts arī Reģionālās attīstības likums, kas noteica teritorijas attīstības programmu izstrādes nepieciešamību. Līdz ar to pašvaldības teritorijas attīstības plānošanas dokumentu izstrādi regulē divi likumi, pie kam, kā hierarhiski nozīmīgāks attīstības plānošanas dokuments ir noteikts teritorijas plānojums, saskaņā ar kuru tiek izstrādātas attīstības programmas.

Jāatzīmē, ka 2004.gadā normatīvie akti par vietējās pašvaldības teritorijas plānojuma izstrādi mainījās divas reizes – stājās spēkā noteikumi Nr.34¹¹ un noteikumi Nr.883 „Vietējās pašvaldības teritorijas plānošanas noteikumi”¹², kas bija attiecināmi tikai uz vietējo pašvaldību plānošanas līmeni. 2005.gadā papildus tika pieņemti divi jauni normatīvie akti, kas noteica plānošanas reģionu¹³ un rajonu¹⁴ teritorijas plānojumu izstrādes kārtību.

Pamatojoties uz tiesisko regulējumu, šobrīd Latvijā lēmumus par teritorijas attīstību, tai skaitā par teritorijas plānojumu izstrādi un apstiprināšanu, pieņem četros teritorijas plānošanas līmeņos: nacionālajā, reģionālajā, rajona un vietējā līmenī.

Lai sakārtotu normatīvo aktu bāzi un savstarpēju saskaņotību attīstības plānošanas jomā, tika izstrādāts un akceptēts Attīstības plānošanas sistēmas likums, kas stāsies spēkā no 2009.gada 1.janvāra. Tas paredz nepieciešamību veikt virkni grozījumu pakārtotajos normatīvajos aktos, nosakot, ka netiek izstrādāts

⁷ Teritoriālās darba kārtības un Leipcigas hartas pārskats- ceļā uz Eiropas rīcības programmu telpiskajai attīstībai un teritoriālajai kohēzijai. Brisele, Eiropas parlaments, 2007.- 5 lpp. Skat. <http://www.europarl.europa.eu>

⁸ MK 06.09.1994. noteikumi Nr.194 „Teritoriālplānošanas noteikumi”

⁹ MK 24.02.1998. noteikumi Nr.62 „Noteikumi par teritoriju plānojumiem”

¹⁰ MK 05.12.2000. noteikumi Nr.423 „Par teritorijas plānojumiem”

¹¹ MK 13.01.2004. noteikumi Nr.34 „Vietējās pašvaldības teritorijas plānojuma noteikumi”

¹² MK 19.10.2004. noteikumi Nr.883 „Vietējās pašvaldības teritorijas plānošanas noteikumi”

¹³ MK 05.04.2005. noteikumi Nr.236 „Plānošanas reģiona teritorijas plānošanas noteikumi”

¹⁴ MK 11.10.2005. noteikumi Nr.770 „Rajona pašvaldības teritorijas plānošanas noteikumi”

nacionālais plānojums, tiek likvidēts rajonu pašvaldību plānošanas līmenis u.c.

Saskaņā ar Attīstības plānošanas sistēmas likumu (APSL) valsts līmenī ir jāizstrādā Latvijas ilgtspējīgas attīstības stratēģiju (LIAS) laika periodam līdz 25 gadiem, ietverot telpiskās attīstības perspektīvu un valsts ilgtermiņa stratēģiskās prioritātes un uzdevumus. Kā programmatisku dokumentu, kas jāņem vērā izstrādājot LIAS un Nacionālo attīstības plānu likums noteic ilgtermiņa konceptuālo dokumentu „Latvijas izaugsmes modelis: cilvēks pirmajā vietā”, kurā izvirzīts Latvijas izaugsmes mērķis – cilvēka dzīves kvalitātes paaugstināšana.

Attīstības plānošanas sistēmas likums nosaka arī, ka hierarhiski augstākais ilgtermiņa attīstības plānošanas dokuments valstī ir LIAS, kurā noteiktas valsts ilgtermiņa attīstības prioritātes. Likums nosaka, ka reģionālā un vietējā līmenī ilgtermiņa teritorijas attīstības plānošanas dokumentos nosaka attiecīgās teritorijas attīstības prioritātes un telpiskās attīstības perspektīvu, bet vidējam termiņam tiek izstrādāts prioritāšu īstenošanai nepieciešamo pasākumu kopums - attīstības programma.

Teritorijas plānošanas dokumenti Latvijā lauku teritoriju attīstības kontekstā **Spatial planning documents in Latvia in the context of rural development**

Atbilstoši spēkā esošajam Latvijas tiesiskajam regulējumam hierarhiski augstākais plānošanas dokuments teritorijas plānošanas jomā ir nacionālai plānojums. Nacionālā plānojuma izstrādāšana tika uzsākta 1998. gadā, saskaņā ar Teritorijas attīstības plānošanas likumu, Nacionālā plānojuma koncepciju¹⁵ un noteikumiem par teritorijas plānojumem. Tika paredzēts, ka Nacionālajā plānojumā būs 4 sadaļas: pārskats par valsts teritorijas izmantošanu, nacionālās teritorijas attīstības perspektīva, valsts nozīmes teritorijas, vadlīnijas nacionālajam telpiskajam plānojumam. Jāatzīmē, kā Nacionālā plānojuma izstrāde Latvijā bija neveiksmīga, jo Nacionālais plānojuma netika akceptēts. Tika izstrādāta un apstiprināta nacionālā plānojuma daļa „Pārskats par valsts teritorijas izmantošanu”, kā arī sadarbībā ar pašvaldībām vairāku saistošo daļu projekti un veikta to sabiedriskā apspriešana. Projekti tika izskatīti Nacionālā plānojuma vadības grupā un sagatavoti iesniegšanai MK, taču netika virzīti tālāk apstiprināšanai. Līdz ar to valstij joprojām nav nacionālā plānojuma.

Nacionālā plānojuma uzdevums bija parādīt valsts interešu teritorijas vienotā sistēmā, taču šobrīd vienīgā apstiprinātā nacionālā plānojuma sadaļa ir noteikumi par nacionālas nozīmes lauksaimniecības teritorijām¹⁶, kuriem netika pievienots vietējās pašvaldības plānojuma mērogam atbilstošs grafiskais pielikums, taču tajos ir noteikta procedūra nacionālas nozīmes lauksaimniecības teritoriju noteikšanai, kā arī šī statusa atcelšanai.

Savukārt Attīstības plānošanas sistēmas likums, kas stāsies spēkā 2009.gada 1. janvārī nosaka, ka hierarhiski augstākais valsts plānošanas dokuments ir Latvijas ilgtspējīgas attīstības stratēģija, kas ietver gan valsts ilgtermiņa attīstības stratēģiskās, gan telpiskās struktūras attīstības prioritātes. Darbs pie Latvijas ilgtspējīgas attīstības stratēģijas (LIAS) uzsākās 2007. gadā. LIAS plānošanas horizonts ir līdz 2030.gadam un tās sastāvdaļa ir Telpiskās attīstības perspektīva, kas noteiks valsts attīstības teritoriālās prioritātes, kurā tiks noteiktas valsts interešu telpas/teritorijas un objekti, kas attiecināmi uz teritorijas attīstību. Patlaban ir pieejama LIAS 1.redakcija, kas ļauj izdarīt secinājumus par iespējamo dokumenta struktūru un saturu. LIAS Telpiskās attīstības perspektīvā kā viens no pieciem attīstības virzieniem ir daudzfunkcionālu un produktīvu lauku teritoriju attīstība. Kopējā dokumenta stratēģija iezīmē „kapitālu” pieeju valsts attīstībā- tiek uzsvērta dabas, sociālā, teritoriālā u.c. kapitālu nozīme valsts izaugsmes veicināšanā. Tādējādi Latvijas ilgtspējīgas stratēģijas kodols ir cilvēka, ekonomiskā, sociālā un dabas kapitālu, tai skaitā vietas un telpas, produktivitātes kāpināšana, atbildot uz globālo tendenču izaicinājumiem¹⁷. LIAS pieeja atbilst jaunajam Eiropas Savienības teritoriālās kohēzijas politikas nostādnēm, kas akcentē nepieciešamību veicināt teritoriju konkurētspēju un izaugsmi, apzinot katras teritorijas attīstības potenciālu un veicināt ilgtspējīgu un pilnvērtīgu teritoriālā kapitāla izmantošanu.

Nākotnē svarīgākais vidējtermiņa stratēģiskais dokuments lauku attīstības jomā ir 2006. gada 10. oktobrī Ministru kabinetā akceptētais “Latvijas lauku attīstības valsts stratēģijas plāns 2007. -2013. gadam”, kas ir izstrādāts saskaņā ar Kopienas Lauku attīstības stratēģiskajam vadlīnijām 2007. – 2013.gadam. Tajā ir izvirzīti četri darbības virzieni: lauku cilvēka spēju attīstība, no darba gūto ienākumu vairošana laukos, lauku dabas resursu ilgtspējīga apsaimniekošana, lauku dzīves telpas attīstība. Savukārt, ieguldījumi

¹⁵ MK 27.01.1998. apstiprināta „Latvijas nacionālā plānojuma koncepcija”.

¹⁶ MK 14.02.2006. noteikumi Nr.142 „Noteikumi par nacionālas nozīmes lauksaimniecības teritorijām”.

¹⁷ Latvijas ilgtspējīgas attīstības stratēģijas 1.redakcija. <http://www.latvija2030.lv/page/229>

darbības virzienu ietvaros tiks novirzīti caur četrām asīm jeb saskaņotām pasākumu grupām:

- Lauksaimniecības un mežsaimniecības sektora konkurētspējas veicināšana;
- Vides un lauku ainavas uzlabošana;
- Lauku dzīves kvalitātes un ekonomikas dažādošanas veicināšana;
- LEADER.

Analizējot „Lauku attīstības valsts stratēģijas plāna 2007.-2013.gadam” darbības virzienu atbilstību Kopienas Lauku attīstības stratēģiskajām vadlīnijām 2007.-2013.gadam, Eiropas Savienības Kopējās lauksaimniecības politikas reformas pasākumiem un telpiskās plānošanas pasākumu prioritātēm¹⁸ kopumā ir vērojama augsta Lauku attīstības valsts stratēģijas plāna 2007.-2013.gadam atbilstība Eiropas Savienības lauku attīstības asīm, kas definētas Kopienas Lauku attīstības stratēģiskajām vadlīnijās 2007.-2013.gadam un vidēja sasaiste ar Eiropas Savienības Kopējās lauksaimniecības politikas reformas pasākumiem. Sasaiste ar telpiskās plānošanas politikas dokumentā „Eiropas Savienības darba kārtības: ceļā uz konkurētspējīgāku dažādu reģionu Eiropu” paustajām prioritātēm kopumā ir augsta, īpaši attiecībā uz reģionālās konkurences un jauninājumu grupu veicināšanu un ekoloģisko struktūru un kultūras vērtību kā attīstības pievienotās vērtības stiprināšanu.

Valsts institūciju intereses teritorijas plānošanas procesā tiek realizētas, izsniedzot informāciju un nosacījumus teritorijas plānojuma izstrādei un atzinumus par sagatavotā teritorijas plānojuma projektu. Zemkopības ministrijas kā atbildīgās ministrijas par lauksaimniecības un lauku attīstības politiku intereses šajā procesā realizē reģionālo lauksaimniecības pārvalžu lauku atbalsta dienesti.

Plānošana valsts līmenī joprojām notiek pēc nozaru principa kā rezultātā nozaru attīstības plānošanas dokumenti netiek savstarpēji integrēti un saskaņoti, kā arī nav izstrādāts mehānisms nacionālas nozīmes teritoriju un objektu (nacionālas nozīmes lauksaimniecības zemes, nacionālas nozīmes transporta koridori, u.c.). Iestrādei visos plānošanas līmeņos. Lai nodrošinātu savstarpēji saskaņotu nozaru attīstības plānošanas un teritorijas plānošanas dokumentu izstrādi, nepieciešams izstrādāt un ieviest mehānismu, kas nodrošinātu to savstarpēju saskaņotību kā vertikālā, tā horizontālā līmenī, kas nozīmē zemākā līmeņa plānošanas dokumentu atbilstību augstākā līmeņa plānošanas dokumentiem, kā arī nozaru attīstības plānošanas dokumentu atbilstību teritorijas plānojumam visos plānošanas līmeņos.

Secinājumi un priekšlikumi

Conclusions and proposals

Lauku teritorijas Eiropā ir daudzveidīgas, ko nosaka kultūras un tradīciju, dabas vides atšķirības, kā arī globālas telpiskās attīstības tendences, kas iezīmē ekonomisko aktivitāšu koncentrāciju pilsētās un nosaka atšķirību palielināšanos starp urbānajām un lauku teritorijām.

Tas nosaka nepieciešamību pielietot atšķirīgas telpiskās plānošanas pieejas un koncepcijas blīvi apdzīvotām un lauku teritorijām, atšķirīgu plānošanas metožu un teoriju pielietojumu atšķirīgās teritorijās.

Eiropas Savienības telpiskās plānošanas dokumentos ir uzsvērtā sadarbības nepieciešamība gan horizontālā, gan vertikālā virzienā telpiskās plānošanas politikas pasākumu ieviešanā, kas nozīmē ciešu koordināciju starp dažādām nozarēm telpiskās plānošanas procesā, kā arī dažādu plānošanas līmeņu plānošanas dokumentu savstarpēju atbilstību.

Latvijā teritorijas plānošanas sistēma neatkarības gados ir veidojusies samērā haotiski- pirmo teritorijas plānojumu izstrāde tika uzsākta hierarhiski zemākajā plānošanas līmenī- vietējās pašvaldības, tad rajonu pašvaldību un plānošanas reģionu līmenī, nacionālā līmeņa teritorijas plānošanas dokuments vēl joprojām nav izstrādāts. Tajā pašā laikā atbilstoši normatīvajos aktos noteiktajam zemāka līmeņa teritorijas plānojumiem ir jāatbilst augstāka līmeņa teritorijas plānojumiem. Iztrūkstot vienotai metodikai dažāda līmeņa teritorijas plānojumu izstrādei, veidojas situācija, ka viena līmeņa teritorijas plānojumi ir ļoti atšķirīgi metodiski un saturiski. Ņemot vērā to, ka pēc administratīvi teritoriālās reformas darbam novadu mērogā tiks pielietoti spēkā esošie vietējo pašvaldību teritorijas plānojumi, tas radīs grūtības novadu pašvaldību speciālistiem to ieviešanas kontrolē.

Līdz ar to Reģionālās attīstības un pašvaldību lietu ministrijai (RAPLM) ir nepieciešams sagatavot priekšlikumus grozījumiem teritorijas plānošanas tiesiskā regulējuma bāzē, lai novērstu savstarpējās pretrunas dažādos normatīvajos aktos, kas regulē attīstības plānošanas, t.sk., teritorijas plānojumu izstrādi, pārskatīt normatīvo aktu prasības dažāda plānošanas līmeņa teritorijas plānojumu izstrādei, lai noteiktu telpiskās plānošanas sistēmu Latvijā un tās saistību ar stratēģisko plānošanu, plānojumu hierarhiju, plānošanas pamatprincipus un uzdevumus. Papildus, lai uzlabotu teritorijas plānojumu kvalitāti un sekmētu to saturisko un konceptuālo vienotību, RAPL ir nepieciešams organizēt metodisko norādījumu sagatavošanu teritorijas plānojumu izstrādei.

¹⁸ The Territorial State and Perspective of the European Union: Towards a Stronger European Territorial Cohesion in the Light of the Lisbon and Gothenburg Ambitions. EC, 2007. , p.60.

Būtisks priekšnosacījums ilgtspējīgai dažādu teritoriju, t.sk., lauku teritoriju attīstībai un zemes izmantošanai ir dažādu nozaru interešu integrācija un savstarpēja saskaņošana teritorijas plānojumos, kā arī nozaru politikas un plānošanas dokumentu izstrāde atbilstoši teritorijas plānojumu vadlīnijām. Attīstības plānošanas sistēmas likums nosaka atbildīgās institūcijas dažāda līmeņa attīstības plānošanas dokumentu savstarpējās saskaņošanas uzraudzībai. Būtiskākais uzdevums

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Качество профессиональной подготовки как условие развития среды предпринимательской деятельности Quality of Professionalism as the Precondition for the Development of Business Environment

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Высшая банковская школа

Abstract

Market relation development in Latvian economy increases the activities in the field of education. Education becomes a special product and people shall know how to sell and buy it. Graduates' ability to fit into the labour market is an important indicator of quality of education. Consequently, the education product must meet the labour market requirements. Market research data show that the study programmes do not meet the needs of national economy; a large number of graduates do not work in their specialisation field. Employers, education institutions and students have different visions on the labour market requirements.

Key words: market relations in labour market, demand and supply of education, labour market, quality, risk management.

Введение

В течении последних 20 лет в Европе и в мире произошли резкие изменения, в результате влияния научно технического прогресса и процессов глобализации. Развитие информационных технологий, увеличение удельного веса услуг в структуре внутригосударственного валового дохода, развитие наукоемких отраслей народного хозяйства, выдвигает новые требования к развитию гуманитарных ресурсов.

Наряду с развитием рыночных отношений в экономике увеличиваются активности и в сфере образования. Образование становится особым видом товара, который требует особого подхода к его предложению на рынке этой отрасли. А также, это такой товар, который нужно купить таким образом, чтобы покупатель получил бы наибольшую выгоду и с наибольшим эффектом мог бы его использовать в дальнейшей жизни.

О том, что сфера высшего образования переходит на рыночные отношения, свидетельствует факт, что 15 лет назад - в 1993 году в Латвии было 15 высших учебных заведений, а в 2007 году - 60 (включая колледжи)¹. Предлагается большое количество учебных программ, целесообразность которых и применение далее на трудовом рынке ни всегда эффективна.

Цель исследования – определить качественные критерии трудовой силы и возможности их соблюдения в сфере предпринимательской деятельности

Задачи исследования:

- 1) Определить требования работодателей по отношению к профессиональной подготовленности выпускников – работников
- 2) Идентифицировать факторы, не позволяющие соблюдение требований трудового рынка в профессиональном и высшем образовании Латвии.
- 3) Определить критерии профессиональной подготовки руководящего персонала разных уровней управления.

База исследования:

- Данные количественного и качественного исследования работодателей,
- Данные количественного и качественного исследования работающих,
- Данные анкетирования руководителей высшего и среднего звена.

Методы исследования:

- Квантитативный метод – анкетирование работающих (20025 анкет) и работодателей (2502 предприятий),
- Качественный метод – дискуссии фокусных групп исследования, углубленные интервью.

¹ <http://izm.izm.gov.lv/laws-regulations/2095.html>

1. Соответствие содержания профессионального и высшего образования требованиям рынка труда, как показатель качества подготовки трудовой силы.

Согласно с государственным стратегическим планом развития на 2007-2013 годы², важнейшей задачей является достигнуть соответствие образования изменчивым требованиям трудового рынка, а так же подготовить работающих в соответствии потребностям в будущем. Это, в свою очередь, требует улучшения качества образования (содержание программ, улучшение инфраструктуры, материально технического снабжения, квалификации педагогического и академического персонала), доступности образования, особенно в группах социального риска.

Надо отметить, что на сегодняшний день сотрудничество между профессиональным образованием и трудовым рынком слабое и не оговорено в нормативных документах. В результате в Латвии проведенного исследования трудового рынка (2006- 2007 год) признано, что работодатели не заинтересованы участвовать в подготовке молодых специалистов, не способствуют созданию мест прохождения производственной практики.

Во многих случаях новые учебные программы создаются с целью улучшения финансового состояния учебного заведения или в соответствии с научно исследовательскими направлениями академического персонала. В этом случае в будущем для выпускников может возникнуть проблема с соответствием их компетентности и устройством на работу.

Особенность образования как услуги состоит в том, что результат его зависит от взаимодействия между обучаемым и учебным заведением.

1.1. Понятие качества в образовании

Понятие качества широко применяется в высшем и профессиональном образовании, но в его определении много не ясностей и недоразумений.

Возможности восприятия понятия качества можно группировать по нескольким категориям², важнейшими из которых авторы выдвигают следующие:

А) *качество как превосходство.*

Это традиционный академический подход, цель которого – быть лучшим. Это понятие

качества часто использует академический персонал и создатели политики.

Б) *качество как «ноль ошибок».*

Этот подход определяет использование стандартов и применяется, в основном, при выпуске массовой продукции, где необходимые качества продукта можно указать в точных деталях и их однородность свидетельствует об уровне качества. Выпускники учреждений просвещения не могут рассматриваться как однородные и, по этому, данное понятие качества в сфере образования использоваться не может.

В) *качество как «соответствие цели».*

По литературе, где описываются вопросы качества, можно сделать вывод, что понятие «качество вообще» не существует, качество всегда определяется для конкретной цели. По отношению к высшему и профессиональному образованию это понятие о качестве означает, например, что одна и та же учебная программа является хорошей для подготовки исследователей и научных работников, но не приемлема при обучении профессионалов для практической деятельности, или наоборот. Это понятие качества включает в себе и такую концепцию, как ориентацию на потребности клиента, что особенно важно, когда в образовании все больше проявляются рыночные отношения. Такое применение понятия качества определяет, во первых, установление правильных целей высшего и профессионального образования, и, во вторых, определение правильных критериев качества для достижения этих целей.

Авторы этой работы считают, что подход к качеству как «соответствию цели»

самым прямым образом характеризует значимость высшего и профессионального образования.

Г) *качество как преобразование.*

Этот подход концентрируется непосредственно на студентах: чем лучше школа, тем в большем объеме дает студентам специфические знания, навыки и отношения, которые им дает возможность повысить свою «прибавочную стоимость». Этот подход предполагает, что цели студента по ходу обучения меняются. В этом случае о качестве образования могут свидетельствовать достижения человека в его жизни: удовлетворение жизненными достижениями, оплата труда, возможности карьерного роста ит.

Д) *качество как порог.*

Определение порога качества означает определение норм и критериев, т.е., стандартов. Преимущество этого подхода состоит в том,

² Latvijas nacionālais attīstības plāns 2007.-2013., LR Reģionālās attīstības un pašvaldību lietu ministrija, 2006.

что предусматривает объективность при оценке результатов. Недостаток критерия состоит в том, что стандарты не эластичны, их трудно приспособить к изменчивым обстоятельствам. Стандарты всегда отстают от реальной ситуации. Это значит, что применение концепции порога качества не стимулирует быстрое приспособление к новым возможностям и внедрение новых научных заключений для улучшения качества.

Е) Подход минимальных стандартов

Этот подход используют во многих системах образования Европы. Предусматривается, что определение необходимых знаний, навыков и отношений происходит весьма широко и поверхностно, и все учебные заведения должны обеспечить достижение этих минимальных требований, а так же, устанавливая свои специфические цели, что и является условием качественного образования.

З) качество как совершенствование.

Этот подход предусматривает непрерывность совершенствования процесса образования. При этой системе главное значение уделяется академическому персоналу, которому предоставлена «академическая свобода»³, и он отвечает за качественное преподавание в соответствии новейшими тенденциями конкретной отрасли, таким образом, реализуя высокую эластичность. Недостаток этого подхода состоит в том, что его трудно сделать объективным.

Авторы исследования считают, что в контексте данной работы, т.е., соблюдение требований трудового рынка в профессиональном и высшем образовании как показатель качества, целесообразно использовать понятие качества как «соответствие цели».

1.2. Оценка соответствия требованиям трудового рынка высшего и профессионального образования Латвии.

Для объективной оценки учебных программ профессиональных и высших учебных заведений, в Латвии проведено объемное исследование: „Соответствие учебных программ профессиональных и высших учебных заведений требованиям рынка труда”, главными задачами которого является определить:

- 1) Важнейшие знания, умения и отношения, которыми должен обладать работник для успешного внедрения в трудовом рынке;

- 2) Выяснить оценку выпускников отдельных учебных заведений со стороны работодателей;
- 3) Выявить мероприятия, осуществляемые для сочетания содержания учебных программ с требованиями рынка труда.

Эксперты исследования, анализируя ситуацию, признают, что взаимосвязь между спросом рынка труда и предложением системы образования слабая, а в отдельных случаях не существует вообще. Об этом свидетельствуют данные Государственной службы занятости о том, что на рынке труда востребованы те же профессии, по которым имеется высокая безработица. Также эксперты пришли к выводу, что не существует прогноза рабочей силы и специалистов по отдельным профессиям. Учебным заведениям не доводится информация о спросе трудового рынка.

Для более глубокого изучения этого вопроса были определены 3 целевые группы

- Работодатели
- Работополучатели
- Работники учебных заведений.

В рамках исследования проводились углубленные интервью фокусных групп и получены их мнения о важнейших знаниях, умениях и отношениях, необходимых для трудового рынка (1-ая таблица)

Эти данные показывают некоторое разногласие между работодателями, работополучателями и работниками учебных заведений. Результаты свидетельствуют, что в учебных заведениях не делают соответствующий акцент на развитие всеобщих компетенций. Со стороны работодателей, в свою очередь, важнейшими свойствами работополучателей являются мотивация и желание работать.

В рамках проекта был проведен опрос среди 2025 жителей Латвии в трудоспособном возрасте, которые оценили на рынке труда важнейшие умения по четырех бальной системе.

Данные 2-го изображения свидетельствуют, что большое значение имеют социальные навыки, умение адаптироваться в новой социальной среде, отношение к работе. Значение конкретных профессиональных знаний находится на 3-ем месте из 15 в опросе предлагаемых.

В опросе полученные данные можно использовать при разработке и совершенствовании учебных программ профессионального и высшего образования.

³ www.izm.gov.lv

1-ая таблица

Три главные компетенции, необходимые работодателям⁴

Работодатели	Работополучатели	Учебные заведения
Мотивация работать	Соответствующее образование и реальные навыки	Соответствующее теоретические знания
Умение общения	Трудовой опыт	Реальные ремесленные навыки
Профессионализм	Умение общения	Трудовой опыт

2-ая таблица

Необходимость в умениях в настоящей профессии – с точки зрения работающих 2006 год⁴

Умения	Число наблюдений	Среднее арифметическое (оценка)
Умение общения с разными людьми	9 856	3,51
Аккуратность и точность	9 811	3,48
Владение своей отрасли	9 928	3,48
Уверенность в своих силах	9 806	3,47
Практическое применение знаний	9 920	3,45
Владение государственным языком (латышским)	9 769	3,39
Умение работать в команде	9 877	3,36
Умение планировать и организовать работу	9 848	3,29
Умение приспособится к новым условиям	9 820	3,28
Инициатива, предприимчивость	9 774	3,13
Умение освоить новые навыки	9 790	3,12
Знание русского языка	9 773	3,09
Умение искать и обрабатывать информацию	9 765	2,93
Умение работать на компьютере	9 760	2,40
Знание иностранных языков	9 770	2,31

3-ая таблица.

Причины увольнения с работы⁴

Период окончания учебного заведения	Удельный вес не работающих в профессии %	Главная причина увольнения – не достаточная профессиональная подготовка %
До 1990 года	33,9	9,2
1991 - 1995 годы	35,4	10,4
1996 - 2000 годы	31,6	18,2
2001- 2006 годы	23,2	26,5
Не помнит	31	26,0

⁴ ES darba tirgus pētījums „Profesionālās un augstākās izglītības atbilstība darba tirgus prasībām”, LR Labklājības ministrija, Rīga 2007.

Как один из критериев, характеризующий соответствие учебных программ требованиям трудового рынка, является работа выпускников в своей профессии. Результаты опроса по этому поводу отражены в 3-ей таблице.

Данные таблицы показывают, что в основном, по полученной специальности не работает третья часть опрошенных, но это явление имеет тенденцию уменьшаться – в период 2001- 2006 годов удельный вес не работающих в профессии был – 23,2%.

В свою очередь, удельный вес опрошенных, которые как главную причину увольнения отмечают – не достаточную профессиональную подготовку, по данным периодам увеличивается и 2001- 2006 годах составляет 26,5%. Это может свидетельствовать о несоответствии содержания профессионального и высшего образования требованиям трудового рынка.

Участники дискуссий фокусных групп, в рамках проекта, единомысленно утверждают, что настоящая система образования не способна удовлетворить растущие потребности трудового рынка. Опрошенные предприниматели критически заявляют, что работающие в целом имеют низкий уровень квалификации и профессионализма. Ф так же, отмечен был низкий уровень дисциплины труда, производительности и ответственности. Одновременно отмечено, что сами предприниматели не имеют соответствующего образования, умения руководить персоналом, мотивировать их в достижении необходимых результатов.

Среди опрошенных предпринимателей фигурирует мнение, что более профессиональными, сознательными и честными являются работники старшего поколения.

Данные исследования, так же, выявили, что в профессиях, где имеет место перепроизводство, на трудовом рынке ощущается не недостаток в высококвалифицированных специалистах. Все вышесказанное свидетельствует о серьезных разногласиях между теоретическими знаниями практикой.

2. Качественное обучение руководителей высшего звена, как важное преимущество для развития предпринимательской деятельности

Соблюдение выше упомянутых требований трудового рынка, а даже его прогнозирование, особенно важно при подготовке руководителей высшего уровня.

В настоящей среде бизнеса необходимы умелые, творческие и предприимчивые руководители с ясными целями, убежденные и харизматические лидеры. Руководитель – это личность, которая имеет право принимать решения по деятельности предприятия и, в то же самое время является ответственной за достижение целей предприятия и обеспечение долгосрочного его развития. Особенно это важно для малых и средних предприятий, которые осуществляют важные инновации и значительно влияют на развитие экономики государства.

4-ая таблица

Уровень образования опрошенных работодателей⁵

Уровень образования	%
Начальное образование	2.2
Не законченное среднее	2.7
среднее общее	21.1
не законченное высшее	4.0
среднее профессиональное	22.5
высшее 1-вого уровня	27.7
высшее профессиональное	12.9
магистр	3.1
доктор	0.7

⁵ ES darba tirgus pētījums „Profesionālās un augstākās izglītības atbilstība darba tirgus prasībām”, LR Labklājības ministrija, Rīga 2007.

Значимость этого вопроса определяет фактор, что число предприятия на 1000 жителей в Латвии одно из самых низких по сравнению с другими странами ЕС и 99,3% из них относятся к малым и средним предприятиям.⁶

В рамках исследования трудового рынка из 20025 опрошенных 521 были работодатели. Анкеты показали, что уровень образования их не высок – 43,7% имеют среднее или среднее профессиональное образование, 27,7% высшее образование 1-вого уровня и лишь 16,7% (с магистрами и докторами) имеют полное высшее образование.

Но высокие цели будущего нельзя достичь устаревшими методами. Важно осознать, что под понятием «профессиональная компетенция руководителя» понимают не только умение руководить предприятием, но целеустремленное руководство инновациями, применение новых инструментов управления, как «внутренний аудит» и «управление рисками».

Предыдущий негативный опыт в связи с процессами контроля, а так же нехватка понимания сущности внутреннего контроля вызывал отрицательное отношение и недоразумения. Понятие контроля объясняют по разному:

– Это любая активность руководства, которая направлена на повышение вероятности достижения целей предприятия,

– Это образ, как руководство обеспечивает обратную связь и оборот информации о происходящих процессах.

Для руководства важно получить достоверную и полноценную информацию о процессах и результатах деятельности. Профессиональный анализ полученных данных дает возможность выявить причины и последствия происходящих процессов, выявить тенденции продвижения, приспособиться к изменениям внешней и внутренней среды. Результаты анализа можно применять как для принятия решений, так и для планирования дальнейшей деятельности.

Контроль – это средство обеспечения выполнения плана.

В силу резких перемен внешней и внутренней предпринимательской среды актуальными стали вопросы об управлении рисками. Чтобы обеспечить эффективное управление преобразованиями на предприятиях, необходимо оценить риски и их влияние на внутренний контроль. Управление рисками является одной из важнейших сфер ответственности руководящего персонала. Хотя и многие руководители управление рисками пока еще связывают только с отдельными процессами, но в прогрессивных предприятиях все больше переходят на новую парадигму, т.е., в управлении рисками привлечены руководители всех уровней. В 1-ом изображении

Предыдущий подход (старая парадигма)	Новый подход (новая парадигма)
Фрагментальный подход к процессам управления рисками – структурные подразделения в соответствии со своими функциями сами осуществляют управление рисками	Во всей организации интегрирован процесс управления рисками, руководство и координацию которого осуществляет руководители высшего уровня и каждый работник это воспринимает как часть своей работы.
Не регулярное управление рисками – осуществляется только тогда, когда ответственный руководитель это считает нужным.	Непрерывный процесс управления рисками – проводится постоянно.
Ограниченное управление рисками – внимание уделяют лишь отдельным видам риска (финансовый, производственный и др.)	Всестороннее управление рисками – рассматриваются все виды рисков и их возможное влияние на деятельность организации.

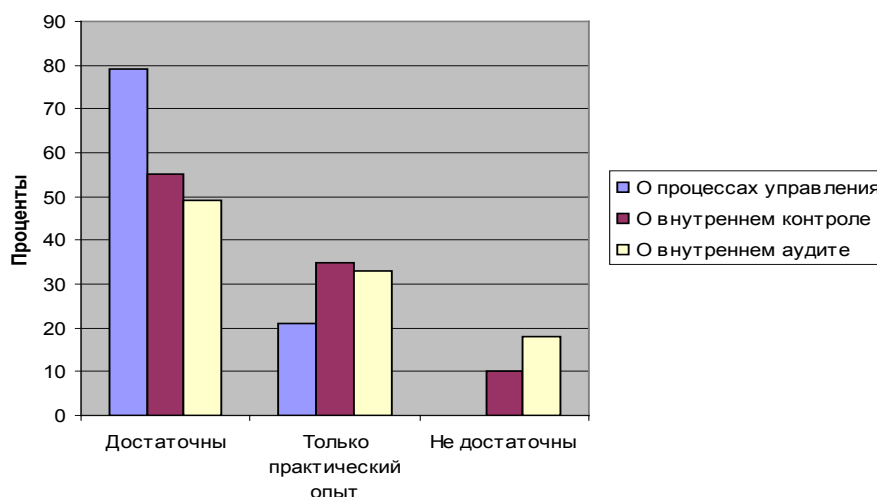
1-ое изображение. Признаки парадигмы управления рисками.⁷

⁶ <http://www.csb.gov.lv/csp/content/?cat=601>

⁷ T.L.Barton, W.G.Shenkir, P.L.Walker., Making enterprise risk management pay off., Financial Times/PRENTICE Hall PTR Pearson Education., 2002., 14 стр.

Оценка для руководителей предприятий необходимых знаний и умений

Нр.	Необходимые знания и умения	Оценка	Степень важности руководителям знаний и умений (%)
1.	О процессах и функциях руководства	Очень важно желательно излишние	91 6 3
2.	О управлении рисками	Очень важно желательно излишние	70 29 1
3.	Об инструменте управления - внутреннем контроле	Очень важно желательно излишние	56 41 3



2-ое изображение Оценка имеющегося уровня знаний и навыков руководителей высшего звена(%)

отражены признаки, характеризующие парадигму управления рисками.

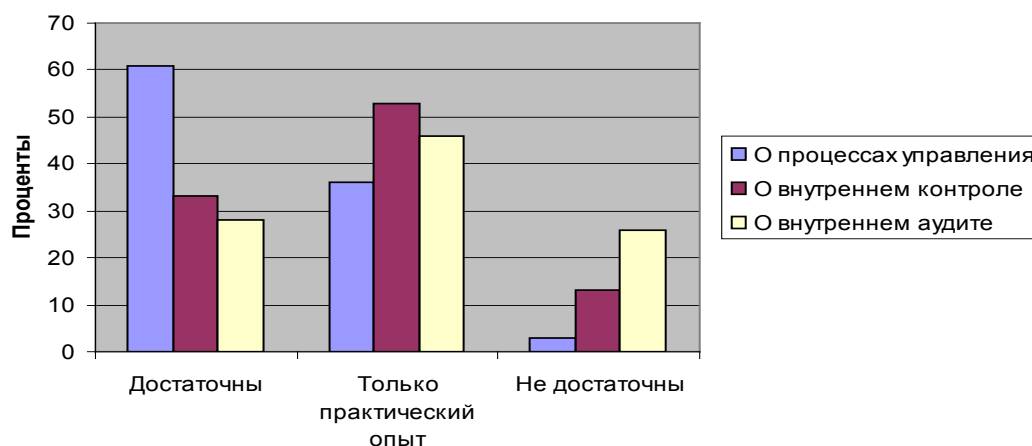
Для осуществления внутреннего контроля и управления рисками необходимы руководители с определенной подготовкой и соответствующим уровнем образования. При проведении исследования в 217 организациях (470 работающих – респондентов) Латвии, применяя методику Мирового Банка⁸, выяснилось, что проблемы проведения эффективного внутреннего контроля и управления рисками, связаны с не достаточным уровнем знаниями руководящего персонала.

В ходе исследования оценивали знания и представления руководящих работников об использовании таких инструментов управления

как внутренний контроль и управление рисками. Полученные результаты свидетельствуют – 97% опрошенных считают, что знания о процессах управления необходимы и только 3% считают их не нужными.(см. 5-ую таблицу)

Анализируя знания руководителей разных уровней о данных вопросах, выяснилось, что опрошенные оценивают знания своих руководителей о процессах руководства достаточными на 79%, а у пятой части руководителей имеется только практический опыт. Соответственно, руководителям среднего звена достаточными знания оценены в 61% случаев, а практический опыт имеется в 36% случаях (см. 2-е и 3-е изобр.). . Менее всего

⁸ <http://www.worldbank.org.lv/>



3-ее изображение Оценка имеющегося уровня знаний и навыков руководителей среднего звена(%).

знаний у всех уровней руководителей отмечено по вопросам внутреннего контроля и управления рисками и по применению этих инструментов в управлении.

Данные 2-го изображения свидетельствуют, что руководители высшего звена знания о процессах управления большинство (около 80%) считают достаточными. 22% имеют только практический опыт, но недостаточными не считает не один опрошенный.

Знания и навыки о внутреннем контроле достаточными считают около половины руководителей, а практический опыт имеют по этому вопросу более 30% опрошенных. Зная о внутреннем аудите опрошенные руководители оценивали на много скромнее.

Данные 3-го свидетельствуют, что руководители среднего звена на большем уровне оценивают свои практические навыки всем показателям исследования.

В целом результаты данного исследования утвердили, что проблемы с внедрением новых инструментов управления связаны с уровнем знаний руководителей. Учитывая, что в Латвии в большинстве высших учебных заведений реализуются учебные программы для разного уровня руководителей, можно прийти к выводу, что обучение не на достаточном уровне проводится в соответствии с требованиями трудового рынка.

Выводы

1) Представления о необходимых компетенциях среди работодателей, работодателей и учебных заведениях значительно отличаются.

- 2) Взаимосвязь между спросом на рынке труда и предложением системы образования слабая, работодатели не заинтересованы участвовать в разработке учебных программ.
- 3) Участие работодателей, в основном, выражается при оценке знаний – экзамены, защита дипломных работ, аккредитация.
- 4) Инициаторами в разработке новых программ являются учебные заведения, которые и ответственны за привлечение работодателей.
- 5) Работодатели не создают соответствующих условия для прохождения практики.
- 6) Около половины опрошенных работодателей не имеют высшего образования.
- 7) Руководящие работники сами высоко оценивают необходимость знаний о менеджменте риска и внутреннем аудите.
- 8) Для развития благоприятной предпринимательской среды большое значение имеет качественная подготовка руководящих работников в соответствии с меняющимися требованиями трудового рынка.

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Main Problems in the Regional System of Latvian Blood Donor Service

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Abstract

The paper studies the structure of the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system after its optimisation that was carried out on the basis of directives of the European Parliament and the European Council. The problems of internal and external environments for the Latvian Blood Donor Service, impacting its performance and development, were identified using the research method of pair-wise comparisons.

According to a survey of experts conducted by the authors, it was ascertained that significant indicators characterising the performance of blood collection departments: the number of blood donations and the number of donors who donated their blood at a particular blood collection department as well as the ability of blood preparation departments to attract blood donors – relatives and friends – were not examined and evaluated during the optimisation of the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system.

A regression analysis revealed that there is a weak linear relationship between the number of donors and the number of blood donations in Latvia. Therefore retaining a constant flow of blood donors in the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system is one of the most significant internal problems, from the point of view of experts as well. The paper emphasises the policy of financing institutions included in the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system, which states that blood collection departments and blood offices are financed in accordance with the priorities set by health care institutions.

Key words: Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system, blood donors, State Blood Donor Centre, blood collection department.

Introduction

Health care plays an important role in developing the regional economy and policy. If the population has a poor health, the economic development of the country is hindered: GDP declines, wages decrease, and people are not able to pay for medical services.

The performance of health care institutions is impacted by the supply of blood for planned and emergency needs. This important task is accomplished in Latvia by the institutions included in the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system, the performance of which is strictly regulated by the Ministry of Health of the Republic of Latvia, and the directives of the European Parliament and the European Council stating that at the national level the European Union member states have to take all the necessary measures to assure safety and transparency of blood from donors to recipients, i.e., blood and blood components have to be collected, tested, processed, preserved, and distributed.

The institutions included in the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system prepare, test, preserve, and distribute blood and blood components – they are: the State Blood Donor Centre (hereinafter in the text the SBDC) with an affiliate in Rēzekne (hereinafter the RBDC) and 10 blood collection

departments established at hospitals (hereinafter BCDs) in the whole Latvia. The Blood Donor Service includes also 50 hospital blood bank (hereinafter HBBs) stationed at hospitals in all Latvian regions.

The development, organisation, and management of the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system is impacted by various significant problems, but so far they have not been sufficiently studied. Many researchers have studied these topics during the recent years. The latest studies are available in publications and papers prepared by Vīmane (2008), Lange (2008), Lāce (2008), Lokmane (2008), Miņina (2007), Daugavvanaga (2005), and other scientists. At Riga Technical University, a PhD. paper by Natālija Bolbate entitled "Efficient, Safe and Sustainable Blood Donor System in Latvia. Studies for Strategic Development and Improvement" was submitted for presentation and defence.

The research **hypothesis** – the development of the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional systems performance is affected by its optimisation and problems caused by its internal and external environments.

The research **aim** is to investigate the change in the structure of the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system and its main development problems.

The following **tasks** have been set forth to achieve the aim:

- 1) to investigate the system and structure of the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system;
- 2) to identify and analyse main problems of internal and external environments for the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system.

Several research **methods** were used to perform the tasks.

The monographic method as well as the methods of analysis and synthesis was widely used for researching problem elements, synthesising interrelationships or formulating relationships. The inductive method was used for establishing general inferences from particular facts or identifying relationships. However, the deductive method was used for logically systemising and theoretically explaining the results of empirical studies. Statistical data analysis was used for data grouping. Regression analysis was used for identifying a relationship *between factorial* parameters and response values. The methods of expert evaluation and pair-wise analysis were used for identifying and analysing the problems for the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system.

Results and discussion

1. The regional system of the Latvian Blood Donor Service

On January 1, 2007, significant organisational changes took place in the performance and structure of the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system. Based on the "Concept for Optimising the Performance and Structure of the Blood Donor Service of the Republic of Latvia in 2006-2010" developed by the SBDC, a new procedure of financing BDC-s at medical institutions was introduced, and their number was reduced from 18 to 10. Along with the restructuring of the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system, the improvement of blood component preparation technologies and the introduction of information technologies took place simultaneously in every department. These measures were implemented on the basis of the European Union documents with the purpose of promoting the development of the Latvian Blood Donor Service.

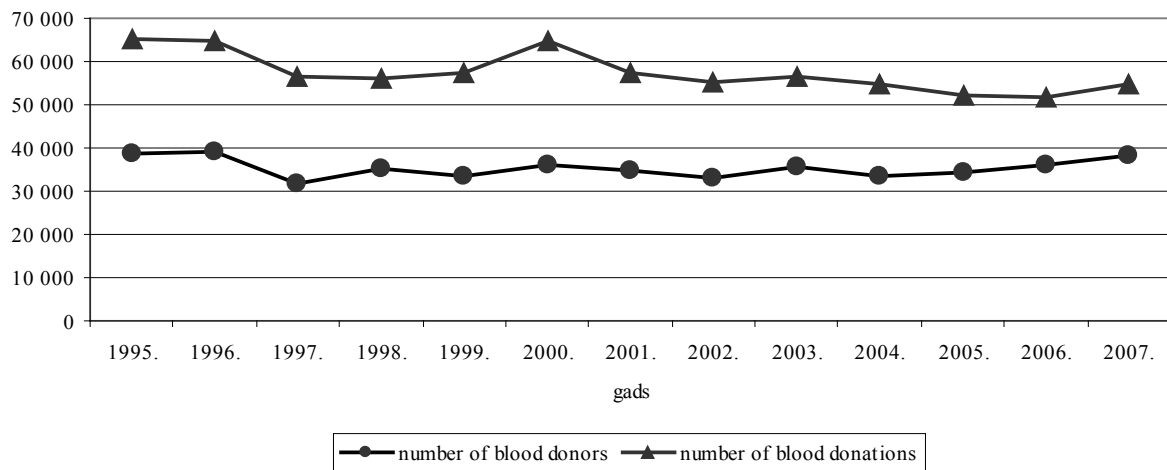
The optimisation of the structure of the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system was carried out being based on the European Parliament and Council Directive 2002/98/EK (January 27, 2003) that sets quality and safety standards for collecting, testing, processing, preserving, and distributing human blood and its components in order to produce and maintain

a high level in public health. The Directive states the following definitions:

- "blood establishment" is a specialised centre or department of a medical institution that is responsible for all the aspects of preparing and testing human blood and its components irrespective of their purpose of use as well as for their processing, preservation, and distribution if they are intended for blood transfusion. It does not perform the functions of blood offices.
- "hospital blood bank" is a department at a hospital that receives blood components from a blood collector (centre or BCD), preserves them, distributes them for blood transfusion operations, is responsible for their circulation, and controls blood transfusion operations at hospitals. Such a department is supposed to be at any medical institution in which blood transfusion operations are possible to be performed.

According to these definitions, the following specialised blood donor centres might be regarded as "blood establishments" in the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system: the SBDC – an institution under direct control of the Ministry of Health, Republic of Latvia, the function of which is to manage and coordinate the performance of the Latvian Blood Donor Service, and the RBDC – a department of the SBDC collecting blood and preparing its components and supplying blood components on request to medical institutions in Latgale region. BDC-s at hospitals can be also regarded as "blood establishments", which are departments of medical institutions collecting blood and preparing its components in an incomplete assortment and supplying them to their medical institutions. BDCs are not always able to provide their medical institutions with a necessary blood component, and they do not prepare some blood components. In such cases, the blood component is requested and received from the SBDC or the RBDC. HBBs are departments of medical institutions assuring the circulation of blood components (blood preservation and delivery for transfusion) in medical institutions and controlling transfusion operations; they can be regarded as "hospital blood banks".

By January 1, 2007 the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system consisted of the SBDC, its affiliate RBDC, and 18 BCDs in the whole Latvia. The SBDC had records on 95000 blood donors and information on 80000 residents having contraindications for blood donation (SBDC, 2007). Exchange of operational information between the SBDC and other blood service institutions is carried out on the phone that does not assure reception of precise information about donors who do not observe intervals between blood donations and residents who have contraindications for blood donation, thus



Source: made by the authors according to SBDC data (1995-2007)

Figure 1. Number of blood donors and blood donations in Latvia for the period of 1995-2007

collecting and testing blood that is later rejected as defective. Due to these reasons, funds have been used inefficiently and it was not possible to have the necessary operational information on stocks of blood components at blood collection institutions. It restricted the functioning of the Latvian Blood Donor Service and medical institutions when providing emergency medical help as well as in critical situations. BCDs having a small stock of blood components not always could supply a necessary blood component. Cooperation with clinicians, which can be provided only by involving HBBs, could be regarded as a disadvantage for the Latvian Blood Donor Service. Complete information on transfusions, transfusion reactions as well as quantities of blood components actually used and disposed of have to be at the disposal of HBBs. There was a lack of feedback. It is and was necessary to receive, compile, and analyse this information, but so far this information is not included in statistical reports and was not entirely available for further analysis.

After the SBDC's the "Concept for Optimising the Performance and Structure of the Blood Donor Service of the Republic of Latvia in 2006-2010" was introduced on January 1, 2007, the following institutions are included in the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system: the SBDC with its affiliate the RBDC, 10 hospital BCDs, and 50 HBBs in all Latvian regions.

With the introduction of the Concept, the above-mentioned threats remained as well as new ones emerged for the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system. The change of the principle of self-supply for centrally managed supply of blood at BCDs could negatively impact any hospital's

interest in keeping a BCD, as well as the problem of lacking financial resources for quality improvement, which includes also education of medical personnel and residents and introduction and maintenance of technologies, was not solved. Yet the flow of information and communications in the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system have to function perfectly, thus providing the right for all Latvian residents to receive quality medical services.

Blood, respectively, blood donors are needed for the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system to perform its functions and produce blood components in required quantities. The number of blood donors and blood donations is one of the key efficiency indicators for the Latvian Blood Donor Service. A potential blood donor is any healthy Latvian resident aged 18-65 whose health and physical indicators comply with the standards regulating the performance of the Latvian Blood Donor Service. However, since the beginning of the 1990s along with socio-economic changes in Latvia, the number of donors is volatile (Figure 1). According to the authors' estimates, 1.9% of the Latvian population were regular blood donors in 2007, whereas to have a stable situation, it is required that additionally around 10000 new donors get actively involved in donors' movement every year (SBDC, 2007).

The main goal for optimising the structure of the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system was to change the principle of self-supply for centrally managed supply of blood at medical institutions having BCDs. Such a conceptual change is possible on the condition that the total number of blood donors in the country per all residents is stable and tends to increase. However, optimising the structure of the

Table 1

Changes in the number of blood donors and blood donations in 2006 as compared to 2001, %

Institutions included in the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system	Changes in the number of blood donors 2006/2001, %	Changes in the number of blood donations 2006/2001, %
P. Stradiņš hospital	18.42	-11.60
AMPS	-1.14	-7.55
7.KS	57.05	35.67
Liepāja	7.64	5.80
Daugavpils	3.35	-2.39
Jelgava	-8.03	-8.87
Ventspils	-31.07	-31.24
Valmiera	-41.95	-6.83
Jēkabpils	-24.66	-38.71
Kuldīga	66.15	65.14
*Madona	0.97	-4.46
*Saldus	42.57	-7.75
*Talsi	-9.65	-25.43
*Tukums	10.88	-19.60
*Cēsis	9.75	8.26
*Ogre	-8.49	-12.08
*Alūksne	-27.59	19.10
*Ludza	-55.86	-34.81
Total in BCDs	4.40	-5.14
SBDC	13.09	-8.19
RBDC	-9.93	-22.79
Total in Latvia	5.97	-8.79

* excluded from BCDs since January 1, 2007

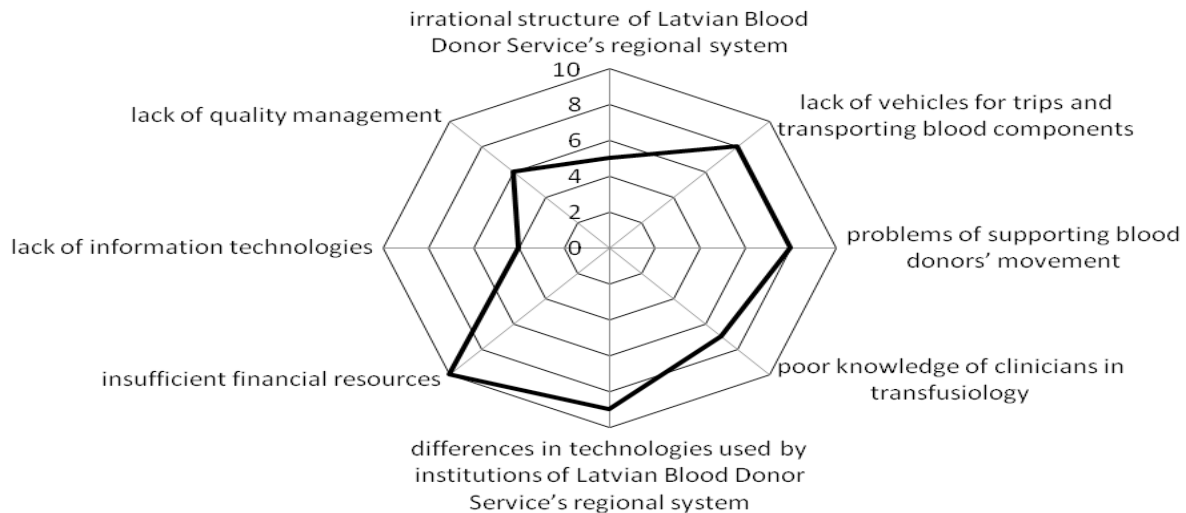
Source: authors' calculations according to SBDC data (2001, 2006)

Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system might not become a reason for a decrease in this indicator. The data in Figure 1 show that the total number of donors in Latvia tends to increase since 2005, at the same time the number of blood donations tends to be volatile.

In the regression analysis on the number of blood donors and blood donations in Latvia from 1995 to 2007, the correlation coefficient $|r| = 0.54$ and the determination coefficient $R^2 = 0.29$, which shows there is a weak linear relationship between factorial parameters. With increase in the number of blood donors, the number of blood donations might not increase. With decrease in the number of blood donors, the number of blood donations might increase because many donors donate their blood irregularly. Therefore one of the most significant internal problems for the

Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system is to attract regular blood donors.

When making a decision on optimising the structure of the Latvian Blood Donor Service and elaborating the SBDC's the "Concept for Optimising the Performance and Structure of the Blood Donor Service of the Republic of Latvia in 2006 - 2010", the following several factors were analysed as a precondition for finding optimal locations of blood service units in the country: population density, locations of medical institutions in the country, availability of information technologies in accordance with the possibilities provided by the National Programme's project "Establishment of a Single Information System for the State Blood Service", and establishment of BCDs in geographically advantageous locations in Latvian regions.



Source: made by the authors using pair-wise analysis

Figure 2. Most significant problems of the internal environment for the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system

The indicator characterising the performance of BCDs – the number of blood donations and donors who donated their blood in a particular BCD (Table 1) – was not analysed as one of the key factors.

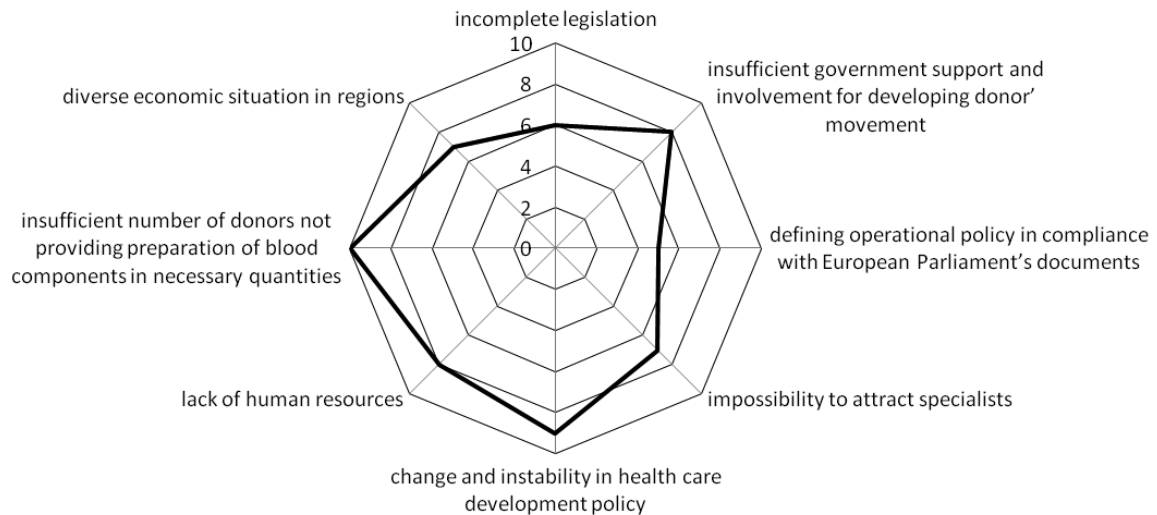
By January 1, 2007, the functioning of BCDs was based on collecting blood and preparing blood components in an incomplete assortment for their medical institutions. It means it was characteristic of these departments to be able to attract blood donors – relatives and friends of the sick. This fact, too, was not taken into account when optimising the structure of the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system. According to the data in Table 1 one can conclude that as a result of optimising the structure of the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system, several equivalent institutions were excluded from preparing blood components: Madona hospital BCD Ltd, Cēsis regional hospital BCD Ltd. Based on the geographic situation, the weakly performing BCDs – Kuldīga hospital BCD Ltd and Jēkabpils regional hospital BCD Ltd – were included in the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system.

2. Problems of internal and external environments for the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system

The problems hindering the performance and development of the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system were identified by using information on the institutions included in the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system and the survey of experts. The most significant problems were identified applying the method of pair-wise comparisons.

A lack of financial resources was identified as the most significant problem of internal environment in the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system, using pair-wise analysis. It can be explained by a poor policy for financing the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system. Presently the SBDC and the RBDC are financed from the central government's budget, and cooperation with BDCs is stipulated in agreements determining blood collection quantities. Material costs for collecting blood at BCDs are covered from the government's budget in accordance with the blood collection plan. Thus the functioning of BCDs is financed from two sources: the SBDC's budget and a medical institution's budget. The medical institution covers expenses related to infrastructure maintenance (premises, equipment etc.), human resources, and other costs (administration of the BCD etc.). Therefore, the institutions included in the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system do not develop united, but in accordance with the priorities set by the medical institution.

The problem of insufficient financial resources, which is due to the lack of a single financing plan for the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system, is followed by other problems subordinated to each other: differences in technologies used by the institutions of the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system, problems of supporting blood donors' movement, lack of vehicles for trips and transporting blood components. It was estimated before optimising the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system that the total cost for its performance improvement ranges between LVL 45-50 thousand



Source: made by the authors using pair-wise analysis

Figure 3. **Most significant problems of the external environment for the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system**

for each BCD (10 BDCs in total: LVL 450-500 thousand) (SBDC, 2006).

The problems of internal environment faced by the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system are closely related to the problems of external environment. Therefore, pair-wise analysis is used for comparing the problems of external environment and shown in Figure 3.

The insufficient number of donors not providing preparation of blood components in necessary quantities was identified as the most significant problem of external environment in the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system. Blood, respectively, blood donors are needed for the Latvian Blood Donor Service to perform its functions successfully, and produce blood components in necessary quantities. A blood donor is an individual having a right to donate his/her blood voluntarily, therefore, the Latvian Blood Donor Service has to pay special attention to motivating the population to donate blood. In 2005 the SBDC in cooperation with the Latvian Association of Blood Donors elaborated the concept "Development of Donors' Movement in Latvia". This concept stated that the SBDC in cooperation with the Latvian Red Cross and the Latvian Association of Blood Donors put forward the public education and involvement in donors' movement and the motivation of potential blood donors as one of the most significant priorities. It means that the SBDC, the Latvian Red Cross and the Latvian Association of Blood Donors promised to provide mutual communication and exchange of information, which is necessary for implementing the conception – attracting blood donors. However, according to expert assessments, this concept has

not justified itself. The Latvian Red Cross engages chaotically in motivating and attracting blood donors, but the Latvian Association of Blood Donors explains its passivity by a lack of human and financial resources. In fact, presently only the SBDC is engaged in motivating blood donors.

Elaborating a single cooperation programme by the Ministry of Health, Republic of Latvia, the institutions of the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system, and non-governmental organisations, the goals of which are to promote and retain donors' movement as well as to share functions among the institutions involved, could be a possible solution of this problem.

Presently the change and instability in health care development policy is an urgent problem of external environment for the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system. It is related to the next problems identified in the study: insufficient government support and involvement for developing donor movement as well as lack of human resources who would like and be able to work in the Latvian Blood Donor Service. These are the issues of national importance that emphasise the need for a particular, long-term development plan for the whole health care industry in Latvia, a part of which is the Latvian Blood Donor Service.

Conclusions, suggestions, and recommendations

1. The optimisation of the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system was carried out by taking into account the geographic situation of

- medical institutions irrespective of the indicators of BCDs performance.
2. The regression analysis revealed a weak linear relationship between the number of donors and that of blood donations in Latvia, which are significant indicators showing the performance of the institutions of the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system. An increase in the number of blood donors has no impact on the number of blood donations in Latvia.
 3. The most significant problems of internal environment in the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system are as follows: insufficient financial resources, differences in technologies used by the institutions of the studied system, problems of supporting blood donors' movement, lack of vehicles for trips and transporting blood components, etc.
 4. The most significant problems of external environment are as follows: insufficient number of donors not providing preparation of blood components in necessary quantities, change and instability in health care development policy, insufficient government support and involvement for developing donor' movement etc.
 5. The development of the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system could be promoted by implementing a single, planned, and purposeful policy in financing this Service.
 6. The performance indicators of the Latvian Blood Donor Service's regional system could be improved by regularly updating, popularising, and implementing the 2005 concept "Development of Donors' Movement in Latvia" elaborated by the SBDC and the Latvian Association of Blood Donors as well as by increasing the role of non-governmental organisations and voluntary activists in shaping the motivation for becoming blood donors.
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Kopsavilkums

Rakstā pētīta Latvijas Asins donoru dienesta reģionālās sistēmas uzbūve pēc dienesta optimizācijas, kas veikta balstoties uz Eiropas Parlamenta un Padomes Direktīvām. Izmantojot pāru metodes analīzi identificētas būtiskākās Latvijas Asins donoru dienesta iekšējās un ārējās vides problēmas, kas ietekmē dienesta darbību un attīstību.

Pēc autoru veiktās ekspertu aptaujas noskaidrots, ka veicot Latvijas Asins donoru dienesta reģionālās sistēmas struktūras optimizāciju, netika apskatīti un izvērtēti būtiski asins sagatavošanas nodaļu darbību raksturojošie lielumi - donoru skaits un asins ziedošanas reižu skaits, kas asinis ziedojuši konkrētajā asins sagatavošanas nodaļā, kā arī asins sagatavošanas nodaļu spēja piesaistīt asins donorus – slimnieku radnieciskus, piederīgus, draugus.

Regresijas analīzē noskaidrots, ka pastāv vāja lineāra sakarība starp asins donoru skaitu un asins ziedošanas reižu skaitu Latvijā. Tāpēc viena no nozīmīgākajām iekšējām problēmām, arī no ekspertu viedokļa, Latvijas Asins donoru dienesta reģionālajā sistēmā ir asins donoru regulāras kustības uzturēšana.

Rakstā aktualizēta Latvijas Asins donoru dienesta reģionālajā sistēmā iekļauto institūciju finansēšanas politika, kas nosaka, ka asins sagatavošanas nodaļas un asins kabineti šobrīd tiek finansēti vadoties pēc ārstniecības iestādes noteiktajām prioritātēm.

Locations of Shopping Centres in the Regions of Latvia

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Abstract

In the world, shopping centres have become an integral part of the lifestyle of postmodern and hurried people, however, people wish to purchase all the needed goods in one spot – in a shopping centre in order to save their time. In Latvia, compared to the other world and European countries, the culture of shopping centres is a relatively new phenomenon. Shopping centres in Latvia, especially in the capital city, gradually become not only the centres for shopping, but also for entertainment and recreation.

The research hypothesis – the location of shopping centres in Latvia depends on the economic development of regions. The research aim is to assess the location of shopping centres in the districts of Latvia. The research showed that a rapid emergence of shopping centres took place in Latvia during 1999-2006 when annually 7 new shopping centres were opened on average, half of which were located in Riga. Therefore in 2007, a large number of shopping centres and large leasable areas for retail commerce were concentrated in the city of Riga, and this market is saturated, while in other districts of Latvia the niche of shopping centres is relatively empty, especially in the North-Eastern border area of Latvia. In Latvia, the largest leasable areas and a large number of shopping centres are located in clusters with a high (in Riga) and medium (in the districts of Riga, Jelgava, Liepāja, and Daugavpils) level of economic development. Only one shopping centre (in the districts of Bauska, Saldus, Kuldīga, and Madona) or not a single one (in the districts of Alūksne, Balvi, Gulbene, Krāslava, Limbaži, Ludza, Preiļi, and Valka) functions in the districts that are included in the cluster of the lowest economic development level in the country. It implies that the location of shopping centres in Latvia depends on the economic development level of a district. There is a potential for opening new shopping centres in the districts of Tukums, Aizkraukle, and Cēsis in the future.

Key words: shopping centre, economic development, cluster.

Introduction

For centuries, town or city plazas have served as places for gatherings of people, cultural events, and also market places where the latter one had only a secondary role. Nowadays, town plazas with their original views and functions have disappeared or just have become historical sites. The functions of town plazas have been taken over by shopping centres that provide nowadays not only shopping services to their customers, but also create a pleasant environment for shopping and entertain customers. Shopping centres have become an integral part of the lifestyle of postmodern and hurried people by thanking customers for their purchases and calling on them to be loyal, however, people wish to purchase all the needed goods in one spot (Paula L., b.g.; Rifkins, 2004).

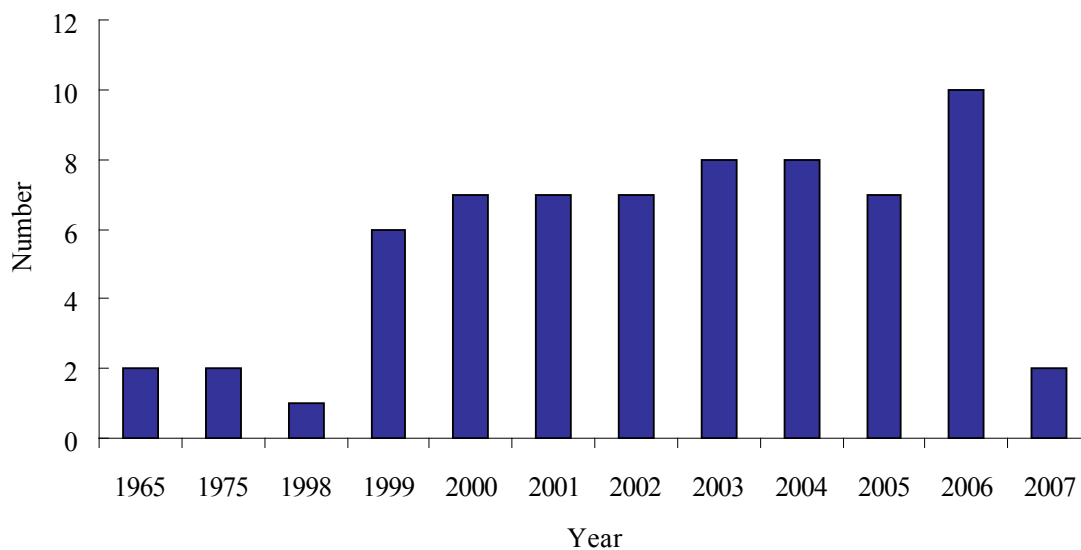
In social sciences, the emergence of shopping centres is associated with the development of consumption culture in the recent century, which was promoted by capitalism. At the initial stage of development, capitalism was mostly oriented towards producing material goods and establishing

infrastructure, but nowadays – mostly towards consumption and entertainment.

Initially, the term consumption had a negative meaning because consumption was associated with looting, spending, and squandering. In the beginning of the 20th century, problems emerged due to successful performance of capitalism – how to get rid of unsold goods. J.Rifkin (2004) believes that a solution to this problem was advertisements which used the best achievements in that period's art and literature in order to associate commercial products with culture, thus fostering consumption.

Elite culture became more accessible to people masses, and consumption also gained another meaning and quantities. Today shopping centres are an ideal place where a buyer and a seller meet each other in a special atmosphere in an environment of artificial culture. This view is also shared by the authors of the present paper.

Supermarkets and shopping centres initially emerged in the USA where they were built in suburban residential areas and along highways (Paula L., b.g.).



Source: made by the authors using a review of Latvia's shopping centres

Figure 1. Number of newly established shopping centres in Latvia in 1965, 1975, and 1998-2007

The authors believe that in Latvia, compared to the other world and European countries, the culture of shopping centres is a relatively new phenomenon irrespective of the fact that in the beginning of the 21st century shopping centres have become an integral part of daily routine for a large part of residents. In Latvia, too, shopping centres, especially in the capital city, gradually transform into places for entertainment or become centres not only for shopping, but also for entertainment and recreation. There are shopping centres almost in every microdistrict of the capital city, and more active their construction takes place also in the regions of Latvia – centres of districts (Quality and Trends of New Shopping Centres - Introduction, b.g.). Locations of shopping centres are not randomly chosen, they are impacted by a number of factors. The paper's authors as well as real estate specialists (Santa Rozenkopfa, Māris Jānis Oga) believe that one of the main factors is the economic development of a territory.

The **hypothesis** is as follows: the location of shopping centres in Latvia depends on the economic development level of a district.

The **research aim** is to assess the location of shopping centres in the districts of Latvia.

The **research tasks** for achieving the aim are to:

- 1) investigate the emergence of shopping centres in Latvia;
- 2) evaluate the economic development of the districts of Latvia;
- 3) compare the location of shopping centres with the results of clustering.

Mostly data of the Central Statistical Bureau and studies on shopping centres in Latvia conducted by the newspaper "Dienas bizness" (Daily Business) and company "Latio" as well as data of the State Treasury and the Employment State Agency were used to achieve the aim, execute the tasks, and prove or reject the hypothesis.

The following research **methods** were used in the paper: monographic, multifactor statistical analysis – cluster analysis, statistical methods, synthesis and analysis.

The research object is shopping centres, the gross leasable area of which is at least 1500 m² due to the international practice – "a shopping centre is a single, specially designed, constructed, and managed real estate with at least 5 separate leasable areas and a gross leasable area of more than 1500 m² where a single leaseholder does not occupy more than 75% of gross leasable area", which were functioning during the research period (Review of Latvian Shopping Centres, b.g.).

Results

1. Emergence of shopping centres in Latvia

The first trade or shopping centres appeared in Latvia in the 1960s (Figure 1).

Figure 1 shows that two shopping centres were opened in 1965: shopping centre "Children's World" in Riga and Rēzekne Supermarket in the town of Rēzekne. The two shopping centres continue their functioning even today. The next two shopping centres started functioning in Latvia only 10 years

later, i.e., in 1975; they were shopping centre “Minska” in Riga and Valmiera Supermarket in the town of Valmiera. The fifth shopping centre started operating only after 13 years in 1998 in Riga. That year could be considered a starting year for building shopping centres during Latvia’s independence as since 1998 new shopping centres have been opened every year, which perform not only the function of service providers, but also that of entertainment. Between 1999 and 2007, annually 7 new shopping centres are opened on average, half of which are located in Riga. The maximum number of new shopping centres was registered in 2006 when 10 shopping centres were opened and 8 of them – in Riga.

In 2007 the total number of shopping centres in Latvia amounted to 67, the gross leasable area of which exceeded 576 900 m² or 0.25 m² per capita (Skreija D., 2008).

In 2007 shopping centres in the regions of Latvia are not evenly located. Most of shopping centres are located in Pierīga region where they are not evenly spread in the whole region, but concentrated in one district – Riga district, mostly in the capital city (39 shopping centres or 98% all Pierīga region shopping centres).

Despite the large number of shopping centres in Pierīga region, the districts of Limbaži and Tukums that are also included in this region have not a single shopping centre, but in Ogre district – there is only one shopping centre.

Shopping centres are also located in the regions of Kurzeme (10 centres) and Zemgale (9). Few shopping

centres are also located in the regions of Latgale (5) and Vidzeme (only 3).

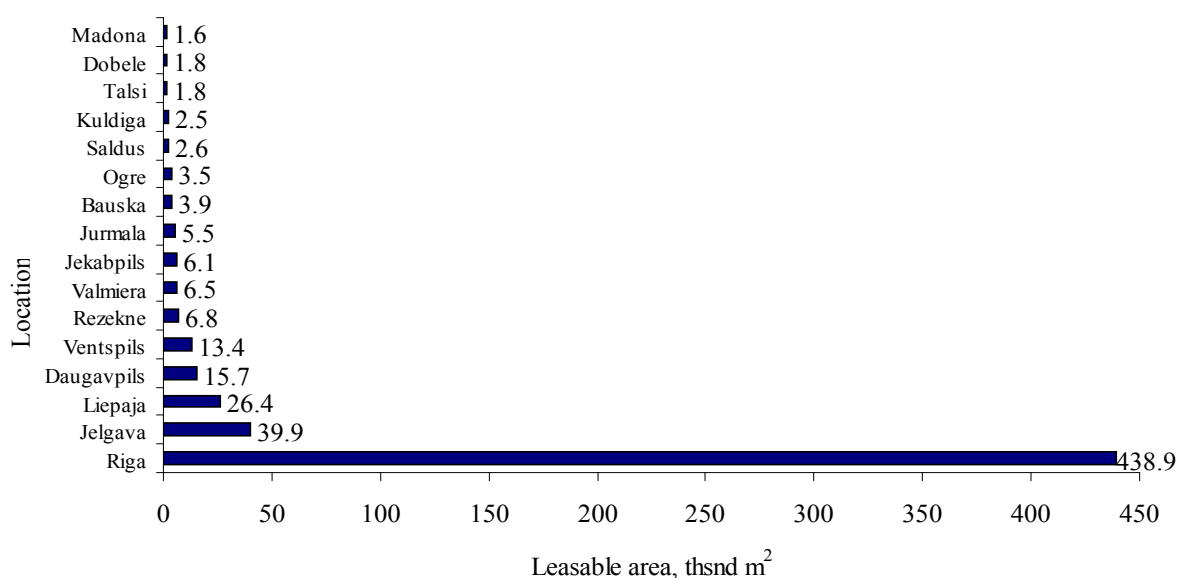
Kurzeme region contains 5 districts – Liepāja, Kuldīga, Saldus, Talsi, and Ventspils – and shopping centres operate in all of them with the largest number in Liepāja (5).

Zemgale region also contains 5 – Aizkraukle, Bauska, Dobeles, Jelgava, and Jēkabpils – from which only the district of Aizkraukle has no shopping centres, while the largest part of Zemgale region’s shopping centres (5) operate in Jelgava city.

Each of the regions of Vidzeme and Latgale has 6 districts, but only two districts in each of these regions have shopping centres: in Valmiera (2) and Madona (1), Daugavpils (3) and Rēzekne (2).

Real estate specialists from the company “Latio” explain the situation in respect of small number of shopping centres in Vidzeme region by a small number of residents in this region and by “the fact it is easier and faster to get to Riga or alternative shopping centres (for instance, it takes less time to get from Valka to Tartu than to Riga), and by a certain protectionism imposed by local government authorities”. “One more explanation – Vidzeme does not have its own regional “city” that attracts merchants and customers. This function ... is delegated to Riga” (Review of Latvian Shopping Centres, b.g.). The authors also agree to this opinion.

Since shopping centres are mostly concentrated in the capital city, the largest floor area for commerce is also concentrated in Riga – 438.9 thousand m² or 76% of the gross leasable area in the country (Figure 2).



Source: M.J.Oga in cooperation with “Latio”, available in the issue of “Dienas bizness” on 10 June (2008)

Figure 2. Leasable areas in the largest towns of Latvia, including their districts, in 2007, thou. m²

Figure 2 demonstratively shows the impressive dominance of Riga over other largest Latvian towns in terms of leasable area for commerce.

In Jelgava with its 5 shopping centres, the gross leasable area was less than 40 thousand m² in 2007, while in Liepāja with the same number of shopping centres as in Jelgava – 27 thousand m². In other largest towns of Latvia, the gross leasable area was less than 20 thousand m².

It is forecasted (Retail Trade in the Baltics, 2008.) that the same proportion between Riga and other district centres of Latvia will remain in the future; whereas shopping centre developers in other neighbouring countries pay more attention to regions. For instance, Lithuanian shopping centre developers are active not only in the capital city, but also in Kaunas, Klaipėda, Šiauliai, and Panevezys. In several of these towns, the market of leasable area for retail commerce has reached a level of saturation before it occurred in Vilnius, for example, Šiauliai (Retail Trade in the Baltics, 2008).

In Estonia, an active shopping centre development takes place in such regional towns as Tartu, Rakvere, Viljandi, and Narva (Retail Trade in the Baltics, 2008).

Irrespective of the fact that the largest part of shopping centres and leasable areas are concentrated in Riga, the most efficient shopping centres (in terms of net monthly turnover per leasable area) in Latvia are small in terms of leasable area, and are located in regional towns of Latvia– Liepāja (“Ostmala”) and

Jelgava (“Vivo centrs”). The small shopping centres in Riga – “Stockmann” and “Barona centrs” – perform efficiently as well (Skreija D., 2008).

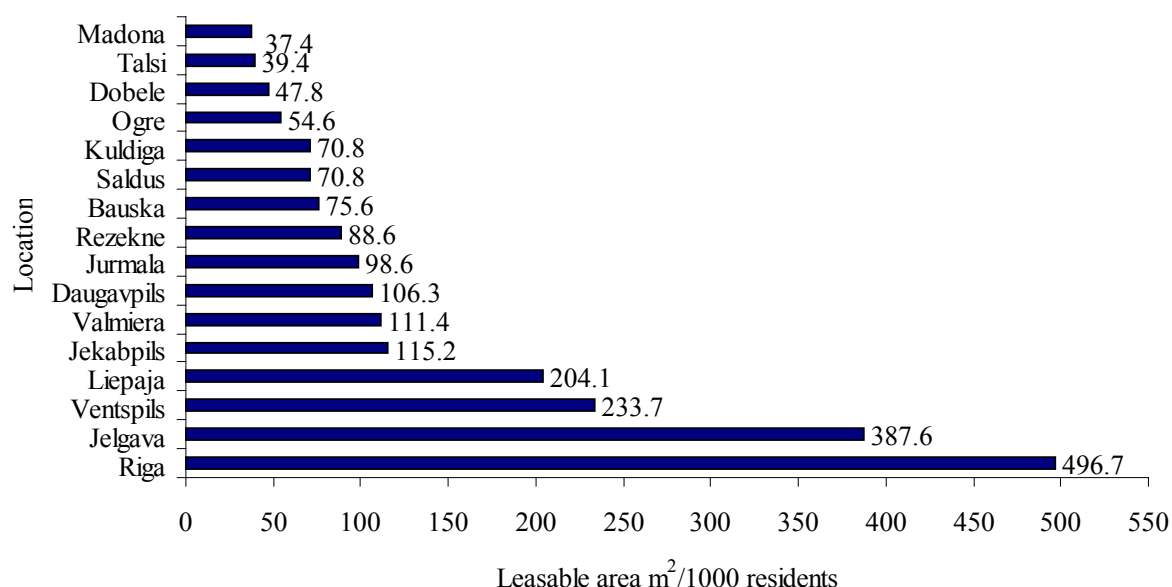
According to estimates for shopping centres’ leasable area per 1000 residents, only in 7 district centres of Latvia it is more than 100 m² per 1 000 residents, i.e., in Riga, Jelgava, Ventspils, Liepāja, Jēkabpils, Valmiera, and Daugavpils (Figure 3).

On average, there were 250 m² of leasable area per 1000 residents in Latvia in 2007. According to this indicator, Latvia is ranked in the 6th position after Norway (627.8 m²), the Netherlands (336.4 m²), Sweden (333.3 m²), Austria (294.2 m²) and Ireland (270.7 m²) if compared with other European countries (Review of Latvian Shopping Centres, b.g.).

2. Economic development of the districts of Latvia in the beginning of 2007

The report Regional Development in Latvia (2007) states that irrespective of the fast economic growth that was observed in Latvia during the recent years, large differences in economic development exist among the regions of Latvia. It could be one of the factors that impacted the uneven location of shopping centres in Latvia.

Cluster analysis was conducted to compare the economic development indicators in the districts of Latvia. For the cluster analysis (based on the report Regional Development in Latvia (2007)), 12 statistical indicators were selected: number of population in



Source: estimates of the newspaper “Dienas bizness”, M.J.Oga in cooperation with “Latio”, Central Statistical Bureau, available in the issue of “Dienas bizness” of June 10, 2008

Figure 3. Leasable areas per 1000 residents in the largest towns of Latvia, including their districts, in 2007, m²

district, population density (individuals per 1 km² of territory), number of economically active statistical units of market sector or number of entrepreneurs and businessmen, gross domestic product (thou. LVL), gross domestic product per capita (LVL), non-financial investments (mln. LVL), non-financial investments per capita (LVL), number of employees at their main job (thou. individuals), tax and non-tax budgetary revenues (mln. LVL), net average monthly wage in private sector (LVL), net average monthly wage in public sector (LVL), and unemployment rates (%).

These statistical indicators were compiled for all 26 districts of Latvia. The city of Riga or the capital city was separately observed from the district of Riga.

Dispersion analysis (ANOVA) which is included in the software package SPSS for Windows, statistical data processing module "Cluster Analysis" showed that all the selected indicators, except for one – unemployment rate, % – are statistically significant for grouping districts in clusters. Their significance does not exceed a value of 0.05. The statistically insignificant indicator was omitted by the authors in the further research.

The distances among clusters, gained in the research, show there is a relationship among clusters. The clusters located closer to each other, under a new classification, could shift to a next level and create new clusters or cluster groups.

When conducting the statistical data analysis, several clustering options were tested: from 2 to 10 clusters. It turned out that the classification of Latvian districts into 6 clusters by economic development levels was the most adequate because the number of Latvia's districts included in clusters was more even under such a classification.

Additionally, a ranging of clusters was conducted along with the results gained from clustering for all the statistically significant indicators in order to find the common development level of each cluster relative to other clusters (Table 1).

The ranging showed that the best situation regarding economic development is in Cluster 1 in which only the capital city of Riga is included. The values of all the statistically significant indicators, during the ranging, were ranked in the first position.

Cluster 2 includes the district of Riga. The values of all the indicators, except for "net average monthly wage in private sector", were ranked in a high second position.

Cluster 3 includes 2 districts – the districts of Jelgava and Ventspils. The statistical indicator "net average monthly wage in private sector" was ranked in a high second position; this cluster outweighs

Riga region if assessed by this indicator. An average value of this statistical indicator is LVL 3 above that of in the district of Riga included in Cluster 2, while the value of the indicator "net average monthly wage in public sector" is ranked in the third position because it is below a respective indicator's value for Cluster 2. The third position is also taken by such indicators as "population density", "non-financial investments", "non-financial investments per capita", and "GDP per capita". The indicator "number of entrepreneurs and businessmen" takes only the fifth position.

Cluster 4 also includes 2 districts – the districts of Daugavpils and Liepāja. This cluster has a large number of residents; therefore, the numbers of entrepreneurs and businessmen as well as employees are also large. The indicators "net average monthly wage in public sector" (6th rank) and "net average monthly wage in private sector" (5th rank) are ones of the lowest among six clusters.

Cluster 5 includes 8 districts of Latvia – the districts of Aizkraukle, Cēsis, Ogre, Rēzekne, Talsi, Tukums, and Valmiera. The average values of the statistical indicators were ranked in the 4th and 5th positions in this cluster, meaning that the economic development level is lower as compared with the previous four clusters.

Cluster 6 includes 13 districts: Alūksne, Balvi, Bauska, Dobeles, Gulbene, Krāslava, Kuldīga, Limbaži, Ludza, Madona, Preiļi, Saldus, and Valka. All the selected statistical indicators characterising economic development levels, except for the indicator "net average monthly wage in public sector", are ranked only in the 6th (lowest) position, meaning that the districts included in this cluster have the lowest economic development level in the country.

Discussion

A significant number of such objects are concentrated in Cluster 1 and Cluster 2 in which the economic development level is the highest in the country.

In these clusters, the number of residents is large, the average wage is the highest in the country, the rates of employment are the highest, and the number of economically active statistical units and other indicators are the highest. These indicators all together comprise a large amount of income that can be spent by residents and, of course, at shopping centres.

The cluster analysis showed that the best situation regarding economic development is in the capital city. The average values of the statistical indicators in other clusters, including Riga region, substantially

Table 1

Average values and ranks of clusters in the cluster analysis of economic development in Latvia in the beginning of 2007

Statistical indicators	Clusters											
	1		2		3		4		5		6	
	Average value	Rank	Average value	Rank	Average value	Rank	Average value	Rank	Average value	Rank	Average value	Rank
Number of population	722 485	1	216 527	2	80 241	4	138 457	3	56 249	5	34 993	6
Population density (inhabitants per 1 km ²)	2353	1	67	2	42	3	38	4	22	5	16	6
Number of entrepreneurs and businessmen	44 445	1	8 369	2	2888	5	5485	3	3 057	4	1963	6
GDP, thou. LVL	6 722 327	1	862 834	2	283600	4	427 604	3	150673	5	72887	6
GDP per capita, LVL	9272	1	3985	2	3828	3	3122	4	2704	5	2058	6
Non-financial investments, mln. lats	2034.9	1	574.4	2	144.6	3	135.2	4	71.6	5	29.9	6
Non-financial investments per capita, LVL	2816.5	1	2652.7	2	2068.7	3	996.7	5	1325.9	4	839.2	6
Employees at the main job, thou. individ.	394.5	1	63.2	2	24.6	4	43.8	3	15.5	5	8.2	6
Tax and non-tax revenues, mln. LVL	279.5	1	81.7	2	24.2	4	29.8	3	14.9	5	7.0	6
Net average monthly wage in private sector, LVL	276	1	226	3	229	2	171	5	184	4	155	6
Net average monthly wage in public sector, LVL	291	1	242	2	217	3	188	6	201	4	192	5
Ranks in total	-	11	-	23	-	38	-	43	-	51	-	65

Source: authors' research using the data of the Central Statistical Bureau and the State Treasury

differed from those of Cluster 1. Respectively, Riga has the largest gross leasable area and that of per 100 residents.

The authors agree to the opinion of the regional manager of EMC M Baltic Ltd in Latvia and Poland, Santa Rozenkopfa, that "Riga, compared with other towns of Latvia, has historically emerged with a too big concentration of residents and capital, as a result of which it was possible to put an equal sign between the state and the capital city for a long time" (Skreija D., 2008). It explains the big concentration of shopping centres in the capital city during the whole period of emergence of shopping centres in Latvia, i.e., since 1965, but especially during 1999-2006.

Despite the fact that the biggest concentration of shopping centres is in the capital city, yet in several economically more developed centres of districts of Latvia, too, there is a considerable number of shopping centres and a leasable area for commerce. In Jelgava and Liepāja, 5 shopping centres operate, but in Daugavpils – 3. According to the data of the cluster analysis, lower economic development levels are observed in these districts as compared with Cluster 1 and Cluster 2.

In Jelgava district, the gross leasable area and that of per 1000 residents rank this district in the 2nd position in Latvia behind Riga region, yet the indicators of this district are substantially different (much lower) from those of Riga district. Liepāja district has even a smaller gross leasable area – 26.4 thousand m² or 204.1 m² per 1000 residents as compared with both Jelgava and Riga districts.

According to the data of the cluster analysis, Jelgava district is included in Cluster 3. In addition to Jelgava district, this cluster includes also Ventspils district that has only two large shopping centres with a gross leasable area of 13.4 thousand m², but this district takes the 3rd position by gross leasable area per 1000 residents behind the districts of Riga and Jelgava.

The districts of Liepāja and Daugavpils, according to the economic development level, are included in Cluster 4. Daugavpils district is ranked in the 4th position by gross leasable area, but by gross leasable area per 1000 residents – only in the 7th position, which can be explained by a large number of residents in the city of Daugavpils. The location of shopping centres in these districts is mostly explained by large numbers of residents, not by wages, as the average wage is one of the lowest in this cluster.

Cluster 5 includes 8 districts, of which only three (Jēkabpils, Valmiera, and Rēzekne) have two shopping centres, while in one district (Ogre district) – only one shopping centre. In these districts, gross

leasable areas are smaller than in the districts included in Clusters 1, 2, 3, and 4, i.e. in economically more developed districts, which are less than 7000 m². But in the districts of Aizkraukle, Cēsis, and Tukums, which are also included in Cluster 5, large shopping centres with a gross leasable area of more than 1500 m² did not exist in 2007. The authors believe that right in these districts – Tukums, Aizkraukle, and Cēsis – a potential exists for building new shopping centres in the future.

Real estate specialists (regional manager of EMC M Baltic Ltd in Latvia and Poland Santa Rozenkopfa) also believes that "a strong competition and a market saturation as well as a decrease in the purchasing power of the population make developers look at other regions of Latvia where the niche of shopping centres is relatively empty" (Skreija D., 2008). Therefore the pace of constructing shopping centres in Riga should decrease in the future, whereas in the regions of Latvia – increase. Despite the fact that the authors believe an increase in the pace of construction in regions will not reduce the impressive dominance of Riga over other regions of Latvia in terms of leasable area for commerce.

In Jēkabpils and Valmiera, despite the low economic development level, the gross leasable areas per 1000 residents were more than 100 m², but in Rēzekne district this indicator is 88.6 m².

Cluster 6 in which the economic development level is the lowest includes 13 districts, while only five of them (Bauska, Dobele, Saldus, Kuldīga, Madona) have large shopping centres (one in each district), the gross leasable area of which is less than 4000 m² in each of them, but the gross leasable area per 1000 residents varies from 75.6 m² in Bauska district to 37.4 m² in Madona district – the areas are not large as compared with the indicators of the districts included in economically developed clusters.

Since the number of residents in the district centres of Alūksne, Balvi, Ludza, Krāslava, Valka, and Limbaži, which are borderland districts of Latvia as well as of Preiļi and Gulbene is small and the purchasing power of these residents is low, in 2007 shopping centres did not operate in these districts included in Cluster 6.

The research results showed that the economic development level and also the geographic position of a district impact the location of shopping centres. Therefore, the hypothesis set forth in the paper is proven.

The authors of the paper believe that the gained results are logical because retail sales at shopping centres are one of the types of entrepreneurship, the primary goal of which is to gain profit. This goal can be achieved in the best and relatively fast

way in regions with a large number of residents as well as a high purchasing power of the target group. A similar opinion was expressed by a regional manager of EMCM Baltic Ltd in Latvia and Poland Santa Rozenkopfa. M.J.Oga, a partner of BASE Consulting and a member of the Baltic Committee for International Council of Shopping Centre ICSC, believes that “where people and jobs are available, a chance to spend the earned money is offered” (Skreija D., 2008).

Conclusions

1. A fast emergence of shopping centres in Latvia took place during 1999-2006 when on average 7 new shopping centres were opened every year, half of which are located in Riga.
2. A large number of shopping centres is concentrated in the city of Riga, and therefore the market of leasable areas for retail commerce is saturated, while in other districts of Latvia the niche of shopping centres is still relatively empty, especially in the North-Eastern borderland of Latvia.
3. The largest leasable areas and a large number of shopping centres are located in clusters with a high (in Riga) and medium (in the districts of Riga, Jelgava, Liepāja, and Daugavpils) level of economic development. In the districts included in the cluster with the lowest economic development level in the country (Cluster 6), only one shopping centre operates (the districts of Bauska, Dobele, Saldus, and Madona) or there are no shopping centres at all (the districts of Alūksne, Balvi, Gulbene, Krāslava, Limbaži, Ludza, Preiļi, and Valka). The economic development level of a district impacts the location of shopping centres.
4. There is a potential for building new shopping centres in the districts of Tukums, Aizkraukle, and Cēsis in the future.

Kopsavilkums

Tirdzniecības centri pasaulē ir kļuvuši par neatņemamu postmodernā un steidzīgā cilvēka dzīves sastāvdaļu, savukārt, cilvēki, lai taupītu laiku, ir gatavi visu nepieciešamo iegādāties vienuviet – tirdzniecības centrā. Latvijā, salīdzinot ar citām pasaules un arī Eiropas valstīm, tirdzniecības centru kultūra ir samērā jauna parādība. Latvijā tirdzniecības centri, it īpaši valsts galvaspilsētā, pamazām kļūst ne tikai par iepirkšanās, bet arī par izklaides un atpūtas centriem.

Pētījuma hipotēze ir tirdzniecības centru izvietojums Latvijā atkarīgs no rajona ekonomiskās attīstības. Pētījuma mērķis ir izvērtēt tirdzniecības centru izvietojumu Latvijas rajonos. Pētījums parādīja, ka strauja tirdzniecības centru attīstība Latvijā notika laika periodā no 1999. līdz 2006. gadam, kad tika atvērti vidēji 7 jauni tirdzniecības centri ik gadu, no kuriem vidēji puse atradās Rīgā. Līdz ar to 2007. gadā Rīgas pilsētā ir koncentrēts liels tirdzniecības centru skaits un iznomājamās tirdzniecības platības un tirgus ir piesātināti, bet

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citos Latvijas rajonos tirdzniecības centru darbības niša ir vēl relatīvi brīva, it īpaši Latvijas ziemeļaustrumu pierobežā. Lielākās tirdzniecības platības un liels tirdzniecības centru skaits Latvijā ir izvietotas klāsteros ar augstu (Rīgā) un vidēju (Rīgas, Jelgavas, Liepājas un Daugavpils rajonos) ekonomisko attīstību. Rajonos, kuri ietilpst klāsterī ar zemāko ekonomisko attīstības līmeni valstī, darbojas tikai viens tirdzniecības centrs (Bauskas, Dobeles, Saldus, Kuldīgas un Madonas rajonos) vai to vispār nav (Alūksnes, Balvu, Gulbenes, Krāslavas, Limbažu, Ludzas, Preiļu, Valkas rajonos). Tātad tirdzniecības centru izvietojums Latvijā ir atkarīgs no rajona ekonomiskās attīstības. Tukuma, Aizkraukles un Cēsu rajonos ir potenciāls jaunu tirdzniecības centru atvēršanai nākotnē.

Atslēgas vārdi: tirdzniecības centrs, ekonomiskā attīstība, klāsteris

Mobile Telecommunications Infrastructure in the Development of Rural Regions of Latvia

Mobilo telekomunikāciju infrastruktūra Latvijas lauku reģionu attīstībā

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Abstract

The author examines the relation between the gross domestic product, which is the indicator characterising the development of rural regions; gross domestic product by regions total, per cent distribution in the country; gross domestic product per capita, the number of mobile telecommunications subscribers, and the density of mobile telecommunications subscribers, - the indicator characterising the mobile telecommunications infrastructure in this article. According to the calculations carried out it can be estimated that GDP total per cent distribution decreases with the increase of GDP per capita, besides the part of rural population using services offered by mobile telecommunications operators increases.

Key words: rural regions, gross domestic product, mobile telecommunications, subscribers.

Introduction

The aim of regional development is to promote and ensure a balanced and sustainable national development by taking into consideration the characteristics and potential of the country as a whole and its separate parts, and by minimising negative differences between these parts. Latvia is characterised by a monocentric distribution of the population – there is one powerful centre, Riga, and a wide and evenly distributed network of towns (Latvian National...,2007.) In reality there are essential differences in living environment and economic activities potential in the regions of Latvia. They result in uneven economic development and economic activity of territories, different level of employment and hence unemployment, personal income, and conditions of social and cultural life. One of the most essential reasons for the uneven economic development of regions is the diversity of distances from markets and transport networks, and the related communications and transport costs (Regional development..., 2002). This reason is resolved by the development of the society in its transition to information society which actively uses in its everyday life the advantages offered by information technologies and determinedly facilitates their development. Information and information systems (facilities which allow quick acquisition, treatment and analysis of information) are becoming the most valuable basic tool for each company (Latvian education..., 2008). Since the basic activity of rural regions of Latvia, namely, the agricultural production, is continually losing its influence in generation of GDP (Zvirgzdiņa R., 2006), this

leads to the conclusion that the number of users of information facilities is increasing.

One of the most remarkable complex indicators characterising the level of economic development of regions is the gross domestic product (GDP) (Development..., 2004). The gross domestic product total percentage distribution in the country (in Latvia) is: 100 per cent, out of Vidzeme region 5.7 per cent, Kurzeme region 9.3 per cent, Zemgale region 6.6 per cent, Latgale region 7.3 per cent, Pierīga region 10.8 per cent and Riga region 60.2 per cent, in the beginning of 2007 (CSB 2008). The object of author's interest is Latvian rural regions, because uneven economic development and economic activity of territories in Riga region and Pierīga region outstand Kurzeme region, Latgale region, Vidzeme region, and Zemgale region. Since GDP per capita is correlated to income per capita, one of the purposes of the research is to examine the indicators that would be correlated to GDP (Frolova L., 2005). Regional development in Latvia is characterised by the gross domestic product (Development..., 2004), and the level of development of telecommunications infrastructure is characterised by the density of telecommunications users. Jipp illustrated that there was strong correlation between teledensity and economic development in a country; higher GDP per capita indicates a need for increased telecommunications infrastructure (Jipp A.1963). With the telecommunications market developing, this theory should be improved by adding to the descriptive factors of these process new indicators: the density of mobile telecommunications users and Internet services. In that way, the most indicative factors to describe the availability of telecommunications

infrastructure are: the number of fixed lines per 100 residents; and number of mobile telecommunications service users per 100 residents; number of Internet users per 100 residents (Binde J., 2007).

It results from the foregoing that the level of access of mobile telecommunications infrastructure mainly is characterised by density of the number of mobile telephone subscribers.

Most indicative factors to describe the infrastructure for mobile communications are:

- 1) mobile penetration: mobile radio users per 100 inhabitants = density of mobile telecommunications = density of mobile subscribers;
- 2) estimated sales of mobile phones;
- 3) platform of technology (Creaner M., 2003; Gao P., Damsgaard J., A., 2007).

In its study the author, on the basis of the above mentioned, assumes the number of mobile telephone subscribers to be the main indicator characterising the access of mobile telecommunications infrastructure.

The advanced **hypothesis** is that the subscribers of mobile telecommunications are more in the regions of Latvia with higher gross domestic product (GDP) per capita.

The **aim** in proving the hypothesis is to study the dynamics of the number of mobile telecommunications subscribers and its relation to GDP.

The **tasks** set for the achievement of the aim are:

- 1) to determine the amount of gross domestic product in rural regions of Latvia;
- 2) to examine the number of subscribers of mobile telecommunications in each rural region of Latvia;
- 3) to examine the link between the level of development in rural regions and the number of mobile telecommunications subscribers in rural regions of Latvia.

The methods used in the course of the study are:

- 1) for theoretical studies – monographic or descriptive method;
- 2) in the selection of methodology – analysis and synthesis;
- 3) for statistical analysis of interconnection – analysis of correlations;
- 4) for process development in short time period: trend.

Sources of information are the following: scientific-economic literature, annual reports of companies, official regional statistics of Latvia: the Central Statistical Bureau of Latvia (CSB), and data from the Statistical Office of the European Union (Eurostat).

In the study both the users of prepayment cards and post payment subscribers are referred to as mobile telephone subscribers.

According to the Cabinet of Ministers regulations of April 28, 2004 “On Statistical Regions of the Republic of Latvia and Administrative Units included

in them” and the Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics (NUTS3) of the European Union, the CSB data are calculated on 6 statistical regions:

- 1) Riga region (Riga city);
- 2) Pierīga region (Jūrmala city, Limbaži district, Ogre district, Riga district, Tukums district);
- 3) Vidzeme region (Alūksne district, Cēsis district, Gulbene district, Madona district, Valka district, Valmiera district);
- 4) Kurzeme region (Liepāja city, Ventspils city, Kuldīga district, Liepāja district, Saldus district, Talsi district, Ventspils district);
- 5) Zemgale region (Jelgava city, Aizkraukle district, Bauska district, Dobeles district, Jelgava district, Jēkabpils district);
- 6) Latgale region (Daugavpils city, Rēzekne city, Balvi district, Daugavpils district, Krāslava district, Ludza district, Preiļi district, Rēzekne district) (CSB, 2008).

The author’s research is done on the rural regions of Latvia; they are Vidzeme region, Kurzeme region, Zemgale region and Latgale region (Development..., 2004). Rural regions do not include Riga region and Pierīga region. The calculations in the research refer only to rural regions.

Results and discussion

The gross domestic product is the aggregate value of finished products and services produced in the territory of the country during one year. It can be calculated by using data on the domestic production, demand (use) and income in actual and reference prices (CSB, 2008). The gross domestic product is used for establishing the level of development of a territory as determining indicator (Paiders J., 2007), but it is not an indicator of population’s standard of living: it only evaluates the contribution of the region (town, city) to the overall national economy (Meņšikovs V., 2007). Population density by Riga region is 2368.4 inhabitants per 1 km² of area; Pierīga region: 36.4 inhabitants per 1 km². Population density by Latvian rural regions is 22.5 inhabitants per 1 km² of area on average. Gross domestic product by Riga region, total, per cent distribution in the country was 57.3%, and gross domestic product by Pierīga region, total, per cent distribution in the country was 11.1% in 2005. In 2005 gross domestic product by rural regions, total, per cent distribution in the country was 31.5% on average (CSB, 2008). For a long time Latvian distribution of population was regarded as an obstacle for regional development; however, it has a significant growth potential that can be developed by implementing the concept of polycentric development. In the existing network of towns in addition to the development of one major centre –

Riga, the development of which is essential to ensure the national competitiveness of the international scale, other centres have to be purposefully developed until they become strong enough to facilitate regional growth (Latvian National., 2007).

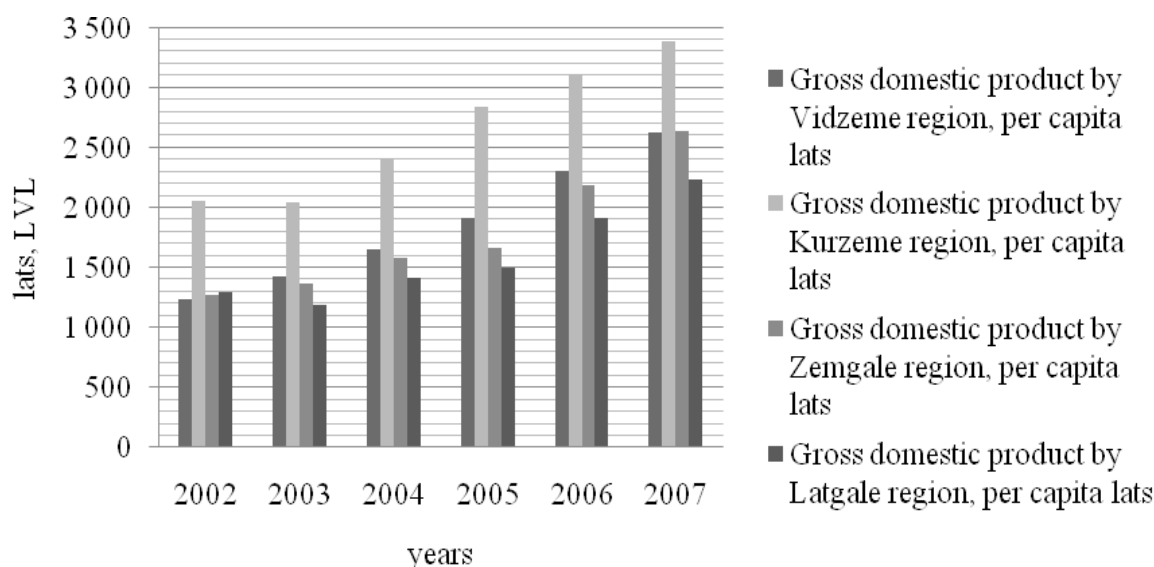
Wireless communications is becoming more attractive for investment than fixed lines because of their lower investment costs, faster implementation, and scalability. Therefore, penetration of wireless (or mobile) has been much faster than the wireline (Al-Atiqi.A., Fallah H., 2002).

According to the data of the Central Statistical Bureau of Latvia, and the author's calculations, in the period from 2002 to the beginning of 2007 according to the amount of the gross domestic product Kurzeme is in the 1st place with the average LVL 825 495 thou., Latgale in the 2nd place with the average LVL 583 873 thou., Zemgale in the 3rd place with the average LVL 515 214 thou., and Vidzeme - in the 4th place with the average LVL 459 267 thou. When evaluating the situation, it can be seen that overall during the period of five years an increase is observed in all the regions, however in Latgale GDP fluctuations in 2002 were observed: GDP decrease in 2002, while showing an increase in the next years.

According to the figure, the largest gross domestic product per capita from 2002 to the beginning of 2007 in the rural regions of Latvia was observed in Kurzeme region: it had increased from LVL 2 061 in 2002 to LVL 3 390 in the beginning of 2007. It can be explained by the contribution of Ventspils city. Although the proportion of the contribution of

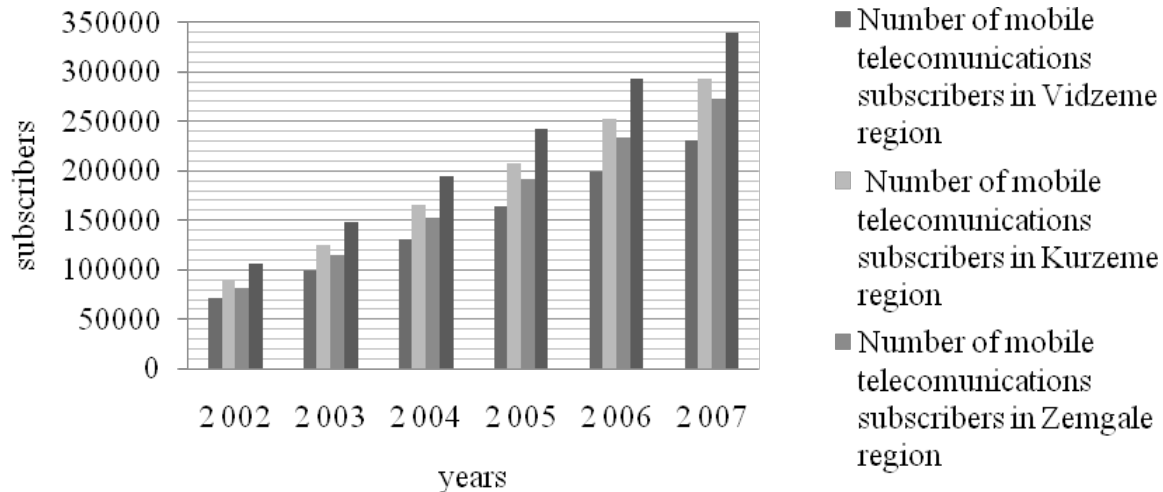
Ventspils to the total GDP of the country decreases each year, it still exceeds remarkably the national average (Regional Development., 2004). The lowest gross domestic product per capita in 2002 was in Vidzeme region, i.e., LVL 1 232, and in the beginning of 2007 in Latgale region, i.e., LVL 2 236. During the period from 2002 to the beginning of 2007 differences between rural regions decreased. GDP per capita in Kurzeme region in the beginning of 2002 exceeded that of Latgale region 1.6 times, but in the beginning of 2007 – 1.5 times.

The largest number of mobile telecommunications subscribers is seen in Latgale region, although the gross domestic product in the region on average is the lowest in Latvia; the author explains it by the majority of prepayment subscribers. When carrying out the correlation analysis, it was found that largely there is a weak positive correlation: with the GDP per capita increasing, also the number of subscribers increases slightly. So it can be assumed only that one of the reasons for the number of subscribers growing is the gross domestic product. The data of 2002 regarding the number of subscribers and the gross domestic product are intercorrelative resulting in the correlation coefficient $r=1$. It means that in 2002, with the GDP per capita growing, also the number of subscribers increased, and there was a functional positive linear relation between these indicators. The other correlation coefficients are the following: in 2003: $r=0.371052623$; in 2004: $r=0.41112931$; in 2005: $r=0.277114344$; in 2006: $r=0.407529843$, and in 2007: $r=0.494059567$.



Source: calculations by the author using the data of the Central Statistical Bureau of Latvia (CSB, 2008)

Figure 1. Dynamics of gross domestic product per capita in rural regions of Latvia from 2002 to the beginning of 2007, LVL



Source: calculations by the author using annual reports of GSM mobile operators and data bases of the CSB of Latvia and Eurostat (LMT 2005; LMT 2006; LMT 2007; Bite 2005, Bite 2006, Tele2 2007, CSB 2008, Eurostat 2008)

Figure 2. Number of mobile telecommunications subscribers in rural regions of Latvia from 2002 to the beginning of 2007

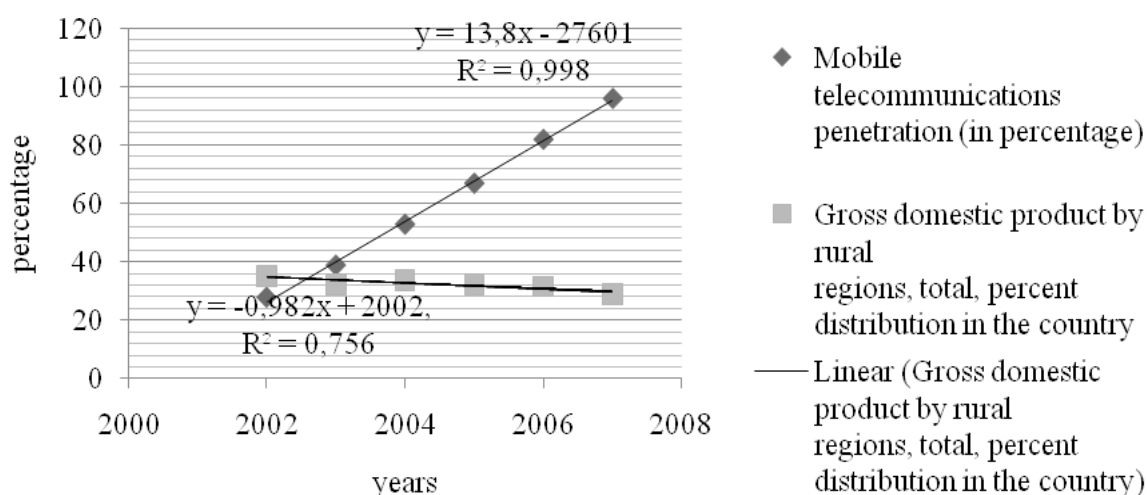
Using the data regarding the number of inhabitants in rural regions of Latvia, the significance of the correlation coefficient between the number of inhabitants and the number of subscribers can be evaluated as $\alpha=0.025$, the correlation coefficient $r=1$ and $n=4$. Since $t=0 < t_{2\alpha; v} = t_{0.05; 2} = 4.302653$, then, with the significance degree $\alpha=0.025$ or probability $P=1-\alpha=0.975$, it can be assumed that there is a significant functional positive linear link between the number of inhabitants and the number of subscribers in rural regions.

According to the author's calculations, mobile radio penetration per 100 inhabitants by rural regions equals to 28 per cent in the beginning of 2002, 39 per cent in 2003, 53 per cent in 2004, 67 per cent in 2005, 82 per cent in the beginning of 2006, and 96 per cent rural region inhabitants was mobile telecommunication users in the beginning of 2007. So, the mobile telecommunications penetration in rural regions of Latvia has increased 3.4 times during the period from 2002 to the beginning of 2007. (LMT 2005; LMT 2006; LMT 2007; Bite 2005, Bite 2006, Tele2 2007, CSB 2008, Eurostat 2008).

The equation in the figure shows the tendencies of changes in mobile telecommunications penetration as a percentage in the period of time from 2002 to the beginning of 2007. The determinant coefficient of the given connection is 0.998, which indicates a close linear relation. The second equation shows the gross domestic product total percentage distribution in the country recession tendencies in the period of time from 2002 to the beginning of 2007. The determinant coefficient of the given ratio is 0.753, which indicates

a medium close linear relation. When comparing the mobile telecommunications penetration and the gross domestic product total percentage distribution in the country, anent on the rural regions of Latvia, it is concluded that the correlation coefficient is: "-0.86583". It indicates a close negative linear relation: with the rural gross domestic product total percentage distribution in the country decreases with the increase of the part of rural population using services offered by mobile telecommunications operators. Using the data regarding the gross domestic product total percentage distribution in the country, the significance of the correlation coefficient between the GDP total percentage distribution in the country and the mobile telecommunications penetration can be evaluated as $\alpha=0.025$, the correlation coefficient $r=-0.86583$ and $n=6$. Since $t=-3.46332 < t_{2\alpha; v} = t_{0.05; 4} = -2.776445$, then, with the significance degree $\alpha=0.025$ or probability $P=1-\alpha=0.975$, it can be assumed that there is a negative linear link between the GDP total percentage distribution in the country and the density of number of subscribers in rural regions. So fact, that the GDP total percentage distribution in the country decreases in rural regions has no influence on the increase of subscribers.

The equation about changes in the number of subscribers as a percentage shows the tendencies in the period of time from 2002 to the beginning of 2007. The determinant coefficient of the given connection is 0.952, which indicates a close linear relation. The second equation shows the gross domestic product total percentage in the country recession tendencies in the period of time from 2002 to the beginning of 2007. The determinant coefficient of the given ratio



Source: calculations by the author using the data of the CSB of Latvia, annual reports of GSM mobile operators and Eurostat data base (LMT 2005; LMT 2006; LMT 2007; Bite 2005, Bite 2006, Tele2 2007, CSB 2008, Eurostat 2008)

Figure 3. **Tendency of recession from the number of subscribers and the GDP total, percent distribution in the country, in rural regions from 2002 to the beginning of 2007**

is 0.778, which indicates a medium close linear relation. When comparing the number of subscribers total percentage distribution in the country and the gross domestic product total percentage distribution in the country as a percentage in rural regions of Latvia, it is concluded that the correlation coefficient is 0.829767. It indicates a close linear relation: the part of Latvia population using services offered by mobile telecommunications operators increases with the increase of the rural GDP total percentage distributions in the country as a percentage in rural regions of Latvia.

Conclusions

1. The number of subscribers in rural regions increases with every year. The largest number of mobile telephone subscribers, during the period from 2002 to the beginning of 2007 on average was in Latgale region (4th place by the GDP per capita); Kurzeme was the 2nd (1st place by the GDP per capita); Zemgale was the 3rd (the 3rd also by the GDP per capita), and the least number of subscribers was in Vidzeme (2nd place by the GDP per capita).
2. When carrying out the correlation analysis, it was found that largely there is a weak positive correlation: the number of subscribers slightly increases with the increase of GDP per capita. So it can be assumed only that the gross domestic product is one of the reasons for growing of the number of subscribers.

3. There is a significant linear relation between the number of inhabitants in rural regions and the number of subscribers in rural regions.
4. The mobile telecommunications penetration in rural regions of Latvia has increased 3.4 times during the period from 2002 to the beginning of 2007.
5. The advanced hypothesis that the subscribers of mobile telecommunications are more in rural regions of Latvia where the gross domestic product per capita is higher has not proved right, as the largest number of mobile telecommunications subscribers is in Latgale region, but the highest gross domestic product is in Kurzeme region. When comparing the mobile telecommunications penetration and the gross domestic product total percentage distribution in the country, in rural regions of Latvia, it is concluded that there is a close negative linear relation: the part of rural population using services offered by mobile telecommunications operators increases with the decrease of rural GDP per capita. So fact, that the GDP total percentage distribution in the country decreases in rural regions has no influence on the increase of subscribers.
6. When comparing the number of subscribers total percentage distribution in the country and the gross domestic product total percentage distribution in the country as a percentage in rural regions of Latvia, it is concluded that there is a close linear relation: with the rural GDP total percentage distributions in the country as a

percentage in rural regions of Latvia rising, also that part of Latvia population increases which use services offered by mobile telecommunications operators.

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Kopsavilkums

Mobilo telekomunikāciju infrastruktūra Latvijas lauku reģionu attīstībā

Vienu no reģionu nevienmērīgās ekonomiskās attīstības cēloņiem: dažādo attālumu no tirgiem un transporta maģistrālēm, atrisina informācijas tehnoloģiju sniegtās priekšrocības. Viens no nozīmīgākajiem kompleksajiem rādītājiem, kas raksturo reģionu ekonomiskās attīstības līmeni, ir iekšzemes kopprodukts (IKP), bet tas nav iedzīvotāju dzīves līmeņa rādītājs, - šis rādītājs novērtē tikai reģiona ieguldījumu kopējā valsts ekonomikā. Mobilo telekomunikāciju infrastruktūras pieejamības līmeni, galvenokārt, raksturo mobilo telekomunikāciju lietotāju blīvums. Raksta mērķis ir izpētīt mobilo telekomunikāciju abonētu skaita dinamiku un saistību ar iekšzemes kopproduktu (IKP). Rakstā izmantoti dati par laika periodu no 2002. gada līdz 2007. gada sākumam. Noteikts iekšzemes kopprodukta lielums tūkst. Ls, un IKP uz 1 iedzīvotāju katrā Latvijas lauku reģionā. Kā Latvijas lauku reģioni ir definēti Kurzemes, Vidzemes, Zemgales un Latgales statistiskie reģioni. Galvenais secinājums ir, ka tikai viens no abonētu skaita palielināšanās iemesliem ir iekšzemes kopprodukts. Izvirzītā hipotēze, ka Latvijas lauku reģionos, kuros ir augstāks iekšzemes kopprodukts, arī mobilo telekomunikāciju lietotāji ir vairāk, nav attaisnojusies, jo lielākais mobilo telekomunikāciju abonētu skaits ir Latgales reģionā, bet lielākais iekšzemes kopprodukts ir Kurzemes reģionā.

Tools of Ecological Policy in Different Countries Ekoloģiskās politikas instrumenti dažādās valstīs

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Abstract

The present research is carried out within the framework of the international projects of the Russian Society for ecological economics. The urgency of a problem is caused by modern politisation of the environment preservation problems, necessity of search for the general approaches and methods of the ecological safety, effective problems decision development at national and international levels to achieve the purposes of sustainable development. The paper provides the analysis of an ecological policy tools in Latvia and Russia. The evolution of ecological imperatives in the countries of various social and economic types is shown. A line of the general aspects essentially influencing ability of the states to answer ecological calls is allocated. The paper proves the necessity of introduction of new ecological and economic mechanisms regulation at the state and international levels.

The carried out analysis is interesting as the tools applied in Russia and Latvia tools, on the one hand, were originally formed on uniform political-economic approaches and had the general methods of ecological regulation, and on the other hand reflected the modern ecological policy caused not only to solve environmental problems, but also political, historical, cultural, etc. factors.

Key words: sustainable development, environmental, ecological policy tools, international agreements.

Introduction

Despite constant amplification of attention to the environment problems all over the world since the second half of the 20th century, the seriousness of an ecological situation has not decreased (Гыцев А.А., 2004). Specificity of environmental problems lies in the fact that they cannot be solved in the frameworks of a separate country. All the countries, super states and the countries with small territory, rich and poor countries, with huge environmental resource potential or absolutely not having natural resources, face the questions of environmental preservation and solution, proceeding from an available potential, considering the world experience and international requirements.

The aim of this article is to explore and analyse ecological policy tools in the countries of various social and economic types - in Russia and Latvia.

The main tasks are: to allocate some of the general aspects which essentially influence an ability of the states to answer ecological calls; 2) to give reasons for the necessity of introduction of new ecological

and economic mechanisms regulation on the state and international levels.

Generally accepted qualitative and quantitative economic research methods have been applied in the elaboration of this study. In general, these are analysis and synthesis based methods for studying individual problem elements and process components in order to synthesise the correlations or to establish the underlying interactions. Also the scientific induction methods have been applied to develop general conclusions and establish the relationship between individual facts.

From the point of view of the economic theory of environmental contamination are external costs¹. On conditions of the market economy focused on the profit maximisation and minimisation of all expenses including the ecological costs too, questions of the externalities internalisation can be resolved by measures of public pressure; however the basic role nevertheless is allocated to the state regulation. Thus there are some questions, demanding the all-round analysis both at a level

¹ Externalities or "external effects" mean a situation connected with realisation of utility by the consumer (achievement have arrived the manufacturer) directly, i.e.s without a market mechanism, depends on action which is supervised by other individual (the third in relation to the manufacturer and the consumer). Internalisation of externalise is a policy, when corresponding external costs are imposed on the originator of negative external effects. The major principle of ecological policy is based on "pollutant pays" principle.

of the separate states, and of the world community as a whole.

From the point of view of the government of any country the main problem of a state policy development is the increase of well-being of citizens based on the economic growth. The size of gross domestic product (GDP) and a parameter of economic growth, i.e., GDP percentage increase in comparison with the previous year, usually take the first places among macroeconomic characteristics in comparison of economic systems of the various countries and an estimation of their development.

However, both gross domestic product, and a speed of economic growth as unconditional parameters of a national economy condition and changes cannot be true in the last instance as they do not reflect in a sufficient measure a standard of well-being and qualities of life, neither an exhaustion of natural resources, nor deterioration of an environment condition. Analysing the economic systems development it is very important to list all ecological factors, which directly depend on natural resources and ecological functions of natural systems, an educational level of the population and other expenses of human and natural capital. Incomplete registration of these ecological factors is short-sighted and precipitate. Experimental calculations have shown that in Russia, depending on variants of nature protection activity strategy, gross domestic product decreases by 3-15% only owing to environmental contamination (Гурман В.И. и др., 1996). Thus the expenses for preservation of the environment are much lower than 1% of gross domestic product (Рюмина Е.В., 1991; под ред. Глазыриной И.П., Потравного И.М., 2005). The purpose of the actual for Russia problem of doubling the gross domestic product is to improve a standard of living of the population. But within the certain context it is not possible to consider only growth of gross domestic product without its distribution and the account compensatory expenses for compensation of damage from environmental pollution. Results of that for the criterion of economic growth, and improvement of well-being of the population, and the growth of gross domestic product are accepted, many less developed countries, including Russia and Latvia test these factors now.

The feature of environmental problems also means that the majority of them for example, acid rain, water pollution, depletion of an ozone layer, loss of a bio-variety etc. are laid beyond the scope of any sovereign country, Thus, there is a discrepancy in

scales of the political organisations having authority and legitimacy, and ecological indignations with which it is necessary for them to deal. Existing international ecological contracts and agreements are discussed, started and will be put into practice at a level of the sovereign countries. So, they build up a basis for global management of questions of the environment preservation, create certain bureaus, put the strategic purposes with different level of achievement in the countries of various social and economic types. Analysing the tools of an ecological policy it is important to take into account that these tools reflect features of national model of management and regulations used in every country, specificity of an ecological situation and a degree of one or another problems priority.

In 1983, the United Nations (UN) appointed an independent commission, the World Commission for Environment and Development, which is more popularly known as the Brundtland Commission². The aim of the commission was to investigate how the UN handled environmental questions, and the status quo of the environment in the world. The result came three years later as the report "Our Common Future", more popularly known as "the Brundtland Report"³ (WCED, 1987). The understanding of an event and necessity of the new reference points development based on the concept of sustainable development, has found reflection in the report. Its contents tell us about global climate changes, depletion of the ozone layer, spreading of hazardous chemical species, acid rain, and devastation of the tropical forests, and overexploitation of land (Latvian Association for Environmental Management, 2007). Later in June 1989, the meeting on a high level of the countries of the "Big seven" has called for the prompt acceptance all over the world the strategy basing the concept of sustainable development which assumes parity of economic, social and ecological values. The Brundtland Report was one of several initiatives that brought about the Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro of 1992, which placed a new global emphasis on the corporate role in environmental protection. The documents of the Rio de Janeiro conference underlined the necessity of transformation of any kind of economic activities in ecologically safe, i.e., compatible with requirements of harmonious development of the society and nature. From the time of Conference in Rio the system of tools of an ecological policy both international and many sovereign countries has undergone a serious

² The Brundtland Commission is named after the World Commission's chairperson Gro Harlem Brundtland.

³ The correct name of the report is „Our Common Future”, but it is more commonly referred to the *Brundtland Report* after the World Commission's chairperson Gro Harlem Brundtland, see WCED (1987).

evolution: from theoretical models to various, more or less successful practice.

One important contribution to the earth summit came from the voluntary working group named SAGE (Strategic Advisory Group on Environment), which started its work in 1991. The aim of SAGE was to find out whether international EMS could contribute to an environmentally sustainable world. While the SAGE group answered yes on that question, a technical committee (TC 207) within the International Organisation for Standardisation (ISO) was created immediately after the conference. This committee was commissioned to develop international standards for environmental management in a concrete way.

Short temper of political, institutional and economic changes in the investigated countries, accelerates the evolution of sights on mutual relation in the "society - environment" system, and promotes development and updating of an ecological policy tools.

The carried out analysis is interesting as the tool used in Russia and Latvia, on the one hand, were originally formed on uniform political-economic approaches and had the general methods of ecological regulation, and on the other hand, reflected the modern ecological policy caused not only for solving environmental problems, but also political, historical, cultural etc. factors.

The system of ecological policy tools used in the world now is based on theoretical concepts of ecological economics and represents a set of administrative - control and economic levers.

Let us consider some features of application of these tools in each of the investigated country. Administrative - control tools are intended for direct influence on ecological results of legal and natural person's activity, by means of an establishment and introduction in action with the help of laws and other means of those purposes regulation, standards, and rules which should be achieved and observed. The given tools are subdivided on growl of rigid and soft regulation⁴. The ecological and nature-resource legislation in all countries starts from the internationally recognized principles, extends actively and in a modernised way. In Russia, for example, the citizen's right to a favourable

environment is fixed in the Constitution. There are several documents accepted in Russia. For example, the decree of the Russian Federation President "On the State Strategy of the Russian Federation on the Environment Preservation and Maintenance of Sustainable Development" (from April, 1, 1996. ¹ 440); "he Law "On the Environment Preservation" from January 10, 2002, and different norms of ecological responsibility of managing subjects are reflected in three appropriate codes of the Russian Federation - Civil, Administrative, and Criminal. However, in the country there is no special act for ecological responsibility, and there are no special laws concerning exact legal definition of damage from environmental pollution. The common principles of the responsibility implementation and compensation of the harm put to the third parties are fixed in the second part of the Civil Code of the Russian Federation⁵. However, the mentioned articles contain no requirement about compensation of the harm connected to "pure" ecological damage, i.e., damage to a bio variety, eco systems etc. The given fact reflects survivability of the civil-law approach to the ecological blessings as to objects which ostensibly have no economic value. The special chapter is included in the text of the law "On Environment Preservation" accepted in January, 2002⁶. This chapter resolves this legal incongruity a little. Compensation of the appropriate damage in Russia is carried out voluntary, or under the rulings of the Court. Claims about compensation of damage can be filed within 20 years. Norms of criminal law are applied in Russia to acts which can be qualified as ecological crimes.

Concerning the countries of the European Union which member is Latvia, it is necessary to tell that the question on introduction of a civil liability for ecological damage is discussed over a period of several years. The beginning was the acceptance of the EU "Green Paper" in 1993. The first attempt of harmonisation on modern base of the EU legislation in this area was acceptance of the Instruction "On Civil Liability for Waste Products Damaging". The strict liability for waste products damaging which these waste products "manufacturer" should bring is entered. The appropriate forms of indemnification, and measures of influence accepted in relation to the respondent too can be various: compensation for the

⁴ To levers of rigid regulation usually carry ecological and nature-resources legislation, and also ecological requirements in the general legislation, ecological standards and specifications, licensing of economic activities, and also ecological certification and marks. Levers of soft regulation are an environmental monitoring, estimation of influences on an environment and ecological examination of projects, ecological and resource target programs, and also ecological audit.

⁵ chap..59 § 1.2 Russian Federation Constitution.

⁶ Chapter XIV "the Responsibility for infringement of the legislation in the field of the environment preservation".

put damage, an interdiction on conducting economic activities, restoration of broken environment with costs compensation etc. The Right on a choice of compensation is given by the countries - members of the European Union. The plaintiff can be not only a private person, but also a registered public organisation, and the government bodies. In case of plural originators the given Instruction stipulates collective, but differential liability. In Latvia the requirements of the European Union are accepted or there are laws practically on all basic directions of wildlife management and an environment prepared for acceptance and ratification. There are noise, waste products, ground, water, packing, an estimation of influence on an environment, radiation and atomic energy, chemical means and their use, minerals etc deviations.

Productivity of an ecological policy in many respects depends on quality and completeness of the ecological information received with the help of ecological monitoring. In Russia part of the data necessary for ecological management is concentrated in Russian Statistics⁷. In all countries more or less effective systems of the ecological monitoring exist, entering a compound part in a network of global ecological monitoring.

Concerns expressed for the environment preservation and rational wildlife management standards allow noting that the actual problem in various countries is alignment of national norms and requirements with the international recognised norms. The decision of this problem played a huge role for Latvia within the framework of joining to the European Union, and is carried out stage by stage in Russia in view of the joining the World Trade Organisation (WTO).

Targeted ecological and resource programmes are implemented at various levels of administrative hierarchy - from microeconomic up to municipal, regional, national, and global levels. These programmes have the mixed nature, being characterised by the features peculiar both to administrative - control and economic levers. National ecological plans or programmes play an essential role for the advanced countries. The European Union practices the formation and implementation of the incorporated ecological programmes of actions, for example, "Towards Sustainability" (Stauvermann P., 2004). Since 1992 Russia has implemented

two-three-year plans on the environment preservation.

First of all, as to nature-resource and issue payments the general approaches to their establishment and applications are determined by the appropriate laws of each country. The "polluter pays" principle mentioned above is practice implemented by means of the ecological payments brought by the enterprises - "polluter". However, this question is combined enough and ambiguous as from the point of view of definition of the sum of payments, and their distribution, and thus demands independent deeper studying.

The legal charge system is in the centre of attention from market tools. It represents payments established in the legislative way or as a result of voluntary agreements, which are raising purchasing potentially dangerous goods and coming back at return receipt of used production. This mechanism is applied as an original guarantee of a high level recycling production or its packing. Unduly forgotten experience of the former USSR with its practice of reuse of glassware, scrap metal and paper recycling is just in a channel of this direction of ecological regulation. Packing shortage was, perhaps, the only thing it comes from the shortage having positive aspects - nature protection. Unfortunately, nowadays in Russia conditions for realisation of similar system practically is not created anywhere. There are separate programmes aimed at economy of resources and environment preservation, however, it is premature to speak about purposeful and system actions in this area.

Market interventions usually are carried out as subsidising market prices, for example, on the raw material which is growing out of the waste products recycling. Necessity for such subsidising and support of manufacturers arises in a case when the prices developing in the market do not cover an expense on recycling. Sale and purchase of rights to the environmental pollution concerns a number of market tools also. This mechanism for the first time was offered by T. Kroker and J. Dalless and included in the "Act of Clean Air" accepted by the USA Congress in 1970. In 1990 after specification and updating it has come in a new variant. Now trade in rights to pollution is applied only in a number of the countries: the USA, Australia, Canada, and Sweden. However, for Russia this tool is very

⁷ The information fall into Russian Statistics as a result of enterprises filling forms of the obligatory statistical reporting and with the help of ecological monitoring system. Unfortunately, due to the last years reforming of the ecological management bodies, and also transfer of functions and powers from one control to another have sharply lowered the system effectiveness as the bases for acceptance of administrative decisions.

perspective, in particular within the mechanisms of Kyoto protocol⁸. In view of the general recognition of that fact that it is necessary to define estimation criteria and select ecological policy tools to increase efficiency of the ecological policy containing a set of various methods of regulation. Similar criteria development for the first time was offered by Peter Bohm and Clifford Russel and in a modern kind of made additions it includes the following basic criteria (Bohm P., Russel C., 1985.).

1. Efficiency, i.e., ability to achieve the purpose by the most rational, "save money" way.
2. Validity. This criterion has a moral shade as it is directly connected with a question on how positive results of nature protection actions and the related expenses will be distributed between various layers of the society.
3. Socio-political acceptability. In a democratic society the choice of concrete tools should be based on the opinion whose interests thus are mentioned, i.e., on stake-holders opinions⁹. On these purposes in many countries sociological interrogations and other forms of a public opinion sounding will be carried out, including definition of the bodies' position of the state control and management, and also the public organisations, trade unions, societies of consumers etc. A variety of available sights and estimations emphasises the value of introduction of the ecological policy tools on the basis of weighing numerous pros and cons, and by achievement of the public consensus.
4. Long-term stimuli. General institutional condition forming a favourable innovational climate serves relative stability of the ecological regulation measures, i.e., a tax mode, payments for wildlife management, rules of privatisation procedure of the real estate objects, including the ground areas etc. Opposite, instability of the ecological policy strengthens uncertainty and devalues stimuli to technical innovations and long-term investments.

5. Flexibility before the person of constant economics, for example, inflationary processes, and other changes.
6. Implementability. Analysing the question on an implementability it is important not to appear in a captivity of a popular belief that administrative - control levers have the greatest implementability, and that they, admit it is nature protection laws, are being coordinated and accepted, will start to operate and be carried out automatically. Efforts and resources, to persuade persons which are not interested in their introduction are required to introduce any administrative measures, i.e., laws, standards or payments.

As a result of the specified criteria application to analyse the ecological policy tools it is possible to draw the following conclusions. Strengths of the administrative - control tools are defined by that they are convenient for the control on the part of ecological management bodies, and serve as simple and directly working means of achievement of a necessary degree of the environmental quality. At the same time they are insufficiently effective from the point of view of the innovations stimulation, and complicate the enterprises opportunity for flexible reaction to various situations.

Economic tools of the environment preservation have the following basic advantages. They have high efficiency from the point of view of the ecological expenses economy, are capable to develop steady stimuli to reduction of the environment pollution, thus to scientific and technical innovations, strengthen flexibility of the ecological management mechanism as a whole, and provide conditions for enterprises to define independently the strategy of nature protection activity. Through the mechanism of market pricing, economic tools promote the preservation of scarce natural resources for the future generation, and provide nature protection activity by necessary sources of financing. Some few of their lacks are complexity of definition of an issue payments level, high sensitivity of the inflationary processes, and risk of product competitiveness reduction, in the international markets due to cumulative ecological costs.

⁸ The Kyoto protocol states quantitative obligations for the countries on restriction and decrease in receipt of hotbed gases in an atmosphere. One of mechanisms of "flexibility" of the Kyoto protocol is "quotas trade" on emissions. According to this mechanism for performance of the taken obligations any country can transfer to any other country or get at it so-called "quotas" - units of reduction of emissions of hotbed gases. All quotas can be collected and transferred for the following period of obligations. The given circumstance presumes Russia to adjust the market, limiting the offer of quotas and reserving them on the future, for the period of 2013-2017.

⁹ Stake-holders i.e., natural and/or legal persons, possessing legal, economic, moral and also independently realized opportunity to declare the subject about the rights or interests concerning its last, present or future activity.

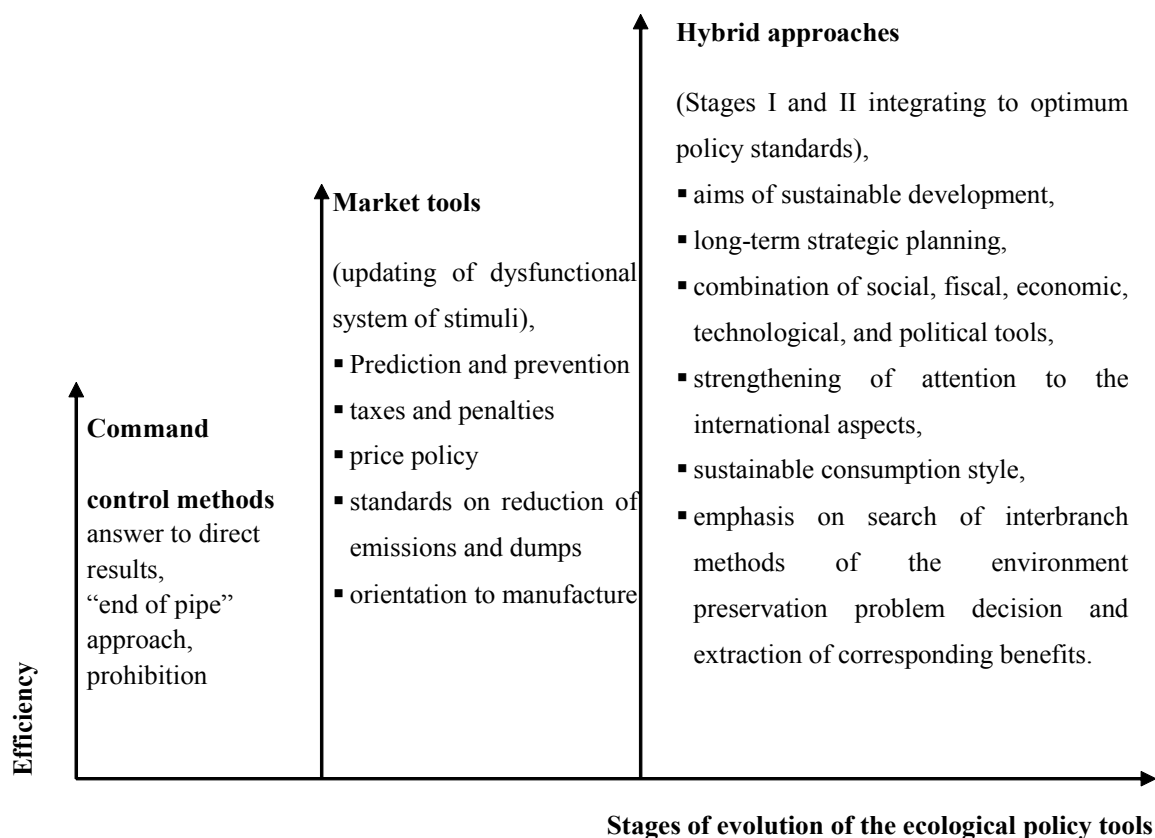


Figure 1. Evolution of the ecological policy tools

Application of an imperative method of the mutual relation regulation constructed on the use of administrative instructions prevails in the considered countries. However, gradually imperative methods of legal regulation give up the place to dispositional methods, and also to economic methods, which are much more effective in the process of development and perfection of the ecological regulation system. Some common tendencies can be seen in Figure 1.

Results and Discussion

At the same time not always the most effective tools the become base in system of ecological management of this or that state. The authors make attempt to allocate attention to specific aspects which can essentially influence on the country ecological policy. These are the following aspects:

1. State system and the form of Government. As the state system is closer to democratic, as especially "sensitive" ecological sense formation will be in the state policy. Stability of a political rate is also very important. For example, nowadays the development and implementation of state policy in some countries, including

development of nature protection programmes are carried out basically with the rate on defined number of years, i.e., for the term of one or another political party choice. Such practice deprives the country of foresight, and does not allow implementing long-term plans in the future.

2. Riches. Richer countries have more resources to solve the environmental problems, and can assess more ecological blessings. In particular, Latvia receives additional capital for projects of the environment preservation by the EU Structural Funds. The total amount of financing of the EU in period from 2004 to 2008 makes EUR 625.56 million. The share of the Latvian financing is 24.7%. In Russia the acuteness of the economic crisis of the 1990s has overshadowed comprehension of consequences of the ecological crisis. And this consciousness is dulled about the present time, both "from above" (authorities), and "from below" (population). "Tops" activity sometimes can be treated like that: we shall resolve economic problems, and then we shall engage into ecological. But the stage-by-stage exit from both crises does not exist. Revival

- of economy on the basis of non environment friendly technologies again will cast the country into the economic crisis because of the necessity to spend huge resources for liquidation of the ecological consequences. For the majority of “bottoms” the main care is struggle for an economic survival. There was a displacement of priorities at the population in most acute problems estimation. In 1990 the question on importance of environmental problems has been led among the population.
3. The Size of the country territory and population density. There are a lot of features. First, the countries with small territory, such as Latvia, in many respects depend on an external environment and should submit to ecological standards and the requirements of the European Union which are taking place outside of a zone of Latvian influence. The countries with a big territory, riches of natural resources, a volumetric home market are not so rigidly limited in the policy and economy with ecological restrictions. In Russia the requirements of ecological standards for production and questions of certification became topical only after the country joined the WTO and that only for the largest and advanced manufacturers. Concerning population density it is possible to draw certain conclusions also. The higher population density, the faster the country faces the environmental problems demanding sanctions.
 4. The ecological policy attention centre, i.e., orientation to resources or to quality. Various countries attach special value to various aspects of the environment preservation. For example, it is considered, that Japan is the leader in the field of efficiency of energy use, Germany and the Netherlands - in the field of development of return to manufacturers the used products of consumption methods. In Latvia, for example, the big attention is given to creation of especially protected natural territories system, in particular, 15.6% of Latvian territory is enlisted in a category of especially protected natural territories (Latvian Association for Environmental Management, 2008).
 5. Culture, a degree of environmental problems priority in a society and public support of the ecological policy. There is a clear distinction between the countries to this attribute, caused historically and economically usual realities. Safe approach of resources and energy using, friendly to the environment mentality are usually inherent to countries with poor resources. Besides some sociological researches show that the higher the education level of the population the higher its ecological culture. Unfortunately, the former Soviet Union owned huge nature-resource base, it was concentrated on industrialisation by any methods, and inconsiderately concerned to the environment preservation.
 6. Attention to the law, administrative culture. In some countries there is a culture in which equality before the law constrains interactions, in particular economic. Other countries have less formal systems where the hand-written law is one of lines of the factors influencing commercial relations. As the last are less transparent and react to a public opinion, they cannot support high levels of the environment quality.
 7. Interaction of the ecological policy and other political structures. The principle of the responsibility distribution between various ministries. In all countries becoming and developing the state policy in various directions, i.e., financial, technological, national safety, support of consumption, occurred without taking into account environmental problems. As ecological questions become strategic for a society, they should be integrated in these already existing political structures. They will differ from the country to the country, and from region to region, therefore it is possible to expect various results of their consideration in different countries.
 8. The transparency and openness for legal process. As legal systems are not simply objective, but cultural creations of the different countries, they differ on the transparency and solid vote character. Usually the countries with the transparent legal systems encouraging the public participation in the significant administrative decisions acceptance have stronger ecological laws.

Conclusions

Thus, formation of the state ecological management system is a complex, and dynamic process, which is far from the end. It determines both norms of the international ecological policy and specificity of each country.

Obvious problems of efficiency of the ecological regulation used tools predetermine continuation of search of adequate mechanisms of the ecological policy in view of new ecological calls. Thus, in the author's opinion, it is important to take into account the following factors. Transition from mechanical opposition of administrative - control and economic tools of management to their joint application is expedient. It is necessary to consider

that the nature of many tools is dual. For example, penal sanctions for the above permitted standard of the environment pollution are the administrative tools, but proved from the ecological economics positions; they were economic damage to the environment, besides application of any demands of administrative levers to enter them in the law and control it from the public administration side. Both administrative, and economic tools “are not started” automatically, they demand appropriate institutional, political, cultural, and educational etc. environments.

It is necessary to develop new approaches for an estimation of the state presence and application of the appropriate administrative - control methods. Often state intervention occurs «post factum», it does not contain preventive measures, it is characterised by inadequate maintenance with resources and the staff, weak political study etc. Nowadays the emphasis should be moving on search of the state behaviours and its correction tools.

The result of all mentioned processes should be the formation of one more very important version of tools which can be incorporated into a group under the name «moral influence and belief tools». There are ecological training and education, the ecological information availability, public pressure, negotiating processes, and voluntary ecological agreements concern to them. And then, the ecological policy will be under construction on the basis of harmonious set of various kinds of tools under the influence harmonised on the international level principles in the process of development in a society understanding of essence and importance of nature protection problems and increase of the population legal literacy level.

Kopsavilkums

Pētījums bija veikts Krievijas ekoloģijas ekonomikas biedrības starptautisko projektu ietvaros. Problēmas aktualitāte ir noteikta ar apkārtējās vides aizsardzības problēmu politizāciju, nepieciešamību atrast pieejas un izstrādāt ekoloģiskās drošības problēmu efektīvo risinājumu metodes valsts un starptautiskajā līmeņos, lai sasniegtu ilgtspējīgās attīstības mērķus. Rakstā ir veikta Latvijas un Krievijas vides politikas instrumentu analīze. Parādīta ekoloģisko imperatīvu evolūcija valstīs ar dažādiem sociāliem un ekonomiskiem tipiem. Tiek izcelta aspektu, kuri būtiski ietekme valsts spēju reaģēt uz ekoloģiskiem izaicinājumiem kopa. Noteikta jauno ekoloģiski ekonomisko regulēšanas mehānismu ieviešanas nepieciešamība valsts un starptautiskajā līmeņos. Veiktā analīze ir interesanta arī ar to, ka lietoti gan Latvijā, gan Krievijā instrumenti, no vienas puses, sākotnēji veidojas pamatā uz vienādām politiskām un ekonomiskām pieejām un tiem bija kopējas ekoloģiskās regulēšanas metodes, bet no otras puses, tie attēlo mūsdienu vides politiku, kas pamatojas ne tikai uz risinātām vides problēmām, bet arī uz politiskiem, vēsturiskiem, kultūras u.c. faktoriem.

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LEADER+ projektu īstenošanas rezultāti un iespējas Jelgavas rajonā Results and Opportunities of Implementing LEADER+ Projects in Jelgava District

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Abstract

LEADER is a method for promoting and implementing a rural development in local rural communities. One of the prerequisites for implementing LEADER+ projects is the presence of local initiative group or partnership. In 2007-2008 Jelgava Rural partnership "Lielupe" implemented the integrated rural development pilot strategy "Increasing the quality of life in Jelgava district". The strategy included the development of joint projects by business, non-governmental organisations, state and local governments, and focused on the improvement of availability and quality of services for inhabitants. The research analyses results of two rounds of competition on projects for integrated strategy of rural development in Jelgava district, examining their contribution to the improvement of quality of life. An appraisal of the strategy is presented. The research analyses needs and opportunities for the implementation of LEADER+ projects in 2009 - 2013 based on the results of polling Jelgava district inhabitants.

Jelgava Rural partnership "Lielupe" has increased the quality of life in Jelgava district by enforcing 28 LEADER+ projects. On contrary most projects are tended on runaway results, thus missing a long-term approach.

Key words: LEADER+, partnership, quality of life, local initiative groups, local projects.

Ievads

Introduction

Lauku attīstības politika kļūst par arvien svarīgāku Eiropas Savienības Kopējās lauksaimniecības politikas (KLP) sastāvdaļu. Tā risina ekonomiskās, sociālās un vides problēmas. LEADER ir metode lauku attīstības ierosināšanai un īstenošanai vietējās lauku kopienās. Viens no priekšnoteikumiem LEADER projektu ieviešanai ir vietējās rīcības grupas (VRG) jeb partnerības esamība. Jelgavas rajonā šo uzdevumu veic Jelgavas Lauku partnerība (JLP) "Lielupe".

JLP "Lielupe" 2007.-2008. gadā realizēja integrēto lauku attīstības izmēģinājuma stratēģiju "Dzīves kvalitātes uzlabošana Jelgavas rajonā". 2008. gada decembrī JLP "Lielupe" padome apstiprināja lauku attīstības stratēģiju 2009.-2013. gadam. Tā kā raksta autore darbojas JLP „Lielupe” valdē, pētījuma aktualitāti pamato nepieciešamība izvērtēt stratēģijas ieviešanas rezultātus 2007.-2008. gadā, tādējādi nodrošinot veiksmīgu stratēģijas īstenošanu arī jaunajā periodā.

Stratēģijas izstrādes laikā pētījuma autore izstrādāja aptaujas anketu un veica Jelgavas rajona iedzīvotāju anketēšanu. Anketēšanas rezultātā izdarītie secinājumi un priekšlikumi kalpoja par

pamatu JLP "Lielupe" integrētās lauku attīstības stratēģijas izstrādei 2009. - 2013. gadam.

Pētījuma objekts ir LEADER + programma. Pētījuma subjekts ir LEADER programmas realizētie projekti Jelgavas rajonā.

Pamatojoties uz izvēlēto temata aktualitāti, darba mērķis ir izvērtēt LEADER programmas ieviešanas gaitu un attīstības perspektīvas Jelgavas rajonā.

Mērķa sasniegšanai tika izvirzīti šādi uzdevumi:

- raksturot JLP "Lielupe" darbību un lomu lauku attīstības veicināšanā;
- izvērtēt LEADER programmas rezultātos rādītājus Jelgavas rajonā 2007.-2008. gadā;
- analizēt LEADER+ projektu īstenošanas iespējas Jelgavas rajonā 2009.-2013. gadā

Darba izstrādei tika izmantotas šādas pētījumu metodes: grafiskā, monogrāfiskā, anketēšana.

1. Jelgavas Lauku partnerība "Lielupe"

1. Jelgava rural partnership "Lielupe"

Jelgavas lauku partnerība "Lielupe" ir dibināta 2005. gada sākumā, iesaistoties lielākajām Jelgavas rajona nevalstiskajām organizācijām, uzņēmējiem un pašvaldībām.

JLP "Lielupe" darbība aptver visu Jelgavas rajona administratīvo teritoriju 1604 km². Darbības

teritorijā ir iekļautas šādas Jelgavas rajona pašvaldību teritorijas: Kalnciema pilsēta ar lauku teritoriju, Ozolnieku un Valgundes novads, Elejas, Glūdas, Jaunsvirslaukas, Lielplatones, Līvberzes, Platones, Sesavas, Sidrabenes, Svētes, Vilces, Vircavas un Zaļenieku pagasts. Uz 2008. gada 1. janvāri Jelgavas rajonā bija reģistrēti 37355 iedzīvotāji.

JLP "Lielupe" darbības mērķis ir veicināt ilgtspējīgu attīstību Jelgavas rajona lauku teritorijā, pārstāvēt sabiedrības intereses tās attīstībā.

Lai īstenotu praksē ES valstu vietējo rīcības grupu pieredzi sociāli ekonomisko procesu veicināšanā, sekmētu integrētas un uz iedzīvotāju vajadzībām balstītas politikas veidošanos, nostiprinātu vietējās iniciatīvas lomu lauku attīstībā, veicinātu labāku priekšstatu par pieeju „no apakšas uz augšu”, ar Eiropas Lauksaimniecības virzības un garantiju fonda līdzfinansējumu JLP "Lielupe" īstenoja integrēto lauku attīstības izmēģinājuma stratēģiju.

Stratēģijas "Dzīves kvalitātes uzlabošana Jelgavas rajonā" izstrāde tika uzsākta 2005. gada aprīlī. Stratēģijas tēma - dzīves kvalitātes uzlabošana lauku apvidos, ieskaitot tādu komersantu, nevalstisko organizāciju, valsts un pašvaldību sektoru kopīgu projektu attīstību, kas vērsti uz pakalpojumu sasniedzamības un kvalitātes uzlabošanu iedzīvotājiem.

Izstrādājot stratēģiju, Jelgavas rajona pagastos tika organizēti iedzīvotāju forumi, kas deva iespēju pašiem iedzīvotājiem paskatīties uz teritorijas attīstības problēmām un izvirzīt risinājumus. Tādējādi stratēģijas izstrāde un ieviešana ir jauns skatījums uz lauku dzīves apstākļiem un iespējām, jo iedzīvotāji paši var lemt par pasākumiem, kas ir svarīgi, lai uzlabotu dzīves kvalitāti laukos.

2. Integrētās lauku attīstības izmēģinājuma stratēģijas "Dzīves kvalitātes uzlabošana Jelgavas rajonā" rezultātu izvērtējums

2. Evaluation of integrated rural development pilot strategy "Increasing the Quality of Life in Jelgava District"

JLP "Lielupe" LEADER apgūšanu uzsāka 2007. gadā. Stratēģijā "Dzīves kvalitātes uzlabošana Jelgavas rajonā" 2007.-2008.g. bija trīs prioritātes:

- sabiedriskā dzīve, kultūra un veselīgs dzīvesveids;
- pakalpojumu sasniedzamība un kvalitāte;
- lauku vides veidošana un sakārtošana.

Projektu iesniegumu konkurss notika divās kārtās. Pirmajā kārtā tika iesniegti 19 projekti par kopējo summu 84135,91 LVL. No tiem 14 projekti (60818,91 LVL) tika apstiprināti, bet 5 noraidīti. Otrajā kārtā tika saņemts 21 projekta pieteikums par kopējo summu 96763,85 LVL. Pieejamais finansējums otrās kārtas projektiem bija 57019,31 LVL.

2007. gadā piešķirtais LEADER finansējums bija 84628,66 LVL, valsts budžeta līdzfinansējums – 28209,56 LVL. Līdz 2007. gada beigām izlietotais LEADER finansējums bija 41864,18 LVL un valsts līdzfinansējums – 13954,73 LVL. Pārējie līdzekļi tika izmantoti 2008. gadā. Pieteikto un apstiprināto projektu skaitu un finansējumu var redzēt tabulā 1.

Kā redzams 1. tabulā, pieprasītais finansējums par 68061.54 LVL pārsniedza pieejamo finansējumu. Tas pierāda vietējo iedzīvotāju aktivitāti un vēlmi veikt uzlabojumus savā dzīves vidē.

Noraidīto projektu skaits - 13 projekti, no tiem 2 projekti tika noraidīti kā neatbilstoši stratēģijas rīcības plānam un 1 projekts tika noraidīts pēc kvalitātes vērtēšanas kritērijiem, savukārt 10 projekti tika noraidīti, jo rīcībai pieejamais finansējums bija iztērēts.

1. tabula

Leader+ pieteikto un apstiprināto projektu skaits Jelgavas rajonā 2007.-2008. gadā
The number of submitted and approved projects in Jelgava district in 2007-2008

Kārta/ round	Pieteiktie projekti/ submitted projects		Apstiprinātie projekti/approved projects	
	Skaits/number	Summa, LVL/ amount	Skaits/ number	Summa, LVL/ amount
1.	19	84135,91	13	55 818.91
2.	21	96763,85	14	57 019.31
Kopā/total	40	180899.76	27	112838.22

Avots: autora veidota tabula, 2008

2. tabula

Iesniegto un atbalstīto projektu skaits atbilstoši stratēģijā noteiktajām rīcībām
The number of submitted and approved projects according to the strategy

Prioritāte, pasākums, rīcība priority, activity, action	Projektu skaits/ number of projects	
	Iesniegti/ submitted	Atbalstīti/ approved
1. prioritāte. SABIEDRISKĀ DZĪVE, KULTŪRA UN VESELĪGS DZĪVESVEIDS		
1.1. pasākums. Atbalsts pilsoniskās sabiedrības aktivitātēm		
Rīcība: 1.1.1. Kopienas attīstība, izglītošanās, pieredzes apmaiņas un sadarbības tīklu veidošana	8	6
1.2. pasākums Kultūras, sporta un veselīga dzīvesveida attīstība		
Rīcība: 1.2.1. Kultūrvides izveide un uzturēšana, atbalsts kultūras aktivitātēm	6	3
Rīcība: 1.2.2. Atbalsta nodrošināšana fiziskām aktivitātēm un veselības procedūrām, veselīga dzīvesveida popularizēšana	4	4
2. prioritāte. PAKALPOJUMU SASNIEDZAMĪBA UN KVALITĀTE		
2.1. pasākums. Izglītības un informācijas pieejamība		
Rīcība: 2.1.1. Iedzīvotāju prasmju un iemaņu līmeņa paaugstināšana, atbalsts izglītības un informācijas infrastruktūras izveidei	6	5
2.2. pasākums. Sociālo pakalpojumu izveide un uzlabošana		
Rīcība: 2.2.1. Sociālās atstumtības mazināšana un sociālās atstumtības risku grupu integrēšana sabiedrībā	3	2
Rīcība: 2.2.2. Atbalsta nodrošināšana cilvēkiem ar īpašām vajadzībām	0	0
2.3. pasākums. Sadzīves pakalpojumu izveide un sasniedzamība		
Rīcība: 2.3.1. Sadzīves pakalpojumu punktu izveide	1	1
3. prioritāte. LAUKU VIDES VEIDOŠANA UN SAKĀRTOŠANA		
3.1. pasākums. Atpūtas un sporta vietu izveidošana un sakārtošana, sporta iespēju izveide		
Rīcība: 3.1.1. Atpūtas un sporta vietu iekārtošana un sakārtošana uz sauszemes un ūdens, sporta pasākumu ieviešana	10	4
3.2. pasākums. Kultūrvēsturiskā mantojuma saglabāšana un tūrisma veicināšana		
Rīcība: 3.2.1. Kultūrvēsturiskā mantojuma objektu sakārtošana, tūrisma veicināšana, īpaši aizsargājamo dabas teritoriju popularizēšana	2	2
Kopā/ total	40	27

Avots: autora veidota tabula, 2008

Iesniegto projektu skaitu atbilstoši stratēģijas rīcības plānā noteiktajām rīcībām var redzēt 2. tabulā

Kā redzams 2. tabulā visvairāk projektu tika iesniegti rīcībai 3.1.1. *Atpūtas un sporta vietu iekārtošana un sakārtošana uz sauszemes un ūdens, sporta pasākumu ieviešana* – 10 projekti, finansēti tika 4 projekti. 8 projektu pieteikumi tika iesniegti rīcībai 1.1.1. *Kopienas attīstība, izglītošanās, pieredzes apmaiņas un sadarbības tīklu veidošana* – 8 projekti, finansēti tika 6. Neviens projekts netika iesniegts rīcībai 2.2.2.

Atbalsta nodrošināšana cilvēkiem ar īpašām vajadzībām, kā iemeslu var minēt to, ka teritorijā nav nevalstiskās organizācijas, kas risinātu šīs mērķa grupas problēmas, kā arī šo jautājumu risina vietējās pašvaldības. Tikai 1 projekta pieteikums tika iesniegts rīcībai 2.3.1. *Sadzīves pakalpojumu punktu izveide*, taču tas devis iespēju sniegt sadzīves pakalpojumus pēc iespējas tuvāk iedzīvotāju dzīves vietai.

Projektu īstenošanas sasniegtos rezultātos rādītājus, jaunradīto un saglabāto darba vietu skaitu var redzēt 3. tabulā.

LEADER programmas kvantitatīvie rādītāji Jelgavas rajonā 2007. - 2008. g.
Quantitative results of LEADER programme in Jelgava district to 2007-2008

Rādītāji/ indicators	Prioritāte/priority		
	1. Sabiedriskā dzīve, kultūra un veselīgs dzīvesveids	2. Pakalpojumu sasniedzamība un kvalitāte	3. Lauku vides veidošana un sakārtošana
Jaunradīto darba vietu skaits	11	11	4
Saglabāto darba vietu skaits	13	1	3

Avots: autora veidota tabula, 2008

Īstenojot stratēģiju „Dzīves kvalitātes uzlabošana Jelgavas rajonā” 2007. – 2008. gadā tika realizēti šādi projekti:

- Trenažieru zāles aprīkošana, biedrība „Pumpuri” Svētes pagastā, LVL 4892;
- ”Spārni”- Kalnciema pilsētas iedzīvotāju atbalsta centrs, Kalnciema pilsētas SO „Kaigi”, LVL 1140;
- Jaunu rotaļu konstrukciju iegāde un uzstādīšana Zaļenieku ciemā, biedrība „Zaļenieku dzirnas”, LVL 4858.82;
- Rotaļu laukuma izveidošana Staļģenē, biedrība Attīstības centrs “Iepazīsim sevi”, LVL 4979.96;
- Teteles parka labiekārtošana, Ozolnieku attīstības biedrība, LVL 3470.00;
- Novadpētniecības muzeja izveidošana Staļģenes muižā, biedrība Attīstības centrs “Iepazīsim sevi” LVL 4986.31;
- Militāras ievirzes pulciņa dibināšana Zaļeniekos, biedrība „Latvijas Jauno zemnieku klubs”, LVL 4970.00;
- Veļas mazgāšanas punkta izveide Glūdas pagasta Zemgale ciemā, Glūdas pagasta biedrība “Attīstības centrs – Dzīvo gudri”, LVL 1435.59;
- Sabiedriski pieejamas pirts izveide Glūdas pagasta Zemgales ciemā, Glūdas pagasta biedrība “Attīstības centrs – Dzīvo gudri”, LVL 4999.23;
- Tautas izglītības un attīstības centra darbības vietas izveidošana, Tautas izglītības un attīstības centrs – AGAPE, LVL 5000.00;
- Valgundes novada iedzīvotāju apmācību un informācijas kabineta iekārtošana, biedrība “Valgundes novada attīstība”, LVL 5000.00;
- Valgundes novada NVO centra izveide, biedrība “Valgundes novada attīstība”, LVL 5000.00;
- Rotaļu un attīstības centra “Lācīši” izveide pirmskolas vecuma bērniem, biedrība “Valgundes novada attīstība”, LVL 5000.00
- Glūdas pagasta biedrība „Attīstības centrs – Dzīvo gudri”: „Saieta telpas izveide”, LVL 5000; „Aprīkojuma iegāde sporta telpai Glūdas pagasta Zemgales ciematā”, LVL 5000;
- Biedrība “Attīstības centrs “Iepazīsim sevi”” Jaunsvirlaukas pagastā: „Biedrības darbības uzlabošana”, 3048.18 LVL; „Sporta telpas sakārtošana un inventāra iegāde Dzirnietu ciemā”, LVL 3415.41;
- Biedrība „Zaļenieku dzirnas”: „Zaļenieku

- iniciatīvu atbalsta centra izveide”, LVL 4998.07;
- Tautas izglītības un attīstības centrs – AGAPE Svētes pagastā: „Biedrības darbības vietas uzlabošana”, LVL 3538.34; „Nāc dziedī!”, mūzikas aparatūras iegāde, LVL 5000;
- Biedrība „Aizupīte”: „Aizupes pamatskolas kultūru kopu aprīkojuma uzlabošana Līvberzes pagastā”, LVL 5000;
- Slāvu kultūras biedrība “Rodņik” Glūdas pagastā: „Kabineta flīģeļa iegāde”, LVL 5000;
- Biedrība „Virčavnieks”: „Interneta pieejas punktu izveide Virčavas pagastā”, LVL 4953.72;
- Biedrība Glūdas pagasta dāmu klubs „Asniņš”: „Angļu valodas apmācība Glūdas pagasta Nākotnes ciematā”, LVL 2046.44;
- Biedrība „Mēs lauku attīstībai”: „Mācību programmas “Semināru un konferenču organizēšana lauku teritorijās” izstrāde un īstenošana”, LVL 2999.84;
- Biedrība „Valgundes novada attīstība”: „Aktīvās atpūtas un sporta vietas iekārtošana bērniem un jauniešiem Valgundes pagastā”, LVL 5000.

3. LEADER+ projektu īstenošanas iespējas Jelgavas rajonā 2009.-2013. gadā

3. Opportunities for implementing LEADER+ projects in Jelgava district for 2009-2013

Vietējās attīstības stratēģiju īstenošana 2009. - 2013. gadā tiks finansēta no Eiropas Lauksaimniecības fonda un valsts budžeta līdzekļiem. Kopējais finansējuma apjoms valstij šim periodam ir 16463222 LVL, tai skaitā Eiropas Lauksaimniecības fonda finansējums lauku attīstībai - 13170577 LVL un valsts budžeta finansējums - 3292645 LVL. To nosaka MK noteikumi Nr. 515 “Valsts un Eiropas savienības atbalsta piešķiršanas kārtība vietējo attīstības stratēģiju īstenošanai”. JLP “Lielupe” vietējās attīstības stratēģijas rīcības plānā paredzētais maksimālais atbalsta apjoms ir 14 000 LVL vienam projektam. MK noteikumi Nr. 515 nosaka, ka VRG pieejamais finansējuma apjoms tiek aprēķināts pēc

iedzīvotāju skaita VRG darbības teritorijā uz 2008. gada 1. janvāri.

JLP "Lielupe" vietējās attīstības stratēģijas rīcības plāns paredz, ka pirmais projektu konkurss tiks izsludināts 2009. gada nogalē.

JLP "Lielupe" lauku attīstības stratēģijas izstrādei 2009.-2013. gadam tika veikta Jelgavas rajona iedzīvotāju aptauja. Tās mērķis bija noskaidrot galvenās problēmas, ar ko iedzīvotāji saskaras savā pašvaldībā, kā arī noteikt prioritātes dzīves kvalitātes uzlabošanai un svarīgākos Lauku attīstības plāna (LAP) pasākumus. Aptauja tika veikta visās Jelgavas rajona pašvaldībās. Tajā piedalījās 241 Jelgavas rajona iedzīvotājs vecumā no 14 gadiem.

Aptaujā tika ietverti jautājumi par nepieciešamajiem pasākumiem un ieguldījumiem pakalpojumu pieejamības, kvalitātes un sasniedzamības uzlabošanai, sabiedrisko aktivitāšu veicināšanai. Aptaujas anketās iedzīvotāji tika aicināti atzīmēt viņuprāt svarīgākos Lauku attīstības plāna pasākumus, kā arī pasākumus, kas attiecas uz ekonomikas dažādošanu un dzīves kvalitātes paaugstināšanu un nozīmīgākās aktivitātes tūrisma veicināšanai savā pagastā vai novadā.

Galvenā lauku iedzīvotāju problēma pēc aptaujas rezultātiem ir darbavietu trūkums, ko atzīmēja gandrīz trīs ceturtdaļas aptaujāto. Vairāk kā puse respondentu par nozīmīgām problēmām uzskata arī vietējās sabiedrības iniciatīvas trūkumu un iedzīvotāju aizplūšanu uz pilsētām. 47,3% respondentu ir satraukti par atkarībām savā pašvaldībā. 43,2% aptaujāto atzīst, ka ir nepietiekamas brīvā laika pavadīšanas iespējas. Retāk ir atzīmēti jautājumi, kas saistīti ar tūrisma vides un resursu efektīvu izmantošanu un zemu pievienoto vērtību vietējiem ražojumiem.

Respondenti norādīja arī uz tādām problēmām kā nepietiekama sabiedriskā transporta kustība, ierobežotas iespējas saņemt kvalitatīvu medicīnisko aprūpi tuvu dzīvesvietai, kvalificēta un uzticama darbaspēka trūkums, peldvietu trūkums, nav bērnu dārza.

Nepieciešamie ieguldījumi pakalpojumu pieejamībai, kvalitātei un sasniedzamībai.

Aptaujā tika noskaidroti, kādi ieguldījumi ir nepieciešami, lai veicinātu pakalpojumu pieejamību, kvalitāti un sasniedzamību. 52,7% respondentu akcentēja nepieciešamību izveidot bērnu rotaļu un attīstības centru. Pie nozīmīgākajiem ieguldījumiem ir minēti arī izglītības un informācijas centra izveide (44,8%) un tehnikas pakalpojumi (39,4%). Apmēram viena trešdaļa aptaujāto atzina, ka pagastā (novadā) ir nepieciešams kultūras vai tautas nams, sociālā atbalsta (dienas) centrs, sporta laukums, treniņu zāle, kā arī kurpnieka un frizētavas pakalpojumi.

Sabiedriskā interneta pieejas punkta izveide nav minēta starp svarīgākajiem pasākumiem. Tas

skaidrojams ar iespēju izmantot internetu arī pagastu bibliotēkās un skolās.

Iedzīvotāji uzskata, ka ir nepieciešams pilnveidot un piedāvāt plašāku medicīnas pakalpojumu klāstu un sniegt atbalstu vietējiem ražotājiem un amatniekiem, veicinot viņu darbību un ieguldījumu vietējās kopienas attīstībā.

Aktivitātes sabiedriskās dzīves uzlabošanai

Anketēšanas rezultātā par vissvarīgāko aktivitāti sabiedriskās dzīves uzlabošanai iedzīvotāji ir atzinuši dažāda veida apmācību organizēšanu (57,7%), piemēram, valodas, datorapmācību, projektu vadību un grāmatvedību, daiļdārzu ierīkošanu, mūzikas instrumentu spēli, semināri par veselīgu dzīvesveidu, u.c. 50,2% aptaujāto atzīmēja daudzdzīvokļu namu pagalmu sakārtošanu. Apmēram 40% respondentu par nozīmīgu uzskata gājēju celiņu un velotaku ierīkošanu (45,2%), ugunsкура vietas, peldvietas un laivu piestātnes izveidi (40,7%), estrādes ierīkošanu brīvā dabā (42,3%). 41,9% aptaujāto atzīmēja interešu klubu izveidi, piemēram, mājturības, orientēšanās sporta, aerobikas, adīšanas u.c.

Līdzīgi kā iepriekšējos jautājumos, arī šajā salīdzinoši neliels respondentu skaits ir atzīmējis tūrisma attīstību veicinošas aktivitātes, tādās kā tūrisma maršrutu izveide, informācijas centru un norāžu izgatavošana, muzeju izveidošana, svētvietu, kapavieta, pieminekļu un piemiņas zīmju sakārtošana. Viena ceturtdaļa respondentu par nozīmīgu uzskata muižu un parku labiekārtošanu un dažādu taku ierīkošanu.

Veicot teritorijas situācijas analīzi, Jelgavas rajona iedzīvotāju anketēšanu un SVID analīzi, Jelgavas Lauku partnerības „Lielupe” vietējās attīstības stratēģijas īstenošanai ir izvirzītas divas prioritātes:

1. Sabiedrisko aktivitāšu dažādošana vietējiem iedzīvotājiem;
2. Pakalpojumu pieejamība, kvalitāte un sasniedzamība vietējiem iedzīvotājiem.

1. prioritātes ietvaros ir paredzētas 4 rīcības. Rīcība Nr. 1.1. *Kopienas un brīvā laika aktivitāšu veicināšana vietējiem iedzīvotājiem* paredz iekārtu, tehnikas, aprīkojuma, informācijas tehnoloģiju un programmu nodrošinājuma iegādi un uzstādīšanu un infrastruktūras izveidi NVO centriem, dažādu sociālo grupu (jaunieši, pensionāri, sievietes, vīriešu interesēm atbilstošu u.c.) centriem, interešu grupām, rotaļu un spēļu istabām u.c. objektu izveidošanai, kas veicina sabiedrisko aktivitāšu dažādošanu vietējiem iedzīvotājiem.

Rīcība Nr. 1.2. *Izglītības, kultūras un kultūras mantojuma aktivitāšu veicināšana vietējiem iedzīvotājiem* paredz iekārtu, tehnikas, aprīkojuma, informācijas tehnoloģiju un programmu nodrošinājuma iegādi un uzstādīšanu un infrastruktūras izveidi

dažādām aktivitātēm, piemēram, kultūras kopu, mūzikas studiju, jauno māmiņu skolu, ģimenes centru un bēbīšu skoliņu, radošo darbnīcu un studiju, karjeras izvēles un jauno uzņēmēju skolu, uzņēmēju klubu izveidi, materiāli tehniskajam nodrošinājumam dažādu apmācību organizēšanai, muižu un muzeju labiekārtošanai u.c. objektiem, kas veicina sabiedrisko aktivitāšu dažādošanos vietējiem iedzīvotājiem.

Rīcība Nr. 1.3. *Aktīvās atpūtas, sporta, vides sakopšanas un pieejamības aktivitāšu veicināšana vietējiem iedzīvotājiem* iekļauj iekārtu, tehnikas, aprīkojuma, informācijas tehnoloģiju un programmu nodrošinājuma iegādi un uzstādīšanu un infrastruktūras izveidi tādiem sabiedrisko aktivitāšu objektiem vai veidiem kā sporta telpas, sporta laukumi, stadioni, rotaļu un atrakciju laukumi, sporta laukumi, skeitparki un skrituļceļiņi, estrādes brīvā dabā, kopīgas ugunsкура vietas, peldvietas un laivu piestātnes, dabas, meža un lauku takas, aktīvās atpūtas takas, gājēju ceļiņi un velotakas, daudzdzīvokļu namu pagalmi un apkārtnē, informācijas stendi, norādes un apskates objekti u.c. objektiem, kas veicina sabiedrisko aktivitāšu dažādošanos vietējiem iedzīvotājiem.

Rīcība Nr. 1.4. *Vietējas nozīmes saietu namu, brīvā laika pavadīšanas, sporta un kultūras objektu būvniecība vai rekonstrukcija.*

2. prioritāte *Pakalpojumu pieejamība, kvalitāte un sasniedzamība vietējiem iedzīvotājiem* paredz 4 rīcības.

Rīcība Nr. 2.1. *Publisko pakalpojumu attīstība vietējiem iedzīvotājiem* iekļauj iekārtu, tehnikas, aprīkojuma, informācijas tehnoloģiju un programmu nodrošinājuma iegādi un uzstādīšanu un infrastruktūras izveidi pakalpojumu pieejamībai, kvalitātei un sasniedzamībai, piemēram, interneta pieejas punktu, izglītības un informācijas centru, bērnu pieskatīšanas pakalpojumu (aukļu dienests, bērnu pieskatīšanas istabas u.c.), sociālās aprūpes pakalpojumu mazaizsargātām iedzīvotāju grupām, alternatīvas aprūpes pakalpojumu (dienas centrs, aprūpe mājās, krīzes centrs, grupu dzīvokļi u.c.),

sabiedriski pieejamas pirtis, masāžas u.c. veselības procedūru u.c. pakalpojumu attīstībai vietējiem iedzīvotājiem.

Rīcības Nr. 2.2. *Sadzīves, ēdināšanas, sadzīves tehnikas un tehnikas pakalpojumu attīstība vietējiem iedzīvotājiem* piedāvātie risinājumi ir iekārtu, tehnikas, aprīkojuma, informācijas tehnoloģiju un programmu nodrošinājuma iegāde un uzstādīšana un infrastruktūras izveide veļas mazgāšanas punkti, šuvēja, kurpnieka un friziera pakalpojumu u.c. sadzīves pakalpojumu, kosmetologa pakalpojumu, skaistumkopšanas, ēdināšanas un kulinārijas pakalpojumu, zāles plāvēja,

krūmgrieža un citas tehnikas pakalpojumu, sulu spiešana un citas sadzīves tehnikas pakalpojumu, autoservisa u.c. pakalpojumu attīstībai vietējiem iedzīvotājiem.

Rīcības Nr. 2.3. *Amatniecības pakalpojumu attīstība vietējiem iedzīvotājiem* ieteiktie risinājumi ir paredzēti amatniecības un kokapstrādes darbnīcu u.c. pakalpojumu attīstībai vietējiem iedzīvotājiem.

Rīcība Nr. 2.4. *Publiski pieejamas teritorijas labiekārtošana, kas tiek veikta, lai nodrošinātu rekreācijas pamatpakalpojumus pašvaldību teritorijās.*

Ieviešot attīstības stratēģiju varētu tikt veiktas izmaiņas rīcības plānā un pievienota 3. prioritāte *Nodarbinātības un tūrisma attīstības veicināšana*, jo iedzīvotāju aptaujas rezultāti pamato nepieciešamību veikt ieguldījumus jauno zemnieku attīstības veicināšanā, lauku saimniecību modernizēšanā, jaunu uzņēmumu radīšanā un esošo attīstībā. Šobrīd vietējā rīcības grupa ir lēmusi neieklaut šīs rīcības stratēģijas rīcības plānā, jo lauku iedzīvotājiem ir iespēja iesniegt un realizēt projektus atbilstošajos LAP 411. un 413. pasākumos neiesniedzot projektu vietējā rīcības grupā, kā arī atsevišķu pasākumu aktivitātes vēl nav uzsāktas ieviest.

Secinājumi

Conclusions

1. JLP "Lielupe" veicina ilgtspējīgu attīstību Jelgavas rajona lauku teritorijā, pārstāvēt sabiedrības intereses.
2. Lauku attīstības stratēģijas izstrāde un ieviešana ir jauns skatījums uz lauku dzīves apstākļiem, kas sniedz iedzīvotājiem iespēju pašiem lemt par pasākumiem, kas ir svarīgi, lai uzlabotu dzīves kvalitāti laukos.
3. Pakalpojumu sasniedzamības un kvalitātes uzlabošana pēc iespējas tuvāk dzīvesvietai veicinās lauku teritoriju attīstību un apturēs vietējo iedzīvotāju aizplūšanu uz pilsētām, kā arī radīs pievilcīgāku vidi uzņēmējdarbības attīstībai. Īpaši nozīmīgi tas ir teritorijās, kas atrodas tālu no pagasta un rajona centra.
4. Situācija informācijas tehnoloģiju pieejamības jomā Jelgavas rajonā ir uzlabojusies, jo bezmaksas internets ir pieejams arī pašvaldību bibliotēkas un skolās, tādēļ sabiedrisko interneta pieejas punktu izveidošana nav aktuālākais jautājums JLP "Lielupe" teritorijā.
5. Jelgavas rajonā realizētie projekti ir pārsvarā tendēti uz tūlītēja rezultāta iegūšanu, trūkst ilgtermiņa skatījuma gan uz vietējās teritorijas problēmām, gan arī to iespējamiem risinājumiem.

Priekšlikumi**Proposals**

1. JLP „Lielupe” stratēģijā paredzēt finansējumu tikai tām rīcībām, kuras par nozīmīgām ir atzinuši vietējie iedzīvotāji.
2. JLP „Lielupe” veicināt vietējo iniciatīvas grupu, uzņēmēju un pašvaldību aktīvāku iesaistīšanos projektu izstrādē un ieviešanā.
3. LAD rīkot izglītojošus seminārus vietējo iniciatīvas grupu pārstāvjiem par finansu vadības un grāmatvedības jautājumiem Leader projektu veiksmīgākai īstenošanai.
4. Gan projektu iesniedzējiem, gan vērtēšanas komisijai izvērtēt projekta ilgtspējību un ieguldījumu dzīves kvalitātes uzlabošanā Jelgavas rajonā.

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Konkurētspēja kā teritorijas attīstības veicinātājs Competitiveness as Facilitator of Territorial Development

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Abstract

Territory is usually understood by a place of residence, beautiful memories and areas. However, the territory is a place. Regardless its size the territory on the market conditions is always related to competitiveness. Every populated territory is rich in its historical peculiarities, unique heritage, people and events. These circumstances cause the main differences in the areas of economic, social and political activity. Therefore the main task is to explore and analyse the needs of the society and kinds for their satisfaction to form, precisely, a territory that might be attractive to a certain part of population or the society interested in, and a territory that might be more competitive in comparison with other territories.

The cities have to undertake the solutions regarding the main challenges such as social development, the protection of environment, competitiveness and strategic planning in the very long run.

The aim of territorial development is to provide inhabitants with equal possibilities, living standard, and the quality as well as the entrepreneurs with equal development facilities based on the specific territorial and local potential.

Key words: competitiveness, territory, development of the territory, territorial attractiveness.

Atslēgas vārdi: konkurētspēja, teritorija, teritorijas pievilcība, teritorijas attīstība.

Ievads

Introduction

Ar teritoriju parasti saprot dzīves vietu, skaistām atmiņām par bērnu dienām, taču teritorija vienmēr tiek saistīta ar apdzīvotās vietas jēdzienu. Neatkarīgi, no tā, cik liela tā ir, tirgus ekonomikas apstākļos tā tiek saistīta arī ar jēdzienu - konkurētspēja. Katrai apdzīvotai vietai piemīt sava vēsturiskā savdabība, vēsturiskais senču mantojums, ģeogrāfiskais novietojums, unikāli un neatkārtojami dabas veidojumi, cilvēki un vēsturiskie notikumi. Šajā apstākļi arī slēpjas galvenās atšķirības sabiedriskās, saimnieciskās un politiskās darbības jomās. Tāpēc pētījuma galvenais uzdevums ir noskaidrot, apzināt un izanalizēt attiecīgo teritoriju iedzīvotāju vajadzības, to apmierināšanas iespējas un veidus, lai ilglaicīgā attīstībā varētu veidot tādu teritorijas plānojumu, kurš būtu pievilcīgs ikvienai iedzīvotāju daļai un spētu konkurēt ar ikvienu attiecīga mēroga teritoriju. Teritorijas konkurētspēja parasti tiek saistīta ar tās pievilcību un attīstības perspektīvām.

Vadoties no situācijas tirgū, katrai teritorijai ir jānosaka savi konkurētspējas radītāji un jāizstrādā sava konkurētspējas attīstības stratēģija. Teritoriju konkurētspēju šobrīd saista ar tādiem radītājiem, kā-

sadarbība, radošums, kultūra un teritoriālā pievilcība. Iepazīstoties ar situāciju citās valstīs, ir redzams, ka teritorijas savu konkurētspēju vairāk saista ar teritoriālās pievilcības noteikšanu. (Pilsētvides attīstības asociācijas kongress, Rīga, 2008)

Hipotēze - vai teritorijas konkurētspēja var ietekmēt teritorijas attīstību.

Mērķis - izanalizēt konkurētspēju un tās rādītājus, un noskaidrot kā tā var ietekmēt teritorijas attīstību.

Uzdevumi - izanalizēt teoriju par konkurētspēju un tās rādītājiem, noskaidrot, kādi faktori ietekmē teritorijas attīstību un salīdzināt ar Latvijas statistikas datiem, izdarīt secinājumus un izstrādāt priekšlikumus.

Darbā pielietotās pētījuma metodes - Latvijas un ārvalstu zinātnieku publikācijas, publikācijas starptautiskajos zinātnisko rakstu krājumos, Latvijas Republikas likumdošanas un normatīvie akti, Latvijas pašvaldību pieredzes un prakses studijas u.tml.

Rezultāti un diskusija

Results and discussion

Kā tika norādīts 2008.gadā notikušajā Starptautiskajā pilsētvides attīstības asociācijas INTA ikgadējajā kongresā, pilsētu un teritoriju

attīstības kvalitātes jautājums ir viens no šī gadsimta izaicinājumiem (Rīga, M. Krastiņš, 2008).

Skatoties no mārketinga viedokļa, mārketinga atziņu izmantošana var palīdzēt teritorijai piesaistīt kā iedzīvotājus, tā arī tūristus, uzņēmējus un investorus, kuriem izvēlēta vieta varētu šķīst piemērota kā dzīvot, tā arī mācīties, strādāt, atpūsties, arī prestižs neciestu. To var attiecināt kā uz lielām, tā arī mazām apdzīvotām vietām un teritorijām.

Jau Apvienoto Nāciju Organizācijas 1996. gada jūnijā organizētajā konference Mājoklis II (Habitat II) par cilvēkmetnēm, bija pirmais vispasaules forums par pilsētu un ciemu izaugsmi, kurā dalību ņēma arī Latvijas pārstāvji.

Sākot ar 1994. gadu Latvija ir iesaistījusies AN Ekonomiskās un sociālās padomes EEK Cilvēkmetņu komitejas un AN Cilvēkmetņu centra (Habitat) aktivitātēs: piedalījies semināros, konferencēs, Habitat II sagatavošanas komitejas II sesijā Nairobi, uzņēmusi EEK Cilvēkmetņu komitejas studiju brauciena dalībniekus, izstrādājusi un iesniegusi vienu Nacionālo progresa ziņojumu, sagatavojuši materiālus "Pajumtes raksturlielumi" un "Pilsētu raksturlielumi", izveidojusi Nacionālo komiteju un izstrādājusi Nacionālo ziņojumu.

Latvijas Nacionālajā ziņojumā AN Pasaules konferencei par cilvēkmetnēm Habitat II -1996 ir apskatīta apdzīvoto vietu attīstība pēdējo piecdesmit gadu laikā, īpaši izdalot pilsētu un lauku problēmas, kas patlaban jārisina Latvijai.

Latvijas teritoriju: novadu, rajonu, dzīvojamo rajonu, apdzīvoto vietu raksturojums

Apdzīvotā vieta:

- 1) apmetne, iedzīvotāju izvietojuma pamatvienība, to ilgstoša, pastāvīga vai sezonāla dzīves vieta, kur izveidojušies materiāli priekšnoteikumi (mājokļi, komunikācijas). Pēc administratīvās un saimnieciskās nozīmes, iedzīvotāju skaita un nodarbinātības, apbūves īpatnībām un blīvuma apdzīvotās vietas klasificē: viensētas, lauku sētu kopas, lauku centri, pilsētas, aglomerācijas, megapoles.
- 2) teritorija, kurā pastāvīgi dzīvo cilvēki un kurā ir izveidoti materiāli priekšnosacījumi teritorijas apdzīvošanai. Latvijas Republikā ir šādas apdzīvotas vietas:
 - pilsētas;
 - lauku apdzīvotas vietas.

Lauku apdzīvotās vietas ir:

- 1) ciemi;
- 2) viensētas.

Administratīvā teritorija - Latvijas teritorijas iedalījuma vienība, kurā valsts pārvaldes institūcijas

un pašvaldības savas kompetences ietvaros realizē pārvaldi. Republikas pilsētu un rajonu administratīvās teritorijas izveido un likvidē, to robežas groza un rajona administratīvos centrus nosaka LR Saeima ar likumu. Rajonu pilsētu, pagastu un pilsētas rajonu administratīvās teritorijas izveido un likvidē, to robežas groza un pagastu administratīvos centrus nosaka Ministru kabinets, pamatojoties uz ieinteresēto pašvaldību lēmumiem.

Latvijas teritorija 64 589 kv.km. Uz 2006.gada 01.janvāri Latvijā dzīvoja 2 295 tūkstoši iedzīvotāju. 2006.gada 01.janvārī iedzīvotāju blīvums (cilvēki uz vienu km² teritorijas) bija 35,5. 2006. gadā iedzīvotāju sadalījums starp pilsētām un laukiem bija sekojošs: pilsētās 68%, laukos 32%.

Latvijā 20.gadsimta 30. gadu vidū 64% iedzīvotāju dzīvoja lauku apvidū. 1935. gada beigās lauku apvidos bija 276 000 zemnieku saimniecību. Visizplatītākais mājoklis laukos bija lauku viensētas.

Latvijas Republika sastāv no Vidzemes, Latgales, Kurzemes un Zemgales; to iedala šādās administratīvās teritorijās: 1) rajonos; 2) republikas pilsētās. Savukārt Latvijas rajonus iedala šādās administratīvās teritorijās: 1) rajonu pilsētās, rajonu pilsētās ar lauku teritoriju; 2) pagastos, novados. Rīgas pilsēta ir iedalīta pilsētas rajonos.

Laī noteiktu, kādā veidā apmešanās vietu lielums ir saistīts ar dažādiem dzīves apstākļu parametriem, tiek izšķirts dalījums ne tikai pilsētas un lauki, bet arī lielās republikas nozīmes pilsētas un mazpilsētas.

Teritorijas zonējums ir viens no dokumentiem, kas nosaka valsts, reģiona, pilsētas, pašvaldības, apdzīvotās vietasteritorijas organizāciju, izmantošanas veidu un attiecīgo teritoriju apjomu. Piemēram, Rīgas teritorija tās administratīvajās robežās ir 30 717 ha (t.sk. sauszeme 25 317 ha). Rīga ir salīdzinoši liela teritorija ar samērā augstu apdzīvotības blīvumu - vidēji 25,7 cilvēki uz 1 ha.

Galvenie Latviju raksturojošie raksturlielumi

Latvija tradicionāli ir sadalīta 4 reģionos, kuri ir ieguvuši izteiktas atšķirības. Latgalē atrodas Latvijas mērogam divas relatīvi lielas pilsētas Daugavpils un Rēzekne. Kurzemē, neskatoties uz divām neaizsalstošām ostām Liepājā un Ventspilī, vērojama samērā reta apdzīvota. Zemgale izceļas ar ļoti auglīgām lauksaimniecībā izmantojamām zemēm, tā ir vairāk apdzīvota un te atrodas republikas nozīmes studentu pilsēta Jelgava. Lielākais Latvijas reģions ir Vidzeme, kas aizņem valsts ziemeļu un centrālo daļu. „Administratīvo teritoriju un apdzīvoto vietu likumprojektā” Valmierai, kā arī Jēkabpils pilsētai ir paredzēts piešķirt republikas nozīmes pilsētas statusu.

Latvijā reģioni atšķiras pēc apmešanās vietu rakstura un to sadalījuma. Pat šodien ir grūti novilkt robežas starp četriem reģioniem, jo tradicionālās reģionālās un administratīvās robežas parasti nav saskanējušas. Latgalē un Kurzemē apmēram 40% iedzīvotāju dzīvo lielajās pilsētās un lauku apvidos, bet mazāk nekā 20% dzīvo mazpilsētās. Savukārt Zemgalē un īpaši Vidzemē mazpilsētās dzīvojošo īpatsvars ir daudz mazāks, un šajos divos reģionos ir arī daudz lauku iedzīvotāju.

Grū Hārlemas Brunlandes vadītā Pasaules vides un attīstības komisija 1987. gadā publicēja ziņojumu "Mūsu kopējā nākotne", kurā pirmoreiz oficiāli pamatota līdzsvarotas attīstības koncepcija. "Ilgtspējīga attīstība (jeb līdzsvarota attīstība) ir attīstības stratēģija, kas nodrošina ilglaicīgu labklājību un pastāvīšanu. Ilgtspējīga attīstība noliedz politiku un praksi, kura uztur pašreizējo dzīves standartu, noplicinot ražošanas bāzi (gan dabas resursus, gan cilvēka radīto kapitālu), un kura atstāj nākošajām paaudzēm mazākas izredzes un lielāku risku nekā mūsējai. Ilgtspējīga attīstība ietver sevī visas vērtības: dabas un cilvēku resursus, kā arī finansiālās un materiālās vērtības".

Jāatzīmē, ka mūsdienās par jaunajām ES dalībvalstīm, t.sk. Latviju, maz ir informācijas par tās kultūrvēsturisko mantojumu, tāpēc konkurētspējas kāpināšanai nozīmīgi ir veikt pētījumus, lai globalizācijas apstākļos interese par Latviju un tās apdzīvotajām vietām (teritoriju) ar katru gadu pieaugtu. Pēc Džeka Trauta domām, uzņēmumiem, tai skaitā teritorijām, ir jāmācās cīnīties ar konkurentiem, jāprot izmantot pašu stiprās puses un vienlaicīgi, mācoties no konkurentu kļūdām, neintralizējot to stiprās puses, izmantot tās savās interesēs. Arī publiskajā telpā teritorijām, kuras ir orientētas gūt panākumus, ir rūpīgi jāanalizē konkurentu aktivitātes (Dž. Trauts, 2001).

Konkurētspēja un teritorijas attīstība

Konkurētspēja- uzņēmuma spēja izdzīvot un veiksmīgi attīstīties konkurences apstākļos. Lai gūtu panākumus jebkurā nozarē vai darbības jomā, ir īpaši konkurences apstākļos, nepieciešams noteikt produktu/pakalpojumu konkurētspēju. Tā nozīme ir ļoti plaša, piemēram, produkta/pakalpojuma atbilstība tirgum un patērētāju prasībām, un realizācijas nosacījumiem. Svarīgs rādītājs ir arī produkta/pakalpojuma lietošanā ieguldītās patērētāja izmaksas.

Noteikt katrā produkta/pakalpojuma konkurētspēju var tikai salīdzinot produktu/pakalpojumu ar konkurentu produktiem/pakalpojumiem. Tas nozīmē, ka konkurētspēja ir stingri noteikti parametri atbilstoši konkrētam tirgum un patērētājam.

Produkta/pakalpojuma konkurētspējas rādītāji (P. Zavjalovs, 2005):

- Ārējie faktori (ekonomikas attīstība, tirgus attīstība, zinātnes attīstība, jauni konkurenti, nozres attīstība, patērētāju paradumu maiņa utt.);
- Kvalitātes rādītāji (standarta, tirgus un situācijas noteikti);
- Ekonomiskie rādītāji (izmaksu samazināšana).

Produkta/pakalpojuma konkurētspējas rādītāji ir atkarīgi no produkta/pakalpojuma veida un specifikas. Konkurētspēja ir noteicošais tirgus veiksmes faktors un tāpēc, jebkura uzņēmuma, iestādes vai organizācijas svarīgākais darbības uzdevums. Veidojot darbības stratēģiju īpaša uzmanība ir jāvelta konkurētspējas radītāju izstrādei.

Konkurētspējas pamatstratēģijas (P. Zavjalovs, 2005):

- Pašizmaksu samazināšana;
- Produkta/pakalpojumu diferenciacija;
- Tirgus segmentācija;
- Inovāciju ieviešana;
- Savlaicīga reaģēšana uz tirgus izmaiņām.

Konkurence. Visās jomās tirgū ir vērojama konkurence. Jo veiksmīgāks uzņēmums, iestāde vai organizācija un perspektīvāka nozare, jo konkurentu vairāk. Konkurence parāda situāciju tirgū. Pēc F. Kotlera domām, visbīstamākie konkurenti ir tie, kuri ir vislīdzīgākie Jūsu uzņēmumam. T. Levits ir teicis, ka šobrīd jauna konkurence veidojās nevis starp uzņēmumiem un to produktiem, bet gan starp to, ko viņi pievieno saviem produktiem (apkalpošana, serviss, garantijas utt.). Bet pats galvenais ir, ka patērētāji, nevis konkurenti nosaka, kurš būs uzvarētājs konkurences karā (F. Kotlers, 2007).

Vadoties no situācijas tirgū, katrai teritorijai ir jānosaka savas konkurētspējas radītāji un jāizstrādā atbilstoša konkurētspējas stratēģija. Teritoriju konkurētspēju šobrīd saista ar tādiem radītājiem, kā-sadarbība, radošums, kultūra un teritoriālā pievilcība. Pavērojot situāciju citās valstīs, ir redzams, ka teritorijas savu konkurētspēju vairāk saista ar teritoriālās pievilcības noteikšanu (Pilsētvides attīstības asociācijas kongress, Rīga, 2008).

Eiropas pilsētas un reģioni konkurē ne tikai savā starpā, bet arī parādās konkurencē ar citām vietām pasaulē. Eiropas tekstila rūpniecība un elektronikas rūpniecība ir stipri cietusi globālās konkurences dēļ, kā arī Tālo Austrumu teritoriju dēļ. Eiropas teritorijām šobrīd ir jākonkurē par investīciju un ražošanas jaudu izvietojumu attiecīgajā teritorijā. Piemēram, Dubaja šobrīd ir izstrādājusi teritorijas attīstības plānu balstītu uz nacionālajiem uzņēmumiem, kuri darbojas tirgū pēdējos četrus gadus. Attīstības plāns tiek balstīts uz vairāk kā 700 starptautiskajiem uzņēmumiem, kuri ir ienākuši Dubajā pēdējos četros gados.

Attīstības plāns (F. Kotlers, 2005)

Potenciāls:

- Liels tirgus (preču imports);
- Augošs tirgus (preču importa pieaugums);
- Plaukstošs tirgus (pirkspējas pieaugums);
- Paplašināts tirgus (pieprasījuma pieaugums).

Stimuli:

- Beznodokļu tirgus (nav ienākumu nodokļu);
- Brīvais tirgus (nav tirdzniecības barjeru, valūtas regulēšanas, investīciju ierobežošanas);
- Efektīvs tirgus (jaunākās tehnoloģijas, attīstīta infrastruktūra);
- Stabils tirgus (attīstīts banku sektors, pakalpojumu sfēra, reģionālie izstāžu un konfenču centri);
- Pieejams tirgus (ostas, lidostas, tranzīts);
- Kosmopolitisks tirgus (augsta dzīves kvalitāte, attīstīta izglītības sistēma, apūtas un veselības sistēma).

Pamatojoties uz Ekonomiskās sadarbības un attīstības organizācijas (OECD) pētījumiem, globalizācijas ietekmē pastiprinās teritoriju un vietu specializācija. OECD dati liecina, ka ārvalstu investīciju ieplūšanai nostiprinās reģionālo specializāciju 60-70 % gadījumu. Tas nozīmē, ka teritorijai, kura ir orientēta uz konkrētu nozari, nākotnē ir iespējams sagaidīt lielāku speciālo investīciju ieplūdi. Tāpēc cilvēkiem, kuri vada un veido teritorijas attīstību, ir svarīgi noteikt, kādas nozares būs vadošās un, kuras nepieciešams atbalstīt, ņemot vērā to stiprās un vājās puses (F. Kotlers, 2005).

Pamatojoties uz konkurences analīzi, M. Porters (skat. 1 att.) ir noteicis piecus faktori, kas nosaka tirgus vai tirgus segmenta ilgtermiņa pievilcību (F. Kotlers, 2006).

Teritorijas pievilcība. Tādejādi pašlaik ir izveidojusies situācija, kurā vairāk nekā jebkad teritorijai ir svarīgi izpētīt konkurenci no tirgus un nozares perspektīvas viedokļa.

Tirgus pievilcīgums. Analizējot konkurenci, parasti tiek ņemti vērā pieci faktori, kas nosaka tirgus vai tirgus segmenta ilgtermiņa pievilcību: konkurenti nozarē, iespējamie jaunpienācēji, aizvietotāji, pircēji un piegādātāji.

Sacensība segmentā. Segments ir nepievilcīgs, ja tajā ir daudz spēcīgi vai agresīvi konkurenti, ir augstas fiksētās izmaksas, ja pastāv tirgus atstāšanas draudi vai konkurenti ieinteresēti palikt tirgū. Šie faktori var izraisīt cenu karus, mārketinga komunikācijas pasākumu aktivizēšanos un jaunu produktu ieviešanu.

Jaunpienācēju draudi. Segmenta pievilcība ir atkarīga no barjerām, kas ierobežo ienākšanu tirgū un aiziešanu no tā. Vispievilcīgākajam segmentam ir augsti ienākšanas ierobežojumi un zemi segmenta atstāšanas ierobežojumi.

Aizvietotāju produktu draudi. Segments nav pievilcīgs, ja produktam ir esošie vai potenciālie aizvietotāji. Aizvietotāji nosaka cenu un peļņas ierobežojumus.

Pircēju ietekmes draudi. Segments nav pievilcīgs, ja pircējiem ir viegli nomainīt produktu, pircēji ir jūtīgi pret cenām. Lai kokurētu var izvēlēties pircējus, kuriem ir mazāka ietekme, mainīt piegādātājus vai arī izveidot īpašus piedāvājumus, kuriem pircēji nevar pretoties.

Piegādātāju ietekmes draudi. Segments nav pievilcīgs, ja piegādātāji spēj paaugstināt cenas vai samazināt piegādes apjomu.

Reģions, teritorija, vieta- piedāvā patērētāju lomu savām iespējām ne tikai pašiem, bet arī citiem. Tomēr, lai varētu runāt par mārketinga pieeju, teritorijai būtu īpaša uzmanība jāpievērš savu produktu attīstīšanai atbilstoši sabiedrības vajadzībām, analizējot un ņemot vērā konkurentu darbību, izmantojot visus savus resursus un potenciālu, nevis koncentrējot visu reģiona uzmanību uz sevi. (Vaidere I., Vanags E., Vanags, I., Vilka I., 2006.)

Nozare ir uzņēmumu grupa, kas piedāvā produktu vai produktu grupu, kas savstarpēji ir tuvi aizvietotāji. Nozares tiek klasificēta pēc pārdevēju skaita, produkta diferenciacijas pakāpes, ienākšanas, mobilitātes un izešanas esamības vai neesamības, izmaksu struktūras, vertikālās integrācijas pakāpes, globalizācijas pakāpes.

Pārdevēju skaits un produkta diferenciacijas pakāpe. Nozares analīzes sākumpunkts ir pārdevēju

	Iespējamie jaunpienācēji (mobilitātes draudi)	
Piegādātāji (piegādātāju draudi)	Konkurenti nozarē (sacensība segmentā)	Pircēji (pircēju ietekme)
	Aizvietotāji (aizvietotāju draudi)	

1. attēls **Pieci faktori, kas nosaka tirgus pievilcību (F. Kotlers, 2006)**
Five factors determining the market attractiveness

skaita noteikšana un produkta definēšana. Nozares konkurencē struktūra laika gaitā var mainīties.

Ienākšanas, mobilitātes un izešanas barjeras.

Nozares ievērojami atšķiras pēc tā, cik viegli vai grūti tajās ir ienākt. Galvenās ienākšanas barjeras ietver liela kapitāla nepieciešamību, mēroga ekonomikas, prasības pēc patentiem un licencēm, atrašanās vietas, izejmateriālus vai izplatītājus, prasības pēc reputācijas. Pat esot nozarē, var rasties mobilitātes problēmas, mēģinot ienākt pievilcīgākos segmentos vai izešanas barjeras, piemēram, juridiskie vai morālie pienākumi pret pircējiem, darbiniekiem, kreditoriem u.c.

Izmaksu struktūra. Katrai nozarei ir noteikts izmaksu smagums. Tapēc galvenais ir samazināt izmaksas, jo tā ir iespējams iegūt lielāku konkurētspēju nozarē.

Vertikālās integrācijas pakāpe. Daudzi uzņēmumi gūst labumu no integrācijas, kas vērsta uz priekšu vai atpakaļ. Tapēc arvien biežāk kā ārpakalpojumus pērk tās aktivitātes, ko speciālisti var veikt labāk un lētāk.

Globalizācijas pakāpe. Dažas nozares ir izteikti lokālas, citas globālas. Tie uzņēmumi, kuri darbojas globālajās nozarēs, konkurē globalajā līmenī.

Tomēr jāņem vērā, ka noteiktos apstākļos sabiedrības daļa var būt ieinteresēta teritorijas attīstībā vai tieši pretēji- neieinteresēta teritorijas attīstībā. Kādas ir sabiedrības intereses attiecībā pret teritoriju? Pārsvārā tās skar teritorijas konkurētspējas rādītāju efektīvu izmantošanu- pastāvīgu dzīvošanu, uzņēmējdarbību un īslaicīgu dzīvošanu. Konkrētāk analizējot, tas varētu būt tirgus lielums, pieprasījuma

maksātspēja, infrastruktūras attīstība, kultūras, izglītības un veselības aprūpes iespējas un līmenis, izejvielu resursi un darbaspēks (profils, kvalifikācija, daudzums, izmaksas utt.) u.c.

Teritorijas attīstība

2. attēls parāda, ja teritorija ir pievilcīga, tad darba iespējas un dzīves kvalitāte ir augsta un tas savukārt piesaista jaunus iedzīvotājus, tūristus, uzņēmumus un investīcijas. Iedzīvotāju un resursu pieplūduma rezultātā paaugstinās cenas uz nekustamo īpašumu, papildus noslogo vietējo infrastruktūru un sociālo dienestu budžetu. Ar šādam problēmām sastopas daudzas teritorijas vai pilsētas Eiropā, piemēram, Londona, Parīze. Parasti teritorijas paaugstina nodokļus iedzīvotājiem un uzņēmumiem, lai apmaksātu nepieciešamo transporta, komunikācijas, enerģētikas un sociālo sektoru vajadzības, kā arī izglītības un veselības sistēmu uzturēšanu. Tas rada situāciju, kad daži iedzīvotāji un uzņēmumi sāk pamest teritoriju, lai ietaupītu savus izdevumus. Notiek pievilcīgu un attīstītu teritoriju pārtapšana par mazāk pievilcīgām teritorijām, tas var radīt krīzes situāciju.

Daudzās teritorijās pēc straujas attīstības veidojās krīzes vai krituma periodi un līdz ar to teritorija zaudē savu pievilcību. Krīzes situācijas var veidoties stihiski vai neatkarīgu no teritorijas iemeslu dēļ un dažādu ārējās vides faktoru ietekmes rezultātā. Situācijā, kad teritorija sāk zaudēt savu pievilcību rodas tādi spēki, kuri vēl vairāk pasliktina situāciju. 3.attēlā parādīti krīzes situācijas virzošie spēki. Ja kāda svarīga uzņēmuma vai organizācijas situācija

	Teritorijas pievilcība : 1. rodas jauna nozare 2. pieaug darba iespējas 3. pievilcīga dzīves kvalitāte	
Jaunu iedzīvotāju un tūristu pieplūdums		Jaunu uzņēmumu un investīciju pieplūdums
	1. Nekustamo īpašumu cenu pieaugums 2. Infrastruktūras noslodzes pieaugums 3. Sociālo vajadzību pieaugums	
	Teritorijas nodokļu pieaugums	

2.attēls Teritorijas pieauguma dinamika (F. Kotlers, 2005)
Dynamics of the territorial development

	<p>Teritorija kļūst nepievilcīga :</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. pamatnozare vai uzņēmums cieš vai aizplūst 2. ekonomiskā krīze ietekmē biznesa darījumus 3. pieaug bezdarbs 4. nolietojās infrastruktūra 5. pieaug teritorijas budžeta deficīts 	
Iedzīvotāju aizplūšana	Tūristu un tūrisma infrastruktūras kritums	Uzņēmumu un investīciju aizplūšana
	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Banku kreditēšanas nosacījumu sarežģītība 2. Pieaug bankrotu skaits 3. Pieaug pieprasījums pēc sociālajām programmām <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Pieaug noziedzība un narkomānija 2. Teritorijas tēls zaudē pievilcību 	
	Teritorija paaugstina nodokļus	

3. attēls **Krīzes situācijas virzošie spēki (F. Kotlers, 2005)**
Driving forces of crisis

tirgū saasinās, tas, protams, ietekmē noteiktās teritorijās attīstību. Jo darba vietu skaits samazinās, nekustamā īpašuma cenas krīt, ātrāk nolietojās infrastruktūra. Šāda situācija paātrina iedzīvotāju un uzņēmumu aizplūšanu. Bankas sarežģī kreditēšanas nosacījumus, kas savukārt, noved pie uzņēmumu bankrota un bezdarba. Bezdarbs veicina noziedzības veidošanos un narkomānijas pastiprināšanos, kas rada pieprasījumu pēc sociālajām programmām. Teritorijas tēls zaudē savu pievilcību. Teritorija paaugstina nodokļus, lai apkalpotu un modernizētu infrastruktūru un nodrošinātu sociālo vajadzību nodrošināšanu, bet augsti nodokļi vēl vairāk paātrina resursu aizplūšanu. Diemžēl ir ļoti daudz piemēru, Francijā Overņas reģionā sākās krīze 1980. gadā, pēc 30 gadu uzplaukuma. Tas sākās 1980. gadā ar lauksaimniecības kritumu un auto riepu giganta "Michelin" darba vietu samazinājumu. Šai teritorijai nebija izstrādāta krīzes situācijas rīcības programma un turpmāko periodu attīstības plāns. Iedzīvotāji, it īpaši jaunieši pameta teritoriju, pieauga bezdarbs. Tā rezultātā teritorijai radās budžeta deficīts un teritorijas tēls zaudēja pievilcību, radās nepieciešamība paaugstināt nodokļus. Šādā situācijā teritorijai ir jāsāk mazināt krituma procesu un jāizstrādā teritorijas attīstības stratēģija, kas varētu piesaistīt jaunas nozares. Šobrīd Overņas reģions ir otrs lielākais Francijā kūrortu nozares jomā un, tāpēc īpaši tiek domāts par tūrisma industrijas attīstības stratēģijas nepārtrauktu pilnveidošanu (F. Kotlers, 2005).

Reģions ir jebkura zemes virsmes daļa, kura pēc fiziski ģeogrāfiskajām īpašībām vai cilvēka darbības rakstura ir atšķirīga no apkārtējām teritorijām.

Teritorija ir telpas apzīmējums. Teritorijas galvenā pazīme ir robežas neatkarīgi no mēroga. Teritorijas būtību konkrēti atsedz teritorijas loma jeb iekšējās funkcijas, to skaitā pārvaldes funkcijas.

Šobrīd notiek diskusijas par pilsētu (teritorijas) izaugsmes potenciālu, jo Eiropas pilsētas ir ekonomiski aktīvas, tajās koncentrējas visvairāk darba vietas, ražotnes, izglītības un pētniecības centri. Līdz ar to Eiropā ir vērojama pilsētu daudzveidība pēc lieluma un piedāvājuma.

Teritorijām ir jāuzņemas risināt vairākus galvenos izaicinājumus, tādus kā sociālā attīstība, vides aizsardzība, konkurētspēja un stratēģiskā plānošana ilgtermiņā.

Teritorijas attīstības mērķis ir nodrošināt iedzīvotājiem vienādas iespējas un dzīves līmeni, un kvalitāti, uzņēmējiem veicināt vienādas attīstības iespējas, balstoties uz specifisko teritorijas un vietējo potenciālu.

Latvijā ir 77 pilsētu teritorijas vienības, tajā skaitā 7 republikas nozīmes pilsētas, un tajās dzīvo aptuveni 70% valsts iedzīvotāju. Aptuveni 60% ekonomiski aktīvo uzņēmumu ir izvietoti pilsētās, un vairāk nekā 70% no kopējā valsts iekšzemes kopprodukta tiek saražots tieši pilsētās. Pilsētās, galvenokārt republikas nozīmes pilsētas, koncentrējās arī augstākas izglītības un kultūras iestādes. Tādēļ šobrīd arī Latvijā notiek diskusijas par to, kā veidot teritoriju un pilsētu attīstību,

uzlabojot pilsētvides kvalitāti, izveidot iedzīvotājiem un uzņēmumiem pievilcīgas teritorijas.

Šo mērķu un uzstādījumu īstenošanai ir jāatrod pareizie instrumenti, kas sekmētu teritoriju attīstību un līdz ar to arī celtu iedzīvotāju un uzņēmumu dzīves kvalitāti un produktivitāti atbilstoši konkrēto teritoriju vajadzībam un izaugsmes iespējam.

Secinājumi, priekšlikumi, ieteikumi

Conclusions and Recommendations

- Mūsdienās teritoriju konkurence ir ne tikai asa, bet pat katru gadu arvien pieaugoša.
- Globalizācijas ietekmē pastiprinās teritoriju un vietu specializācija.
- Teritorijai ir svarīgi izpētīt konkurenci no tirgus un nozares perspektīvas viedokļa.
- Teritorija ir pievilcīga, ja darba iespējas un dzīves kvalitāte ir augsta un tas savukārt piesaista jaunus iedzīvotājus, tūristus, uzņēmumus un investīcijas.
- Daudzās teritorijās pēc straujas attīstības veidojās krīzes vai krituma periodi un līdz ar to teritorija zaudē savu pievilcību.
- Teritorijām ir jāuzņemās risināt vairākus galvenos izaicinājumus, tādus kā sociālā attīstība, vides aizsardzība, konkurētspēja un stratēģiskā plānošana ilgtermiņā.
- Teritorijas attīstības mērķis ir nodrošināt iedzīvotājiem vienādas iespējas un dzīves līmeni, un kvalitāti, uzņēmējiem veicināt vienādas attīstības iespējas, balstoties uz specifisko teritorijas un vietējo potenciālu.

- Šobrīd aktīvāk Latvijā notiek diskusijas par to, kā veidot teritoriju un pilsētu attīstību, uzlabojot pilsētvides kvalitāti, izveidot iedzīvotājiem un uzņēmumiem pievilcīgas teritorijas.

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Factors Affecting Multifunctional Farming in Latvia

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Abstract.

The paper is dedicated to comparing the results of two expert surveys/focus group discussions on an effect of social factors on economic activity diversification in Vidzeme region, which were conducted at an interval of five years, involving a constant body of experts. The longitudinal research design enabled us not only to identify the factors affecting economic activity diversification, but also to evaluate their effect dynamics. The discussion of the focus group revealed a deep insight into entrepreneurs' motivation and problems related to economic activity diversification. The experts identified six the most significant factors for developing multifunctional economic activity, ranging them by significance as follows: knowledge, education, technology, market, motivation, and experience, thus emphasising the importance of social factors in performing economic functions.

Key words: diversification, economic factors, social factors.

Introduction

Quite significant changes that are known in the Western Europe already since the middle of the 20th century have been taking place over the recent decades in Latvian rural areas – the role of agriculture as a dominant occupational industry decreases, and the multifunctional economic activity expands. Land owners who are not able to gain sufficient incomes from agricultural production engage in additional economic activities such as tourism, crafts, construction, and various technical and social services.

In the result of the agricultural reform, a lot of small farms emerged in Latvian rural areas, the largest part of which does not produce agricultural commodities for the market. According to the latest statistical data, 55.2% of all farms did not produce agricultural goods for the market in 2007 (The Structure of Agricultural... 2008:19). Only 14% were full-time employees from the total number of those engaged in agriculture (The Structure of Agricultural...2008:63). It means there are a lot of partially employed people who could be engaged in additional economic activities. The situation characterised in the present paper emphasises the need for increasing the proportion of multifunctional economic activity and identifying the factors promoting this trend.

In 2001-2003 this problem was started to be studied, a methodology was elaborated, and first empirical studies were conducted, including an expert survey that was integrated with a focus group discussion on possibilities for economic activity diversification and their affecting factors in Vidzeme region. The

first studies showed that not only economic, but also social factors affect the diversification in Latvian rural areas (Rivza B., Rivza P. and Kruzmetra M., 2001). In May 2004 Latvia became a full member of the European Union, which brought new features into many processes taking place in the society.

The research aim is to determine the changes in the affect of economic and social factors on the diversification of economic activity in Vidzeme region in 2003-2008.

The following research tasks are set forth to achieve the research aim:

- 1) to rate the endogenous economic (controllable and uncontrollable) and social (formal and informal) conditions on farms in the present situation;
- 2) to forecast the most optimal scenario for the above-mentioned conditions;
- 3) to compare the results gained in 2003 and 2008.

Taking into account the urgency of the problem and the research aim, the following hypothesis was formulated: according to the experts the effect of social factors on the diversification in rural areas increases.

Methodology

The concept of social change serves as a theoretical background for this study. The concept emphasises that endogenous changes take place continuously in the society. These changes accumulate and finally transform into not only quantitative, but also qualitative changes of the system itself (Sztompka P.: 96-97). One of the scenarios for changes in the society

is the transition from traditional to modern, which in essence is the formation of innovative activity. This transition is mostly shaped by the model of modern people having the following features:

- 1) openness to innovation and change;
- 2) orientation towards today and tomorrow, not yesterday;
- 3) planning of perspective actions to reach the goals;
- 4) prioritisation of education and training (Inkeles A., 1976)

The mentioned-above features, to a great extent, are formed by human capital that is the sum of an individual's abilities and skills, which increases the individual's economic and social potential (Human capital..., 2006/2007).

Materials and methods

A methodology developed in 2000 for qualitative research was used in the study conducted in 2008. This methodology combines expert surveys and focused discussions on the results rating endogenous economic (controllable and uncontrollable) and social (formal and informal) conditions (current and preferable) on farms (Figure 1).

First of all, the experts were supplied with questionnaires, and the details for filling them out were provided. After the questionnaires were completed, an expert discussion was held and its results were summarised. As the experts, the same specialists from various industries of the national economy,

employees of banks and government institutions – those who were engaged in the first stage of the study – participated, in total 13 individuals. Among them, there were individuals who farm land themselves or are very closely related to farmers. A bank employee and the employees of the Regional Board, the Rural Support Service, and of advisory centres had work experience of many years or several decades.

More detailed characteristics of the experts regarding their education, age, and occupation is given in Table 1.

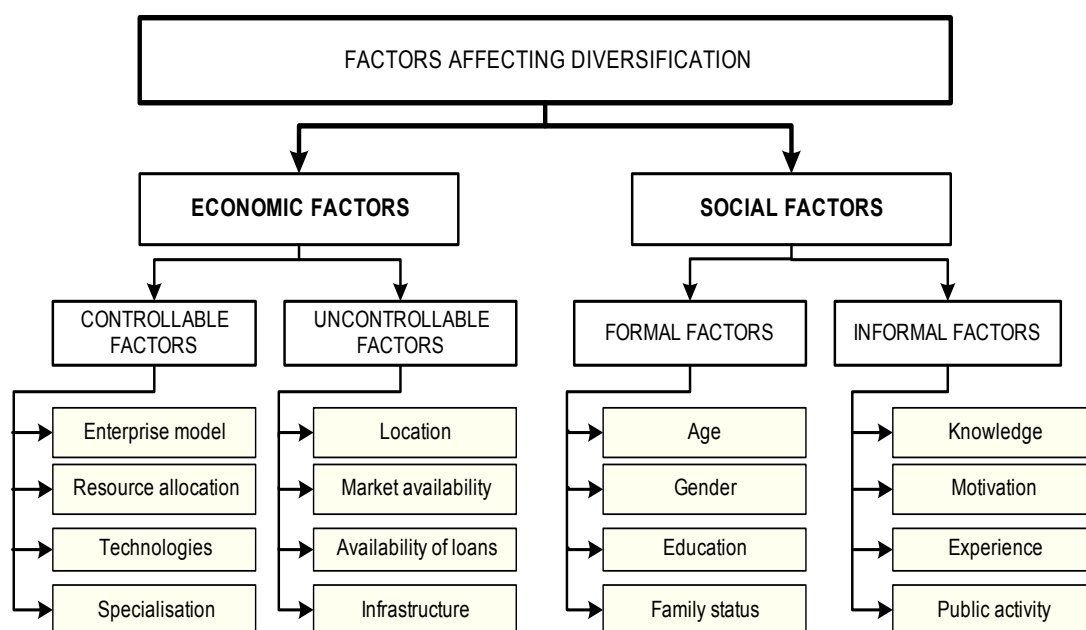
The experts represented various districts of Vidzeme (Valmiera, Cēsis, Valka, and Limbaži).

Results and discussion

The results gained in the survey and focused discussion were analysed in accordance with the research tasks that are subject to the research aim.

1. An evaluation of the real situation with endogenous economic and social conditions on farms. The evaluation of the real situation in 2008 by the experts, using a one-hundred-point system, is given in Table 2.

Evaluating the **present situation**, the majority of the focus group experts pointed that so far mostly the economic factors affect the diversification of economic activity – scoring 60 points. The effect of the economic factors was given the highest scores by experts J.B., Z.S., D.S., V.S. who are actually closely associated with farmers, but according to their



Source: developed by the authors (Rivza B., Krūzmētra M., 2001)

Figure 1. Development conditions for multifunctional rural enterprises

Table 1

Characteristics of the individuals engaged in the expert survey and focus group

	<i>Indicator</i>	<i>As percentage</i>	<i>Number of respondents</i>
<i>Education</i>	<i>Higher</i>	12	92.0
	<i>Secondary special</i>	1	8.0
	<i>Total</i>	13	100.0
<i>Age</i>	<i>36-49</i>	7	54.0
	<i>50-64</i>	4	31.0
	<i>Over 65</i>	2	15.0
	<i>Total</i>	13	100.0
<i>Work experience</i>	<i>Farmers</i>	7	54.0
	<i>Government employees</i>	3	23.0
	<i>Bank employee</i>	1	8.0
	<i>Local government employees</i>	2	15.0
	<i>Total</i>	13	100.0

Source: developed by the authors according to the survey results of focus group experts in 2008

Table 2

Proportions of economic and social factors affecting economic activity diversification when evaluating the present situation

<i>Economic and social factors, 100 points in total</i>							
<i>Economic factors 60</i>				<i>Social factors 40</i>			
<i>Controllable</i>	27	<i>Uncontrollable</i>	33	<i>Formal</i>	15	<i>Informal</i>	25
<i>including:</i>							
<i>Enterprise model</i>	5	<i>Location</i>	8	<i>Age</i>	5	<i>Knowledge</i>	10
<i>Labour consumption</i>	4	<i>Market availability</i>	15	<i>Gender</i>	-	<i>Motivation</i>	10
<i>Technologies</i>	13	<i>Availability of loans</i>	5	<i>Education</i>	10	<i>Experience</i>	5
<i>Specialisation</i>	5	<i>Infrastructure</i>	5	<i>Family</i>	-	<i>Public activity</i>	-

Source: author's estimates based on the survey of focus group experts in 2008

positions they are administrators. The evaluations of these experts are based on their personal experience in managing businesses and overcoming the present economic problems. After making a deeper analysis of the economic factors, the group pointed that presently the uncontrollable economic factors prevail, scoring 33 points out of 60. According to the experts, the diversification of economic activity is mostly affected by the factor of market availability out of the all uncontrollable economic factors.

M.A., the owner of a farm and wholesale company: "Today the market is very choosy – you have to assure constant quality, large quantities

to meet the needs of wholesalers, and regular and non-stop deliveries. Farmers have to cooperate, but the present legislation does not promote it as well as the recent experience of collectivisation does not allow objective evaluation of the situation".

A geographical location of a farm also is important. It proves there is no single solution for the whole Latvia or even a district.

M.T., a farmer and municipality leader: "The location very significantly affects the market availability – the closer to cities with a good infrastructure and large population, the easier to

find solutions for selling agricultural commodities as final goods”.

A similar trend is observed in the evaluations of the social factors: the **informal social factors** were recognised as the most significant, out of them – knowledge and motivation – were emphasised.

R.C. *“Knowledge is such an interesting thing – the more we get to know, the more unclear questions are raised. I have noticed that education gives a wider view irrespective of whether it is an agricultural or another education”.*

The largest part of the experts supported an opinion that the role of knowledge and experience in successfully diversifying economic activity will increase in the future because *“... with the accession to the European Union, competition increases, new circumstances and conditions, to which one has to adapt, emerge, and only an educated, experienced farmer is able to cope with it”.*

V.S., a farmer and municipality leader: *“Without education, various types of experience (domestic and foreign), a very important role in entrepreneurship development is played by motivation – if no results are achieved by working hard, sooner or later people start rethinking the significance of their activities”.*

The close connection between the economic and social factors was emphasised by one of the experts, additionally pointing that a range of the economic factors – such as specialisation of economic activities and technologies – is chosen by farmers themselves.

V.S., an experienced farmer: *“The economic factors such as technologies or specialisation are chosen by farmers themselves, depending on their level of knowledge and previous experience. These economic factors are always linked to people”.*

No significance is assigned to the social factors such as family status and farmers’ public activity.

V.L., a farmer: *“After managing the farm for a long time and assessing my own experience and that of neighbours, in my opinion, an age of farmers and their family status do not affect the development of farms. Both positive and negative examples are observed regardless of these indicators”.*

2. The preferable scenario for the endogenous economic and social conditions on farms in the present situation.

After discussing the research results and comparing the present situation’s assessments to a preferable situation, a certain distinction was observed in the assessments of several factors. Under optimal conditions, they would:

- 1) decrease the effect of geographical location of farms, market availability, and availability of loans;

D.N. *“A particular location is related not only to the nearest market, but sometimes and even quite*

often it is related to an insufficient infrastructure for business development. Tourism or any other kind of economic activity diversification will be problematic for their development if there are no quality roads, communication, and Internet”.

V.L., a farmer and manager of a machine ring: *“Since the last time the situation in the sheep industry has sharply changed. We are not able to produce the necessary quantity of mutton demanded by the foreign market because we have succeeded in finding an active individual who solves these problems positively. The location is not important for us if there is an individual having necessary knowledge and skills for settling sales problems”.*

- 2) increase the significance of knowledge, education, experience, and specialisation, even the effect of the family;

D.S. *“One can conclude from our discussion that the effect of the informal social factors – knowledge and experience – increases more and more. It proves that even if education widens common views and an understanding, nowadays specific knowledge and experience is required, which can be acquired in the form of various training courses, providing and improving possibilities for life-long education in rural areas”.*

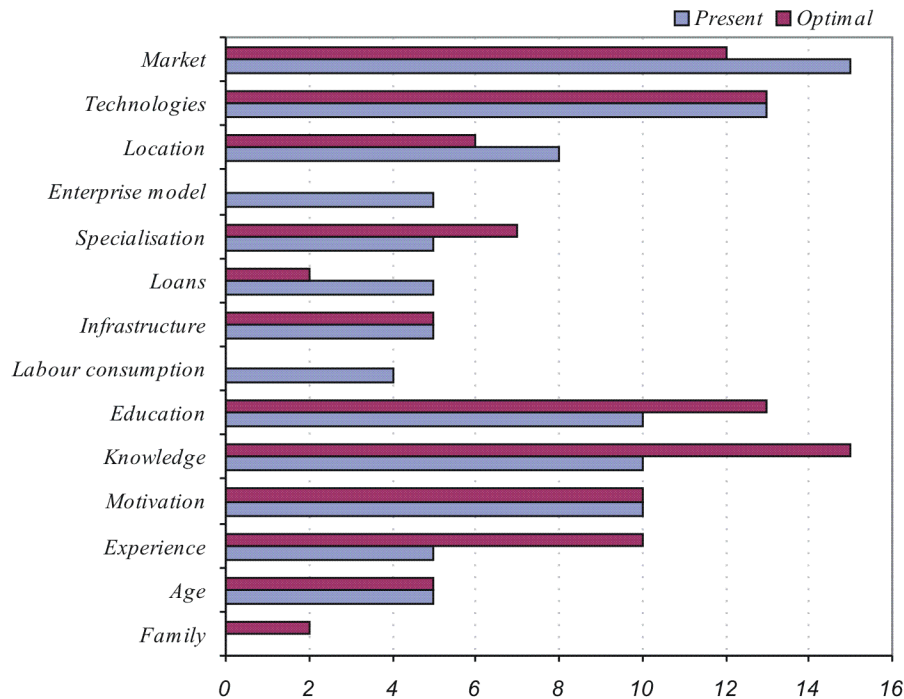
- 3) be retained the present effect of infrastructure, motivation, farmers’ age structure, and technologies;

V.S. summarised the discussion results regarding the problem of understanding the values of rural entrepreneurs: *“Not only well-being is important to people, but also a sense of perspectives – an understanding of what is going on, an ability to see and find a job, and a feeling that you are needed. It might be realised only by educated, self-confident, and economically motivated people”.*

- 4) removed the following factors from the list of the most significant factors: enterprise model and labour consumption.

V.S. *“If taking into account the present legislation, any form of entrepreneurial activity does not impact business neither in agriculture nor in other industries that are developed for gaining additional incomes, but labour consumption is related to and depends on technologies used”.*

In the experts’ view after identifying six the most significant factors, the diversification of economic activity in 2008 was determined by the economic and social factors in equal proportions in the optimal scenario, with increase in the significance of social factors. Evaluating the optimal situation, the six most significant factors were as follows: knowledge, education, technologies, market availability, and experience. If we assume that a choice of technologies, to some extent, is determined by farmers, which



Source: authors' estimates based on the survey of focus group experts in 2008

Figure 3. Proportions of the factors affecting the diversification of economic activity for the present and preferable scenario, according to the experts' evaluation in 2008

depends on their knowledge, education, and experience, then in the experts' opinion, out of the six most significant factors affecting the diversification of economic activity – five are social factors and only one is an economic factor. It convincingly proves the increasing role of the social factors, especially knowledge and education, in diversifying economic activity.

3. Comparing the results of the expert surveys and focus discussions carried out in 2008 and 2003.

By using the same methodology and expert group, during this study there was a possibility to analyse the evolution of opinions over a five year period. In this period, Latvia joined the European Union, the experience of multifunctional economic activity was acquired, and a greater opportunity emerged to forecast future trends.

According to Table 3, the experts admit that, if the evaluation of 2008 is compared to that of 2003, the effect of both controllable and uncontrollable factors decreases in accordance with the overall trend of the decreasing effect of economic factors, which can be explained by acquiring certain experience, by better understood desires and an ability to adapt to the existing situation. By comparing the formal and informal factors in the group of social factors, the experts concluded that in the present situation

of 2008 the formal factors slightly decreased their effect, but the effect of the informal factors increases. An increase in the effect of both formal and informal social factors is observed in the preferable scenario. **It means that in the experts' view, economic activity has to be more and more based in the future on knowledge, motivation, and experience.**

The largest differences, in the experts' view, are observed in the following economic factors. The experts emphasise the increase in the role of technologies both in the present and preferable scenario, approaching such a significant economic factor as market availability. By evaluating the preferable situation, the experts forecast that the effect of the factors such as enterprise model and labour consumption decreases and becomes insignificant. In the long run, by accumulating own capital, the significance of loan availability will decrease. The expert group believes that by developing rural regions, providing attractive conditions for living and doing business, the effect of location on the diversification of economic activity could decrease. The rating of market availability in 2008 as compared to 2003 remained unchanged – it is the most significant factor also in 2008. According to the experts, the significance of technologies, education, knowledge, motivation, and age increased. The rating of the effect of enterprise location and of infrastructure remained

Table 3

**Economic and social factors affecting the diversification of economic activity
in 2003 and 2008, according to the experts' survey**

<i>Economic factors</i>	<i>Present situation</i>		<i>Preferable situation</i>	
	2003	2008	2003	2008
Total/on average	63	60	54	45
<i>1. Controllable, incl.:</i>	28	27	25	20
<i>Enterprise model</i>	6	5	4	-
<i>Labour consumption</i>	6	4	4	-
Technologies	9	13	9	13
<i>Specialisation</i>	7	5	8	7
<i>2. Uncontrollable, inc.:</i>	35	33	29	25
<i>Location</i>	8	8	8	6
<i>Market availability</i>	15	15	12	12
<i>Availability of loans</i>	7	5	5	2
<i>Infrastructure</i>	5	5	4	5
Social factors				
Total/on average	37	40	46	55
<i>1. Formal, incl.:</i>	16	15	15	20
<i>Age</i>	4	5	2	5
<i>Gender</i>	2	-	1	-
<i>Education</i>	7	10	10	13
<i>Family</i>	3	-	2	2
<i>2. Informal, incl.:</i>	21	25	31	35
Knowledge	7	10	9	15
Motivation	5	10	9	10
<i>Experience</i>	6	5	10	10
<i>Public activity</i>	3	-	3	-

Source: authors' estimates based on the survey of focus group experts in 2003 and 2008

Table 4

**The most significant economic and social factors affecting the diversification ranged in the
present and optimal situation in 2003 and 2008, according to the experts**

<i>Factors ranged by significance</i>	<i>Present situation</i>		<i>Preferable situation</i>	
	2003	2008	2003	2008
1.	<i>Market</i>	<i>Market</i>	<i>Market</i>	Knowledge
2.	<i>Technologies</i>	<i>Technologies</i>	Education	Education
3.	<i>Location</i>	Education	Experience	<i>Technologies</i>
4.	Education	Knowledge	Knowledge	<i>Market</i>
5.	Knowledge	Motivation	Motivation	Motivation
6.	<i>Specialisation</i>	<i>Location</i>	<i>Technologies</i>	Experience

Source: authors' estimates based on the survey of focus group experts in 2003 and 2008

unchanged. The rating of the effect of such factors as enterprise model, availability of loans, experience, specialisation, and labour consumption decreased. The factors like family, public activities, and gender, in the experts' view, do not significantly affect the diversification of economic activity.

I.K., a deputy chairwoman, Regional Agricultural Board: "... today farmers have a possibility to modernise production by using the EU Structural Funds – all they have to do just to find the best technology and the most appropriate solution on particular conditions, considering their possibilities".

As to the effect of enterprise model on the diversification of economic activity, expert D.N. said: "...an enterprise model has actually no special effect – the most important is to lower taxes, especially for starting up a business, and to differentiate tax rates, depending on location".

Expert V.S., a pensioner and former manager of an agricultural joint stock company, comments the role of education in diversifying economic activity: "Latvian universities quite slowly reorient toward new public goals – acquiring knowledge useful in real life. Education has to be an open process all life long and provide possibilities for everyone to improve and perfect their knowledge, especially in our society when transformation processes occur very fast. The state should be interested in developing knowledge, as only an educated and informed society can build and develop the state".

In the preferable scenario, the changes in the effect of several economic and social factors on the diversification of economic activity, in the experts' view, are even more significant – the social factors convincingly prevail over the economic factors in the first six positions. The most significant factors are as follows: education and knowledge, followed by technologies and market availability (Table 4).

In the conclusion one can say that the data in Table 3 show the changes in the processes that took place during the recent five years: an increase in the proportion and significance of the social factors as compared to the economic factors. However, Table 4 shows the factors selected in the study's methodology, and evaluated and ranged by their significance by the experts.

Conclusions

In practise, the factors such as market availability and technologies have retained their dominating positions, education and knowledge have become more significant, but motivation entered the group of the most significant factors for multifunctional economic activity. Therefore, the number of the social factors has increased (from two to three) in the

group of the most significant factors, and their level of significance has also increased.

However, in the preferable scenario, such social factors as knowledge and education became absolute leaders in diversifying economic activity, leaving behind even the factors such as technologies and market availability. The experts have included experience in the group of the most significant factors for multifunctional economic activity.

Such changes in the significance of the factors make us seriously think of several problems.

1. Do the people who claim agricultural land or want to rent it have to be required to have at least a lower professional education like it is in several countries of the European Union (the Netherlands, Slovenia), which provides a certain level of knowledge on the principles of business management. According to the newest statistical data, 62.2% of farm managers had only practical experience in field works, 13.8% - basic education in agriculture, 19.2% - professional agricultural education, but only 4.8% of all farm managers had a higher agricultural education (The Structure of Agricultural..., 2008:10).
2. The above-mentioned situation requires expanding professional training activities for adults within the system of lifelong learning, which would spread the best domestic and foreign experience needed for multifunctional economic activity because such experience has been accumulated for decades in the European Union.
3. The consultations system functioning in rural areas has to be improved, so that all consultants are able to provide information not only about problems of conventional agriculture, but also are sufficiently competent in issues related to economic activity diversification.
4. More efforts have to be contributed to the informatisation of rural territories, so that acquiring knowledge is possible not only in organised groups, but also individually on each farm, depending on individual needs and specialisation.

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Kopsavilkums

Raksts veltīts divu ar piecu gadu distanci notikušu ekspertu aptauju/fokusgrupu diskusiju rezultātu salīdzināšanai par ekonomisko un sociālo faktoru ietekmi uz saimnieciskās darbības dažādošanu Vidzemes reģionā ar nemainīgu ekspertu sastāvu. Longitudināls pētījuma dizains deva iespēju ne vien noskaidrot saimnieciskās darbības dažādošanu ietekmējošos faktorus, bet arī novērtēt to ietekmes dinamiku. Fokusa grupas diskusija savukārt atklāja dziļāku ieskatu uzņēmēju motivācijā un problēmās, kas saistītas ar saimnieciskās darbības dažādošanu.

Eksperti par sešiem svarīgākajiem daudzfunkcionālas saimniekošanas attīstības faktoriem, sarunājot tos pēc nozīmības, izdalīja zināšanas, izglītību, tehnoloģijas, tirgu, motivāciju un pieredzi līdz ar to pasvītrotot sociālo faktoru nozīmību ekonomisko funkciju veikšanā.

Rural Development and Globalisation

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Abstract

Dynamically developing globalisation process opens before international community new opportunities but it also brings numerous threats. In the paper the author concentrated on correlations between rural development and globalisation, seeing in them an effective means of solving and overcoming many of the global problems. Still what is not integrated on the global scale is usually of rural character. This problem is more extensively discussed in relation to ecology. The whole paper is preceded by the explanation of the notions of globalisation and global problems.

Key words: rural development, globalisation.

Introduction

The history of mankind is inseparably connected with farming and agricultural development. We often do not realise how big was and still is the influence of the form of farming on human kind, even if humanity has not relied on farming for many generations. The type of rural community which was formed a few thousand years ago determined the direction of civilisation development. It is difficult to imagine development of democracy in estuaries of the Nile or Mesopotamia or the great rivers of China. The necessity of building the system of watering channels imposed rigorous rules on individual and the obligation of absolute submission to the institutions of authoritarian state. This specific civilisation code determined by geographical conditions, and hence plant growing made people develop individualism or collectivism¹ (Deszczyński P., 2008). It also influenced forms of cooperation, norms and rules of behaviour, hierarchy of importance of professions, the level of group sense of belonging, the role of family, household and such features as entrepreneurship, innovativeness and aiming at domination and external expansion (Kleer J., 2008).

At the turn of 20th and 21st century history turned around. Although the world does not consist of rural communities, it has transformed into a global village.² It was caused by dynamically developing process of globalisation which gives many possibilities but

is also connected with numerous threats. The paper emphasises dependencies between rural development and globalisation, perceiving in it effective means of solving and overcoming many global problems. More extensively the issue is discussed in relation to ecology. The whole paper is preceded by the explanation of the notions of globalisation and global problems.

1. The relation of globalisation and global problems

Although the importance of globalisation and global problems began to be noticed by humankind only after the Second World War, especially in the past three decades, however, it does not mean that the problem was not known earlier. Its beginnings are connected with such distant in time events as the beginning of the overseas activity of trading companies in the 14th century. Another milestones were the information revolution started by the invention of J. G. Gutenberg at the beginning of 15th century and as a result possibility to popularise seminal works of Copernicus in 1543 - *De revolutionibus orbium coelestium*, and in 1687 I. Newton's *Philosophiae naturalia principia mathematica*. Many authors regard dynamic development of capitalism at the end of 19th century as the beginning of globalisation (Deszczyński P., 2004).

¹ It is not accidental that individualism appeared in Hellenic culture and was visible in the philosophic schools of that time: Stoicism, Epicureanism and Cynicism.

² Although M. McLuhan who introduced the notion to literature wanted to emphasise the influence of new communication technologies on social and cultural life but with the time it got more universal character and became an attribute of different globalisation spheres. It does not mean, however, that global village is identical with evolvment of true rural character, quite opposite, it is its opposition.

In the literature, there has not been commonly accepted definition of globalisation so far. Most often it is stressed that it is a process of merging national economies which has its results in dynamic increase of international trade, capital and services flow, and the effect of tendency to treat the whole world as a market by a growing number of companies. However, globalisation does not concern only economic area (although it plays key role in it), but also ecological, social, cultural and technological ones. Altogether it influences profoundly development of rural community (Deszczyński P., 2002).

Globalisation is accompanied by global problems. Their significance results from consequences which they may bring in case of their further aggregation – in extremely pessimistic variation even the fall of our civilisation. Complexity of global problems causes that their effective and efficient solution needs performing complex activities in many spheres of social life – political and economic, including namely all subjects of the world economy. As the global problems are regarded most often: evolving degradation of natural environment, deepening economic disproportions between developing countries and highly industrialised states, depletion of natural resources, uncontrolled growth of population and migration, famine in many parts of the world, danger of world war, especially nuclear one, drug addiction, debt crisis, AIDS, SARS, BSE and other dangerous diseases, and international terrorism (Deszczyński P., 2001).

Negative influence of many global problems can be certainly limited and definitely eased by supporting rural development both in developing countries and in highly industrialised states, according to the motto “think globally, act locally”. Rural development, as a single phenomenon, limited to certain small territory still has local character but the sum of transgressing borders of countries and continents grows to a global dimension. Correlation exists among many problems. Therefore pursuing eradication of one of them positively influences mitigating the burden of the others. For instance, the solution of economic disproportions between developing countries and highly developed countries means practically lessening uncontrolled migration, decreasing the risk of famine, debt crisis, and international terrorism. On such conditions support for rural development helps not only particular interest of farming lobby but is functional in relation to the whole world economic system, and helps strengthen democracy in the world (Deszczyński P., 2005). Publication rigours do not allow wider argumentation of the statement. Anyway, in relation to global problems in which such correlation could

exist or already exists, there was synthetic discussion or at least it has been signalled.

The problem of deepening economic disproportions between developing countries and highly developed states is one of the highly complex ones, but widely understood rural development could play a significant role in its solution. For many developing countries farming is still the basic branch of national economy. It cannot, however, as it happens with farming in developed countries, rely on support from the state budget, and it undergoes mechanism of market economy with all its negative consequences. Especially severe are frequent price fluctuations in food and farming products on the world market which negatively influence stability of export income. Price change in this group of goods in short periods is a result of low supply elasticity in relation to demand and price. Production cycle of many farming products is determined by nature and cannot be accelerated. There also occur limited possibilities of change of production structure. Existence of higher demand can be in a short time satisfied basically only by the use of previously aggregated supplies. Developing countries do not have, however, appropriate capital for building modern warehouse infrastructure and its high cost connected with high cost of storing the goods, in relation to the prices which could be obtained, poses a question about effectiveness of such activity. Difficult position of farming and food produce exporters additionally is worsened by their dispersion and lack of possibility to create strong, well organised production and sales lobbies (Deszczyński P., 2001).

Low supply elasticity for food and farming goods is also a result of a wide set of conditions connected with economic policy of governments of exporting countries and companies dealing with the distribution of the products. In some developing countries the income from export of one, two or three food or farming produce account for even 90% of the currency income. Without them the economies of these states cannot function properly. In case of fall of demand and as a consequence of the fall of prices on the world market, developing countries usually do not limit the sales in order to stabilise the process. They rather take up opposite activity – increasing supply on the world market to achieve necessary amount of currency needed for national economy. Very often it is made at the cost of limiting internal consumption which in case of food produce can even lead to famine. Trying in this way to gain amount of currencies which was planned before, developing countries usually face the problem of another price decrease for exported goods. Finally, the more they export, the less they get for it. Similar situation occurs in case of bumper crop. Its beneficiaries are not developing countries

because their income is determined to a greater extent by farming products price level than by production volume. Paradoxically, they can expect higher income during crop failure – the King effect, only if at the same time lower crop exists in majority of countries exporting the same product (Czyżewski A., Henisz – Matuszczak A., 2004).

The chance for overcoming this situation appeared with the increase of demand (until financial crisis in September 2008) for energy for the world economy and depletion of energy resources. Growing energy producing plants was considered a promising alternative. The increase in the area of their growth can eradicate, and it already happens, the problem of gigantic food oversupply. Moreover, it will foster at the same time rural community development, the community which is able to increase the level of food production in developing countries, giving people prospect to stay in the countryside. At the same time migration pressure to the cities, and the most dangerous form of it - uncontrolled migration to highly developed countries can be weakened. The need for ecological energy helps to create windfall farms, small water powerhouses and other stations, distilling houses and other places where one can produce biofuel and use other natural resources and wastes to produce energy. The processes must be parallelly accompanied by infrastructural investment. All these factors can foster rural development which has a chance to take place in harmony with natural environment. Currently, environmental awareness is incomparably bigger than a few decades ago which is reflected in certain regulations.

The increase of the area of growing plants for energy production purposes both in developing and developed countries enables to work out global consensus in agricultural sector, including activation of funds for rural development within the framework of development aid for developing countries on similar basis as it happens in the countries of the EU. So far, food surplus accompanied by the lack of regulation in relation to obligatory and defined percentage of biofuels and bioenergy participating on the markets of energy and fuels in highly developed countries has not allowed such consensus, as in the case of talk rounds, firstly within GATT, and now the WTO (Uruguay Round, Development Round from Doha). Creation of opportunities for development of agriculture and prioritising rural development in developing countries could be a turning point in stopping and then decreasing economic disproportions between these countries and highly developed countries. Improvement of financial conditions of developing countries could enable to halt the process of natural environment degradation in these countries.

2. Ecology and rural development

International community started to perceive more widely the problem of natural environment protection only at the beginning of the 1970s of the 20th century. At that time the Rome Club began its activity (in 1968) and a year later the report of the UN Secretary General, U Thant pointed at the threats connected with nature degradation during the First Conference of the UN on Human Environment in Stockholm in 1972. In the transformation of the public opinion huge role was especially played by the reports of the Rome Club, and later Worldwatch Institute, and also activities of ecological parties and non-governmental organisations which started springing up in the Western Europe and which were not directly connected with the interests of agricultural lobby. Particularly significant was here First Report of the Rome Club published in 1972 “The Limits of Growth” (Deszczyński P., Gołata K., 2003).

Subsequently global community started to consider more deeply all the phenomena which can go together with further unlimited world economic growth and propagating consumer style of life, so characteristic for the societies in the highly developed countries. Intellectual elites, and later on political ones realised more and more deeply the importance of the changes (particularly in the long term), between the demographic explosion in developing countries, the scale of economic activity and continuous strive for material and civilisation progress on the one hand, and on the other hand opportunities to preserve natural environment and supplying with natural resources, fuels and other, necessary for human kind resources.

It is worth mentioning here that it was assumed in agribusiness at the turn of 18th and 19th century that all the conscious and unconscious actions against nature can lead to creation of barriers and hindering development and the power of the state. At that time already agrarians noticed and respected powerful influence of natural environment quality on the basic areas of state functioning. They were convinced about that although the size of human consumption was so modest that it did not entitle to draw on this basis such far-fetched conclusions. Today we know that the advocates of agrarianism were right in this. It is even more important because economists are more and more often accused of not being able to forecast future events not only in the world economy but also on the macroeconomic scale that they find solutions only after problems appear. Agrarianism was mainly created to defend the interests of rural communities on the conditions of dynamically progressing changes in economies of the most developed countries, but in this case implementation of particular group interests, as it turned out many years later, was beneficial not only for rural communities but also for the whole society,

even if it did not eliminate totally, still decreasing negative effects of industrialisation.

Deepening of natural environment degradation as a result of globalisation caused appearance of many theories dealing with this problem, e.g., Eco-development, deep ecology, ecocentrism, the concept of ecohumanistic alternative lifestyle. They challenged the axiom of unlimited possibilities of world economy development. They indicated non-renewability of many natural resources essential for people. It was also stressed that the aim is not to hinder economic progress but to have it on the basis of eco development, i.e., always in harmony with natural environment surrounding humankind. In practice it meant that the harmony could be basically realised only by the development of rural communities. Globalisation effects, also the negative ones are concentrated mainly in the cities. Traditional social order, so characteristic for rural development (family, neighbour and peer relations) are substituted by new, highly differentiated – mainly business, also political, sexual, group and corruption ones. There are chosen new life attitudes, separated from tradition, native culture and from reality. As a result, it often leads to alienation, social pathologies, and submission to different emotional states, frequently causing neurosis, and other mental diseases (Parysek J. J., 2008).

The problem occurs in all big agglomerations. In case of developing countries it has an additional dimension because the process of urbanisation was perceived as an efficient tool of overcoming economic underdevelopment. However, it ended up with marginalisation and extreme poverty in the form of slums on city outskirts. An inhabitant of metropolis in highly developed states also feels lost and contrary to the inhabitant of rural areas cannot enjoy freedom from defragmentation and feeling of alienation, and cannot regain full freedom (Fromm E., 1997). It was pointed out by the Swedish leader of farmers' Centre Party T. Fällidin proposing in 1976 the slogan of "deglomeration" and "democracy through decentralisation". They turned out to be attractive enough alternative for the voters of industrialised Sweden that after a couple of decades of domination Swedish Social-Democratic Workers' Party (Sveriges Socialdemokratiska Arbetarpartiet) lost the power and T. Fällidin held the position of Prime Minister during 1976–1982³ (Deszczyński P., 2008).

Eco – development was most often defined as self-reliant development based on effective use of available resources (self - reliance) in such a way that it could be adjusted to the specifics of culture, history

and ecology of particular countries in every case. Its internal limits could be defined by fulfilment of basic human needs and external ones, behaviour and not destroying natural environment. It was also stressed that one should not uncritically copy patterns of values and models of economic growth of highly developed societies, including also scientific and technological rationality, industrialisation and bureaucracy. As it was stated by one of the representatives of this movement "Poor nations cannot afford meeting their needs by Coca Cola and solving communication problems by creating traffic jams" (Illich I. D., 1970).

The strategy referring to ecological values rejected therefore traditional understanding of economic development, involving universal factors connected with it, such as – capital, labour and technology. The aim was not to achieve, as it was called, higher abstract indicators – GDP or investment rate but to improve the situation of particular group of people who lived so far on a certain territory, respected certain system of values and possessed some economic resources. These postulates are the argument to treat agrarian issue and rural development on other than market basis, taking into account their specific conditions where the common ground is insufficient reproduction, lack of retransfer of the surplus, and in consequence creation of income disparity between rural and urban inhabitants.

The leaders of the Peasants Association which was founded in 1913 in Sweden (now known as Centre Party) pointed at this issue and related directly to the achievements of agrarian economy. In order to do that there was created special methodology of researching income of rural and urban community. The method was later used in international trade theory in the form of terms of trade analysis. Paradoxically most of the economic higher schools graduates still do not realise where the idea for this original and still used methodology comes from. Swedish agrarians demanded stopping spreading price scissors between agricultural and industrial goods, mainly through state intervention (preferential credit terms, state subsidies, protectionism in farming products, legal and financial - organisational support for cooperative forms of agricultural activity). They wanted to ensure income for rural community that would be equal to average income of urban population. As a result of the activities it was Sweden where the civilisation differences between cities and countryside started to disappear most quickly (Deszczyński P., 2008).

Ecological theories, independently of real possibilities of the realisation of their ideas should make us aware that achieving the level of consumption

³ It was not the only reason why the Social-Democrats lost the power.

of highly industrialised states by the societies in developing countries is not possible not only due to the barriers in the development of internal or external factors but mainly because of ecological catastrophe in global dimension which is a threat for the whole mankind. In other words, the fact that the citizen of the United States of America or other highly industrialised state can indulge in mass consumption, using much more energy and water, is linked to extreme poverty of substantial majority of societies in developing countries which cannot afford such a waste of resources. For example, in 1992 in the USA the use of energy per capita amounted to 5.49 tons of oil (the unit of energy consumption) whereas in India the indicator was 36.6 times smaller and was 0.15. The USA citizen also used seven times more water than the inhabitant of African continent (Globale Trends, 1998).

The danger of consumption demonstration effect could be seen currently on the example of the Chinese and India inhabitants. India ceased to be, as it was said by its first Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru "economy of the cow dung", since the demand for the energy resources increased dramatically. In China, where a few decades ago still there were not personal cars and the function of public transport was performed by the bicycle, annually millions of cars are sold which pollute the environment. There is no place in the world where smog has such a spectacular dimension as in Beijing. Eating habits also undergo changes. The Chinese have been eating chocolate for some time. If 1 billion of Chinese eat annually only one bar of chocolate it means the increase of demand by 1 million tons. In fact, there are problems with supply of cocoa beans, and there is a growing need for looking for new, fertile (deforestation) land to grow the plants.

From the above discussion one can draw conclusions that ecological problems have multidimensional character. Rural development and striving for sustainable development could be one of the effective ways of solving and overcoming threats that follow from evolving globalisation for the natural environment. As a result of the increase of awareness of ecological threats certain steps (still not fully effective) were undertaken on the world arena and within autonomous actions of particular countries so that they could restrain the negative effects. The example could be the UN Conference on Environment and Development in June in 1992 in Rio de Janeiro where it was decided that there should be implemented rules of eco-development (understood as adjusting economic development to ecological conditions), accepted by 189 countries in the UN Millennium Declaration in 2000, accompanied by Millennium Development Goals,

World Summit in Johannesburg in 2002, agreement on Lisbon Strategy of the European Union and the reform of the Common Agricultural Policy, known now as the Common Agricultural and Rural Areas Policy for Europe which clearly leads to the creation of the model of agriculture.

Conclusions

The conviction about the occurrence and necessity of overcoming of global problems is growing in the 21st century. Rural development can be an effective means of solving and overcoming many threats resulting from globalisation. Everything that is not integrated on the global scale is still mainly rural. At the same time there is growing awareness among politicians who take key decisions regarding international community that it is necessary to take efforts, also financial ones in order to promote sustainable development and implementation of social development concept. From such point of view development is a multidimensional phenomenon, and does not only mean growth of income but it pays special attention to human and his natural environment. It also indicates a clear need to distinguish between means and goals of development. Then the priority becomes widely understood life quality. Except for GDP it is influenced by a lot of other factors among which life in harmony with nature has its exponent place. Rural development can largely provide human kind with quality of life which is understood in this way.

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Eiropas Sociālā fonda līdzekļu ieguldījums nodarbinātības jomā Latvijā Investment of the European Social Fund Resources in the Employment Sector in Latvia

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Abstract

Eiropas Sociālā fonds (ESF) ir viens no četriem Eiropas Savienības (ES) struktūrfondiem. ESF uzmanības centrā ir cilvēks. Finansējums no šī fonda tiek izmantota cilvēku prasmju, zināšanu un darba spēju attīstīšanai. ESF veicina un atbalsta dalībvalstu aktivitātes darba tirgus un cilvēkresursu attīstīšanai. ESF ir izveidots, lai izskaustu visa veida diskrimināciju un nevienlīdzību darba tirgū, kā arī attīstītu cilvēkresursus, sekmētu informācijas sabiedrības izveidi. Ar ESF atbalstu tiek īstenota Eiropas Nodarbinātības stratēģijas ieviešana, ikgadējo nodarbinātības vadlīniju un nacionālo rīcības plānu izstrāde.

ES fondu sadalījums starp dažādām valsts teritorijas daļām un reģioniem nav vienmērīgs. Tajā pašā laikā nav novērojama skaidra sakarība starp atsevišķas teritorijas daļas labklājības un attīstības rādītājiem un attiecīgo fondu piešķirumu. Fondu apguvē neveidojas situācija, ka mazāk attīstītā teritorija saņem vislielāko finansējuma apjomu, bet nevar arī apgalvot, pretējo, proti, ka visattīstītākais reģions absorbētu proporcionāli vislielāko finansējumu

ESF finansējuma sadalījums Latvijas reģionos nodarbinātības jomā atklātajos projektu iesniegumu konkursa projektos 2004.- 2006.gada plānošanas periodā apakšaktivitātes 3.1.2.2. "Darba prakšu vietu nodrošināšana jauniešiem bezdarbniekiem" un aktivitātes 3.3.2. "Subsidēto darba vietu nodrošināšana sociālās atstumtības riska grupām" ietvaros rāda pozitīvu tendenci - Latgales reģions ir saņēmis gan lielāko ESF finansējuma atbalstu, gan arī tam proporcionāli piesaistīts lielākais bezdarbnieku skaits salīdzinājumā ar citiem reģioniem.

Atslēgas vārdi : Struktūrfondi, finansējums, prioritāte, aktivitāte.

Key words: structural funds, financing, priority, activity.

Ievads

Introduction

Eiropas Savienības iekšpolitikā aizvien lielāku nozīmi iegūst sociālā politika. 2000. gadā pieņemtajā Lisabonas stratēģijā, kas nosaka ES sociālo politiku un stratēģiju, ir minēts, ka līdz 2010. gadam ES ir jāklūst par viskonkurētspējīgāko un dinamiskāko uz zināšanām balstīto ekonomiku pasaulē, nodrošinot ilgtspējīgu ekonomisko augsmi, darba vietu skaita pieaugumu un sociālo kohēziju. (LU, 2007 a).

Viens no valsts attīstības un iedzīvotāju labklājības garantiem ir pastāvošā sociālās drošības sistēma. Tas ir tikpat būtisks priekšnosacījums kā ekonomikas vai izglītības attīstība. Katra no šīm jomām savā veidā atspoguļo to, cik lielā mērā valsts attīstība ir iedzīvotājiem labvēlīga.

Darbs ir viena no vissvarīgākajām cilvēka dzīves aktivitātēm, kura viņu nodrošina ar iztikas līdzekļiem, veido pamatu loģiskai un radošai domāšanai, sniedz iespēju realizēt savas idejas, izpaust sevi kā sociālu būtni. Darba joma aptver šādus galvenos jautājumus:

— nodarbinātība un bezdarbs;

- darba tiesiskās attiecības un sociālais dialogs;
- darba samaksa;
- darba aizsardzība.

Nodarbinātība ir viens no svarīgākajiem tautsaimniecības attīstības un valsts ekonomiskās izaugsmes rādītājiem. Augsta nodarbinātības līmeņa sasniegšanai svarīgs priekšnosacījums ir efektīva bezdarba samazināšanas politika. (Labklājības ministrija, 2007).

Katra valsts ekonomiskās stabilitātes rādītājs ir pēc iespējas zemāks bezdarba līmenis. Bezdarba līmenis ir viens no ekonomiskās situācijas indikatoriem, to izsaka procentos no konkrētās vietas [darba resursiem](#) - darbaspējīgajiem iedzīvotājiem. (D.Vilne, J.Birzniece, 2001).

Notiekošie attīstības procesi Latvijas ekonomikā lielā mērā atbilst valsts tautsaimniecības un nodarbinātības attīstības stratēģisko dokumentu nostādnēm, kurās atspoguļojas ES programmdokumentos definētie mērķi un uzdevumi konkurētspējas un nodarbinātības jomās. Tautsaimniecības vienotajā stratēģijā kā galvenais

mērķis sociālās attīstības nodrošināšanā ir izvirzīts nākamo 20-30 gadu laikā nodarbinātības līmeni Latvijā paaugstināt līdz 70%, bet bezdarba līmeni samazināt līdz dabiskā bezdarba līmenim. Lai sasniegtu izvirzītos mērķus, ir noteiktas nodarbinātības politikas prioritātes. Atšķirīgs ir nodarbinātības līmenis dažādos Latvijas reģionos, kas būtiski kavē teritoriālās attīstības izlīdzināšanos un rada virkni sociālu problēmu. (Latvijas Universitāte, 2007 b).

Neskatoties uz visumā labvēlīgo makroekonomisko situāciju ES valstīs, dalībvalstis saskaras ar būtiskām sociālajām problēmām: salīdzinoši augsto bezdarba līmeni, nepietiekamu sieviešu un vecākās paaudzes cilvēku iekļaušanos darba tirgū, teritoriju nelīdzsvarotu attīstību, kvalificētu speciālistu trūkumu zinātnietilpīgajās nozarēs, it sevišķi informāciju tehnoloģiju jomā. Latvijas galvenais nodarbinātības politikas mērķis ir nodarbinātības līmeņa paaugstināšana, sasniedzot Eiropas Nodarbinātības vadlīnijās noteiktos kritērijus. Šī mērķa sasniegšanai Latvijai ir pieejami ES finanšu instrumenti, tai skaitā Eiropas Sociālais fonds. (Latvijas Universitāte, 2007 b).

Nodarbinātības jautājumus ir pētījuši arī vairāki zinātnieki Latvijā – I.Saulāja, L.Rasnača, Ž.Krūzmētra, D.Bite (2007), G.Stradiņa (2007), M.Krūzmētra (2008) un V.Pavlovska (2008).

Kopš Latvijas iestāšanās ES 2004.gada maijā Latvijai pieejams ievērojams apjoms ES fondu līdzekļu. ES struktūrfondu līdzekļu piešķirums un nozīmīgākā daļa publisko investīciju un atbalsta tiek īstenoti Latvijas Attīstības plāna jeb Vienotā programmdokumenta (VPD) ietvaros. Saskaņā ar Finanšu plānu kopējais plānotais finansējums VPD īstenošanai ir 602.4 milj. LVL, no tā 439.6 milj. LVL ir ES finansējums un 162.8 milj. LVL ir Latvijas publiskais finansējums (PKC, 2008).

Kā teikts daudzajos ar struktūrfonduem saistītajos dokumentos, ES struktūrfondu mērķis ir novērst reģionālās un sociālās nevienlīdzības starp ES dalībvalstīm un to reģioniem un uzlabot ekonomisko un sociālo kohēziju visā Eiropā. Neapšaubāmi, šie līdzekļi ir liels ieguvums Latvijai un tie var būtiski veicināt mūsu valsts attīstību. Taču jāatceras, ka liels finansējums arī rada risku un ka šo līdzekļu neadekvāta izmantošana var tikai veicināt reģionālo nevienlīdzību, sociālo izstumtību, vides degradāciju un korupciju (Brizga J., 2007).

Attiecībā uz ES fondiem notiek sacensība jeb sīva cīņa par resursiem. Formālā sacensībā ir iesaistītas divas galvenās grupas – tautsaimniecības sektori un reģioni. ES 2002.gada lēmums paredzēja, ka visa Latvija būs viens reģions, jo likās, ka tā būs vieglāk organizēt. ES fondu ieviešanas procesu. Kopš tā laika Latvijai ir mērķis palielināt valsts vidējos rādītājus, nevis rādītājus katrā reģionā (Pūķis M., 2005).

ES struktūrfondi sekmēs, ka paaugstināsies vidējie rādītāji. Pat pie neveiksmīgiem projektiem, būs kaut kāds pozitīvs efekts. No ES viedokļa skatoties, ja pieaug Baltijas reģiona IKP, tad viss kārtībā. Statistika rāda, ka atšķirības starp reģioniem pieaug, tie atpaliek no Rīgas reģiona (Pūķis M., 2005).

ES fondu sadalījums starp dažādām valsts teritorijas daļām un reģioniem nav vienmērīgs. Tajā pašā laikā nav novērojama skaidra sakarība starp atsevišķas teritorijas daļas labklājības un attīstības rādītājiem un attiecīgo fondu piešķirumu. Fondu apguvē neveidojas situācija, ka mazāk attīstītā teritorija saņem vislielāko finansējuma apjomu, bet nevar arī apgalvot, pretējo, proti, ka visattīstītākais reģions absorbētu proporcionāli vislielāko finansējumu (SIA „PKC”, 2005).

Bažas rada fakts, ka nozīmīgi mazāks fondu apjoms nonāk tajās valsts teritorijas daļās, kur gan ekonomiskās aktivitātes, gan nodarbinātības, gan labklājības līmeņa rādītāji ir vissliktākie, piemēram, Latgales reģionā, vai teritorijās, kas atrodas tālāk no galvaspilsētas, vai galvenajām valsts transporta maģistrālēm (SIA „PKC”, 2005).

Tāpēc ir definēts **pētījuma mērķis** - izvērtēt ESF ieguldījumu Latvijas reģionu attīstībā ieviešot atklāto projektu iesniegumu konkursa projektus nodarbinātības jomā 2004. – 2006. plānošanas periodā.

Mērķa izpildei risinātie **uzdevumi**:

1. Analizēt Latvijai piešķirto ES struktūrfondu līdzekļu sadalījumu, tai skaitā ESF finansējumu Latvijā 2004.-2006.gada plānošanas periodā.
2. Izvērtēt ESF līdzekļu ieguldījumu Latvijas reģionos nodarbinātības jomā un to rezultatīvos rādītājus.

Materiāli un metodes

Materials and Methods

Tēmas izpētē izmantoti LR normatīvie dokumenti - VPD, PP, LR normatīvie akti, Ministru kabineta noteikumi ES struktūrfondu ieviešanai 2004.–2006. gadam, Finanšu ministrijas mājas lapā apkopotie dati, Labklājības ministrijas un tai pakļauto institūciju mājas lapu informācija, LR Centrālās statistikas pārvaldes dati un citu zinātnieku pētījumi ES struktūrfondu jomā. Analīzei tika izmantoti izvērtēšanas veikšanas laikā pieejamie Nodarbinātības valsts aģentūras ESF departamenta un Labklājības ministrijas ES struktūrfondu departamenta informatīvā datu bāze un ceturkšņu ziņojumi.

Galvenās izmantotās metodes - monogrāfiski aprakstošā metode, saturiskās atbilstības pārbaudes starp dažāda līmeņa dokumentiem, analīzes un sintēzes metodes, lai izpētītu problēmu elementus un sintezētu kopsakarības vai formulētu likumsakarības,

faktu, statistikas u.c. datu, specifiskās informācijas iegūšana un uzkrāšana par Eiropas Sociālā fonda īstenotajiem pasākumiem.

Lai atbildētu, kāpēc teritorijās ir atšķirīgs finansējuma sadalījums un atšķirīga projektu ieviešot atklātu projektu iesniegumu konkursa projektus nodarbinātības jomā un konkrēto aktivitātes situāciju raksturojošiem rādītājiem, kā arī izmantota institūciju sniegtā kvalitatīvā informācija.

Rezultāti un diskusija Results and Discussion

ES struktūrfondu raksturojums Latvijā Description of the EU Structural Funds in Latvia

ES struktūrfondi sniedz Latvijai atbalstu ar četriem finanšu instrumentiem jeb fondiem – Eiropas Reģionālās attīstības fonds (ERAF), ESF, Eiropas Lauksaimniecības virzības un garantiju fonda virzības daļa (ELVGF) un Zivsaimniecības vadības finansēšanas instruments (ZVFI).

Līdz 2007.gada 31.decembrim ES struktūrfondu projektiem bija piesaistīti 439.6 milj. LVL liels ES finansējums, tai skaitā ESF projektiem 89.5 milj. LVL. Šādu finansējuma apjomu attīstībai 2.5 gadu laikā pamatoti var uzskatīt par nozīmīgu valsts attīstībai.

No 1.tabulā apkopotajiem datiem var redzēt, ka vislielākais finansējuma apjoms, 59 % no kopējā struktūrfondu īstenošanai piešķirtā ES un valsts

finansējuma, ir ERAF, kurš atbalsta attīstības un dzīves līmeņa atšķirību mazināšanu reģionos. Finansējums galvenokārt paredzēts infrastruktūras, ražošanas un mazo un vidējo uzņēmumu (turpmāk-MVU) attīstībai. ES finansējums sastāda 75.4 % no kopējā ERAF piešķirtā finansējuma. Kā nākošais pēc sadalījuma intensitātes ir ESF, 20 % no kopējā struktūrfondu īstenošanai piešķirtā ES un valsts finansējuma, kurš paredzēts diskriminācijas un nevienlīdzības samazināšanai darba tirgū, kā arī tās ir investīcijas izglītības sistēmā, profesionālajā izglītībā un nodarbinātības veicināšanā. ES finansējums sastāda 75.9 % no kopējā ESF piešķirtā finansējuma. Nedaudz mazāk 16 % no kopējā struktūrfondu īstenošanai piešķirtā ES un valsts finansējuma, ir ELVGF, kurš atbalsta lauksaimniecības pārstrukturēšanu un veicina lauku attīstību. ES finansējums sastāda 66.2 % no kopējā ELVGF piešķirtā finansējuma. Vismazākā piešķiruma daļa, 5 % no kopējā struktūrfondu īstenošanai piešķirtā ES un valsts finansējuma ir ZVFI, kurš sniedz atbalstu piekrastes zvejniekiem, zivju krājumu aizsardzībai, zvejas ostu uzlabošanai, akvakultūrai un zivju produkcijas pārstrādei. ES finansējums sastāda 66.2 % no kopējā ZVFI piešķirtā finansējuma.

Apskatot 1.tabulas datus par struktūrfondu apguvi uz 30.06.2008., varam redzēt, ka lielākais apguves progress ir ZVFI (100.2 %) un ELVGF (94.9 %) aktivitātēm, nedaudz atpaliek ESF (79.4 %) un zemākais apguves procents ir ERAF (68 %) aktivitātēm.

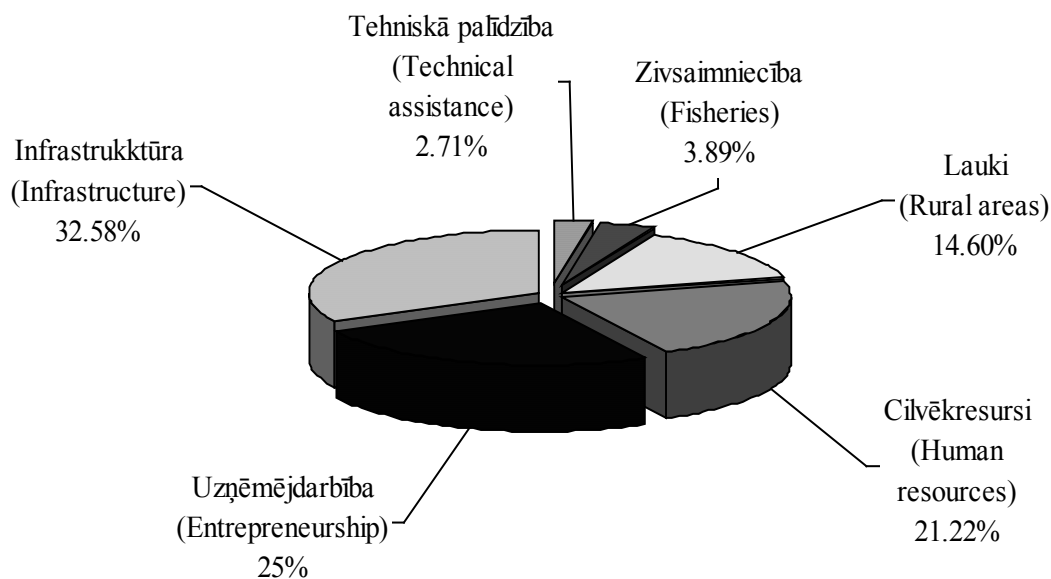
1.tabula
Table 1

Struktūrfondu Finansējuma sadalījums un apguves statuss pa fondiem 2004.-2006.gadam (uz 30.06.2008., milj.LVL, pēc kursa 1 EUR = 0.702804 LVL) Allocation and acquisition of the Structural Funds in Latvia for 2004 – 2006 by the funds

Npk	Struktūrfonds (Structural Fund)	Struktūrfondu finansējums (2004-2006) (The Financing of the Structural Funds (2004 - 2006))	Latvijas līdzfinansējums (Co-financing)	Kopā (Total)*	Struktūra (Structure) %	ES finansējums no kopējā (Structural Fund of the total) %	Izmaksātais struktūrfondu finansējums (Disbursed resources from the Structural Funds)	Apguve % (Acquisition %)
1.	ERAF (ERDF)	268.5	87.7	356.2	59	75.4	182.7	68
2.	ESF (ESF)	89.5	28.3	117.8	20	75.9	71	79.4
3.	ELVGF (EAGGF)	64.5	32.9	97.4	16	66.2	61.2	94.9
4.	ZVFI (FIFG)	17.1	13.9*	31	5	55.2	17.1	100.2
	Kopā (Total):	439.6	162.8	602.4	100	73.0	332.1	75.5

*Ieskaitot privāto finansējumu - LVL 7 525 206

Avots: Finanšu ministrija, 2008 un autores aprēķini



Avots: Finanšu ministrija, 2008.

1.attēls. Finansējuma sadalījums nozarēm 2004. – 2006.gada plānošanas periodā, %
Figure 1. Financing of the Structural Funds by sectors in the planning period 2004 – 2006, %

Kā redzams 1.attēlā trīs prioritārās jomas, kurās izmantoti ES struktūrfonda līdzekļi 2004.-2006. gada plānošanas periodā ir infrastruktūra ar 32.58 % no kopējiem piešķirtajiem ES līdzekļiem, tai seko uzņēmējdarbība ar 25% finansējumu no kopējiem piešķirtajiem ES līdzekļiem un kā trešā nozare ir cilvēkresursi, kurā ieguldīti 21.22 % no kopējiem piešķirtajiem ES līdzekļiem. Šis sadalījums ir atbilstošs tai stratēģijai, ko valsts izvēlējusies 2004.-2006.gadu periodam.

Attiecībā uz teritoriālo ietekmi visas VPD aktivitātes var sagrupēt divās grupās:

- aktivitātes, kurām ir nacionāla mēroga darbības rezultāts;
- aktivitātes, kurām darbības rezultāts izpaužas konkrētajā teritorijā (teritoriālās aktivitātes).

Kopumā struktūrfondi ir trīs ieviešanas mehānismi: atklāts projektu iesniegumu konkurss, grantu shēma un nacionālās programmas.

Autores mērķis ir tuvāk apskatīt ESF ieguldījumu, kurš saistīts ar nodarbinātības jomu. Arī VPD ietvaros veiktā SVID analīzē norādīts uz nepieciešamību pievērsties cilvēkresursu attīstības iespējām Latvijā, tai skaitā paaugstinot faktiskās nodarbinātības rādītājus.

ESF raksturojums Latvijā

Description of the European Social Fund in Latvia

ESF ir viens no četriem ES struktūrfondi. ESF uzmanības centrā ir cilvēks. Finansējums no

šī fonda tiek izmantota cilvēku prasmju, zināšanu un darba spēju attīstīšanai. ESF veicina un atbalsta dalībvalstu aktivitātes darba tirgus un cilvēkresursu attīstīšanai. ESF ir izveidots, lai izskaustu visa veida diskrimināciju un nevienlīdzību darba tirgū, kā arī attīstītu cilvēkresursus, sekmētu informācijas sabiedrības izveidi. Ar ESF atbalstu tiek īstenota Eiropas Nodarbinātības stratēģijas ieviešana, ikgadējo nodarbinātības vadlīniju un nacionālo rīcības plānu izstrāde.

ESF līdzekļi ir pieejami visos līmeņos – gan lielu nacionālas nozīmes projektu īstenošanai, gan sociālo problēmu risināšanai pilsētās un pagastos, gan darbinieku pārkvalifikācijai kādā nelielā uzņēmumā.

ESF tiek ieviests saskaņā ar VPD 3.prioritāti „Cilvēkresursu attīstība un nodarbinātības veicināšana” (3.prioritāte), kuras ietvaros galvenais atbalsts tiek sniegts izglītības attīstībai, nodarbinātības veicināšanai, kā arī sociālajai iekļaušanai. Prioritātes mērķis ir darbaspēka konkurētspējas un kvalitātes paaugstināšana, to sasniedzot ar mūžizglītības, reģionālās un vietēja līmeņa attīstības, informācijas sabiedrības, vienlīdzīgu iespēju sievietēm un vīriešiem, kā arī sociālo atšķirību izlīdzināšanas un ekonomikas, darbaspējas un nodarbinātības veicināšanu.

3. prioritātē iekļauti trīs pasākumi:

- 3.1.pasākums. Nodarbinātības veicināšana.
- 3.2.pasākums. Izglītības un tālākizglītības attīstība.
- 3.3.pasākums. Sociālās atstumtības mazināšana.

Minēto pasākumu mērķa grupas ir: bezdarbnieki, invalīdi un personas ar draudošu invaliditāti, ilgstošie bezdarbnieki, pirmspensijas vecuma cilvēki, jaunieši ar zemu pamata prasmju līmeni, jaunieši ar pabeigtu vidējo, vidējo profesionālo un augstāko izglītību, kuriem grūtības atrast pirmo darba vietu, no ieslodzījuma vietām atbrīvotie, vecāki pēc bērnu kopšanas atvaļinājuma, vientuļie vecāki, no narkotikām un psihotropajām vielām atkarīgie, u.c. sociālās atstumtības riskam pakļautās iedzīvotāju grupas

3. prioritātes īstenošanas vadībā iesaistītās institūcijas ir:

1. Vadošā iestāde – Finanšu ministrija;
2. Līmeņa starpniekinstitūcijas – Labklājības ministrija, Izglītības un zinātnes ministrija un Ekonomikas ministrija.
3. 2.līmeņa starpniekinstitūcijas – Nodarbinātības valsts aģentūra un Valsts izglītības attīstības aģentūra.
4. Grantu shēmas apsaimniekotāji – Latvijas investīciju attīstības aģentūra, Sabiedrības integrācijas fonds un Sociālo pakalpojumu pārvalde.

Kopējais 3.prioritātes publiskais finansējums 2004. – 2006.gada plānošanas periodā ir 117,8 milj. LVL, no tiem 89.5 milj. LVL ir ESF finansējums un 28,3 milj. LVL ir Latvijas publiskais finansējums (Finanšu ministrija, 2008). Kā redzams 2.tabulā vislielākais finansējuma apjoms -43 % no kopējā, ir paredzēts nodarbinātības veicināšanai, vismazākais -19%- sociālās atstumtības mazināšanai.

Eiropas Sociālā fonda līdzekļu ieguldījums Latvijas reģionos nodarbinātības jomā atklātajos projektu iesniegumu konkursa projektos

Allocation of the ESF in open call projects in the employment sector in the regions of Latvia

Labklājības ministrija (LM) un Nodarbinātības valsts aģentūra ir vienas no ES struktūrfondu apsaimniekošanas institūcijām, kas atbild par projektu atbilstību labklājības nozares politikai, tai skaitā nodarbinātības jomai. Labklājības nozarē 2004.-2006.gada plānošanas periodā labklājības nozares projektiem bija pieejami vairāk nekā 55 miljoni lati, kuri tika izmantoti 3.prioritātes pasākumu „Nodarbinātības veicināšana” un „Sociālās atstumtības mazināšana” īstenošanai.

Lielākais finansējuma apjoms – 40% no Eiropas Sociālā fonda finansējuma tika apgūts caur nacionālajām programmām, kuras risina noteiktas nozares attīstības prioritātes valsts mērogā, bet atlikušais finansējums tika apgūts ar atklāto projektu iesniegumu konkursu (APIK) un Grantu shēmu (GS) palīdzību.

LM un NVA pārraudzībā esošais finansējums APIK nodarbinātības jomā 2004. – 2006. gada plānošanas periodā veido 7.8 miljonus LVL, tai skaitā ESF finansējums ir 6 miljoni LVL un tas ir sadalīts pa aktivitātēm (Labklājības ministrija, 2008):

1. Apakšaktivitātes 3.1.2.2. “Darba prakšu vietu nodrošināšana jauniešiem bezdarbniekiem” finansējums ir 4.6 miljoni LVL, tai skaitā ESF

2.tabula
Table 2

Eiropas Sociālā fonda finansējuma sadalījums pa pasākumiem 2004.-2006.gadam (uz 30.06.2008., milj.LVL, pēc kursa 1 EUR = 0.702804 LVL) Allocation and acquisition of the European Social Fund Resources in Latvia for 2004 – 2006 by measures

Pasākums (Measure)	Eiropas Sociālā fonda finansējums (Financing of the European Social Fund)	Latvijas līdzfinansē jums (Co-financing)	Kopā (Total)	Struktūra (Structure) %
3.1.	38.5	12.1	50.6	43
3.2.	34.0	10.8	44.8	38
3.3.	17.0	5.4	22.4	19
Kopā (Total):	89.5	28.3	117.8	100

Avots: Finanšu ministrija, 2008 un autores aprēķini

finansējums 3.5 miljoni LVL. Apakšaktivitātes mērķis ir uzlabot 15 – 24 gadus vecu bezdarbnieku konkurētspēju darba tirgū un veicināt to iesaistīšanos darba tirgū. Projektos pieļaujamā aktivitāte ir darba prakšu vietu izveide 15 – 24 gadus veciem bezdarbniekiem, kas ir ieguvuši augstāko, vidējo profesionālo, arodizglītību, kā arī vidējo izglītību ar papildu profesiju apliecināšanu dokumentu, bet praktiskā darba pieredzes trūkuma dēļ (darba pieredze profesijā nav lielāka par gadu) nevar iekārtoties darbā.

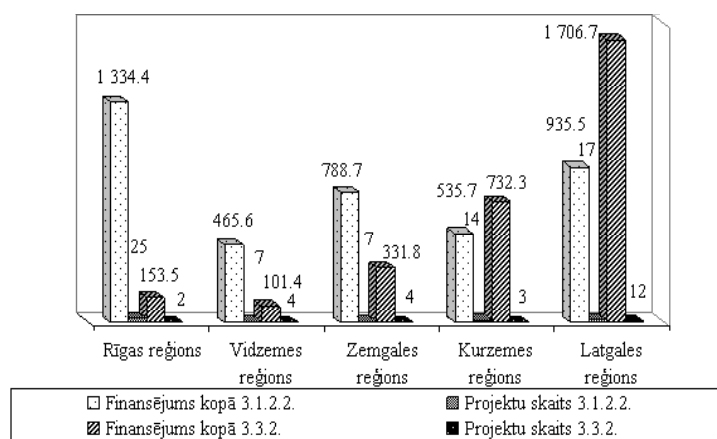
2. Aktivitātes 3.3.2. “Subsidēto darba vietu nodrošināšana sociālās atstumtības riska grupām” finansējums veido 3.2 miljonus LVL, tai skaitā ESF finansējums ir 2.5 miljoni LVL. Aktivitātes mērķis – paaugstināt sociālās atstumtības riskam pakļauto iedzīvotāju konkurētspēju darba tirgū un to iesaistīšanos darba tirgū. Projektos iekļauta aktivitāte – subsidēto darba vietu izveide bezdarbniekiem, kas ieguvuši profesionālo izglītību vai apguvuši profesionālās iemaņas darba vietā vai bezdarbniekiem bez profesionālās izglītības un apgūtām profesionālām iemaņām darba vietā.

Pēc 2.attēlā apkopotiem datiem var redzēt, ka apakšaktivitātes 3.1.2.2. “Darba prakšu vietu nodrošināšana jauniešiem bezdarbniekiem” un aktivitātes 3.3.2. “Subsidēto darba vietu nodrošināšana sociālās atstumtības riska grupām” ietvaros kopumā vislielākais projektu skaits 29 ar finansējumu 2 642.2 tūkst. LVL ir Latgales reģionā, kam seko Rīgas reģions ar 27 projektiem un finansējumu 1 487.9 tūkst. LVL, Kurzemes reģionā tika īstenoti 17 projekti

ar finansējumu 1 268 tūkst. LVL. Zemgales un Vidzemes reģionos ar vienādu projektu skaitu – 11, ir dažāds finansējums. Zemgalē 11 projektiem ir 1120.5 tūkstotis LVL liels finansējums, bet Vidzemē uz 11 projektiem ir 567 tūkstotis LVL liels finansējums. Tas saistīts ar to, ka gan projektu ilgums, gan iesaistīto bezdarbnieku skaits katrā no projektiem ir atšķirīgs.

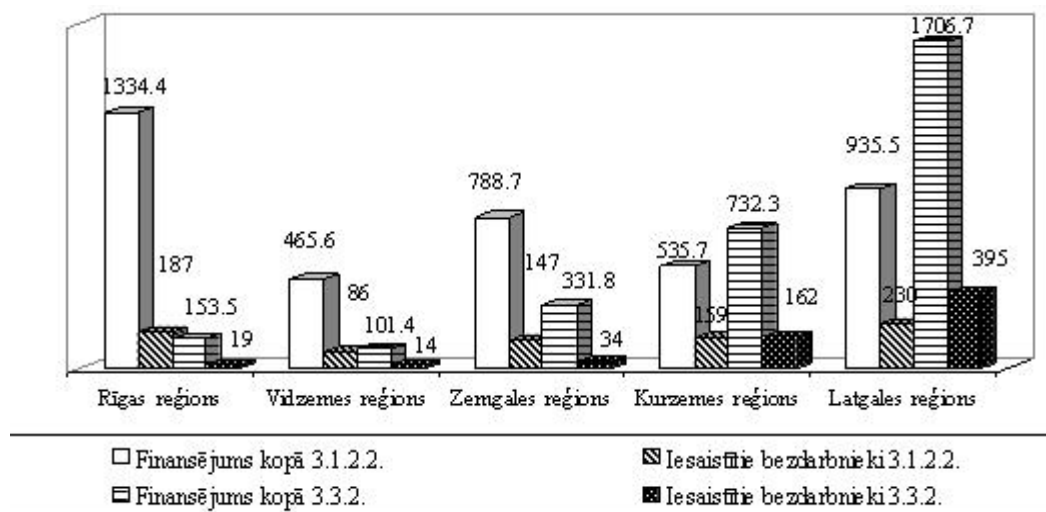
3.attēlā apkopotā informācija par projektos iesaistīto bezdarbnieku skaitu un finansējumu projektos sadalījumā pa reģioniem, liecina, ka nevar viennozīmīgi teikt, ka lielākam bezdarbnieku skaitam ir piesaistīts lielākais finansējums. Pozitīva tendence ir Latgales reģionā, kur lielākajam finansējumam ir piesaistīts arī lielākais bezdarbnieku skaits, taču aplūkojot Rīgas reģionam piesaistīto finansējumu un projektos iesaistīto bezdarbnieku skaitu redzam, ka finansējuma lielums ir gandrīz 50 % no Latgales reģionam piesaistītā finansējuma, tomēr iesaistīto bezdarbnieku skaits ir gandrīz trīs reizes mazāks nekā Latgales reģionā. Vidzemes un Zemgales reģionos katrā tika īstenoti 11 projekti ar dažādu finansējuma lielumu. Attiecīgi projektos Vidzemes reģionā ir iesaistīti 100 bezdarbnieki, bet Zemgales reģionā 181 bezdarbnieki. Tas liecina, ka apstiprinot projektus nav pietiekami izvērtēts, vai ieguldījumi sasniedz ESF noteikto mērķi – uzmanības centrā cilvēks. Pie vienāda projektos iesaistīto bezdarbnieku skaita un projektu īstenošanas termiņa, projektu finansējums ir dažāds. Tātad projektos ar lielāku finansējumu liela daļa līdzekļu tiek izmantoti projekta administrācijas vajadzībām.

ESF finansējuma sadalījums Latvijas reģionos nodarbinātības jomā atklātajos projektu iesniegumu konkursa projektos 2004.- 2006.gada plānošanas



Avots: Nodarbinātības valsts aģentūra, 2008 un autores aprēķini

2.attēls **Finansējums un projektu skaits sadalījumā pa reģioniem apakšaktivitātē 3.1.2.2. un aktivitātē 3.3.2. 2004. – 2006.gada plānošanas periodā, tūkst.LVL**
 Figure 2. **Financing and number of projects by regions in Activity No. 3.1.2.2 and No. 3.3.2 in the planning period 2004 – 2006, thousand LVL**



Avots: Nodarbinātības valsts aģentūra, 2008 un autores aprēķini

3.attēls. **Finansējums un projektos iesaistīto bezdarbnieku skaits sadalījumā pa reģioniem apakšaktivitātē 3.1.2.2. un aktivitātē 3.3.2. 2004. – 2006.gada plānošanas periodā, skaits/ tūkst.LVL**
 Figure 3. **Financing and number of unemployed involved in projects by regions in Activity No. 3.1.2.2 and No. 3.3.2 in the planning period 2004 – 2006, thousand LVL**

periodā apakšaktivitātes 3.1.2.2. “Darba prakšu vietu nodrošināšana jauniešiem bezdarbniekiem” un aktivitātes 3.3.2. “Subsidēto darba vietu nodrošināšana sociālās atstumtības riska grupām” ietvaros rāda pozitīvu tendenci - Latgales reģions ir saņēmis gan lielāko ESF finansējuma atbalstu, gan arī tam proporcionāli piesaistīts lielākais bezdarbnieku skaits salīdzinājumā ar pārējiem reģioniem. Rezultāti liecina, ka neliela daļa no piešķirtajiem līdzekļiem ir izmantota saskaņā ar vispārējo ES struktūrfondu mērķi – novērst reģionālo un sociālo nevienlīdzību un šajā gadījumā lielāko daļu saņem Latvijā viens no ekonomiski vājākiem reģioniem – Latgale.

Secinājumi Conclusions

1. 2004.-2006.gadu plānošanas periodā ESF finansējuma sadalījums Latvijas reģionos nodarbinātības jomā atklātajos projektu iesniegumu konkursa projektos 2004.- 2006. gada plānošanas periodā apakšaktivitātes 3.1.2.2. “Darba prakšu vietu nodrošināšana jauniešiem bezdarbniekiem” un aktivitātes 3.3.2. “Subsidēto darba vietu nodrošināšana sociālās atstumtības riska grupām” nav vienmērīgs. Bezdarbnieku skaits projektos svārstās no viena bezdarbnieka līdz pat 193 bezdarbniekiem projektā. Tātad finansējumu ir saņēmuši dažāda lieluma uzņēmumi un institūcijas. Tā ir pozitīva iezīme – atbalstīt arī mazos uzņēmumus, kuriem pašiem šādu aktivitāšu finansēšanai iespējas ir ierobežotas.

2. ESF finansējuma sadalījums Latvijas reģionos nodarbinātības jomā atklātajos projektu iesniegumu konkursa projektos 2004.- 2006. gada plānošanas periodā apakšaktivitātes 3.1.2.2. “Darba prakšu vietu nodrošināšana jauniešiem bezdarbniekiem” un aktivitātes 3.3.2. “Subsidēto darba vietu nodrošināšana sociālās atstumtības riska grupām” ietvaros rāda pozitīvu tendenci - Latgales reģions ir saņēmis gan lielāko ESF finansējuma atbalstu, gan arī tam proporcionāli piesaistīts lielākais bezdarbnieku skaits. Tātad neliela daļa no piešķirtajiem līdzekļiem ir izmantota saskaņā ar vispārējo ES struktūrfondu mērķi – novērst reģionālo un sociālo nevienlīdzību un šai gadījumā lielāko daļu saņem Latvijā viens no ekonomiski vājākiem reģioniem – Latgale.
3. Atšķirību starp reģionos pieejamo finansējumu nosaka uzņēmēju aktivitāte, jo atbalstīto projektu skaits un lielums ir atkarīgs no gan projekta ilguma, gan iesaistīto bezdarbnieku skaita, gan iesaistītā administratīvā personāla skaita un nozares, kurā tiek īstenots projekts.

Priekšlikums Suggestions

2007.-2013.gada plānošanas periodā būtu jāizstrādā tādi atbalsta saņemšanas nosacījumi, lai pirms projekta apstiprināšanas varētu novērtēt finansējuma lieluma atbilstību iesaistīto bezdarbnieku skaitam, priekšroku dotot projektiem, kuros tiek iesaistīts lielāks bezdarbnieku skaits. Tas veicinātu

finansējuma efektivitātes paaugstināšanu ESF mērķa – ieguldījums cilvēkresursos sasniegšanā. Jāpievērš uzmanība projektu vērtēšanas kritērijiem, maksimāli atbalstot tos projektus, kuros lielākā līdzekļu daļa tiek ieguldīta iesaistītajā mērķa grupā – bezdarbniekos nevis ESF finansējumu izmantot projekta administratīvajiem izdevumiem un pamatdarbības izdevumu segšanai.

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Quality of Human Capital in the Rural Areas of Poland

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Abstract

The aim of the article is an attempt to define a level of the human capital in rural areas in comparison with urban areas in Poland in 2006 or 2007 (depending on the data availability), and factors forming the capital. Two main information sources – statistic data of GUS (Central Statistical Office in Poland) and the data from “Social Diagnosis” showing conditions and quality of life of Poles were used in the article. Literature presents different measures of the human capital level. The present research defines the quality of the human capital mainly using the level of education. However since the use of only one factor is insufficient, apart from this measure the following other factors were also considered: level of professional activity, extent up to which people over 20 years of age use educational services, and ability to use computer. The article presents also the calculation of the so-called human capital resources index in rural areas of the following five provinces in Poland: Łódzkie, Mazowieckie, Śląskie, Zachodniopomorskie and Warmińsko-Mazurskie. Human capital resources index is based on education, employment, enterprise, and professional activity indexes. Mazovia is a central province in Poland, but the level of human capital in the rural areas is not the highest possible. The level of human resources quality is the lowest in Warmińsko-Mazurskie province, while in Zachodniopomorskie province the level of enterprise index is the highest in Poland.

Key words: human capital, rural areas, education, human capital resources index.

Introduction

Human capital is defined as potential of knowledge, talent, skills, education, intelligence, health, energy, and initiative possessed by every human being, influencing his/her behaviour and work, creative thinking and activities, and adaptation abilities. Human capital is highly independent from genetics. They constitute an integral part of a person, and cannot be purchased; however, it can be developed or increased by investing one's time, money and work, and with the help of others. Human capital is also not identical with demographic potential of a specific society investment (Becker, 1964).

Nearly 39% of the Polish citizens live in the rural areas of the country. The areas are subject to a rather unequal development, and the development itself is affected by many economic and non-economic factors. The quality and use of the human capital is one of the factors. The factor has a significant influence of development and competitiveness on a certain area. The influence is frequently bigger than the influence of other forms of capital.

The aim of the article is an attempt to define a level of the human capital in rural areas in comparison with urban areas in Poland in 2006 or 2007 (depending on the data availability), and factors forming the capital. Many governmental and the EU programmes have been addressed at increasing the level of human capital in rural areas. They are such programmes as PHARE, Programmes of Rural Areas Activities,

or Operating Programme – Human Resources 2007-2013.

The human capital theory was created in the second half of the past century. It was formulated and developed mainly by T. Schultz (Schultz T., 1961) and G. Becker (Becker G., 1964). Concepts of examining a role of human factor originated from earlier economic schools created by W. Petty, A. Smith, J.B. Say and K. Marx.

Traditionally resources, being one of the classical production factors, are perceived as a stock of assets designed for further production, whereas T. Schultz in the introduction to his book “Investment in Human Capital” has written: “When I saw a growing role of the human capital in modern economy, I noticed inadequacy of the traditional concept of the capital” (Schultz T., 1961).

Two main information sources - statistic data of GUS and the data from “Social Diagnosis”, showing conditions and quality of life of Poles were used in the article (Czapiński, Panek, 2007). The analysis has been carried out on a representative sample of over 3000 households. The data of GUS refer mainly to the year 2006, while the data taken from the “Social Diagnosis” refer to February of 2007.

The following methods were used for working out the statistic material: description, comparison, and inductive reasoning. Mathematical methods were also used in the study.

Level of education and skills as gauges of the human capital

Literature presents different measures of the human capital level that may be referred to either micro or macroeconomic scale. Human capital resources may be considered individually and measured by expenses paid for education, know-how and skills or the prospective income. On the macroeconomic level the human capital resources can be measured based on the budget assigned for education or health as related to gross national income, the education index, or the percentage of adult re-education.

Also, aggregated measures are used, like the measure of human development HDI introduced by the UN, or the measure of human capital presented in this article. Moreover, the quality of human capital may be measured in a country as divided into regions, districts, or into urban and rural areas.

In the present study the quality of human capital was defined mainly using the level of education. However since the use of only one factor is insufficient, the following other factors were also considered apart from this measure: level of professional activity, extent up to which people over 20 years of age use educational services and ability to use computer. The index of human capital resources was applied for the needs of comparison between provinces.

The level of education of rural population in Poland in comparison with urban population is presented in Table 1.

In 2008 the participation of persons with higher education was almost three times higher in the urban than in the rural areas; while the participation of persons with the lowest level of education is almost three times higher in the rural areas. However, it must be added that the participation of persons with higher education in the rural areas has doubled since 2000. In the same period the number of persons with higher education in the rural areas has increased by 130%. Such a big increase resulted not only from a drive towards knowledge but also from a low initial level. The data show that the percentage of women of higher education exceeds that of men (in villages as well as in towns).

Among the rural population the landless population had higher level of education (Table 2). The group of population connected with farms has lower level of education. Over 1/3 of people running farms have at least secondary education, and almost 8% - higher education. The percentage of higher educated people in the social group is low, and the dominating group is comprised by people of basic vocational education, similarly as in the landless group (in towns the dominating group is that of the secondary education, then the higher education).

Also a professionally inactive population of rural areas (aged 15 and over) is rather poorly educated. An attention should be paid to the fact that among a rather poorly educated group of unemployed people from rural areas, in 2008 nearly 8% (39 thousand people) had higher and over 120 thousand people had

Table 1

Level of education of professionally active population of rural and urban areas in Poland

Year	Area	Education (%)				
		tertiary	post-secondary	secondary	basic vocational	lower secondary, primary and incomplete primary
2000	rural	4.6	2.0	24.3	42.3	26.8
	urban	17.3	4.2	39.2	30.5	8.8
2002	rural	6.2	2.2	24.9	42.8	23.9
	urban	20.1	4.8	37.5	29.2	8.4
2004	rural	7.6	2.4	26.5	42.4	21.1
	urban	24.5	4.5	36.8	27.4	6.8
2006	rural	9.2	2.7	28.7	41.1	18.3
	urban	27.2	4.3	36.5	25.5	6.5
2008*	rural	10.8	2.6	29.8	40.5	16.3
	urban	29.1	4.7	35.9	24.8	5.5

* Quarter I, 2008

Source: calculations done by the author based on GUS (2008), Economic activity of the Polish population in the years 1992-2004, Warsaw, GUS (2007), Economic activity of the Polish population in 2006, Warsaw, GUS (2008) Economic activity of the Polish population in Quarter I, 2008, Warsaw

Table 2

Level of education of the rural population in Poland in Quarter I, 2008

Specification	Education				
	tertiary	post-secondary and vocational secondary	general secondary	basic vocational	lower secondary, primary and incomplete primary
Number of professionally active people (thousand)	686	143	1740	2389	949
Dynamics (2000=100)	229	120	108	93	67
Professionally active landless population (%)	14.4	27.4	7.7	38.6	11.9
Professionally active population connected with a farm (%)	7.6	24.9	5.2	42.1	20.2
Persons economically inactive (%)	2.3	10.7	7.2	19.9	59.9
Unemployed (%)	7.8	25.7	9.8	38.2	18.5

Source: GUS (2008), Economic activity of the Polish population in Quarter I, 2008, Warsaw

secondary education. It seems that skills of this group can be treated as unused human capital.

The level of education depends up to a great extent on educational aspirations of the youth and their parents as well as on the participation in extracurricular activities and pre-school activities. In February 2007, in the rural areas, ca. 12% of children aged 6 and more went to kindergartens (in the urban areas the number is 18-26%) (Czapiński, Panek, 2007). It means that educational shortfalls in the country appear on a very early stage. Also the extent up to which people aged 20 and more use educational services (both school and extracurricular) was two or even three times smaller in the countryside than in the cities (it refers mainly to a group aged 25 and more). Educational aspirations of parents from rural areas were also lower – the expected level of education of children ends on a technical school or vocational high school, while in the case of rural households in Poland parents aspire for higher education and master's degree. The research shows also that 10% of farmers are going to allocate resources from direct subsidies for education of their children (Czapiński J., Panek T., 2007).

Human capital in the rural areas is not used sufficiently. The professional activity ratio in the case of rural population is only 56% (employment ratio – 49.5%), and is slightly higher than in urban areas.

One of the elements of human capital is an ability to use IT technologies – computer and Internet. In the researched period, the level of Internet access in rural households has improved, and the number of computers increased. In 2007 over a half of farmers' households (16% had Internet access) and 44% rural

households had a computer (22% used Internet). The research shows that 37% of the rural population has computer skills (49% of residents of small cities and 70% of residents of big cities).

The index of human capital resources in rural areas of the selected provinces

The human capital can be measured using detailed measurements – the educational level, re-education, skills of using a computer, or health. Also besides the educational level synthetic measurements include other variables describing the quality of labour resources and their use.

The educational level cannot be the only measure of human capital. People of high education and skills not always make use of their potential – as in the group of the unemployed or of the professionally passive in the job market.

One of the synthetic gauges of the human capital resources is the human capital resources index (HCRI) based on the local societies development. The index is based, in turn, on the human development index (HDI) calculated by the UNDP (UN Development Program) [Czyszkiewicz, Molewicz, 2005].

The HCRI describes the human capital resources and their use in a certain area, or a certain unit of territorial division (province, district, and commune). The index is calculated in a simple way. It can be calculated for rural areas or urban areas in a certain province. The general formula of that index for a certain province (or rural areas of the certain province) within a given time is as follows [Nowak, 1996]:

$$HCRI = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{i=1}^4 PI_{ij}$$

Formula 1

level in villages is the highest in Poland, whereas in Zachodniopomorskie the entrepreneurial index is the highest. Warmińsko-Mazurskie has the lowest level of the human capital in Poland as calculated without division into rural and urban areas.

Formula 2

$$PI_{ij} = \frac{x_{ij} - \min\{x_{ij}\}}{\max\{x_{ij}\} - \min\{x_{ij}\}}$$

where:

PI – partial index (Formula 2),

i – index of the calculated partial index adopting values from 1 to 4 (number of partial indices),

j – index of a certain province adopting values from 1 to 16 (number of provinces),

x_{ij} – value of the i^{th} parameter achieved in j^{th} province in a certain year,

$\min\{x_{ij}\}$ – minimum value of the i^{th} parameter achieved by provinces in a certain year,

$\max\{x_{ij}\}$ – maximum value of the i^{th} parameter achieved by provinces in a certain year.

It has been accepted that the human capital resources index in a village area includes four values: education index, occupational activity index, employment index, and entrepreneurial index (Table 3). All values of the above mentioned parameters refer to rural areas.

The analysis has been conducted in rural areas of five provinces: Mazowieckie, Łódzkie, Śląskie, Zachodniopomorskie, and Warmińsko-Mazurskie. First two provinces have the highest level of the human capital resources index as calculated for their whole areas, without division into rural and urban areas.

It seems interesting to analyse whether the index is also the highest in these provinces as calculated for the rural areas only: in Śląskie the education

The educational parameter has been obtained through dividing population with higher education in the rural areas of a certain province by the number economically active people in those areas. This is a parameter describing formal education, not covering differences in education levels in various types and forms of high schools. Also, it was assumed that people with higher education have the capital of higher quality. The proof for such an assumption is the lower level of unemployment and higher earnings in the group of people with higher education. Sometimes, however, certain skills or capabilities are valued more than formal education, and they significantly contribute to the individual human capital. Such information cannot be found though in the National Bureau of Statistics.

The economic activity parameter is the participation of economically active people (employed and unemployed) in the age group over 15 years. According to the National Bureau of Statistics an employed person is the one who works for money at least one hour a week. The economic activity index and the employment index both indicate the use of human capital. People who are occupationally passive and the unemployed do not make use of their education and qualifications.

The employment index is the percentage of people employed within the age group of 15 and more. It is an antithesis (the reverse) of unemployment [Czyszkiewicz, Molewicz, 2005]. The index indicates mobilisation of labour resources. However, there is no simple relation: the lower unemployment the higher employment index. The employment index relates to the age group of 15 and more or productive age;

Table 3

Value of parameters adopted for calculation of the human capital resources index in the rural areas of the selected provinces in 2006

Province	Parameters (%) of			
	education	economic activity	employment	enterprise
Łódzkie	6.1	57.5	53.8	49.4
Mazowieckie	8.5	55.6	48.6	49.6
Śląskie	12.5	47.9	43.6	57.8
Warmińsko-mazurskie	6.5	48.6	39.8	36.2
Zachodniopomorskie	8.5	48.9	41.2	60.8

Source: GUS, (2008), Statistical Yearbook of Agriculture and Rural Areas 2007, Warsaw, GUS (2007) Economic activity of the Polish population in 2006, Warsaw

Table 4

Human capital resources index in the rural areas of the selected provinces in 2006

Province	Partial indices of				General index
	education	economic activity	employment	enterprise	
Łódzkie	0.00	0.91	1.00	0.59	0.63
Mazowieckie	0.38	0.73	0.63	0.60	0.59
Śląskie	1.00	0.00	0.27	0.89	0.54
Warmińsko-mazurskie	0.06	0.07	0.00	0.12	0.06
Zachodniopomorskie	0.38	0.09	0.10	1.00	0.39

Source: author's calculations

whereas unemployment is calculated in the group of economically active people.

The entrepreneurial index is, in this article, the number of self-employed persons in the village areas in a certain province per a thousand people. The more companies registered the more, as we can expect the level of entrepreneurship and use of qualifications. Entrepreneurship is not always related to formal education. In business other qualities are also important – resourcefulness, determination, qualifications, or creativity.

The calculated values of partial indices, as well as the general index for rural areas of selected provinces are included in Table 4.

The end position of a certain province results from the values of the partial indices. Table 4 clearly shows that in Łódzkie the education level is the lowest in Poland, but all the remaining partial indices locate that province in the first position.

In Mazowieckie, which has undoubtedly the highest human capital index without division into rural and urban areas (value 0.98, and then Łódzkie – 0.58), the rural areas do not have equally high values. The reason seems to be that in that province lies in Warsaw, which increases the values of partial indices in the rural areas.

Śląskie is almost as highly located as Mazowieckie, with high level of education and the lowest in Poland occupational activity index.

The human capital index is the lowest in Warmińsko-Mazurskie, measured in the rural areas only and in the whole province.

Conclusions

1. Education is one of the most important factors defining quality of the human capital. The level of education of the rural population is much lower than the level of education of urban population,

however it is improving fast. The important reasons of a relatively lower level of education in the rural areas are lower aspirations of families, smaller percentage of children obtaining pre-school education, poorer educational offer, and poor access to education facilities. On the contrary the fact of having children has frequently positive effect on the level of human capital of their parents, e.g., the parents acquire computer skills.

2. The main determinants of increase of education level in the rural areas in the researched period seem to be: development of higher education system (including private, extramural, public higher vocational schools, branches of public universities) and locating such schools in smaller localisations (shorter distance, bigger access), increase of the youths aspirations, increase of incomes in rural areas, state activities, and activities of international organisations and foundations.
3. Equipment of rural households with computers has improved significantly in the researched period. It seems it was a result of significant increase of real incomes in farming households (in the years 2003-2006 by nearly 35%).
4. The human capital level may be measured also using synthetic gauges. One of them is the human capital resources index (HCRI) based on the coefficients of activity, education, employment, and entrepreneurship.
5. Rural areas of the analysed provinces are strongly differentiated in terms of human capital level as measured with HCRI. The highest human capital resources index is in Łódzkie. Relatively high value of the index in Mazowieckie results from the influence of Warsaw. However, there are rural areas in Poland where the human capital level is very low. Such a situation results

from many factors: no strong urban centres being simultaneously educational centres, low economic growth and the resulting low incomes, no entrepreneurial tradition, or high unemployment rate.

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Progress-prone Cultural Characteristics versus Economic Culture of Rural Inhabitants in Poland

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Abstract

Relations between economy, society and culture typical of this society are the subject of inquiries among economy and sociology classics. The basic issue is the way of interpreting the relations between them. The debate concerning the essence of economic culture addresses a question whether culture is capable of stimulating transformations, encouraging economic development and improving life quality, or rather the opposite – whether it impedes the changes.

The aim of the paper is an attempt to explain not only what economic culture of Polish rural inhabitants embraces, but also whether its characteristics are, on account of the present social-economic and political conditions, a progress-prone factor, or rather an obstructive one. It is also important what kind of changes occur in economic culture of rural inhabitants under the influence of economic transformations nationwide and, accordingly, what combination of economic culture characteristics becomes widespread in rural environment. It indicates the impact of culture on social development, as far as values, attitudes and opinions in a particular community are concerned. The aim is namely to demonstrate how culture influences the scope and implementation manner (or its lack) of the process of economic development by the society. Last but not least, it is important to investigate which political, social and other activities are capable of minimising or removing the cultural barriers standing in the way of economic development, and which of them will preserve the present state of affairs.

Key words: economic culture, Polish rural areas, value system.

Introduction

Relations between economy, society and culture typical of this society are the subject of inquiries among economy and sociology classics. The basic issue is the way of interpreting the relations between them. The problem is debatable as there exist several economic theses treating economy either as independent from its socio-cultural context or – on the contrary – recognising socio-cultural aspects as economic determinants. The dispute between *economic imperialism* and *sociological imperialism* (Lazear E.P., 2000, Smelser Neil J., 1963, Stinchcombe A., 1983) has resulted in a conviction among several researchers that it is necessary to combine economic and sociological variables, and to create a paradigm of integral economic research.

The following paper adopts a perspective of economic sociology. This approach transfers and applies sociological methods, terminology and theory to describe economic knowledge, structures and relations in economy and its institutions. “The keynote in economic sociology is a paradigm that rules and ways of conduct in the economic system are not solely of economic nature, but are socially defined and determined” (Krzykała F., 1998). This line of thought establishes the direction of research

which analyses variables concerning mentality, collective consciousness and widely understood culture. The research method adopted in the paper is typical of sociological research connected with culture, mentality and collective consciousness. It is of a qualitative character and based on the analysis of “soft” variables. This type of sociological research is not restricted to qualitative methods, but it also means a qualitative way of thinking about human experience through “scientific, inter-subjective empathy” which allows reaching the individual and collective meanings and to the experiences of the so-called outer world. The output of research and analyses is a theoretical description (Giddens A., 1993).

The aim of the presented elaboration is an attempt to join the debate whether culture is capable of stimulating transformations, encouraging economic development and improving life quality, or rather the opposite – whether it impedes the changes.

Accordingly, the following issues need to be discussed:

- to establish the economic culture existing in Polish rural areas and whether its qualities are, on account of the present social-economic and political conditions, a progress-prone factor, or rather an obstructive one for rural areas;

- to determine what changes occur in economic culture of rural inhabitants under the influence of economic transformations nationwide and, accordingly, what combination of economic culture characteristics becomes widespread in rural environment;
- to investigate which political, social and other activities are capable of minimising or removing the cultural barriers standing in the way of economic development, and which of them will preserve the present state of affairs.

Results and Discussion

The meaning of research on economic culture

The debate concerning the essence of economic culture addresses a very significant issue. It namely inquires whether a culture typical of a certain community may encourage economic development or improve its life quality or the opposite – hamper the process. According to some researchers, culture can become an asset and the engine of positive socio-economic changes only if a determined, not incidental combination of economic culture's features becomes widespread. Economic culture determines the aims and methods of conduct in the area of economic activity. It also creates a system of values and their implementation mechanisms, apart from determining the conditions in which the given aims and methods can win social acceptance (Chmielak A., 2006).

The notion of economic culture is not easy to define. Being an achievement of historical development, it exerts a significant influence on the environment of economic processes, on people's behaviour standards and quality of interpersonal relationships in organisations. It also affects conditions of spreading knowledge on economic processes in a society, hence – on the development of human capital for economic needs.

One can distinguish between two main ways of understanding economic culture and applying the notion in research. The first one, defining a culture, creates a catalogue of all the values, cognitive and behaviour patterns essential for economic activity. By their means one can evaluate what is considered good or bad, acceptable or not, in a certain society. People interpret the reality and take a stance using cognitive patterns. Another way of understanding economic culture distinguishes between the main factors which influence the evolution of cultures, and then standardises them in several dimensions or around a few focal points of the analysis. Each of the points can be further specified in terms of more detailed issues or questions. In this way entrepreneurship, attitudes to money and other may become the central category (Marody M, Kochanowicz J., 2007).

Applying culture categories to research is not simple, as economic culture entails several intertwining elements creating an empirical entity. Cultural patterns, values, ideas, political and social structures create a context for economic functioning. It is impossible to explain the specificity of a society's economic culture without reflecting on the economic culture itself (Berger, 1991). Economic culture can be understood as "convictions, attitudes and values connected with economic activity of individuals, organisations or other institutions". It depends to a significant extent on the whole community's views on economic issues. In great measure, it is the product of the past and present microeconomic situation. This approach does not allow separating explicitly culture-determined behaviours from those evoked or enhanced by economic conditions.

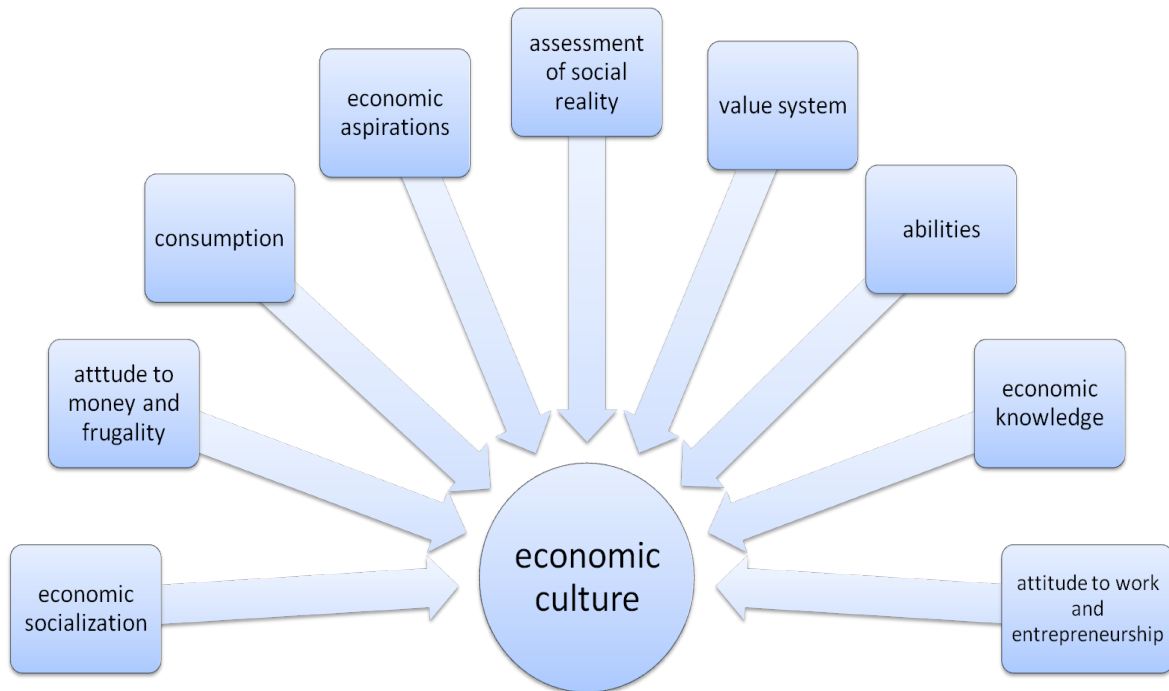
The role of culture in attaining economic development can be examined in the following respects (Harrison L.E., 1997):

- a) general culture qualities considered beneficial (industriousness, entrepreneurship, belief in the meaning of education),
- b) macroeconomic factors, e.g., propensity to save and invest.

The same factors can result in completely different implications from the economic point of view, depending on the community and the level it is presently on.

While defining economic culture, one can assume that this notion embraces several factors determining a way of thinking and acting of individuals and groups in the field of economy. The elements of economic culture are presented in the figure below.

The issues of economic socialization and the knowledge and economic aspirations of the individual and the community are thought to be significant in the analysis of economic culture. In social sciences it is recognised that family plays the primary role in shaping a human's personality. Accordingly, family's influence on the attitudes taken in the field of economic life is fundamental. We deal here with both the level of conscious socialisation, where parents apply the adopted education concept to encourage certain attitudes, and with the level of socialising behaviours beyond parental consciousness, where a child shapes its own orientations through mere observation of the parents. A value system is created on the basis of primary and secondary socialization. It affects the appraisal of social reality, decisions concerning consumption, attitude to work and enterprise, and to money and frugality. Understood in this way, economic culture is an integrated system influencing the individual's behaviour in the area of economy.



Source: made by the author

Figure 1. Elements of economic culture

Qualities of a progress-prone culture

In the literature on the subject, the attempts to establish construction of economic culture encouraging productivity of economies so that it reflects the social need to improve life quality, are connected with progress-prone analyses and progress-resistant qualities of culture. According to M. Grandona's concept, economic values are not sufficient for economic development, since the development is a culture-determined process. The author outlines twenty cultural factors important for social functioning which may (or may not) favour economic development (the list is not considered complete) (Grandona M., 2000). L.E Harrison, in his turn, distinguishes ten values, attitudes and types of mentality which are characteristic of progressive cultures. (Harrison L.E., 2000). A similar pattern of

the value system, together with pointing the direction of changes, is presented by D. Etounga-Manguelle (Etounga-Manguelle D., 2000). In his opinion going down the road of development requires fundamental changes in four areas – education, politics, economy and social life.

Similarities between progressive cultural values outlined by the authors are quite visible. One can claim that they are characteristics emphasising creativity, competence, sense of responsibility for one's own life and respect for a job well done.

Economic culture of rural inhabitants

Economic culture of rural inhabitants³ remains under the influence of the traditional axiological

³ The author is referring to socio-economic analyses based on her own research carried out in rural areas and on the relevant literature on the subject. The results of the analyses have been presented in the following publications: *Mentalność ekonomiczna mieszkańców wsi. Studium na przykładzie wybranych kategorii społecznych*. - Poznań: Akademia Ekonomiczna, 2000, 175 s. - *Zeszyty Naukowe. Seria 2. Prace habilitacyjne*, z. 158.; *Mentalność ekonomiczna młodego pokolenia współczesnej wsi polskiej*. W: *Socjologiczne portrety grup społecznych. Tom studiów i szkiców 2/*, red. Z. Zagórski. - Wrocław: Uniwersytet Wrocławski, 2002, s. 41-59. - *Acta Universitatis Wratislaviensis nr 2384. Socjologia 23.*; *Wiejscy przedsiębiorcy a kreacja nowego ładu gospodarczego na wsi*. W: *Socjologia gospodarki: rynek, instytucje, zarządzanie*, red: K. Konecki [i inni]. - Łódź: Wyższa Szkoła Kupiecka, 2002, s. 459-474.; *Skutki integracji europejskiej z Unią Europejską w perspektywie mieszkańców wsi*. [w:] *Wielkopolska po dwóch latach w Unii Europejskiej*, red: R. Cichoński, Wydawnictwo Fundacji Humaniora, Poznań 2006, s.103-111.; *Uwarunkowania wiejskiej przedsiębiorczości – ekonomiczno-społeczne aspekty zjawiska*. [w:] *Przedsiębiorczość w rozwoju obszarów wiejskich*, red. A. M. Rak, Wydawnictwo Akademii Podlaskiej, Siedlce 2006, s.13-22.; *Społeczno-ekonomiczne uwarunkowania aktywizacji zawodowej mieszkańców wsi*, [w:] *Aktywizująca polityka społeczna*, red. J. Orczyk, M. Żukowski, - Poznań, 2007, s.139-151, *Zeszyty Naukowe AE*, nr 89. and in other.

Table 1

Culture and development

Author	Progressive cultural values
M. Grondona	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • work and creativity • law is based on social norms • predominance of competition and rivalry in economy and social life • long term perspectives • consistent development and education • respect for instrumental values • rationality in decision process • democracy and constant search for possibilities concerning future shaping • trust in the individual
L.E. Harrison	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • future-oriented time frame • respect for education and frugality • rigorous ethical code • high competence rank • sense of togetherness involving wide social circles • general expectation and practice of abiding justice and honesty • horizontal authority structures • restricted influence of religious institutions on human life
D. Etounga-Manguelle	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ability to express one's own opinion • creativity • professionalism • competences • respect for job well done • sense of responsibility • reliability • subjectivity of an individual as a social actor • acceptance of profit as the engine of development • private initiative • satisfaction with the effects of own work • trust in others

Source: made by the author based on Harrison L.E., Huntington S. P. (2000), Culture Matters. How Values Shape Human Progress, New York, Basic Books

peasant culture which central values focus on work and the peasant style of economy. Industriousness was treated as a value in itself and its lack discredited the notion of proper economy. Negligence and shoddiness at work was a highly reprehensible trait, as it betrayed one of the basic social and moral principles of the community. However, work ethics is not identical with active entrepreneurship; it is rather a stereotypical symbol of tradition. On the contrary, farmers' work ethics is actually almost synonymous with ineffective economy. Industriousness was directly linked with frugality and thriftiness. Thriftiness, however, was an adaptation attitude, with optimal exploitation of what one owned and little struggle for development and obtaining what one lacked.

In traditional forms of farming the economic way of thinking clearly reflected the peasant value system.

One could repeat after M. Weber (Weber, 1978) that the peasant culture is characterised by a certain type of rationality which has its consequences when the aggressive capitalistic culture collides with the peasant traditionalism. According to Weber, capitalism is based on formal rationality, consisting in an extreme economisation of social activities which base is a cost and profit calculation. This calculation, however, is not part of the peasant way of thinking. The peasant culture is characterised as based on *actual rationality*, subordinate to other acknowledged criteria stemming from values which cannot be quantitatively expressed by means of money. In this respect culture can play a significant role in preserving and adapting the peasant economy to the changing world. The crucial principle of farming is therefore not profit maximisation, but minimisation of risks and providing self-sufficiency.

Contemporary economic culture of rural inhabitants remains under the influence of traditional qualities. Its crucial characteristics affect both economic and social fields resulting in:

- 1) low level of social capital, including:
 - co-operative weakness
 - low level of public trust
- 2) weakness of civil society, including:
 - low level of self-organisation
 - propensity for negative subjectivity (rebellion and defiance, not creative activity)
- 3) low level of competence concerning market gambling and marketing
- 4) propensity for risk minimising.

Analysing economic culture of rural inhabitants one can attempt to indicate values that, in accordance with the above mentioned concepts, favour rural development and those which impede adaptation to the system and active participation in economic life.

When addressing the issue of progress-resistant characteristics of economic culture among rural inhabitants, the most typical trait is the expectation that economic and social problems would be solved by external factors. There exist little sense of agency, i.e., the belief in one's abilities and influence on the environment is weak. It is connected with fundamental weakness of local communities where the tendency to self-organisation and co-operation is still low. A significant influence on such attitude exerted the system of the Polish People's Republic, described by K. Górlach as a system of "oppressive tolerance" (Górlach K., 1995). The point is that in order to evade constant interference of the authorities in agriculture and rural communities one had to remain independent and self-sufficient as an individual, which led in practice to reluctance of becoming dependent on others and, as a result, to collective activities. The most precious value among rural inhabitants was independence, which in the new economic environment may unfortunately weaken actual possibilities of functioning on the market. Individualism and self-sufficiency, which were an effective weapon of the Polish countryside and agriculture through many years, have become a barrier in the new conditions in which co-operation between several economic subjects proves effective. A significant role still plays the peasant ethos, shaping a contemporary farmer's mentality. It entails reluctance to subordination, even if a failure in goal achievement is the price to pay.

Rural development is not favoured by the widespread mistrust, whereas it is the trust in

social entities which encourage innovative and pro-social attitudes. The individual's activity and mobilisation favours, in their turn, social and economic development. The lack of trust results in conservatism, excessive cautiousness and impaired creativity. Institutions operating in the rural areas are on one hand expected to support co-operative initiatives, but on the other they bear "the odium of mistrust", which makes the situation difficult. As it turns out from the Eurobarometer reports, the level of mistrust in Poland reaches 81% (this percentage of the society does not trust social institutions) and is the highest in the entire European Union (Eurobarometer 2007).

Another significant barrier is a low level of competence among farmers in terms of market gambling and marketing. Economic knowledge, being an important element of economic culture, is relatively low among rural inhabitants, which is an effect of an unfavourable education structure (despite a constant rise in education level in Poland, it is still significantly lower in the country than in the urban areas). It is otherwise known that today education is a key to achieve certain social statuses and undoubtedly "the level of education affects directly the values and orientation system of an individual, favours intellectual flexibility and a broader look, widens the cognitive and analytical perspective of an individual, shapes the ability to compare, conclude and discover different aspects of reality" (Zanddecki, 1996).

The description of some progress-resistant values of economic culture has been placed in the table below.

In the author's conviction, economic culture of rural inhabitants entails several qualities which character is progress-prone, in accordance with the presented concept. The values have been placed in Table 3.

One of the most central elements of the rural value system is industriousness, which belongs to the most significant components of the traditional value system. A sense of responsibility was the strongest moral norm. Industriousness was treated as a value in itself and its lack discredited the notion of proper economy. Negligence and shoddiness at work was a highly reprehensible trait, as it betrayed one of the basic social and moral principles.

Industriousness was directly linked with frugality and thriftiness. Thriftiness was understood in the traditional countryside as a maximal exploitation of everything a household had at its disposal (land, tools, animals, buildings, people); whereas frugality meant additionally a prospective thriftiness, i.e., gathering and protecting all those goods and items which could come in handy in the household. Understood in this way, thriftiness could be accused of being an

Table 2

Some progress-resistant values of economic culture of rural inhabitants in Poland

Cultural values	Attitudes adopted
CLAIMING ATTITUDE	Expectation that the state will guarantee prices, market and security for farmers. Expectation that the state will intervene in economic and social problem solving of rural environment.
CONSERVATISM	Reluctance to change in the farms' profile and to taking risk. Reluctance to change the business profiles of enterprises.
MISTRUST	Mistrust towards agricultural policy.
PASSIVITY	Expectation that the problems will be solved by external factors, especially as regards labour market.
AMBIVALENCE	Hope of change/anxiety about future which one does not have influence on.
RELUCTANCE TO RISK	Restricting one's activity. Not making use of the existing potential.

Source: made by the author based on Harrison L.E., Huntington S. P. (2000), Culture Matters. How Values Shape Human Progress, New York, Basic Books

Table 3

Progress-prone values of economic culture of rural inhabitants in Poland

Cultural values	Attitudes adopted
ADAPTATION	Adaptation to system, despite anxiety and criticism. Acceptance of Europeanization of lifestyle and public life standards.
OPTIMISM	Positive attitude to the future place in the united Europe. Long-term profits (European integration, market economy). Poland's civilisation advancement.
INDUSTRIOUSNESS	Duty to work as a moral norm. Conscientiousness.
FRUGALITY AND THRIFTINESS	Maximal exploitation of the owned goods.
INDEPENDENCE	Individualistic attitude.

Source: made by the author

adaptation attitude, with optimal exploitation of what one owned and little struggle for development and obtaining what one lacked (Mleczko F. M., 1976).

Undoubtedly, a progress-prone quality is the individualistic attitude, which in contemporary social and economic reality promotes entrepreneurial and active attitudes in rural areas. As a result, rural inhabitants demonstrate considerable adaptation abilities to the new conditions outlined by the

two crucial long-term stimuli connected with the transformation processes (aiming at transition from socialist economy to market economy) and entering the socio-economic structures of the EU. Many beneficial transformations in the rural areas result from these factors, including:

- increase in educational aspirations of the young generation of inhabitants who plan to stay in the rural areas, but do not plan to become farmers;

- development of human and social capital which raises hope for the long-awaited socio-economic advancement of the rural areas;
- considerable empowerment of rural inhabitants.

On the basis of several economic and social analyses one can state that processes concerning development of market economy as well as those connected with European integration will in a fundamental way affect the shape of economic culture of rural inhabitants. One can therefore think that the phenomena able to eliminate cultural barriers in the economic development of rural areas (as mentioned at the outset of this elaboration) are connected with putting into use the cultural-economic-social system where the rural areas instead of becoming marginalised outside the main course of events become the main and full participant of market gambling with the inhabitants being important social subject. It is possible thanks to very significant (the greatest among all EU societies) acceptance of integration as a prospect for civilisation progress in the rural areas.

Conclusions

The above analysis has led to the following conclusions:

1. Economic culture of rural inhabitants features both progress-prone characteristics connected with adjustment to market economy, and progress-resistant qualities which create a barrier for development of rural areas and for achieving a satisfactory financial level of their inhabitants.
2. The most important progress-prone qualities are: industriousness, frugality and thriftiness, individualistic attitude and adaptation to the system.
3. The most important progress-resistant qualities, which inhibit the pace of transformations, are: claiming attitude, mistrust, reluctance to risk and co-operation.

A very important conclusion is that economic culture can evolve by absorbing the progress-prone qualities, if favourable external factors occur.

One can formulate a hypothesis that two phenomena affect economic culture and will affect it in the long term:

1. Entering the EU socio-economic structures.
2. Increase in human and social capital in rural areas, which is a result of long-lasting influence of socio-economic transformation processes in Poland.

Despite the above mentioned problems, the issue of progress-prone and progress-resistant cultural values falls outside simple definitions. G. Hofstede draws attention to this fact by emphasising that whilst evolution of capitalistic societies required

personalities of life dynamics, risk propensity, high motivation level and no fear of changes, the functioning in post-industrial societies favours reverse values: low tolerance for change, change evasion, not taking up rivalry and a strong anxiety about the future (Hofstede G., 2000). It can mean that some cultural qualities of economic culture of rural inhabitants are not a relict of the past, but a progress-prone product of modernity, since fear of risk and methods to evade it are becoming widespread in contemporary societies (Beck U., 2002). Such convictions, especially confronted with the present financial market crisis, which questions the shape and future of market economy, undermines clarity and explicitness of such divisions. This issue, however, requires separate studies.

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Impact of the EU Enlargement on the Agricultural Income Components in the Member States

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Abstract

The paper presents the analysis of the impact of the EU enlargement in 2004 on the agricultural net value added and the factors income in the EU Member States. The main aim of the study is to test the significance of difference in reaction to the enlargement in three distinct groups of members, namely the “old” fifteen Member States, the ‘new’ ten Member States which accessed the EU on May 1, 2004, and the two “newest” Member States, i.e., Romania and Bulgaria which accessed the EU on January 1, 2007. A linear mixed model was applied for the purpose of description of different countries behaviour.

Key words: EU enlargement, agricultural output, mixed linear model.

Introduction

On May 1, 2004 Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia joined the EU. On that day the ten new Member States joined the single market. As it had been anticipated, the flow of trade between the “old” and the “new” Members States has amplified (Analysis... 2002). The EU funds have become available for farmers in the new Members States which allowed a significant increase of investments in agriculture and a certain economic boom in the rural areas. There is a general consensus that the EU enlargement has a positive effect on the EU agriculture as a whole. Nevertheless, some adjustments of production and consumption have had to take place in several countries of the EU-25 and not all of them for the better.

The aim of this paper is to study the impact of the EU enlargement on agriculture in three distinct groups of countries: the “old” fifteen Member States (EU-15), the “new” ten Member States (EU-10N) which accessed the EU on May 1, 2004 and the two “newest” Member States, i.e., Romania and Bulgaria (EU-2N), which accessed the EU on January 1, 2007.

In a paper by the author Kobus (2008) it was shown that the agricultural income in terms of indicator A had increased significantly only in the EU-10N, while for all other Members States it had remained, on average, on the previous level.

What remains unclear is whether it could be just an effect of bigger subsidies in the EU-10N after accession?

In order to answer this question the influence of enlargement on two characteristics of agriculture, namely the *net value added* and the *factors income* is investigated.

Data

The data used in this analysis are available from the Eurostat. According to a Eurostat guide (Manual... 2000) the *net value added* can be obtained by subtracting the *fixed capital consumption* from *gross value added*.

The net value added is valued at basic prices, where a basic price is the price receivable by a producer from a purchaser for a unit of good or service produced as output plus any subsidy receivable on that unit as a consequence of its production or sale, minus any tax payable on that unit as a consequence of its production or sale.

Factors income is the net value added enlarged by the value of *other production subsidies* minus *other production taxes*.

The values of net value added and of factors income were originally expressed in EUR million (from January 1, 1999) or million ECU (up to December 31, 1998) at current prices. In order to eliminate the influence of price changes the values were deflated with producer price indices.

In the next step both variables were transformed from absolute values to indexes, and the year 2000 was chosen as a base year.

Due to a limited range of available data, this study is based on the data starting in 1998 and ending in

2007. For the same reason Cyprus and Estonia have been excluded and the data from only twenty five countries have been analysed.

Statistical model

As it was mentioned in the previous section the analysed data consisted, for each variable, of values applying to ten years and twenty five countries. As a result there are ten observations for each Member State, considering both variables individually. For the analysis of impact of the EU enlargement in the year 2004 two explanatory variables were created: *AfterAccess* {0, 1}, a variable describing if an observation comes from a year after 2004 and *Group* {A, B, C}, a variable which takes value A for countries from the EU-15, B for countries from the EU-10N and C for Romania and Bulgaria. The model which could be applied for such data is presented below (1):

$$y_{ij} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1ij} + \beta_2 x_{2ij} + \beta_3 x_{3ij} + \nu_i + \varepsilon_{ij} \quad (1)$$

where

y_{ij} is the value of the response variable² for the j th of n_i observations in the i th country,

x_{1ij} is the value of the explanatory variable *AfterAccess* for the j th observation in the i th country,

x_{2ij} is equal 1 if the value of the explanatory variable *Group* for the j th observation in the i th country is B and 0 otherwise,

x_{3ij} is equal 1 if the value of the explanatory variable *Group* for the j th observation in the i th country is C and 0 otherwise,

ν_i, ε_{ij} are random variables fully explained in the next paragraph,

$\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3$ are the regression coefficients, which are identical for all groups.

The parameter β_0 represents the so-called reference level which in this case applies to a situation when a country belongs to the EU-15 and the observation comes from a year before 2004. There are two random variables in the model (1). First of them is ν_i and represents the random effect in i th country, the second one is ε_{ij} which represents the random error of j th observation from i th country. It is assumed that both variables follow normal distribution, with the expected value equal 0 and variances σ_ν^2 and σ_ε^2 respectively. It is also assumed that ν_i for different values of i is independent, the same applies to ε_{ij} which are also independent for different values of i and j .

Hence if one of the regressors has a random character the model (1) belongs to the linear mixed models family (Demidenko 2004).

As it was mentioned in the introduction the aim of this paper is to study the impact of the EU enlargement on agriculture in three groups of countries. Thus three models were compared in order to assess the impact. Model (1), already presented, assumes that effect of the enlargement is the same in all three groups and that group effect is the same before and after the enlargement.

$$y_{ij} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1ij} + \beta_2 x_{2ij} + \beta_3 x_{3ij} + \beta_4 x_{1ij} x_{2ij} + \beta_5 x_{1ij} x_{3ij} + \nu_i + \varepsilon_{ij} \quad (2)$$

Model (2) allows differences in reaction to the enlargement by including interaction terms.

$$y_{ij} = \beta_0 + \nu_i + \varepsilon_{ij} \quad (3)$$

Model (3) contains only a constant β_0 besides random variables, and is equivalent to a lack of impact of the EU enlargement and also to a lack of differences between groups.

Model (1) can be treated as a special case of model (2) with restrictions on two parameters ($\beta_4 = \beta_5 = 0$), also model (3) can be treated as a special case of model (1) with restrictions on three

² The net value added or the factors income

parameters ($\beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta_3 = 0$). This allows the application of likelihood-ratio test for testing if the additional parameters are equal 0.

$$LRT = 2(LLF_1 - LLF_0) \quad (4)$$

where: LRT is a value of the test statistic, LLF_1 and LLF_0 are values of a likelihood function logarithm calculated for appropriate models.

If the hypothesis is true the LRT statistics follow asymptotically the chi-square distribution with $p_1 - p_0$ degrees of freedom (DF) distribution, where p_1 and p_0 are numbers of parameters for respective models. The difference $p_1 - p_0$ is equal to the number of restrictions on parameters.

The likelihood-ratio test can be used for testing hypotheses on a whole group of parameters at once and can be considered as a substitute for an analysis of variance test, when its assumptions are not fulfilled.

In the further part of the paper model (3) will be denoted as M_{A0} , model (1) as M_{A1} and model (2) as M_{A2} .

The calculations for all models were performed in R, an environment for statistical computing (R: A language... 2008) with a help of the lme4 package (Bates 2007).

Results

For the assessment of the changes in factors income three models were compared: M_{A0} containing only a constant, M_{A1} containing main effect of factors and M_{A2} containing main effects and interaction of factors. In order to test the significance of the influence of variables added in consecutive models a likelihood-ratio test was used. P-values presented in Table 1 correspond to two hypotheses:

$$H_0 : \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta_3 = 0 \quad (5)$$

$$H_0 : \beta_4 = \beta_5 = 0 \quad (6)$$

While the hypothesis (5) says that both the effect of the enlargement and the effect of group membership are nonexistent; the hypothesis (6) says only that the effect of enlargement is the same in all three groups, and that group effect is the same before and after the enlargement.

The p-value corresponding to the hypothesis (5) is equal 2.21 E-07 and the p-value corresponding to the hypothesis (6) is even lower, hence both hypotheses can be rejected on 0.05 significance level. It indicates that the effects of both factors are significant as well as is their interaction. This suggests that reactions of countries from different groups to the EU enlargement in 2004 differ.

Table 1

Results of testing the influence of explanatory variables on factors income indices

Model	Number of parameters	LLF	LRT	Chi ² DF	p-value
M_{A0}	3	10.385			
M_{A1}	6	27.274	33.778	3	2.21E-07
M_{A2}	8	76.955	99.362	2	<2.20E-16

Source: author's calculations

Table 2

Estimates of the M_{A2} model parameters for factors income indices

Factor	Parameter	Estimate	Std. Error	t-value
Intercept (reference level)	β_0	0.9785	0.0285	34.32
Group B	β_2	0.0715	0.0484	1.48
Group C	β_3	0.1630	0.0831	1.96
AfterAcces 1	β_1	-0.0221	0.0281	-0.78
Group B: AfterAcces 1	β_4	0.4428	0.0477	9.28
Group C: AfterAcces 1	β_5	-0.3352	0.0820	-4.09

Source: author's calculations

Fitted estimates of the M_{A2} model coefficients and t-statistic values for the hypotheses of equality of an appropriate parameter to 0 are presented in Table 2. Due to a big number of observations (250) a 0.975 quintile of the standard normal, i.e., 1.96 distribution is used instead of t-statistic as critical value.

The value of intercept shown in Table 2 and defined as a reference level is an average of the *factors income* indexes for countries from Group A (EU-15) before the year 2004. The value of estimate for Group B is the difference between averages for the EU-10N and the EU-15. The same logic can be applied for the rest of factor levels.

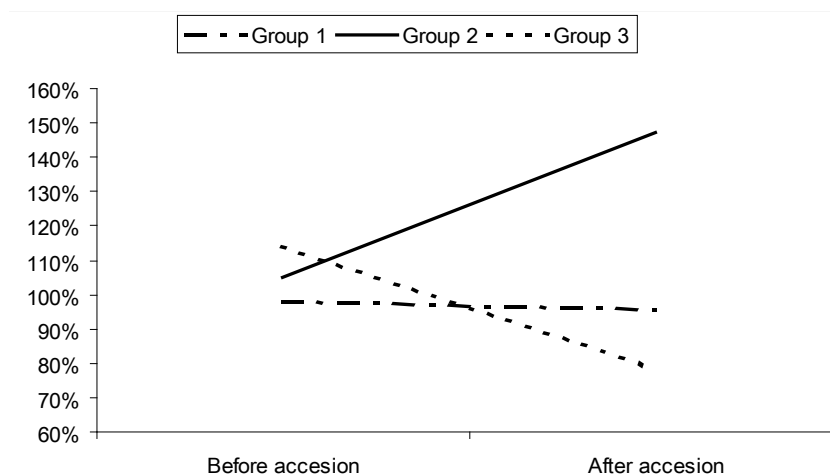
Figure 1 illustrates the mentioned differences in the reactions of three distinct groups to the EU enlargement. It may be clearly seen that Group 2 demonstrates a big leap in factors income while Group 1 stays at the same level and Group 3 shows a significant decrease. The lines drawn on the figure can be understood as an indication of a relative direction. This is a typical way for the presentation of interactions between categorical variables.

The fact that there is no evidence of significant changes in *factors income* (measured by indices) after

accession only for the EU-15 is worth mentioning. So one must conclude that the countries which experienced the effect of the EU enlargement in 2004 were not only the countries which actually accessed the EU in that year but also Bulgaria and Romania. On the average for the EU-10N, it was an increase of 42% of *factors income*, which is a sum of -2.21% due to the main effect of the EU enlargement common to all groups and 44.28% due to the specific effect of the EU enlargement in Group B, compared to the years before accession. For the EU-2N there was a decrease of about 35%.

Similar analyses were performed to test whether the impact of enlargement was also significant for the *net value added*.

The p-value corresponding to the hypothesis (5) is equal 3.78E-09 and the p-value corresponding to the hypothesis (6) is 3.274E-10, hence both hypotheses can be rejected on 0.05 significance level. This suggests that the changes of the countries from different groups to the EU enlargement in 2004 are different. The estimates the M_{A2} model parameters, presented in Table 4, show whether the differences for the *net added value* are similar to that of *factors income*.



Source: author's calculations

Figure 1. Interactions between variables *Group* and *AfterAccess* for factors income indexes

Table 3

**Results of testing the influence of explanatory variables
on the net added value indices**

Model	Number of parameters	LLF	LRT	Chi ² DF	p-value
M_{A0}	3	5.063			
M_{A1}	6	26.124	42.122	3	3.78E-09
M_{A2}	8	47.964	43.679	2	3.274E-10

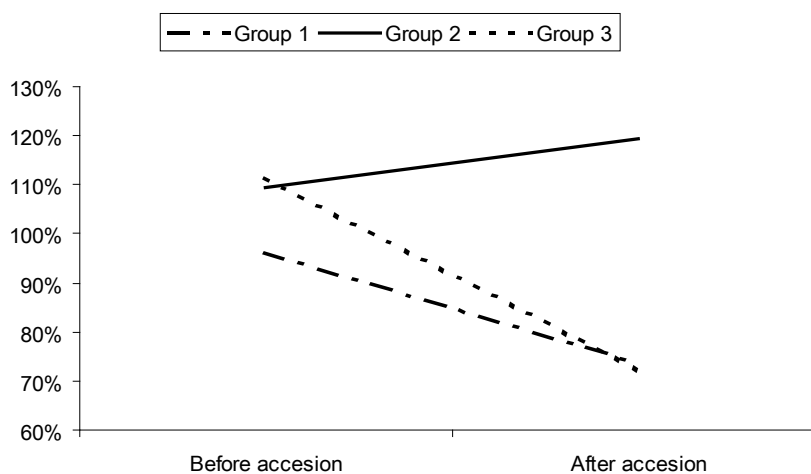
Source: author's calculations

Table 4

Estimates of the M_{A2} model parameters for the net added value indices

Factor	Parameter	Estimate	Std. Error	t-value
Intercept (reference level)	β_0	0.9626	0.0345	27.91
Group 2	β_2	0.1313	0.0585	2.245
Group 3	β_3	0.1523	0.1006	1.515
AfterAccess 1	β_1	-0.2256	0.0313	-7.21
Group 2: AfterAccess 1	β_4	0.3260	0.0531	6.145
Group 3: AfterAccess 1	β_5	-0.1659	0.0912	-1.82

Source: author's calculations



Source: author's calculations

Figure 2. Interactions between variables *Group* and *AfterAccess* for net added value indices

The results presented in Table 4 for the *net value added* indices are surprisingly different from such estimates for the *factors income* (Table 2). This time the increase for the EU-10N is only 10% while for *factors income* it was 42%. For the EU-2N the decrease is 39% and is similar to the previous one. The result for the EU-15, where the decrease of the *net value added* is estimated at 22.5%, while for the *factors income* it was only about 2% is the most surprising.

As was mentioned in the previous part of the paper the lines drawn on Figure 1 and Figure 2 show only directions of changes, and Figure 2 shows that the *net value added* in the EU-15 has dropped significantly.

Conclusions

The impact of the EU enlargement on income in agriculture measured by factors income was positive

for the new Member States which accessed the EU in 2004, neutral for the “old” EU-15 and negative for Romania and Bulgaria.

The net added value, which is the only part of income generated directly by agricultural holdings, also increased in the “new” EU-10N, but not as much as the factors income, 10% and 42% respectively. In the “old” EU-15, and Romania and Bulgaria, the net added value decreased significantly.

Those differences in reaction to the EU enlargement in 2004 for factors income and the net added value can be explained only by changes in the level of subsidies, which increased significantly and shrouded the decrease of income generated directly in agricultural holdings in the “old” Members States. In the “new 10” Members States the income generated in agricultural holdings increased but not so much as could be thought after the analysis of factors income or indicator A (Kobus 2008).

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Development of Organic Agriculture in Europe: from Origins to the Current Level of Life-Cycle

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Abstract

The research examines the role of institutionalisation on the development of organic production as well as consumers influence on the demand side of organic market development. The research results demonstrate that implementation of different policy instruments, financial support schemes, and marketing means stimulating both sides - supply and demand side of organic market, thereby facilitating the overall development of organic agriculture. Based on Porter's life-cycle theory the author has found out that currently organic agriculture enters into the stage of growth.

Key words: organic agriculture, institutionalisation, development, life-cycle.

Introduction

The research focuses on the determinants of development of organic agriculture in the European Union (EU) from the aspects of life-cycle theory.

The **aim** of the research is to analyse trends of development of organic agriculture.

In order to achieve the aim the author has set up the following **tasks**:

- to analyse historical development of organic agriculture from the political and economic aspects;
- to determine the current life-cycle stage of organic agriculture.

The research is based on the recent theories of leading scientists in the field of organic agriculture as well as on the statistical data provided by EUROSTAT (Statistical Office of the European Communities) and IFOAM (International Federation of Organic Agriculture Movements).

The research uses graphical and statistical methods. The graphical method is used to reflect the impact of policy and financial means on the development of organic agriculture. The correlation method is applied to investigate relationship between GDP (gross domestic product) per capita, turnover, and consumption of organic products.

Results and Discussion

Technologies used in agriculture have changed dramatically in the 20th century: they became profitable to replace farm labour with machinery, to protect harvest from pests with chemical pesticides, and to increase soil fertility by chemical fertilisers.

New forms of agriculture brought some advantages: labour and soil productivity increased, and food became abundant and cheap for the

consumer; the labour force which left agriculture could be productive in other areas of society, and thus increase the total wealth. But there were also problems associated with these developments: in many cases modern agricultural technologies had negative impact on the natural environment, with the massive build-up of nutrient surpluses and intensive use of pesticides; societies became very concerned in respect of animal welfare in industrial production; the loss of heritage landscapes, and biodiversity. Besides the decline of the agricultural population in rural areas evoked major structural changes and was accompanied by above-average unemployment rates and difficult social conditions in formerly agricultural regions (Dabbert, 2004).

Ecological philosophy of agriculture has existed for centuries, but the organic movement could begin only once an alternative to them existed.

At the decade of the 1840s few important events occurred which later had significant influence on the world agriculture. In 1840 a German chemist Justus von Liebig published his monograph "Chemistry in its Application to Agriculture and Physiology", which offered a new theory of plant nutrition. There he argued that organic fertilisers could replace manure, since it was not the manure or humus which was important in it for plant growth, but the minerals they contained. Liebig was influential due to his reputation in Britain, and his enthusiastic exposition of his ideas encouraged farmers to believe that a rational approach to agriculture was now possible, one which would be aware of all the necessary nutrients for a specific plant or crop.

The second important event happened in 1843 when John Bennet Lawes and J.H. Gilbert established investigations at Rothamsted, the United Kingdom, which soon became world-famous Experimental

Station in agricultural chemistry. In 1842 Lawes patented a process of manufacturing superphosphates, and in 1843 he established a fertiliser factory in London, the UK. As the landowner with plenty of capital Lawes was able to test his fertilisers for five years on pot plants and in the field trials.

The third significant year was 1846, when Corn Laws were repealed, and Britain embarked on a policy of free trade. Organic movement argued that for the sake of powerful vested interests in industry, shipping and finance, Britain neglected its farming and in exchange for exporting industrial goods became dependent on overseas foodstuffs whose cultivation exhausted the soils of the countries where they were grown (Conford Ph., 2001).

Although organic enthusiasts were warning society about potential dangers of chemical fertilisers, the use of artificials increased because at the late 1930s advocates of artificials were regretting that farmers made insufficient use of them.

Also lack of food after the Second World War motivated to look for new possibilities to increase yields in agriculture, which stimulated industrialisation and intensification of agricultural production (Jansen, 2004).

Emergence of the organic movement can be regarded to period when systematic scientific investigations with practical experiments were developed in this field (for example, research in the field of humus-based agriculture, connection between diet and health etc.). Therefore starting-point of organic farming can be the year 1926 when in London two medicine doctors G.S. Williamson and I. Pearse initiated a family health club "Pioneer Health Centre". At the same time in India A. Howard, manager of the Institute of Plant Industry in the State of Indore was starting to develop the composting process; in Africa R.B. Baker was establishing ideas of conservationism. During the 1930s and 1940s notable research in the field of organic farming was performed by H. Mueller in Switzerland, lady E. Balfour in Britain, and M. Fukuoka in Japan. Lady E. Balfour and her followers – group of farmers, scientists and nutritionists, who observed a direct connection between farming practice and plant, animal, human and environmental health founded Soil Association, the UK in 1946. (Conford, 2001)

From the quite different perspective the need for more scientific basis of organic farming was articulated by Rudolf Steiner – the founder of Anthroposophy in his lectures. Based on his ideas by 1928 the biodynamic movement was established in England (Conford, 2001).

In the 1970s, organic farming raised sympathies within the environmental movement which translated into political support and opened the way for the

growth in demand for organic products in later years, but until the 1980s organic farming stayed in opposition to conventional farming and towards most of institutional settings of agriculture in general.

At the end of the 1980s and at the beginning of the 1990s more political attention was paid to development of organic farming, market transparency, and consumer protection. Political action resulted in standardisation what exactly meant by organic farming and organic food as well as introduction of supporting programmes in some countries - Denmark, Germany (Dabbert, 2004).

Thereby from the very modest beginnings in the beginning of 20th century, only at the beginning of 1990's the growth of organic agriculture becomes remarkable. In this period organic agriculture from the movement of organic enthusiasts grows into the well organised industry in the global economy.

In 2006 almost 30.4 million hectares were managed worldwide by more than 700 000 farms that constitute 0.65 percent of the agricultural land in almost all the world. In total, the Oceania holds 42 percent of the world's organic land, followed by Europe (24 percent) and Latin America (16 percent).

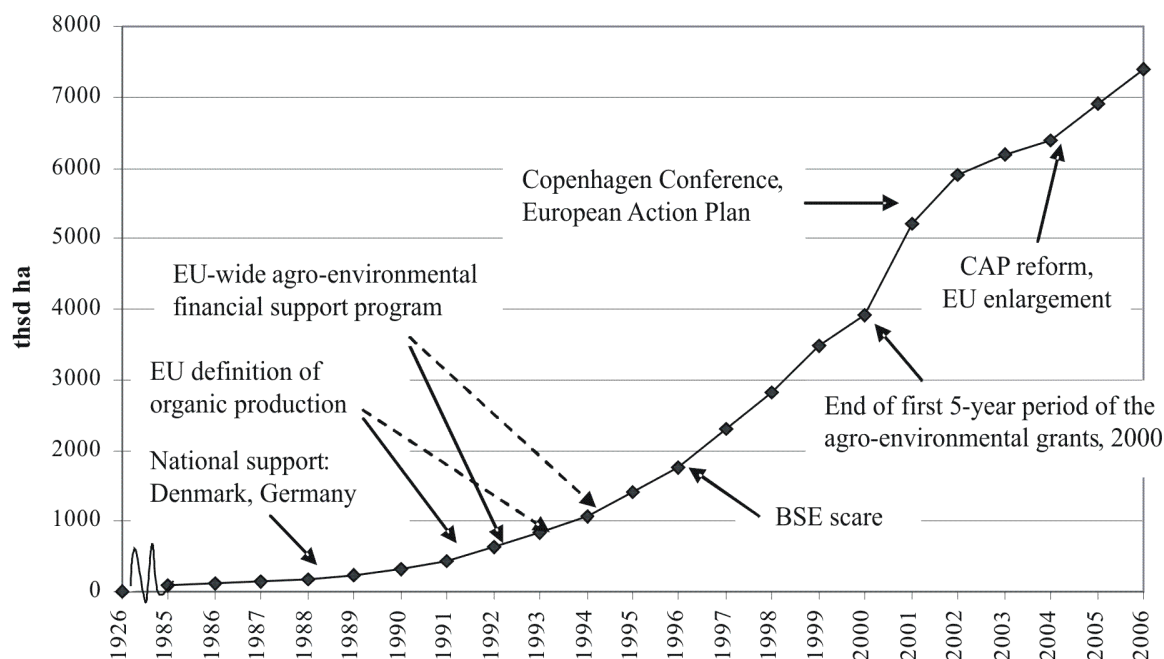
On a continental level, the share of organic land to all agricultural land in 2006 was highest in Australia/Oceania (2.7 percent), followed by Europe. At the end of 2006 1.6 percent of the European agricultural area and 4 percent of the agricultural area in the EU was organic (Willer, etc., 2008).

One of the investigations of Australian scientists found out that one of the strengths of industry can be an increasing body of knowledge, not only on organic practices, but also on the effect of policies as well as established standards and certification systems, and the existing markets (Kristiansen, 2006).

Defined by Padel S. and Lampkin N. policy support for organic farming takes several forms, including legal standards defining organic farming; governmental inspection, certification and labeling activities; and direct payments to converting and established organic producers. Organic farming is also affected by measures of the Common Agriculture Policy (CAP) as well as the use of rural development programmes and by the balancing of various measures in integrated action plans (Lockeretz, 2007).

As demonstrated in Figure 1 policy influence had been notable in the process of development and institutionalising of organic production in the European Union.

The European organic sector has grown significantly since the 1980s, which can partially be attributed to the growing recognition by policy makers. Rapid growth of organic farming in the EU was experienced by 1991 when a common definition for "organic" was established in the EU regulation



Source: European Commission, 2008, EUROSTAT, 2008

Figure 1. Institutional implication on the development of organic agriculture in Europe

(became law in 1993) and financial support for farmers to convert to organic by subsequent EU-wide policies introduced in the CAP in 1992 (implemented from 1994) (Figure 1).

At that time consumers also started to demand more organic products because of food safety reasons and concerns about animal health. Agro-environmental programmes were clearly very important for the development of the organic sector because most dramatic increases in land area usually took place shortly after the scheme was introduced in each country (Lockeretz, 2007).

Coming in force of the European Action Plan on Organic Food and Farming after Copenhagen Conference in 2001, reform of the Common Agriculture Policy (CAP) in 2004 and the EU enlargement at the same year have been less visible, but significant events (Figure 1).

Since the development of organic farming some countries experienced a decline at the end of 5-year period of the agro-environmental grants in 2000 and farmers went back to conventional production due to problems to find the market for their products and bureaucratic aspects of certification (Lockeretz, 2007). It could be forecasted that also in 2009 there will be a decline in the organic farming area because it would be the end of the first period of the EU agro-environmental schemes in new member states that joined the EU in 2004.

On January 1, 2009 also a new Council Regulation (EC) No 834/2007 on organic production and

labelling of organic products came into force as well as repealing Regulation (EEC) No 2092/91. The new rules set out objectives, principles and basic rules for organic production, and include a new import regime and more consistent control regime (Willer, etc., 2008).

Besides institutionalising, the development of organic farming always had been dependent on demand from consumers in the market.

Global demand for organic products remains robust, with sales increasing by over USD 5 billion a year. International sales of organic products have been doubled in 2006 in comparison with 2000. Consumers demand for organic products is concentrated in the North America and Europe; these two regions comprise 97 percent of global revenues.

The biggest EU market for organic products in 2006 was Germany with the turnover of EUR 4.6 billion, followed by the UK with the turnover of EUR 2.83 billion (Table 1). The highest market shares of organic products of the total market with around five percent still are in Austria, Denmark, and Switzerland. The highest per capita consumption of organic food is in Switzerland with more than EUR 100 spent on organic food per year and capita (Willer, etc., 2008).

Macroeconomic indicators of households' welfare were taken into account to evaluate the impact of consumers' demand on the development of organic farming in the EU.

Table 1

GDP per capita and market of organic agriculture in the European Union, 2006

Country	GDP per capita, EUR	Area under organic farming		Consumption per capita, EUR	Turnover, Mio EUR (volume of export excluded if data available)
		ha	%		
Austria	128	:	13.03	64	530
Belgium	120	21754	2.12	23	245
Bulgaria	37	2728	0.17	:	:
Cyprus	92	665	1.31	:	:
Czech Republic	79	216319	6.61	3	26,8
Denmark	126	133048	5.33	80	434
Estonia	69	44878	8.79	:	:
Finland	117	130940	6.42	11	57
France	111	499589	2.00	27	1700
Germany	114	:	4.85	56	4600
Greece	98	182848	7.59	5*	50*
Hungary	65	92167	2.88	1	7
Ireland	146	:	0.95	16*	66*
Italy	103	801350	9.04	32	1900
Latvia	54	51213	9.44	:	:
Lithuania	56	30498	3.46	:	:
Luxemburg	280	:	2.81	:	:
Malta	77	:	0.20	:	:
Netherlands	131	47045	2.49	28	460
Poland	52	:	1.55	1	20
Portugal	75	:	7.32	5*	50*
Romania	39	65111	0.77	0,1	3
Slovakia	64	40085	5.76	1	4,3
Slovenia	88	20151	5.53	:	:
Spain	105	605296	3.73	2	70
Sweden	125	201298	7.06	42	379
United Kingdom	118	489108	3.79	47	2831

: Data not available;

* Data of 2005: Greece, Ireland, Portugal

Source: Willer, etc., 2008, EUROSTAT, 2008

It is generally accepted that people with higher education and/or with higher income demand higher quality goods. Since organic food has been evaluated as higher quality food than conventionally produced there must be relationship between the indicators of economic welfare and development of organic farming.

One of the main indicators for economic analysis is GDP per capita in the EU countries that are used as

indicator of economic welfare of consumers, and it was compared with consumption of organic products per capita in the EU countries as well as additionally with turnover of organic products and organically managed land area (Table 1).

The results of correlation analysis show that there is rather close connection between GDP per capita and consumption of organic products in the EU countries ($R = 0.647$), but there is a neutral correlation between

income per capita and such measures as turnover of organic products.

An international research suggests that most important attributes that most likely influence consumers' demand are the following (Kristiansen, 2006):

- health (i.e., minimal artificial chemical residues in the product and high nutritional value);
- environment (i.e., environmentally friendly production and processing);
- taste;
- animal welfare;
- minimal processing;
- novelty;
- fashion.

Conversely, the attributes that limit consumption of organic products are the following (Kristiansen, 2006):

- high price;
- limited availability;
- scepticism about the credibility of product claims;
- poor appearance;
- non-awareness of organics;
- satisfaction with existing products.

Generally it is well known that high awareness of product leads to increasing demand for that

product and possibility to sell them for higher prices. Therefore the initiative of the Directorate General for Agriculture and Rural Development of the European Commission to organise promotional campaign of organic farming which is implemented in recent years (started in 2008) must be commended. Campaign shall minimise many factors that limit consumption of organic products, because the content of campaign is tailored towards consumers, public institutions, canteens, schools, and other key actors to expand demand for organic products.

Nevertheless the rapid growth in demand for organic produce has resulted in supply shortages. In Germany, widespread scarcity of cereals, potatoes, milk, meat and some vegetable varieties has led to price increases at both producer and consumer level. Austria experienced extreme shortage in cereals, potatoes, some fruits and vegetables. In 2006, Denmark suffered from milk oversupply, but now it is looking for new organic milk producers. In the UK, some companies try to convince farmers to convert to organic by offering financial assistance (Willer, etc., 2008).

Understanding the process of industry evolution and being able to predict changes are important factors for formulation of market strategy on firms' level. One of the methods for predicting the probable

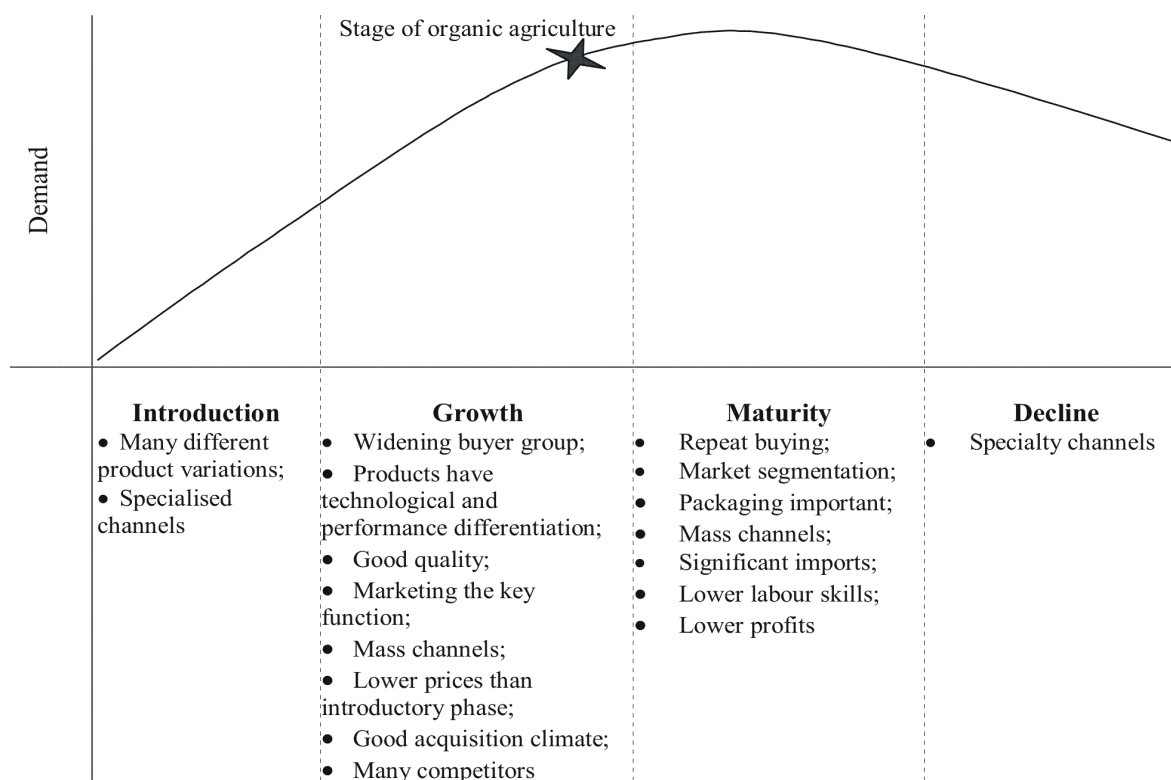


Figure 2. Development of organic agriculture in the world in the concept of life-cycle model

course of industry evolution is the product life-cycle. The concept of product life-cycle is that an industry passes through a number of stages – introduction, growth, maturity and decline, and its growth follows an S-shaped curve (Figure 2) (Porter, 1980).

Porter has settled characteristic patterns to each stage of life-cycle. The current patterns of organic agriculture are summarised in Figure 2 using these predictions about strategy, competition and performance.

Graphical analysis of organic industry evolution approve that organic agriculture currently operates in the stage of growth, and comprises potential for further development.

Conclusions

From the beginning of the 20th century to the end of the 1990's organic agriculture starting from the movement of organic enthusiasts has grown into a well organised industry in the global economy.

Institutionalising of organic agriculture has notable impact on the development of organic production; while marketing communication leads to higher levels of organic demand.

Since people with higher income demand higher quality goods inter alia - organic products, there exist close positive relationship between the wealth of consumers and demand for organic products in the EU countries.

Evolution of organic agriculture in the recent years has reached the stage of growth, and comprises potential for further development if notable investments are continued into the sector.

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Bioloģiskās lauksaimniecības attīstība: no tās izcelsmes līdz pašreizējam produkta dzīves cikla līmenim

Bioloģiskā lauksaimniecība no bioloģiskās saimniekošanas entuziastu neformālas kustības ir izaugusi par nozīmīgu nozari pasaules tautsaimniecībā. Tās straujo izaugsmi 20.gadsimta 90.gados veicināja nozares institucionālās attīstības procesi, kur galvenā nozīme bija politiskajām nostādnēm un finansiālā atbalsta programmām ražotājiem.

Bioloģiskās lauksaimniecības attīstību nosaka arī pieprasījums pēc gala produkcijas, tāpēc pašreizējā periodā tiek īstenoti nozīmīgi mārketinga komunikācijas pasākumi, lai veicinātu bioloģisko produktu atpazīstamību un pieprasījumu pēc tiem tirgū. Tā kā bioloģiskās lauksaimniecības produkti atbilst paaugstinātas vērtības produktu kategorijai, pētījumā tika noskaidrots, ka pastāv cieša sakarība starp patērētāju labklājību un to bioloģisko produktu patēriņu.

Identificējot nozares attīstību raksturojošās pazīmes, noteikts, ka, atbilstoši M.Portera produkta dzīves cikla modelim, bioloģiskā lauksaimniecība pasaules tirgū kopumā atrodas augšanas posmā.

Risk Management of Activity Processes in Catering Businesses

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Abstract

The paper includes research results on risks of catering businesses; internal and external risks have been identified and classified; the level of potential emergence of the main risks has been established, the amount of potential losses has been evaluated; and the feasible management methods have been determined. A conclusion was drawn that catering businesses are subjected to the risks of both internal and external environment influence on the market economy conditions, the identification, analysis and successful management of which requires the expertise of managers thereof.

Key words: catering businesses, risks, management.

Introduction

One of the indices of the living standard of the residents is their purchasing power which is also characterised by service, including catering, buying opportunities. According to the CSB data during the time period between 1996 and 2007 the proportion of food and non-alcoholic drinks in the structure of total consumption expenditure of Latvian households has fallen from 52.2% to 25.5%, whereas the expenses for purchase of restaurant, café and hotel services have increased more than double, reaching 5.8%, which indicates the changes in peoples' lifestyle, food purchasing and consumption (CSB, 2008). However, since 2008 the demand for services of catering businesses has started to fall. Due to inflation and cost of living people start to reevaluate their habits – eating out is planned more rarely. This has a significant impact on the existence of catering businesses and their activities.

Many scientists (*Jaundzems, Vasermanis* 2001; *Jurgena, Špoģis*, 2002; *Pettere, Voronova* 2003; *Гамза, Екатеринбургский*, 2002; *Уткин, Фролов*, 2003) stress that the operation of any business depends on well timed and correct evaluation of risk subjected factors.

Performing business activities it is impossible to avoid risks especially in the sectors of the regulated field including the activities of catering businesses, where apart from other business risks also risks that significantly affect the harmlessness of the produced commodities are present. For the past few years a research programme in riskology financed by Latvian Science Council is being implemented under the guidance of Professor Pēteris Rīvža. This programme also broadly includes business administration risks, their management and control, as well as some problems of the varied risks in food turnover. The leader of the programme P.Rīvža (2004) indicates

that one of particularly important tasks is to determine the risks regarding food production and develop management systems thereof. The impact of risk factors on activity processes in catering businesses has also been studied by many foreign scientists (*Henson, Holt, Northen*, 1999; *Fielding, Ellis, Beveridge, Peters*, 2005; *Rodgers*, 2005; *Bolton, Meally, Blair, Cowan*, 2008). Latvian scientists A.Vilciņa and D.Kārklīņa (2004) have grounded their research on the hypothesis that the disease risk created by sub-standard food has explicitly negative impact on the living standard.

One can also align with the judgement of professors J.Kaktiņš and I.Arhipova (2002) from Latvia university of Agriculture that variety of risk factors and the potential threat thereof is enhanced by the new situation of Latvia – member state status in the WTO, the EU as well as overall market globalization processes. Under the new circumstances also the risk management terminology studies carried out by I.Arhipova and S.Arhipovs (2005) are topical. Conclusions of the scientists specify and supplement the theoretical basis of riskology also for risk management and control in activity of catering businesses, however, it is necessary to emphasise the risks influencing the activity processes of catering businesses, generally known as production of goods and services, their management and development, in a more detailed way. On the market economy conditions the determination and evaluation as well as management of risks acquires a practical meaning, as many decisions have to be made under risk circumstances, which are associated with planned or unscheduled expenses or even losses.

The analysis of problem research condition formed ground for the **aim** of the research – to establish the risk factors that are created in activity of catering businesses by the influence of political and economic

environment, fluctuation of interests, and facilities of consumers.

The aim of the researches is based on a **hypothesis** that in phases of a business cycle, when consumer's income and economic interests change, the demand for products (goods and services) of catering businesses can change significantly.

The **tasks** for attainment of the set aim:

- to establish and classify risk factors of catering businesses;
- to evaluate risk management problems of catering businesses, and identify solutions for reducing the losses caused thereby.

The research exercises general scientific survey **methods**: analysis and synthesis method – for evaluation of individual data; inductive method – for drawing general conclusions from individual factors; deduction method – for systematisation of personal experience and that of other authors and theoretical substantiation, and elaboration of conclusions; logically constructive – for defining risk management measures.

Materials: publications and researches of Latvian and foreign scientists, technical literature, statistical data published by the CSB of the Republic of Latvia as well as the results of previous researches of the author.

The research also uses polling data of managers of catering businesses encompassing 154 managers from all regions of Latvia. Selective model of the poll was developed based on statistical data of the Food and Veterinary Service on the amount of public catering businesses. Polling was carried out in January- February 2007.

Results and discussion

1. Risk identification in catering businesses

The activity processes of catering businesses are based on production of material (goods) and immaterial (services) products, management thereof, including management and development of materials, personnel, finances, and other resources, with the main objective to provide a safe and high quality product in consumer acceptable way, at the same time providing profit for those involved in the business. As the activity processes in catering businesses are affected by a significant assemblage of factors, they are interconnected with many risks and factors thereof. J.Kaktiņš and I.Arhipova (2005) define the term "risk factors" as "preconditions that can increase or reduce the probability of risk". In this case they are the conditions that affect the production quality of goods and services in catering businesses, the vitality and development thereof under the circumstances of economic changes in a negative way.

To address the risk management and control problems in managing activity processes in catering businesses the researches of K.Špoģis (2003) on dispositive and intellectual management of agricultural risks should be used within theoretical and methodological context. For maximisation of the positive results and minimisation of the negative results of operation of economy laws, K.Špoģis considers 23 factors to be problematic in the group of *dispositive risk* factors. Several of those can be referred to the management of activity processes of catering businesses:

- specialisation of a company, considering the economic benefits and loss potential under the circumstances of market conjuncture;
- apprehension of the composition of production factors, production capacity thereof;
- evaluation of geographical and location unrelated factors and utilization thereof in planning company's activity;
- establishment of economic targeted management and administration structure;
- ability to forecast the action of competitors and timely reaction;
- forecasting of investor reaction in the processes of change;
- evaluation and forecasting of the optimum level of production concentration;
- targeted management of the quality of production and services.

The *intellectual risk* factors K.Špoģis has in its turn divided into three groups. One group includes education related risks, the second group – society's social and general development risks, and intellectual level risks of members of this society; while the third group includes the risks of manifestation of personal characteristics. The education related risk group can be directly referred to catering businesses, such as professional qualification level for work in the selected company; capacity of professional further education throughout life.

Also the size of a company can be considered as a risk factor. According to Jeynes (2001) the risks in micro and small companies, where also catering businesses can be included, often connote with:

- weak communication channels;
- necessity for flexible management approach that would promote its structuring and growth;
- product life cycle changes and product development;
- lack of qualified personnel and resources to develop the necessary skills;
- inability to change, change in a modern competitive environment.

The impact of environment to the work of catering businesses has already been studied by M.Olsen

(1980), and P.Chathoth (2002) acknowledging that business environment significantly affects the would-be strategy. Summarising the previous findings, all risks that are potential in catering businesses can be divided according to the probability of emergence thereof or the source. Depending on the probability of emergence risks can be divided in two categories (*Small business management*, 2005):

- *market risks* related to the decisions of company’s management regarding the amount and positions of investments, where the main factors are – non-qualification of owners/managers regarding efficient utilisation of production factors, undervaluation of market risks, or lack of finances;
- *clear risks* used to describe specific situation where losses are potential. The main factors thereof are evaluation of business inflicted liabilities, including civil liabilities (to consumers, employees, cooperation partners etc.) and evaluation of protection of material resources (properties, equipment etc.).
- Both types of risks are affected by both subjective and objective circumstances that specify the risk sources. In the activity processes of micro and small catering businesses and in management thereof internal and external risks are possible,

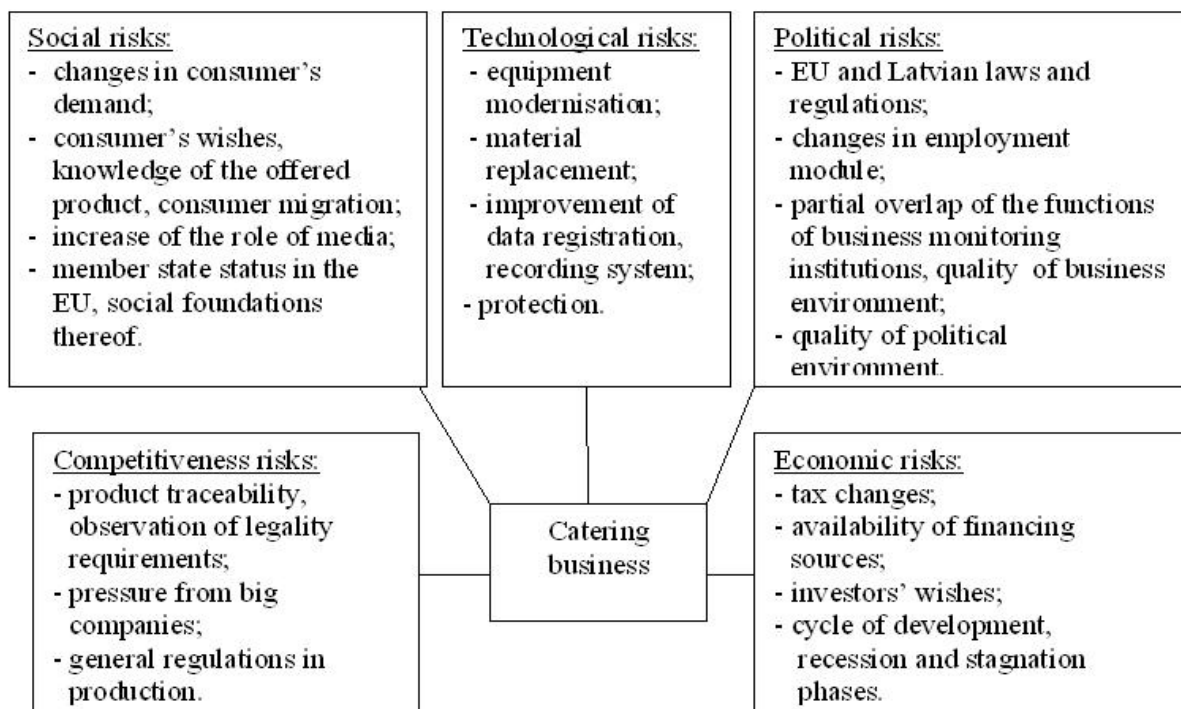
depending on their source. *Internal risks* include:

- highest level management risks related to the strategy development, planning and organisation; selection of production factors, effective utilisation thereof;
- lowest level process management risks related to the management of production processes; selection of raw materials, suppliers; or changes in product life-cycle.

External risks on their turn are determined by political, economic, social, technological and competitiveness aspects summarised in Figure 1.

Both internal and external risk factors include the following aspects:

- *employment* – requiring specific skills, certain structure of personnel;
- *enforcement of laws and regulations* – enforcement of health, safety, environment protection and other laws and regulations, performance of certain procedures, data recording, receiving permits;
- *economic* production and service development cycle;
- *competitiveness* – selection of price strategies, location and commodities to be produced, development of business standards, inquiring society’s perception, mentality;



Source: made by the author

Figure 1. External risks affecting the management and activity of catering businesses

Table 1

Main risks and management methods in catering businesses

Risks	Risk probability	Possible amount of losses	Possible management methods
Changes in consumer's demand, decrease in purchasing ability	high	very high	Re-structuring of the product, diversification of products, research of consumer's demand
Increase of competition	high	high	Reduction of production expenses, re-structuring of the products
Price rise	average	high	Reduction of production expenses based on rational utilisation of resources and re-structuring
Inaccessibility of financing	high	high	Re-structuring of the products
Outbreak of contagious diseases	average	very high	Avoiding risk – performing preventive steps in the course of technological processes
Manager's incompetence in activity processes of the business	high	very high	Delegation of duties to specialists (within the business or involving from outside), franchising
Lack of professional personnel	low	high	Development of personnel skills
Wrong selection of production factors and management of production	average	high	Involvement of specialists, raising the competence of managers
Incomprehension of laws and regulations, negligence towards the requirements	high	very high	Raising the competence of managers

Source: made by the author

- *finances* – planning of investment amount and investment positions, insurance, expenses and incomes;
- *protection* – protection of persons, data and permits; protection against thefts, robbery.

2. Risk management in catering businesses

It should be mentioned that the current situation acts as an accelerator exasperating already existing problems, forcing the managers of catering businesses to review and evaluate the existing resources and the efficiency of utilisation thereof, directions of activity and make decisions and act accordingly. These positive benefits were already indicated by J.Kaktiņš and I.Arhipova (2002).

Although nobody can evaluate all risks in all fields in the same time and amount, in order to satisfy the vitality and development of a company and the interests of society, each business shall demonstrate that the management is capable of managing and monitoring all possible risks. Performing a fair and motivated analysis of business activity

and its interaction with environment, one can particularly establish the potential risks, evaluation of which allows to control and prevent or reduce them.

Each of the risk factors represents a certain type of risk that may affect the operation or management of the business. Evaluating the risks the potential threats, their amount, possible losses and the level of probability thereof is evaluated. As a risk is not a constant but a variable value, when analysing risks an entrepreneur should know what it expects from different choices. Therefore it is necessary to divide risks in at least three groups:

- *critical*, which can result in a company's bankruptcy;
- *essential*, evaluation of which requires;
- *inessential*, the losses caused by which can be easily covered by revenues or existing assets.

Periodical economic risks could also be specifically marked resulting from the periodical emergence of depression of economic development.

According to each type of risks a method for their management is selected. Risk management methods are based on measures directed at:

- reducing possible losses by suspending them, developing certain action plans that provide an exit from the emerged situation (for instance, re-structuring of products);
- avoiding and/or reducing certain activities choosing the least risky activity (this is often necessary in the activity processes of catering businesses, where it is possible to reduce risks by changing the structure of production process).

The evaluation of the main risks in the activity processes of catering businesses and management thereof (from low to very high probability) and the possible management methods are summarised in Table 1.

According to Table 1 the major risks in the management of activity processes in catering businesses are related with the decrease of demand, increase of competition, lack of financing and incompetence of managers which can cause the businesses to loose their competitiveness.

In the author's opinion the management problems of activity processes in catering businesses are related to unawareness of risks that jeopardizes subsequent evaluation and prevention or reduction thereof. Merely those managers that are able to identify risks, but this requires not only the understanding of financial indices of the business, but also the understanding of the activity processes, will be able to adequately analyse the risks and make decisions on further actions accordingly, as the quality affects both the planning of products and production, and sales. J.Kaktiņš and I.Arhipova (2002) have emphasized that "the less a person is involved in events and the less this person knows about the consequences of its decisions, the more often it is tended to make risky decisions with negative consequences". Hence the competence of managers can be advanced as the major risk factor in the activity of catering businesses. Also P.Legoherel, F.Callot, K.Gallopel, M.Peters (2004) deem that one of the main quality criteria of decisions is the individual in company's management.

A prerequisite of manager competence is professional qualification and work experience in the field. According to the polling results of business managers, only 8% of catering businesses' managers holds an appropriate higher professional education required by the Cabinet of Ministers Regulations No. 409 (2005), which significantly threatens the production and sales of company's products under the present market demand circumstances.

The polled managers of catering businesses, who are also the owners in 44% of the cases, are usually not motivated to acquire professional education as the op-

portunities of being a manager are not determined by the level of education but experience in the field – in 53% of the cases managers have had at least 1-3 years experience in the field. Meanwhile the managers of catering businesses in Latvia admit that their current knowledge and skills in business management are only sufficient for 15% of the respondents.

In fields where there is higher proportion of micro businesses, as it is in the case of catering field, and where an employee has to perform different tasks due to holding of more than one job, there is a reasonable necessity after professionals of a certain level. Offering catering services for commercial purposes requires professionalism both in planning, production and sales of products (goods and services). It is known that important functions of business management are planning, organisation, coordination, control, accounting, economic analysis based on knowledge and skills in business administration, marketing, work organisation, work protection, information processing. Professional higher education of a manager of a catering business is a significant advantage as it offers the possibility to evaluate the production process in general as well as visitor's wishes regarding the aforementioned. The people with bigger experience and higher level of education are more capable of seeing opportunities and creating innovative proposals in business undertakings, in its turn a prerequisite of radical innovations is existence of technological knowledge (*Marvel, Lumpkin, 2007*).

Risk management in catering businesses has been researched by American scientists I.Morgan and J.Rao (2000) who have found that there is a significant difference in risk understanding among participants within a business (owners, managers) and outside consultants or supervising authorities.

Owners of catering businesses sometimes only saw the risk after determination of a fact. Therefore I.Morgan and J.Rao considers (which also the author agrees with) hiring of experienced and qualified specialists, especially in management of a business, to be one of the main risk reduction measures as this prevents the opportunity:

- for risks to emerge (in short-term or long-term);
- for potential threats resulting in losses to develop;
- for business operation or growth to stop.

Conclusions

1. Catering businesses are subjected to risks of external environment – political, economic, social, technological, and competitiveness.
2. In the phases of recession of the cycles of economic development or stagnation the habits

of people, interests and possibilities of consumers can substantially change as risk factors in the activities of catering businesses.

3. Under circumstances of market economics catering businesses are subjected to both the impact of internal and external environment, the identification, analysis and successful management which requires the competence of managers.
4. The biggest damage is caused by risks the nature of which is not known by the involved people, therefore there is an objective necessity after gathering and compiling information on activity processes, necessary resources and conditions.

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Kopsavilkums

Rakstā ietverti pētījumu rezultāti par ēdināšanas uzņēmumu riskiem, veikta iekšējo un ārējo risku identifikācija un klasifikācija, noskaidrota galveno risku iestāšanās iespēju pakāpe, novērtēta iespējamo zaudējumu lieluma pakāpe, noteiktas to iespējamās vadīšanas metodes. Secināts, ka tirgus ekonomikas apstākļos ēdināšanas uzņēmumi pakļauti gan iekšējās, gan ārējās vides iedarbības riskiem, kuru identificēšanai, analīzei un sekmīgai vadīšanai nepieciešama to vadītāju kompetence.

Formation of Pre-school Educational Establishments Network for Well-balanced Territorial Development

Pirmsskolas izglītības iestāžu tīkla izveide teritorijas līdzsvarotai attīstībai

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Abstract

Presently Latvia experiences a problem with providing children with places in pre-school educational establishments (crèches, kindergartens, play groups etc). About 37% of children have no possibility to attend pre-school educational establishments (PEE). Besides there is lack of PEE for children aged under 2 years. Thus a number of complex activities are carried out to provide children with places in pre-school educational establishments: starting from the definition of children's age proper for pre-school, defining the number of children per territory when a PEE is needed, and providing places in pre-school educational establishments. The tasks should be accomplished hand in hand with local municipalities. Formation of pre-school educational establishments' network is an untapped instrument for well-balanced socio- economic and territorial development.

Key words: pre-school education, well-balanced territorial development.

Introduction

Currently Latvia experiences a lack of pre-school educational establishments - crèches, kindergartens, play groups etc. (hereinafter – PEE), i.e., 17 183 children or 37% of children in the age of pre-school were impossible to attend any PEE in the study year 2005/2006 (Central Statistical Bureau). Mainly the problem relates to the following aspects:

- closing of PEE in beginning of the 1990s due to a sharp decrease in the birth-rate;
- in 2004 with the amendments of Labour Law (Article 156), when leave for child care was shortened from 3 years to 1.5 years;
- and in 2002 training of 5-6 years old children for preparing for school was set as compulsory.

The lack of PEE reflects the main socio-economic *problem* – degradation of human resources potential, and the increase of unemployment, and territorial and regional gap.

Brief interpretation:

1. Women cannot return to work. Mainly mothers are taking care for children in the pre-school age, and they cannot return to work, as they have no possibility to find a safely placement for their children. Baby-sitter services are very expensive, besides there is no benefit paid so all mothers could afford a baby-sitter service.
2. During the time period when a child reaches the age of compulsory attending training for

preparation for school (5-6 years) a woman's skills and qualification decrease. It is a reason to loose a job.

There can be very different training background and skills for children attending or not attending the PEE. The aim of PEE is to develop, through games, children's cognitive skills, their capacity to express themselves, and communicate their creativity and independence.

Peripheral Latvian activities for solving the lack of PEE in the budgeting period of 2007-2013 involve the application for the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF). The total amount of ERDF activity for development of PEE infrastructure is ca. LVL 25 million.

Hypothesis – the formation of PEE network facilitates the well-balanced territorial development.

The aim and tasks of the study

The aim of the study is to analyse and pay attention to the significant role of the PEE network in Latvian socio - economic development as well as well-balanced territorial development.

The following tasks shall be carried out to achieve this goal:

- 1) to analyse the place and role of the PEE network;
- 2) to analyse socio –economic benefits gained with providing accessibility of PEE services;
- 3) to elaborate proposals for improvement of the PEE network.

The object of the research is: preschool educational establishments. The subject of the research is: PEE territorial overlay. The study is based on the Latvian legislation, inquiries in the field of unemployment, education, and taxation in Latvia, and appropriate statistical information.

Research methods – monographic, comparison, graphical, inductive and deductive, and logically constructive methods are applied in this study.

Results and Discussion

Place and role of the PEE network in Latvia

Complying with the mid-term and long-term planning documents of Latvia, the provision of children with places in the pre-school educational establishments is set as one of the state priorities.

According to Figure 1, the demand for places in PEE will increase during the next 10 years, while in the time period from 2019 to 2024 the demand will slowly decrease, and only in the year 2035 the situation will become equal.

For solving the problem in August, 2006 the Prime Minister established a working group. The main task of the working group was to establish a programme for the development of PEE network. The working group together with the Ministry of Economy has developed two informative reports on building of the new PEE. The benefit of this working group is a proposal of using the Public-Private partnership (PPP). Unfortunately PPP is not popular in Latvia because of the legislative requirements. According to

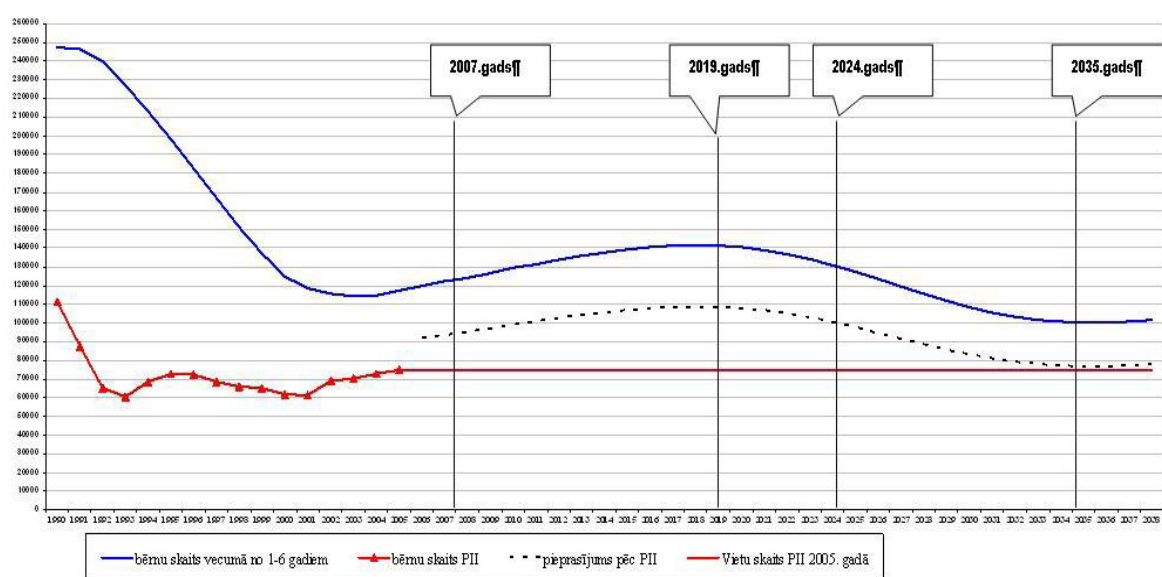
the suggestion of the working group, the PPP pilot-project in building of new PEE was started in 2008.

On the contrary, the state has not prescribed optimal placement and has not set strict regulated financial means and resources of PEE, besides there is no clearly fixed optimum age for starting the PEE. This problem shall also be solved.

According to the legislation the leave for child care without losing job is permitted until the child reaches the age of 1.5 years (adding the time for maternity leave = 1.7 years). Currently in Latvia there are only some PEE for children of the age between 1.5 and 2 years. The research “Gender Equality Aspects in Labour Market” provides the following information (Table 1).

As indicated in Table 1, the most eligible time for mothers returning to job is the child’s age of 1.5-2 years. One of the solutions is that the state develops and passes the law determining that the age of starting PEE is 1.5 years, and all PEE should provide places for children in this age.

Local government is responsible for the PEE network in its municipal territory. Local governments use sources from the payments of personal income tax along with the state earmarked subsidies for PEE for financing the PEE services. There is a need to highlight the fact that the municipal calculation for training-place expenses (ca. 900 LVL/year) and parent payments (ca. 26-54 LVL) do not cover the actual costs (maintenance, equipment, salaries etc). Totally all the expenses amount to ca. 2 400 LVL/year (*Informative report of the Ministry of Economy*



Source: Informative report of the Ministry of Economy “Building of New PEE”, 2007, page 4

Figure 1. The number of children in the age between 1 and 6 years for the period of 1990 – 2038

Table 1

The age of children, when the mother is planning or has returned to job, %

Childs age	Mothers, returned to job	Mothers, planning to return to job
- 3 months	8.6	-
4 – 6 months	12.4	0.3
7 – 12 months	29.5	4.8
13 – 18 months	44.8	19.6
19 – 24 months	4.7	35.2
older than 25 months	-	29.6

Source: Research “Gender Equality Aspects in Labour Market”, 2006, page 113

Table 2

Comparison of children’s age attending PEE in Latvia, Denmark and Belgium, month

	Latvia	Denmark	Belgium	European institution
Crèche	18 – 24*	6	4	2
Kindergarten	36	36	30**	30
School***	60-72	72-84	48	48
*Very few PEE providing this possibility. ** when the child reaches the age of 30 months *** Compulsory pre-school in Latvia				

Source: made by the author according to Wikipedia and Kiddyweb data

“Building of New PEE”, 2007, page 5). Besides there is a risk that municipalities do not develop infrastructure of public services to guarantee the PEE service for all children in the age starting from 1.5 years. It is possible to prevent the risk if additional financing is allocated for rural area municipalities with greater birth-rate and providing of PEE services (*Research Optimal, Employment Preventing Taxation and Contribution System, 2007, page 243*). Therefore it is needed to set up a method and verification of calculation of all the PEE expenses.

In Denmark for comparing pre-school education is primarily offered in the following institutions:

- Crèches (nursery) for children between six months and three years of age.
- Kindergartens for children between three and six to seven years of age.
- Integrated institutions for groups with a wider age-group distribution than the two other types.

The only admission requirement to this type of institution is age (Wikipedia, http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Danish_Pre-School_Education).

In Belgium: Free pre-primary schooling is provided to every child from the age of 4 month (crèche) and of 2 years 6 months (maternal). In most schools children can start school as soon as they reach this age, so the class size for the youngest children grows during the year. In the [Flemish region](#), start dates are limited to 6 per year. Most pre-schools are attached to a particular primary school. Pre- and primary schools

often share buildings and other facilities. Although it is not compulsory, more than 90% of all children in the age category attend pre-school (*Wikipedia http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Education_in_Belgium*).

Belgium is also specific with a number of European Institutions, if you are an employee/staff (official, contract agent, or temporary staff) of one of the European Institution, your child has the possibility to attend one of European crèches. The very early childhood care (crèche) start with the age of 8 weeks and the pre-school (maternal) start with 2.6 -3 years (*Kiddyweb: <http://www.cc.cec/kiddyweb/home/public> and Kiddyweb Intranet crèches: http://www.cc.cec/pers_admin/crèches_bxl/index_fr.html*).

The comparison of children’s age attending PEE in Latvia, Denmark, Belgium, and the European Institution is given in Table 2.

As it is presented in Table 2, Latvia has the worst situation regarding children’s age in the so-called *crèches*, if such a possibility is provided at all. Latvia besides could apply the Belgian experience in respect of starting a kindergarten on the age of 2.6 years. It could resolve the waiting-list problems.

Latvian also needs to set up the number of children per territory when a PEE is needed. Currently it is turned upside down – Article 4 of the Cabinet Regulations No. 735 “Regulations on Minimum and Maximum Number of Educational in State or Municipal All-round Classes in Preschool Educational Establishments, Special Educational Establishments

and Social and Pedagogical Correction Classes” of September 27, 2005 determine the total number of children in one PEE class.

Socio-economic benefits gained with providing the accessibility of PEE services

Neither local governments nor the state is aware of social and economic benefits gained with providing the accessibility of PEE services for as many as possible pre-school-aged children.

It has been argued that high rates of education are essential for countries to be able to achieve high levels of economic growth (Wikipedia).

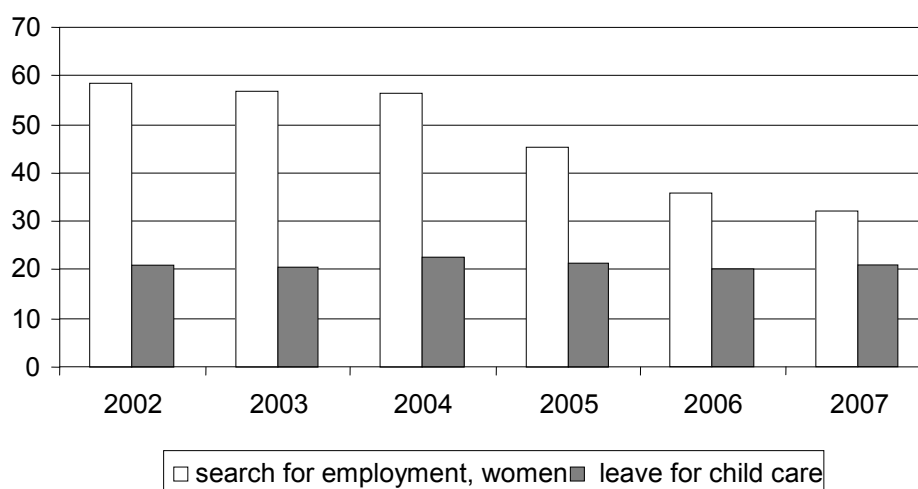
The establishment of PEE should be integrated with improving of social security sense of the

population, and explanation of taxation system. This policy is important for Latvia to:

- 1) reduce labour force going abroad;
- 2) develop local entrepreneurship;
- 3) reduce undeclared employment and
- 4) stimulate paying of all taxes (*Research Optimal, Employment Preventing Taxation and Contribution System, 2007, page 22*).

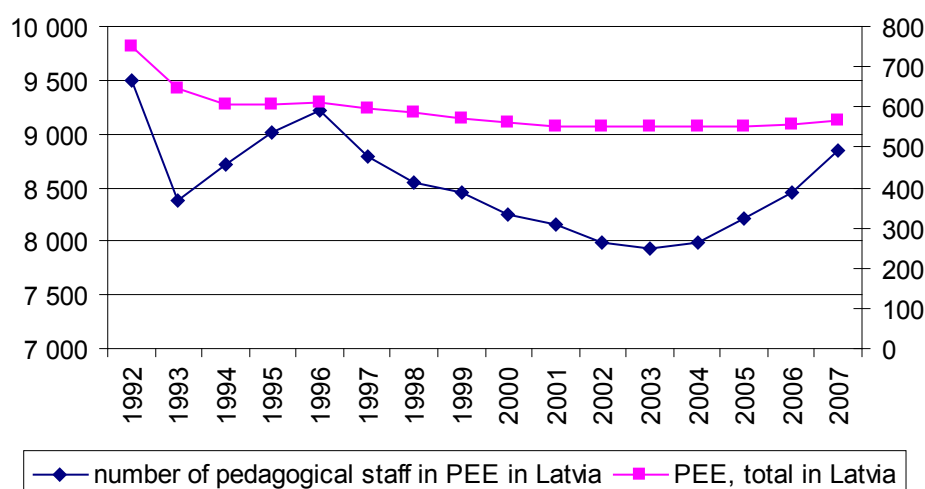
As shown in Figure 2, the unemployment of women, mainly taking care of children, is slightly decreasing; however the number of women in leave for child care has not changed very much.

If case there still is lack of PEE and the situation is not solved, the majority of women after the leave for child care (after 1.5-2 years) will loose they job. The



Source: made by the author according to the data of the Central Statistical Bureau

Figure 2. Female unemployment for the period of 2002-2007, thousand



Source: made by the author according to the data of the Central Statistical Bureau

Figure 3. Number of pedagogical staff in PEE for the period of 1992-2007

female unemployment and the total unemployment in Latvia will dramatically increase.

Establishment of the PEE network will not only prevent the unemployment of women after the child's care leave, but also provide a number of jobs. As in Figure 3, the total number of pedagogical staff in PEE has increased during the past four years, and it is based on the growing number of PEE.

Figure 3 provides the information only on pedagogical staff – majority PEE teachers. However, the functioning of PEE is also ensured by a number of non-pedagogical staff, i.e., 1 nurse in each group; technical staff; meal-service staff etc. Establishment of the PEE network is an untapped instrument for reducing unemployment. Formation of the PEE network: to set equal requirements and criteria, to provide equal value of financing of PEE establishing, maintenance and operating, and to enforce social and economic development in rural areas.

It is essential to evaluate the role of PEE as a social and cultural centre in local territory (*Informative report of the Ministry of Education and Science "Proposal for Development of Educational Establishments Network, 2008*). If a PEE in rural area functions also as a social and culture centre, the financing of PEE should be attracted from a joint-institution.

Providing children with accessibility of appropriated PEE services today, the state develops human capital, and ensures promotions of human recourses quality in the future.

Well-balanced territorial development is: territory – space attributes with the main indications - boards, independent on the size. Region also can be a territory (*Pašvaldību darbība un attīstība, Vanags E., Vilka I, 305 page*) and regional development – advantageous changes in social and economic situation in all territory of the state or in separate its part (*Law on Regional Development, Article 1*)

Taking into account all benefits from elaboration of the PEE network, it is possible to ensure well-balanced and sustainable territorial development.

Conclusions

1. Currently Latvia experiences a lack of pre-school educational establishments. The demand of places in PEE will increase during the next 10 years.
2. Latvia has the worst situation regarding the children's age for starting pre-school (kindergarten). There are only few crèches in Latvia.
3. The state has not set the optimal placement and has no strict regulated financial means and resources of PEE as well there is no clearly fixed optimum age for starting the PEE.

4. The municipal calculation for training-place expenses and parent payments do not cover the actual costs.
5. Establishment of the PEE network will reduce the number of labour force going abroad, develop local entrepreneurship, reduce undeclared employment, and stimulate paying all taxes.
6. Formation of the PEE network: to set equal requirements and criteria, to provide equal value for financing establishing of PEE, maintenance and operating, to enforce social and economic development in rural areas.
7. Providing children with accessibility of the appropriate PEE services today, the state develops human capital, and ensures promotions of human recourses quality in the future.
8. PEE network will force well-balanced and sustainable territorial development.

Proposals

1. Eligible age of starting PEE is 1.5 years, and all PEE should provide places for children starting from this age.
2. Latvia could apply the Belgian experience with starting the kindergarten from the age of 2.6 years to solve waiting-list problems, besides also providing the places for children in the so-called crèches.
3. There is a need to set up a method and verification of calculation of all the PEE expenses.
4. The state needs to set up the number of children per territory when a PEE is needed.
5. Additional financing should be allocated for rural area municipalities with greater birth-rate and providing of PEE service.
6. If a PEE in rural area functions also as a social and culture centre, funding from a joint-institution should be attracted for financing the PEE.

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Kopsavilkums:

Pašreiz Latvijā ir ievērojams pirmsskolas izglītības (turpmāk – PII) iestāžu trūkums. Aptuveni 37% no bērniem pirmsskolas vecumā nav iespējams apmeklēt PII. Visvairāk trūks tā sauktās silītes grupiņas, kuras apmeklē bērni līdz 2 gadu vecumam. Šī vecuma grupas ir īpaši vajadzīgas, lai bērnu mātes, kas parasti rūpējas par bērnu līdz bērns sāk apmeklēt PII, varētu pilnvērtīgi atgriezties darba tirgū. Darba vietas bērna kopšanas atvaļinājuma gadījumā tiek saglabātas līdz bērna 1,5 gadu vecumam (pieskaitot pēcdzemdību slimības lapu, aptuveni 1,7 gadu vecumam). Ja netiek nodrošinātas vietas bērniem PII bērnu mātes nevar atgriezties darba tirgū, jo nav, kam uzticēt rūpes par bērnu. Aukļu pakalpojumu ir salīdzinoši dārgi. Savukārt, ja bērnu māte nevar atgriezties darba tirgū, pieaug bezdarbnieku skaits, kas negatīvi ietekmē valsts ekonomiskos rādītājus. Bērnu nodrošināšana ar vietām PII ir kompleks pasākums: sākot ar nepieciešamību noteikt bērnu vecumu, kad jāsāk apmeklēt PII, nosakot bērnus kaitu attiecībā pret teritoriju, kad pašvaldībai ir jānodrošina PII, kā arī reāla vietu nodrošināšana PII. Ņemot vērā šos kompleksos uzdevumus, ne tikai pašvaldībām, kuru atbildība ir pirmsskolas izglītības pakalpojuma nodrošināšana, bet arī valstij, kur kopumā ir ieinteresēta konkurētspējīgas izglītības nodrošināšanā valsts iedzīvotājiem, ir cītīgi jāstrādā „plecu pie pleca”. PII tīkla izveide ir neizmantots instruments, kas veicinātu sociālekonomisko attīstību un teritorijas līdzsvarotu attīstību.

Food Security in the Developing Countries within the Globalisation Process

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Abstract

There are still hungry people in the world in the 21st century, however, in some regions there are surpluses of food. According to the FAO the number of undernourished people rises to 963 million compared with 923 million in 2007. Hunger (and poverty as well) is concentrated in the developing countries in agriculture and rural areas. Therefore economic growth is needed to decrease the level of undernourished population (e.g., increasing the level of food security). It should be connected with agricultural development and international trade liberalisation within the globalisation process and the scarcity of natural resources. The article discusses the WTO agricultural negotiation and its effect on developing countries. The agenda of agricultural trade liberalisation, which was established on the Uruguay Round, did not fulfil the expectations of poor countries. Liberalisation itself was not a sufficient factor to spur trade. The additional barriers were placed for example in agricultural policy of the developed countries, the imperfect agricultural market and the lack of infrastructure and institutions. In the process of creating new world trade regime people have to consider evolution of the world agriculture, motives and levels of agricultural sector support, implementation of new technology and climate changes. The trade liberalisation should be accompanied by coherent policies both at national and international level.

Introduction

The ongoing WTO Doha Round is focused on liberalisation of world agriculture trade to bring about the eradication of undernourishment and poverty in the developing countries. The goal of negotiations is to create fair and clear world trade regime. It is very important to take into consideration the problem of hunger, which is in the most part concentrated in the developing countries. The liberalisation process according to the consensus of the Uruguay Round, which is implemented up to now, did not meet the expectations. The high-income countries still carry agricultural policies that discriminate the poor countries. The position of the developing countries on the world food market did not improve enough. The main aim of this article is to present the insecurity situation in the world, and indicate the threats and opportunities connected with liberalisation of agricultural trade. The analysis of food insecurity statistics, papers of international organisations and Polish and international literature were applied in the paper.

Food insecurity in the developing countries

There are still hungry people in the world in the 21st century. Paradoxically, there are surpluses of food in some regions and there is not enough food in other regions at the same time. The Rome Declaration at the World Food Summit in 1996 states that the food security is achieved when all people, at all times, have physical and economic access to sufficient safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life.

According to the FAO the number of undernourished people in the developing countries in 2001-2003 equalled to 820 million (854 million worldwide), only about 3 million less than in 1990-1992 (FAO, 2006).¹ The interest of international community focused on eradicating hunger. The world leaders attending the World Food Summit (WFS) established targets to halve the number of undernourished people by 2015 compared with 1990-1992. The

¹ The proportion of the undernourished population varied between different regions. In 2001-2003 people in Asia and the Pacific were responsible for 64 percent of hungry people in developing countries; Latin America and the Caribbean: 6 percent; Near East and North Africa: 5 percent and Sub-Saharan Africa: 25 percent.

Table 1

Number of people undernourished (million) and progress towards World Food Summit (WFS) in developing countries

World/region/sub-region	1990-1992	1995-1997	2003-2005	03-05/90-92*	WFS** 2015
World	841.9	831.8	848.0	1.0	420.9
Developing countries	822.8	810.4	832.2	1.0	411.4
Asia and the Pacific	582.4	535.0	541.9	0.9	291.2
- <i>East Asia</i>	183.5	152.0	131.8	0.7	91.8
- <i>Southeast Asia</i>	105.6	88.6	86.9	0.8	52.8
- <i>South Asia</i>	282.5	284.8	313.6	1.1	141.3
- <i>Central Asia</i>	4.0	4.7	6.5	1.6	2.0
- <i>Western Asia</i>	6.1	4.4	2.2	0.4	3.1
Latin America and the Caribbean	52.6	51.8	45.2	0.9	26.3
- <i>North and Central America</i>					
- <i>The Caribbean</i>	9.3	10.2	8.8	0.9	4.7
- <i>South America</i>	7.5	8.6	7.6	1.0	3.8
	35.8	33.0	28.8	0.8	17.9
Near East and North Africa	19.1	29.6	33.0	1.7	9.6
- <i>Near East</i>	15.0	25.3	28.4	1.9	7.5
- <i>North Africa</i>	4.0	4.3	4.6	1.2	2.0
Sub-Saharan Africa	168.8	194.0	212.1	1.3	84.4
- <i>Central Africa</i>	22.0	38.4	53.3	2.4	11.0
- <i>East Africa</i>	77.1	86.1	86.0	1.1	38.6
- <i>Southern Africa</i>	32.4	35.8	36.8	1.1	16.2
- <i>West Africa</i>	37.3	33.8	36.0	1.0	18.7

*Progress in the number towards WFS; target=0.5

**WFS - World Food Summit goal - half of the number of undernourished people in 1990-1992

Source: *The State of Food Insecurity in the World 2008. High food prices and food security - threats and opportunities*, FAO, Rome 2008, p. 48-50

first goal of the Millennium Summit in 2000 (Millennium Development Goal 1 - MDG) was to halve the proportion of people who suffer from hunger between 1990 and 2015. The latest FAO's estimation of undernourishment situation in the world confirms insufficient progress towards the WFM and MDG hunger reduction even before the impact of soaring food prices during 2006-2008.

In 2003-2005 there were 848 million chronically hungry people, more than in 1990-1992 (Table 1). The most of the undernourished people lived in the developing countries, which were home to 832 million (98 percent of undernourished people worldwide). 65 percent of hungry people in the developing countries lived in seven countries: India, China, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Bangladesh, Indonesia, Pakistan, and Ethiopia. Reduction of hunger in these countries

will have an important impact on the world food security situation.² Worldwide, in 2003-2005 the share of undernourished people in the total population was at the level of 13 percent and it was 3 percent points less than in 1990-1992 (Table 2). In the developing countries this proportion was reduced from 20 percent in 1990-1992 to 16 percent in 2003-2005. The highest share of undernourished people in the total population remained in the sub-Saharan Africa, where one in three people was chronically hungry.

The analysis at the regional/sub-regional/countries level is more differentiated. In Asia and the Pacific there was a modest progress in reducing the prevalence of hunger (from 20 percent in 1990-1992 to 16 percent in 2003-2005) and the number of hungry people (from 582 million to 542 million). Almost two-thirds of the world's hungry population still lived in this region. Some subregions (*East Asia, Southeast*

² The significant progress has been made in China. The number of undernourished people was reduced from 178 million in 1990-1992 (15 percent of the total population) to 122.7 million in 2003-2005 (9 percent of the total population)

Table 2

The share of undernourished people in total population of the respective region (%) and progress towards Millennium Development Goal (MDG) in developing countries

World/region/sub-region	1990-1992	1995-1997	2003-2005	03-05/90-92*	MDG** 2015
World	16	14	13	0.8	8
Developing countries	20	18	16	0.8	10
Asia and the Pacific	20	17	16	0.8	10
- East Asia	15	12	10	0.6	
- Southeast Asia	24	18	16	0.7	
- South Asia	25	22	21	0.9	
- Central Asia	8	9	11	1.4	
- Western Asia	38	27	14	0.4	
Latin America and the Caribbean	12	11	8	0.7	6
- North and Central America					
- The Caribbean	8	8	6	0.8	
- South America	26	28	23	0.9	
	12	10	8	0.7	
Near East and North Africa	6	8	8	1.3	3
- Near East	7	11	11	1.4	
- North Africa	-**	-	-	na	
Sub-Saharan Africa	34	34	30	0.9	17
- Central Africa	34	51	57	1.7	
- East Africa	45	44	35	0.8	
- Southern Africa	45	43	37	0.8	
- West Africa	20	16	14	0.7	

*Progress in prevalence towards MDG target=0.5

**Proportion less than 5 percent of undernourished

na- not applicable

Source: The State of Food Insecurity in the World 2008. High food prices and food security - threats and opportunities, FAO, Rome 2008, p. 48-50

Asia) were on track towards achieving the MDG and WFS targets. Positive progress was also made in Latin America and the Caribbean. Some countries reached the WFS and MDG targets (for example, Argentina, Chile, and Peru), but there were still countries which experienced difficulties in reducing hunger (El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti). In the Middle East the insecurity food situation was mainly determined by conflicts. The number of undernourished people increased from 15 million in 1990-1992 to over 28 million in 2003-2005 (4.9 million in Afghanistan and 4.1 million in Iraq). In the North Africa the number of hungry people raised, but only 3 percent of the overall population was chronically hungry. The number of undernourished population increased also in sub-Saharan Africa (from 169 million to 212 million), but the proportion of people suffering from chronic hunger was reduced from 34 percent to 30

percent. The biggest increase in hunger occurred in the Democratic Republic of Congo (from 11 million in 1990-1992 to 43 million in 2003-2005). At the same time several countries like Ghana, the Congo, Nigeria, Malawi and Mozambique were on track to reduce the share of undernourishment (Ghana was the only country, which reached both the WFS and MDG targets).

Some reasons of undernourishment in the world

The number of hungry people in the world in 2003-2005 revealed that reaching the WFS target would be much more challenging, especially in the environment of higher food prices and unstable world economic situation. High food prices³ in 2006-2008 contributed to the increase of undernourished people. In 2007 the number of hungry people in the

³ Main drivers behind soaring food prices are described in some papers (FAO, 2008b; World Bank, 2008; Mitchell D., 2008)

world was estimated at the level of 923 million. It means that the number of people suffering from chronic hunger increased by 75 million above 848 million undernourished in 2003-2005 and 80 million higher than in 1990-1992. Therefore achieving the WFS (420 million of hungry people in 2015) will be more difficult. It can be stated that the world is still at the beginning of the road of decreasing hunger. However, the progress in reduction of the share of undernourished people in the developing countries was made (20 percent in 1990-1992 and 17 percent in 2007). The highest increase in the number of hungry people took place in Asia and the Pacific (additional 41 million) and in sub-Saharan Africa (additional 24 million). Those two regions together accounted for 750 million (89 percent) of hungry people in the world (FAO, 2008). However, high food prices are not the only reason of hunger. There is no one reason of hunger in the world. Shortfall of food is attributed to poor economic growth both in the economy at large and in the agricultural sector in particular. There are other reasons such as low agricultural productivity, conflicts, economic crisis, adverse weather, war-related damage, refugees and HIV/AIDS pandemic. (FAO, 2008a). Hunger is connected with poverty, and both of them are concentrated in the agriculture and rural areas. Hunger can be the consequence of poverty but it can also cause poverty. Reduction of hunger (and poverty) in developing countries should be the goal of international community. It is important because food and economic security create the basic component of world security.

Hunger and poverty are concentrated in the agricultural and rural areas. 75 percent of poor people in the developing world live in the rural areas. They depend on agriculture in direct or indirect way. The situation that the hunger is concentrated in the developing countries, which economies generally depend on agriculture, may seem to be strange. The developed countries are the main world food suppliers, not the developing countries, which can be perceived as natural producers of food. Such asymmetry on the food market can be explained by the place the developing countries have in the model of world agriculture development (from peasant to agribusiness). The long-term evolution of agriculture is characterised by some regularity describing structural transformation. Firstly, at low levels of development, the share of agriculture in gross domestic product and employment are large (even up to 50 percent and 85 percent, respectively) and decline as countries develop. Secondly, in poor countries the productivity in agriculture is low, but it increases when economy is growing (World Bank, 2007). Such structural changes are the results of process of development and adaptation of production, quantity and quality of

production factors and institutional framework. This transformation is determined by several factors like: levels of economic development and real income, opportunities for employment in non-agricultural sector, agricultural productivity, infrastructure, and agricultural institution. But the important thing is that the countries at the low level of development are accompanied by shortfall of food and when countries become richer the food surpluses appear. The most of the developing countries are at the beginning of the road of world agriculture development. Therefore economic sustainable growth and structural changes are needed to decrease the level of undernourished population (e.g. increasing the level of food security) (Tomczak F., 2005). It should be connected with agricultural development and international trade liberalisation (Sumner A., 2003; World Bank, 2007; Tutwiler M. A., Straub M., 2005).

Agricultural trade liberalisation and eradication of food insecurity

Agriculture has always been a very difficult topic of the international trade negotiations and still is a challenging area for policy dialogue. Significant gains can be made from further agricultural trade, price, and subsidy policy reform. But there will be both gainers and losers from such reforms.

The agenda of agricultural trade liberalisation, which was established on the Uruguay Round, did not fulfil expectations of poor countries. Liberalisation itself was not a sufficient factor to spur trade especially in the case of the developing countries. A lot of barriers occurred. Those obstacles did not allow developing countries to expand on the world food market. Agriculture policies are very different across countries. Low-income countries tend to impose relatively high taxes on farmers in the export sector as an important source of fiscal revenue, while developed countries tend to heavily subsidise farmers. The level of support of the agriculture in high-income countries has not been changed a lot since the last finished WTO Round. Such asymmetry creates a policy biased against the poor in both domestic and international market. The additional barriers were placed also in the developing countries; for example: imperfect agricultural market, lack of surpluses, infrastructure, institution, food safety control system and standards, natural disasters, difficulties with implementation trade agreements and economic, and political instability. Liberalisation should be accompanied by coherent policy at the national and international level.

The next step to liberalise international trade is connected with the Doha Round. These negotiations assumed that liberalisation of world agricultural

trade would bring about the eradication hunger and poverty. The main task of this Round is that free trade will encourage development of the developing countries especially the least developed countries. Agricultural sector should become an engine to spur growth, and income, and decrease the number of hungry and poor people due to the role of agriculture in economy of the developing countries. But it is important to remember that within liberalisation process some dangers can appear in developing countries. And not all of them will be beneficiaries especially in short time. Some of them may be harm because there are adjustment costs that the developing countries must pay (Stiglitz J., Charlton A., 2007; Stiglitz J., 2007, Piasecki R., 2007). Investments in transport, telecommunications infrastructure, quality policy, are still the important challenges (FAO 2007, OECD 2007, OECD-WTO 2007). In the process of creating world trade regime people have to consider evolution of world agriculture, motives and level of agricultural sector support, implementation of new technology and climate changes. The trade liberalisation should be accompanied by aid for trade for the developing countries. Such an activity is paradoxically incorporated into the idea of supporting the agriculture.

The absence of consensus of negotiation under the Doha Development Round to liberalise agriculture on a multilateral level forces the developing countries to participate in the regional trade agreements which can positively influence on the level of food security (Anderson K. 2006; Anderson K., Valenzuela E., 2006; Makać A., 1999; Robertson D., 2006). Regional trade agreements are important elements of the global trade environment. Its result in promoting economic growth depends on the design of the agreement and whether it promotes more trade creation effect rather than trade diversion effect. Increase in intraregional agricultural trade could also promote food security in two ways: by augmenting domestic food supplies to meet consumption needs, and by reducing overall food supply variability. It does not mean there would be no losers. For example, small-scale farmers, who are not well integrated on the market, would not gain any advantage of the new market (Matthews A., 2003).

Conclusions

The role of agriculture is crucial to the eradication of hunger and poverty in the developing countries. The high-income countries will be still supporting the agricultural sector. Governments of these countries change the form of the support but they do not abandon it. The basis of such activities is connected with food security, rural development or climate changes. Both

national governments and the international community require coherent policies and action in order to deal with food insecurity in the developing countries. Liberalisation of the world agricultural trade can reinforce the economic growth of the developing countries and help them step onto the higher level of development of world agriculture. Chronic food insecurity can be tackled most effectively through policies that promote agricultural productivity, rural incomes, and food production. Such policies need international cooperation, financial, technical, and knowledge support.

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Regional Development and Economic Potential of the Counties of Latvia

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Abstract

In Latvia since the 1990's an increasing attention is being paid to the country's regional development and problematic of economic potential of the counties. Worldwide, in the European Union and so in Latvia the features of ongoing socioeconomic crisis force drawing attention to activation around decentralisation, and focus on the questions of regional development more intense, particularly searching solutions for the research and analysis of a more efficient economic potential and its use in regions and counties.

Whilst carrying out an analysis of the current situation, it is clear to see that during the years of gaining the independence of Latvia, fundamental changes have been made that form the base for the regional development. Nevertheless, the regional development strategy lacks elaboration foreruns that would be targetly implemented on different public levels – starting from the smallest state units – families, different social groups, and local governments, to the other side – supreme state administration institutions, thereby harmonising, strengthening and improving the instruments and support measures for attaining regional development that would be not only formally created in a format of documents but would also be practically enforceable in regions, and in certain region this measure would be relevantly necessary (providing essential input in the regional development). It is necessary to give a greater possibility to regions to convey their real specific potentialities for development, and to be able to choose scenarios of a more rational and effective economic (regional) development. A lot has been done in solving and implementing Latvia's regional development issues, nevertheless it is clear that the accomplished work lacks a view at passing of a resolution like a process of solving dilemmas.

Economic development is the goal not only in Latvia, but also worldwide, in particular, in peripheries, in ulterior territories of countries – in regions. Ireland can be mentioned as a positive state economic and regional development example, as it is also located in a remote part of Europe, nevertheless with the help of a proper macroeconomic policy and ability to create favourable economic relations with other countries (also outside the EU), it is one of the most developed countries in the EU. In the development period of Ireland three main directions of economic policy can be marked: fiscal stabilisation, open conditions of trade and investments, and industrial policy that also applies to attraction of foreign investments (especially in IT field). The experience of Ireland witnesses that participation in the EU has given additional potentialities for economic and regional development. It ensured the increase of investments and capital flow, new jobs, greater stability and wherewith higher welfare. The success of this state to a great extent depended on the way it used the EU offered opportunities.

There is no doubt that the creation of counties carried out in accordance with the Administrative-territorial reform increases the possibilities of build up the financial resources and offers a possibility to uptake them efficiently, and to develop a certain state municipality's territory, in such a way increasing its economic potential, and thereby attracting new residents and creating favourable environment for entrepreneurship and development. The economic potential of counties forms like a combined structure in every field of the county's activities and competencies mostly depending on the action and activities of a certain county, managerial, strategically far-reaching and reasonable use of the available nature, infrastructure, financial social, and other resources.

Looking in perspective, in Latvia, just like in other EU countries, municipalities will have the most important role in the development of regions. Nevertheless it is necessary to define also the concept of municipalities' development, taking into consideration the real available economic potential of a certain region, or territory to obtain ultimate impact.

Key words: regional development, regional policy, regions, counties, economic potential.

Introduction

In Latvia since the 1990's an increasing attention is being paid to the country's regional development and problematic of economic potential of the

counties. Worldwide, in the European Union and so in Latvia the features of ongoing socioeconomic crisis force drawing attention to activation around decentralisation, and focus on the questions of

regional development more intense, particularly searching solutions for the research and analysis of a more efficient economic potential and its use in regions and counties.

Economic development is the goal not only in Latvia, but also worldwide, in particular, in peripheries, in ulterior territories of countries – in regions. Ireland can be mentioned as a positive state economic and regional development example, as it is also located in a remote part of Europe, nevertheless with the help of a proper macroeconomic policy and ability to create favourable economic relations with other countries (also outside the EU), it is one of the most developed countries in the EU. In the development period of Ireland three main directions of economic policy can be marked: fiscal stabilisation, open conditions of trade and investments, and industrial policy that also applies to attraction of foreign investments (especially in IT field). The experience of Ireland witnesses that participation in the EU has given additional potentialities for economic and regional development. It ensured the increase of investments and capital flow, new jobs, greater stability and wherewith higher welfare. The success of this state to a great extent depended on the way it used the EU offered opportunities.

There is no doubt that the creation of counties carried out in accordance with the Administrative-territorial reform increases the possibilities of build up the financial resources and offers a possibility to uptake them efficiently, and to develop a certain state municipality's territory, in such a way increasing its economic potential, and thereby attracting new residents and creating favourable environment for entrepreneurship and development.

The aim of the research: to explore regional development and its problematic as well as to identify the preconditions balanced development for Latvia's counties - their economic potential.

The aim has certain subordinate **tasks:**

- to study and to determine the core definitions of regional development;
- to define the support instruments of regional development;
- to study the Regional support policy in Latvia;
- to identify the economic potential of counties;
- to make comparative analysis of the states: development of economic potential of regions and municipalities in Ireland and Latvia.

The research was created on the base of laws, government enactments, special literature, personal experience of the author in work of local governments, development of Ireland and other materials.

The following methods are used research methods: monographic, methods of analysis and scientific induction, and deduction.

Results

1. Regional development policy in Latvia

Since the establishment of the European Union (EU) a new tendency is observed – the role of regions increases, while the role of the states as such in the abovementioned union – decreases. Also in Latvia, especially after entering the EU, the concepts, such as “region”, “regional policy”, “regional development”, “regionalisation”, are being used and mentioned very frequently. There is a lack of unity of the definitions and formulations of the abovementioned concepts not only in Latvia, but also among foreign scientists, politicians and the ones in practice with the concepts [9., 23]. It is necessary to define the abovementioned concepts to analyse the regional development policy in Latvia, and to draw conclusions and suggestions.

Definition of concept “region”. In common world practice it is assumed that any large Earth surface that differs from surrounding parts in accordance with its physically geographical characteristics or the nature of human activity might be named as a region. “The understanding of a region might be and is very wide depending on interests, aims and also on the spirit of the epoch while changing the common notions [8;46]. The division of state's territory can be made in accordance with different criteria or features. The criteria are being divided into two groups: normative and analytical criteria. Depending on the criteria (normative or analytical) used to form the regions, regions also can be normative (formal) or analytical (functional) [6].

Normative regions. Regions that are formed on the base of legislation for the accomplishment of certain functions and foreseeing the necessary resources and governance, are called normative regions. Geographical territory that is relatively homogeneous depending on one or several chosen criteria, is called a normative region [2;34]. The listed regions are formed in accordance with political approach. The normative regions have clearly set territorial borders and administrative structures, including municipalities. The borders usually are set in accordance with the objectives and the number of inhabitants of regional and local municipalities, and sometimes also in accordance with historical, cultural and other factors that need to be taken into consideration to preserve the specifics and autonomy of the regional or local government. Such division in normative regions is usually used when the network of the regions needs to embrace the whole territory of the country.

Analytical regions. Analytical region is a large geographical area that is united in a certain mutual connection (commitment) of functional concurrencies [2;34]. Such regions are being

formed in accordance with analytical requirements. They include the large geographical areas, whose homogeneity is characterised by clearly definable functions or processes. The analytical regions are classified on the base of geographical or socially-economic features.

“The largest units of territory, which are used to measure development level in Latvia, are regions.” [10;30]. The issue of creation of regions in Latvia was activated during the time, when there was a need to adapt the existing structure of territory and administrative system according to the established principles and requirements of the European Union countries. Currently in Latvia there are 5 regions appointed – Kurzeme, Latgale, Riga planning region, Vidzeme, and Zemgale.

Within the context of the European Union, region is defined as a territorial authority that is straight under the central government, with guaranteed political representation of an elected board, or, if it is not possible, with a representation institution on regional level that is created by a lower state governing institution. Also it shall be taken into consideration that in several countries (France, Italy, and Great Britain etc.) a certain level of administrative territorial division is called region. The European Council and the EU understand “local governments” as Level 1 municipalities (urban and rural municipalities), while “regional municipalities” as Level 2 (provincial, shire, district, and fief) and Level 3 municipalities. Latvia’s state administration structure and regional policy in Latvia from 1940 is backward in comparison with the models of the developed European countries. Since that time the EU countries have performed power and financial decentralisation for the sake of local authorities, prescribing the local and regional municipalities to solve the trusted tasks locally.

In the concept of Latvia regional development policy (December 3, 1996) region is defined as a relatively homogeneous part of Latvia’s territory (group of rural municipalities and towns, district or group of districts) that is united by a common feature or problem. Latvia has five planning regions that partly comply with normative regions. The “Regional Development Law” (March 21, 2002) defined specially supportable territories – the ones that have a sustained negative economic and social development tendency or one of these tendencies – complies more with the type of analytical regions.

Definition of concept “county”. In Latvia the concept county legally is started to be used in connection with the initiation of the Administrative territorial reform (ATR). To conceive the practical definition of concept “county”, it has to be mentioned that rural municipalities in Latvia administratively belong to the lowest level of municipality territories.

In connection with the ATR, counties are created joining together rural municipalities (with rural territory and/or town), still legally the status of municipalities’ level is not being changed [20;23].

Definition of concept “regionalisation”. The concept regionalisation is comparatively new and it is used to stress the increase of the role of regions on global scale as well as to characterise region as a creation of new territorial division on national scale. “Process of regionalisation is not the end in itself, its aim is to provide possibilities of an effective regional policy, and therefore the concept of regionalisation is often related to such concepts as rationalisation, cooperation, decentralisation, efficiency, and modernisation” [10;305]. The reforms of municipalities are closely tied to regionalisation and regional development.

In Latvia already in the middle of the 1990s “regional development” became a special field of focus due to the experience of other European countries, gained in several decades, proved the necessity and usefulness of regional development policy. “Regional development initially originated through looking at the state development from intersectional position and also through evaluating Latvia’s irregular development peculiarities” [1;16]. With the course of time the state long-term spatial development measures and their bodies, which are called regional development or regional policy were started to be implemented in Latvia.

Definition of concept “regional development”. The Regional Development Law (March 21, 2002) understands the concept as favourable changes in social and economic situation in the whole area or in separate parts of the country. The use of development concept in the period of formation and changes of the state has gained a wider and more frequent use and thus the idea includes all kinds of positive changes. In practice of regional policy the concept “development” is reviewed more concrete and deeper. Development – it is a positive society – oriented progression of nature, culture, social environment and economic activity. In Latvia regional development policy concept determines development as positive if there is an increase of inhabitant welfare (or it is being stimulated) that is build upon creative work, moral and ethical values, healthy lifestyle, harmony of economic life, and the environment. The change of territorial division is also a measure to affect regional development (territorial reform of municipalities in Latvia), and it is proved by regional policy practice in the Eastern and the Western Europe.

Definition of regional development policy. Regional Development Law explains the definition as “government approach and focussed action of regional development stimulation, through

coordination of field development according to the development priorities of separate parts of state territory, and offering straight support for the development of certain parts of the state territory” [5]. Point of reference of the regional development concept and action practice, as we understand it nowadays, begun in the 1930s, when the USA and Great Britain started an active state action to develop and to equalise the weak problem-regions. The main content of regional development policy is territory and territorial development. The listed policy is to be implemented in a close connection with municipality reform, including the Administrative territorial reform (ATR) on the level of local governments and regional administrative territorial division reform.

Regional development policy is a component of the country's common development policy, which is used to solve socio-economic problems – to raise welfare of population, to stimulate rational use of resources. Regional development policy is defined as a body of actions and behaviours, where the aim is to decrease differences of socio-economic development among places, regions, and territories. Most frequently, also in Latvia, the core aims and objectives of regional development are:

- consummation of balanced regional economic development;
- stimulation of economic growth of the backward regions;
- equalisation of the unfavourable differences;
- measured and effective placement and utilisation of the material, labour and other resources of all the state regions.

Regional development is oriented towards balanced and sustainable long-term development of the territory. Every regional development policy has at least two aspects – economic and social.

“Up-to-date regional development policy has several typical basic principles – democracy, publicity, and decentralisation (primary – interests and initiatives of local municipalities and inhabitants)” [1;20]. In many developed countries decentralisation is to be observed, and in this process, in accordance with the principle of subsidiary, the role of municipalities (local and regional), as implementers of regional policy, increases constantly. Wherewith it might be emphasised that the stronger the municipalities, the wider the possibilities of regional development.

Objects and subjects of regional policy. Municipalities of different levels (rural, urban, county, district, shire, area etc.); land, provincial etc. units of political area territorial institutions of state power and government; private entrepreneurs, NGO's; and also individuals and families are the objects of regional policy. The main subjects in the implementation

of regional policy are state power and government institutions.

Support instruments of regional development.

The cornerstone of choosing the regional development instruments is the question of regional development policy approach. The state's defined; chosen instruments outline and establish the model of regional policy in every certain country. For example, administrative territorial reforms affect regional development and, if the reforms are oriented to strengthening and development of the economics in the municipalities, it can be considered as means and support instrument of regional development. Experience of different countries shows that the most often used regional development support instruments (measures) are:

- state investigations that are oriented on territories, mainly for development of economic, social and ecological infrastructure;
- state subsidies and loans to municipalities;
- funding and loans of international organisations, state and municipalities to private enterprises;
- state and municipalities procurements;
- appropriate tax policy for certain territories;
- creation of free and special economic zones;
- privatisation of state and municipalities' enterprises;
- appropriation of rights of accelerated depreciation;
- arrangement of the territory for industrial (or for other special purpose) needs;
- support for entrepreneurs through training workforce;
- establishment of business consultation centres, innovation centres, technological parks, business incubators and creation of other organisational structures that are aimed to stimulate entrepreneurship.

From the 20th century almost in all countries worldwide and in the EU countries regionalisation of economic and social processes is taking place – the regulation functions of the abovementioned processes passes from the state power central level to territorial state administration forms that establish the principle of subsidiary. Wherewith worldwide local municipalities implemented by inhabitants through voluntarily electing local administrative territories (territorial division unit in which state administration institution and municipality implement the government in frames of their competencies) administration are an integral part of a democratic state.

At the moment Latvia has four types of municipalities:

- rural municipalities;
- towns;

- counties (newly created united municipalities, result of the Administrative Territorial Reform);
- cities (republic level);
- districts (“regional municipalities”).

Regional development policy in Latvia.

Latvia’s regional development policy is in its formation process already over 10 years. Until 2004 the Regional Development Policy Concept that was passed by the Saeima in 1996 was the main and the most important document of regional development. The concept defined the aims of regional development policy that were directed to ensure favourable and equal environmental, living and labour conditions in all regions of Latvia, to decrease unfavourable differences, to ensure sustainable development, to provide the integration into the EU, and its processes of regional policy. “In the first years after re-establishing the independence in Latvia there was an extended opinion that regional policy is aimed to develop only separate or less developed territories” [1;21]. And only in the long run this myth was dissipated and the real understanding of the regional policy was reached showing that it exists and works in the whole territory, not only in separate parts. Looking in perspective, in Latvia, just like in other EU countries, municipalities will have the main role in development of regions. However, it is necessary to define also the municipality development concept, taking into consideration the real available economic potential of every particular region, and territory to reach a maximum effect. Regardless of the fact that every country, whilst elaborating municipality development concept, chooses the most appropriate municipality theory as a base, frequently the policy uses separate elements also from other theories, thereby creating an improved sub-form of the core theory.

Regional development historically:

- 1993 – Establishment of the Ministry of Environment Protection and Regional Development (VARAM), incl. the establishment of Regional development department.
- 1994 – Regional development is being acknowledged as one of 10 governmental priorities.
- 1995 – Regional development department establishes the Bureau of Balanced Regional Development; first guidelines of Latvia regional policy are being developed.
- 1997 – Passing of a law “On Specially Supportable Regions” that grants the status of a specially supportable region for 3 years to 84 state territorial units.
- 1998 – in four historical parts of Latvia the creation of planning regions is being started following the municipalities negotiations.

- 1999 – 2000 – establishment of five regional development agencies.
- 2002 – Passing the law “Regional Development Law”.

The Saeima has passed Regional Development Law defining the aims of regional development – to stimulate and to provide balanced and sustainable development, taking into consideration peculiarities and capacity of the whole state territory and separate parts of it, to decrease unfavourable differences between them as well as to preserve and to develop nature and cultural environment features and development potential characteristic to every territory. Latvian academicians Inga Vilka and Pēteris Šķiņķis believe that strategic documents of development that apply to Latvia regional development, mostly are being created without intersectoral approach as well as they are weakly coordinated between the state institutions and municipalities, and thus their implementation attempts are not successful enough in practice of regional development. The ability of municipalities, regions and state institutions to participate in planning and implementing the policy start to increase only step by step.

Analysing the current situation, it shall be observed that during the years of re-establishing Latvia’s independence fundamental things have been made now forming the base for regional development, but, in the author’s opinion, regional development policy lacks the elaboration foreruns that should be implemented purposefully from different state levels – beginning with the smallest state units – families, different social groups, municipalities, and ending with higher state administration institutions, thereby coordinating, strengthening and improving instruments and support measures with the aim to reach regional development that would be not only formally created in the form of paper, but also would be practically enforceable in regions, and in the particular region this measure would be essentially necessary (gives an essential contribution in regional development). It is necessary to give bigger opportunities to express their real specific development potentialities, and to be able to choose more rational and effective economic (regional) development scenarios. A lot has been done in solving and implementing of Latvia’s regional developments issues; however it is clear that the accomplished work lacks a view on taking decisions as salvation of dilemmas. It is approved also by a socio-economic expert Pēteris Strautiņš: “It is important to name the aims we want to reach, but an even more bigger *added value* creates the ability to choose” [7;5]. Every group of the society has its own interests, opinions on more efficient development possibilities; and wherewith each of them is focusing on their own problematic. A compromise or even

more between all the social groups should be found in planning regional development – only in such case a balanced and positively oriented socio-economic situation will be possible.

2. Definition of counties' economic potential

Economic development is the aim not only in Latvia, but also worldwide, especially in peripheries, and in more distant territories. The creation of counties, doubtless, is increasing the possibilities of concentration of financial means. Focusing the financial means creates an opportunity to attract qualified specialist, to increase the professionalism of employees, who can improve the work of municipality in their field, to attract additional financial funds, investigations and stimulate the overall development of the municipality. It also means that these specialists with their professional activity will attract more finances and investigations in favour of the municipality. For example, it is necessary to be a quite proficient and good specialist to prepare a good project application to some of the EU funds, as there is a large competition in Latvia to attract investigations offered by Europe. Municipality is the state level structure that is closer to the inhabitants. Every municipality needs to care for interests and welfare of inhabitants of its territory, thus developing infrastructure of the municipality and increasing the opportunities for inhabitants to raise their welfare. Every municipality is responsible for national economy in its territory. Municipalities with low financial and economic capacity do not have wide opportunities to develop their territory. The ATR gives an opportunity to unite and to create a bigger, consequently also more financially balanced and stronger municipality that can attract additional funds, and to elaborate an enforceable and development oriented strategy of the municipality. It is especially important for less developed regions, like Latgale region.

Notwithstanding the ATR is not the only way and measure of municipality development. Unifying of municipalities creates larger and wider possibilities to develop fields and spheres that are located in the territory of the municipality as well as decrease social and economic problems. It also expands the opportunity to use modern managerial methods. However, it may be done only with help of active and effective work of the municipalities themselves. The economic growth of the municipality depends on several factors. One of the most important core factors is reasonable use of the financial potential, taking the opportunities of increasing the financial funds, attraction of investigations for administrative territory of the municipality or raise of economic potential.

- The economic potential of counties is formed as a complex structure in all fields of county's activities and competences. The author of the paper distinguishes the main alternatives for raising the economic potential:
- **Development of infrastructure** – the mentioned alternative includes development of technical infrastructure (improvement and development of roads, streets, public transportation, water, sewerage system etc. in accordance with the present-day requirements and quality); and development of municipalities social structure.
- **Development of entrepreneurship in the field of innovation** – the mentioned alternative includes stimulation of the environment of entrepreneurship on local municipalities' level (creation of entrepreneurship centres, business incubators, technological parks, help to the entrepreneurs concerning requalification or training of the employees, cooperation of businesses, high schools etc.); stimulation of cooperation among other municipalities, NGO's and structures both, in counties, Latgale region, in Latvia generally and abroad (stress on cooperation of borderland municipalities, municipality with average equivalent indexes of the particular municipality in Latvia); elaboration of field strategies for problem regions; and elaboration and implementation of cities (places') marketing conceptions.
- **Development of entrepreneurship environment in the field of finances** – the mentioned alternative includes state and interstate organisations, fund subsidies and granting of credits to municipalities for creation and development of production, social and ecological infrastructure; international organizations, investors, state and municipality funding and loans to private enterprises; regionally differenced subsidies and loans to private enterprises to stimulate creation of new productions or expanding of production, development in the problem regions; rational use of nature resources; appropriate tax policy for particular territories; and creation of free and special economic zones.
- **Raising the intellectual capacity** – the mentioned alternative includes dislocation of new and existing state (or state governed) enterprises and government agencies in problem regions; development of culture; and help to develop innovative activities in problem regions (grants for scientific researches, for carrying out researches etc.).

As a result of the mentioned alternatives of increasing the economic potential, counties can develop faster, with a higher quality, attracting new

financial and social resources, thereby improving the overall development of the county.

The main indicators of a county's territory economic potential growth result are as follows:

- increased number of inhabitants;
- growth of GDP;
- increased tax income;
- increased number of active enterprises;
- increased number of new working places;
- integration of business and education;
- investor contributions;
- increased social level;
- increased value of real estate tax.

It is important to define the directions and aims of territorial development as well as to implement them purposefully, as the elaboration of the development plan is only a successful precondition of development, but it is not the development itself. Development of a county means the implementation of "the development plan". Municipalities when establishing counties need to elaborate development strategies for newly established counties, and as much as possible – they need to implement them. It is essentially for every county to raise attention and concentrate not only on the development and raise of economic potential of a county's own territory, but it is also important to adapt one into regional and state processes, thus building a harmonious, developed, economically and socially attractive state in general. Long-term development of the territory needs to be reviewed in connection with the core statements and regional development, where the regional development is implemented according to mutually integrated planning documents.

The main development directions have to be defined on the basis of social interests – what kind of municipality do inhabitants want to see in the future? What are the primary problems that they spot and which of the fields, directions in the primary one that should be solved and developed?

These questions need to be regarded while exploring, and analysing every county individually, and while looking into county's development possibilities - in accessibility and practicability of economic potential instruments.

"Social interests are neither state interests, nor the simple sum of personal interests. (...) They are total field between the harmonised personal interests of citizens and state interests [3;43].

The economic potential of counties mostly depends on the work and activities of the county itself, on organised, strategically far-reaching and reasonable use of the accessible nature, infrastructure, financial, social, and other resources.

3. Comparative analysis of the state: development of economic potential of regions and municipalities in Ireland and Latvia

Ireland is one of the most centralised countries in Europe, a sovereign, independent state. The republic has liberal democracy with parliamentary government system. It encloses approximately 80% of Island of Ireland and since 1973 it is a European Union (EU) member state. The capital city of Ireland is Dublin, the territory reaches 70 300 square kilometres with 3.6 million inhabitants [22]. The main natural resources are zinc, lead, natural gas, barites, copper, gypsum, limestone, dolomite, peat, and silver. *Bunreacht na hEireann* ("Irish constitution") of 1937 determines general principles that build the ground of Irish legal framework [21]. The amendments to the Constitution of 1999 confirmed the constitutional status of municipalities. The municipality system is in fact created on one level, still it is quite complicated. The main units of municipality system are 29 provincial (shire) councils and 5 city councils. In total there are 5 municipality groups as well as 5 district corporations, 49 provincial councils, and 26 city deputies – together 114 local governments, where the municipalities of the three latter groups are not subjected to district boards [17;43]. The regional issues have become outstanding in the 1990s, when in Ireland in 1994 already officially 8 regional institutions were established (their members are deputies of district councils and city councils), where the main tasks of these institutions are coordination of public services on regional level and control of the use of the EU structural funds. So the two biggest regional authorities were established in 1999, they are also called regional assemblies, and their main task is the implementation of the EU programmes. As well on municipality level in the end of the 1990s strategic policy committees were established, and they include not only deputies and representatives of social partners, but also non-governmental organisations and other interest groups.

By the side of power of attorney of Latvia's municipalities, the municipalities of Ireland have low level of autonomy, where their main range of activities are physical planning; housing fund and civil engineering; road construction and maintenance; water supply and sewerage; territorial development; environmental protection; and recreation [1;167]. District councils and city councils are in response of the abovementioned functions, but the municipalities of the other groups – only of part of the functions. In contradiction to Ireland, Latvia municipalities' functions additionally include, for instance, ensuring of educational, cultural and social services, family court functions that makes a remarkably larger level of authority and responsibility of municipalities.

Compared with Latvia's situation, municipalities in Ireland are much larger, but they have less power than in Latvia. Analysing economic development activities in Ireland, a conclusion can be made that the Irish people have strengthened their local authorities especially for a better use of the European Union help. Exactly for this purpose reform was made and all the municipalities were merged in eight regions (concerning the area and number of inhabitants very similarly to Latvia's planned five counties). The only task of regional authority is coordination of high scale projects in-between shires and Brussels - this work is managed by only three clerks and for maintenance of every region's new administration state spends from LVL 70 up to LVL 140 thousand in a year (budget of a small rural municipality in Latvia) [20].

Ireland and Latvia have much in common and many differences too. Latvia could learn from Ireland's action and development experience how to recover from economic crisis, and to gain benefit from the EU, how to use the available resources more efficient and appropriate as well as the economic potential, through developing it as much as possible and using with far-reaching development consequences in the future.

Ireland is a state that regained its independence from its neighbour country Great Britain only in the 1920s. Only in a little bit more than 20 years the state reached its economic growth and its result of the last years shows that it is an EU state with the highest gross domestic product (GDP) increase in a year. In common with Latvia, also Ireland is located on the margin of Europe, it is a small, peripheral country, which 25 years ago was a backward remote part of the Western Europe and its only economic engine was agriculture [11;B6]. The country experienced a deep economic stagnation, mass emigration (especially of the youth) happened to other EU countries and the United States of America (USA). Poorer were only Portugal and Greece in the EU countries' community. The main barriers of Ireland's economic development growth in different periods of time can be considered the emigration of inhabitants able to work in the 1970s, state's debt crisis in the 1980s, and lack of qualified staff in the 1990s. Nevertheless at the moment from 1988 due to hard-line budget policy, the budget deficit has not exceeded 3% of GDP as set by Maastricht criteria, and from 1998 the budget incomes exceed budget expenses. Currently the state's debt is the smallest among the EU countries [3;163 – 190].

In the 1950's Ireland passed modernisation process, which brought an increase of industry and urbanisation, and smoothing of demographical models with Europe and the USA. This process facilitated and helped also in ass communications sphere that

favoured involvement in different international organisations and stimulated attraction of investments to the state. The process was supported by all political parties and different strata of society. The country's development proceeded step by step, and already in the 1960's the government passed hard-lined policy that was oriented onwards – core idea – to attract foreign industry investments. In 1973 Ireland entered the European Community (EC), now – the EU. Since that moment trade links with continental Europe and with other countries started to increase substantially, at the same time they decreased with Great Britain, but with a tendency of improvement of relations in-between both countries [16;56]. Wherewith, the former dependence from Great Britain was replaced by a much wider trust on the EU and other countries that are connected with Ireland's economic growth and policy.

General comparison analysis of Ireland and Latvia are being carried out based on economic potential increase alternatives created by the author: general analysis of economic situation – common features and differences and counties' of Latvia state potentialities to develop some certain alternative, taking into consideration Ireland's action and development examples.

Development of infrastructure – the road, street infrastructure in Ireland in the 1980s was still in a very bad state – narrow, bumpy, crumbled roads, and streets. Nevertheless as the leading official of Municipalities and environment protection ministry Kevin Callen says 1.2 billions pounds of Ireland's and the EU money or LVL 852 million in five years (from 1994 to 1999) were invested in national Ireland's road programme for renovation and reconstruction [20]. Evaluating the situation in Latvia, equivalent resources for road improvement are invested during 25 years. In the past years, road infrastructure in Ireland is being improved and developed fast, especially highway infrastructure of the state's national importance, increasingly new speed section highways are build, their construction is carried out in rapid speed. At the same way also in rural areas roads without asphalt cover are of a rare occurrence, even small roads that lead to the largest fields have asphalt cover. Nevertheless the width of the existing roads (new roads within limits are built wider) is and after their reconstruction stays the same, because the value of land (especially the one of agricultural land) is high enough, and as well it is almost not possible to widen them – there is no space free, as everywhere on both sides stretch endless pasturable fence piled of stones, or centenarian, thorny and picturesque hedges. Irish lifestyle culture manners and traditions need to be taken into consideration there, since the Irish even have proclaimed the hedges national wealth;

therefore, for their maintenance in an exemplary order, owners even get paid small subsidies.

Irish municipalities do not have big authorities as it is in Latvia, for example, “Local authorities do not have equal power regarding public services, for example, public transportation issues as well as regarding ensuring order and health protection. Municipalities maintain local roads, but the central governance gives the money to do that. Municipalities in Latvia have more to do. For instance, they coordinate the traffic of route buses etc.” [20]. Ireland has a comprehensive state financed social care. Provider of the Health Service Executive (HSE) is a state institution, which is responsible for leading the whole Ireland’s society health and social care. HSE is responsible for: hospitals, social health care, mental health care, old people care, services for people with special needs, children and families health care, register of born, divorces and marriages in the Registry Office, organisation of marriage ceremonies, environment health services, review and delivery of allowances, and for many other health and social services for private persons [19]. Evidently, in Latvia municipalities or district councils carry out most part of the abovementioned. Ireland’s HSE system is common all over the country and it has common rules in any municipality – in Latvia every municipality decides by itself about many of the abovementioned issues of social infrastructure – to implement them or not (if the law allows choosing), how and how many resources to allocate them from municipality’s budget, what kind and what amount of allowances to grant, if to create old people care centres or not, etc.

Development of entrepreneurship environment in the sphere of innovations – Development of entrepreneurship environment in sphere of innovations is usually performed with the help of regional assemblies and regional authorities. Practically every greater city has its own industrial, or technology park, where the development of entrepreneurship environment is being stimulated in regions (shires). Social and family affair department is responsible for workforce requalification or training issues. One of Ireland’s leading forces that enable economic growth is business environment created by the law, which stimulated inflow of foreign capital. “About 40% of all the employed in manufacturing industry work in enterprises owned by foreigners” [15;61]. Social partnership is also successfully developed – since 1987 all social partners – entrepreneurs, trade unions, farmers, and government have been involved in economic planning process. On Ireland’s municipalities’ level in the end of the 1990s strategic policy committees were created, their structure includes not only deputies and representatives

of social partners but also non-governmental organisations and other interest groups, which shows the tight cooperation between municipality and non-governmental organisations, and interest groups. The influence of non-governmental organisations and interest groups to resolutions of municipalities is remarkable – their interests are being taken into consideration very seriously and a feedback is being carried out, cooperation in a variety of events, local level projects (environmental activities, for instance, common park cleaning events; solution of the disabled problems, e.g., funding of the disabled associations’ events, etc.), in solution of problematic issues.

From 1999 the government’s policy is directed on public private partnership. It means that a part of public sector functions (projecting, planning, funding, and building spheres) are entrusted to the private sector. The main aims of public private partnership are to develop infrastructure more rapidly, and to save resources [5;108]. One of Ireland’s origins of rapid economics is also the fact that Ireland’s government in the 1980s started to invest high level investments into education and training, a large part of which is financed by the EU Structural Funds. Because of a targeted policy, education level in Ireland in 2004 was higher than on average in the EU. High qualified work force provides contemporary manufacture structure and world level services [16;57].

Facilitation of entrepreneurship environment on local municipalities’ level was performed also thanks to active work of Ireland’s capital city. Dublin turned into International Services Centre, which aims to perform such financial transactions as bank services, administration of other companies, deals with securities, insurance services and investments and action of investment funds outside territory of Ireland, and consequently it enabled an increase of information technologies export [6;2]. Wherewith, the research and consultative enterprises were activated, and they operate not only in the capital city, but also in regional municipalities.

Cooperation with foreign countries takes places mostly within the EU – “In 2004 approximately 64% of total Ireland’s export was export to the EU participating countries” [16;57]. Remaining export is mostly to such countries as the North Africa, Australia, the Middle East, and the Far East. Participation in the EU favoured diversification of Ireland’s foreign trade partners. Latvia’s situation in this sphere unfortunately is weak, a low developed export, and undeveloped cooperation with foreign countries. Due to the EU, cooperation with foreign countries, mostly with the closest neighbour countries (Estonia, Lithuania), is started, mostly with financing of the EU funds, especially in culture and

social sphere. As well with the help of the EU funds' support several entrepreneurship centres and business incubators are created, support to entrepreneurs is being provided concerning requalification or training of their employees, cooperation between enterprises and high schools, but still the results are weak. It can be explained with the common world, state economic crisis, lack of stimulation and development support for entrepreneurship, agriculture in regions and general politic disbalance in the country.

Development of entrepreneurship environment in the financial sphere – Ireland developed mainly due to efforts of central institutions in large infrastructure development projects: for development of certain sphere state created special agencies that prepare projects to gain Brussels money. For instance, the West region agency works successfully, it tries to create favourable conditions for attraction of entrepreneurs to the state's most depressive region as well as Information technologies agency, which cares specifically for support to computer business [20]. Also in Latvia regional (Latgale, Zemgale etc.) development agencies are established, still the minimum funding for their maintenance, hiring of specialists causes feedback – the result is weak. It has to be mentioned that in Latvia these development agencies are maintained not by the state as it is in Ireland's example, but by local municipalities.

The main trump of Irish economics – it is its tax policy, it was modelled knowingly through changing the previous system radically, so to develop the state's entrepreneurship environment. Wherewith a fast economic growth in Ireland started right after entering the EU due to Ireland government's courageous decision until 1981 to cancel profit tax for foreign entrepreneurs, and from 1981 to 2000 to set it very low – only 10 percent [20]. The state decreased taxes as well preserved salaries nominal increment, on the one hand helping the state become more competitive, and on the other hand – increasing the effective revenue of the employed. This budget foreseen tax decrease helped the government to harmonise the so-called Boom and justice programme that brought the expected results. Ireland created favourable tax climate for both development of entrepreneurship and favourable investments. General tax relief as well as special ones – for development of high technologies in the country, compose an important part of the stimulant measures body that, which are available to national and foreign companies, state of Latvia lacks all at the time. Tax policy was an excellent effect for attraction of foreign investments, which gave an opportunity to facilitate manufacture development without increase of the state's external debt. In the end of the 1970s and in the beginning of the 1980s companies of more

developed countries started to invest into countries with cheap labour force and low taxes. Ireland became a magnet for enterprises of the USA, Canada, and Japan. Ireland managed to attract approximately 40% of American capital that was invested in foreign spheres of electronics. Arrival of first transnational companies get started an avalanche, and hundreds of competitors rushed to Ireland as well as enterprises from associated spheres. When the first computer producers entered and gained success, soon after that many other computer producers, programmers, advertising companies, and banks followed them. These were mostly USA companies, number of which at the time exceeds a thousand. The main reasons that caused interest in the companies were the low taxes, English speaking educated labour force, and closeness of the European market. However, foreign companies did not create threats for national enterprises, but gave them opportunity to meet the demand in the inner market. At the time, when the local entrepreneur got strong enough, Ireland's government was ready to give for privatisation strategically important objects with an idea that the main role there would have the local capital. In its turn in Latvia everything happened as a "shock therapy", and so privatisation of Latvia's enterprises was made inefficiently and irrationally. The privatisation of Ireland's enterprises happened comparatively slowly and advisedly – effectively working state enterprise provided income to the state budget, but less effective were sold, so giving additional income.

Increase of intellectual capacity – a substantial factor of Ireland's economics is knowledge based initiatives – this factor is largely stimulated by direct investments of foreign countries. In the past years state expenses for the research and development have noticeably increased in Ireland, especially for the research in the field of information and communication technologies. Concerning innovations it can be concluded that the results would be greater if a deeper and wider approach would be used. The expansion and deepening of innovation approach would include strengthening of the link between research institutions and enterprises involved in economics, increase of investments for applied researches, and ensuring of managerial measures in order to start higher level education.

Grants for scientific research and performance of researches are implemented through successful attraction of the EU funds. In Latvia part of researches and grants for scientific research of course also are being implemented due to resources of the EU Structural Funds, nevertheless Ireland's experience shows that a more successful resource attraction from the EU depends on the performance of state institutions and state government's involvement in

Table 1

Ireland's GDP in the period of time from 2000 to 2005

Year	GDP (mill. EUR)	GDP increase compared with the previous year, %
2000	104379.0	-
2001	117114.1	12.2
2002	130515.4	11.4
2003	139097.0	6.6
2004	148556.5	6.8
2005	160322.0	7.9
2006	177286.0	10.6
2007	190603.0	7.5

Source: Ireland's Central Statistics board data [18]

maximum resource attraction, which is on a quite low level in Latvia at the time – the total amount of assigned finances of the EU funds is one of the lowest among the EU countries. By the side of Latvia's action experience, Ireland the most investments for entrepreneurship, intellectual development, increase of capacity, development of innovation diverts to backward regions.

Carrying out a general analysis of Ireland's economic and regional development example, there is a conclusion that in the past 25 years the mentioned country has chosen a right macro economic policy – many countries had favourable conditions, but not all of them used them. In Ireland's development period three main directions of economic policy can be marked: fiscal stabilisation, open conditions of trade and investments, and industrial policy that also applies to attraction of foreign investments (especially in IT sphere). Ireland's experience witnesses that participation in the EU has given additional potentialities for economic and regional development. It ensured increase of investments and capital flow, new work places, greater stability, and wherewith higher welfare. Success of this state to a great extent depended on the way it used the EU offered opportunities.

Ireland's development is the most successful example among the EU member states: at the moment of alignment in 1973 the level of its gross domestic product pr capita reached only approximately 60% of the average EU level, in 1990 this rate increased to 75%, and after another ten years it exceeded the average EU level for already 20%. It has to be taken into consideration that Ireland's economics substantially depends on the global market fluctuations, and it is influenced also by situation in the USA markets more than other European countries. Thereby Ireland was not able to avoid the decline of economic

development rate. For example, in the period of time from 2000 to 2005 there is a fall of Ireland's GDP increase rate (Table 1) to observe. Ireland's Central Statistics data show that in 2001 the increase of GDP compared with the previous year was 12.2%, but in 2005 compared with 2004 this increase was only 1.9%. Nevertheless after 2004 positive changes can be observed – the rate of GDP increase started to grow again. [18]

To ensure the increase of GDP the most important spheres are industry, commercial services and finances, trade, transportation, and communication services. Important external component of Ireland's success is participation in the EU, which considerably enforced competition, expanded market spheres and stimulated increase of efficiency. Additionally Ireland has a privileged status in the EU already for some time. In the framework of the last programmes Ireland after 1989 gained remarkable funds, this retained demand and facilitated adaptation process by an open competition. These additional funds stimulated development of the state's infrastructure, and increased its attractiveness to foreign investors.

Latvia could learn from Ireland's economic and regional development example how to develop its relations with other countries concerning economic issues. Although the Irish are trying to regain the place in economics that is hold by foreign entrepreneurs, however mostly thanks to them the society was able to get out of decline. The state of Latvia should control these processes harder and allow such kind of enterprises to enter our market, create Latvia as an attractive state for investors, at the same time developing agricultural sphere and industry, which would stimulate return and not outflow of labour force from the country (especially youth, that is also intellectual potential). Latvia should also start exporting goods or services with a higher added

value, not like it is, for example, for wood, to balance at least a little the deficit of the current account.

Conclusions

1. In Latvia new concepts - "region", "regional policy", "regional policy", "regional development", and "regionalisation" are being used and mentioned very frequently. There is a lack of unity of the definitions and formulations of the abovementioned concepts not only in Latvia, but also among foreign scientists, politicians, and the ones in practice with the concepts that can create misunderstanding in discussion on international, scientific and local levels about the problematic of regional development issues.
2. The experience of the EU countries has proved – the stronger the municipality, the bigger the chance of regional development. Effective municipality reforms stimulate regional development; however, each regional development policy has at least two aspects – economic and social. Statement question of regional development policy is on the base of choice of regional development instruments. State's determined, chosen instruments outline and define the regional policy outlook of every certain state.
3. Common economic growth in Ireland, which appears as a tremendous increase of GDP, has formed from an aggregate of such factors as: stable macro economic environment, government's ability to decrease its expenses, decrease of unemployment, increase of export ability in sphere of high technologies and expanding of trade partners. Achievements in industry and agriculture also have to be emphasised as they enabled Ireland to turn from agricultural state to a developed export-oriented state.
4. The ability of municipalities, regions and state institutions to participate in planning and implementing of policies is only starting to increase progressively in Latvia. Looking in perspective, in Latvia, just like in other EU countries, the municipalities will have the most important role in regional development. However, it is necessary to define also municipality development conception, taking into consideration the real available economic potential of the particular region to attain maximum effect.
5. Economic growth of municipalities depends on several factors. One of the most important core factors is reasonable use of the economic

potential, using the opportunities of increasing financial capital, attraction of investments to the administrative territory of the municipality or increased economic potential. The economic potential of counties mostly depends on actions and activities of the certain county, and organized, strategically far-reaching and reasonable use of the available nature, infrastructure, financial, social, and other resources.

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Socio-Economic Prospects of Regional Agribusiness Development

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Introduction

The article represents the reasons causing problems in the structures of agriculture in Adjara, and the proposals to solve the mentioned problems. It also defines the positive and negative results of the agricultural reformation. It is stated that the specialisation is not submitted to the radical digression from historical-traditional model and demands the accomplishment of the existing potential together with the development of agricultural business.

Results and consideration of the results

For the recent years the interest to the regional agribusiness in many countries, especially in the post-Soviet space, has greatly risen due to the effective use of agricultural potential on the one hand, and the removal of socio-economic problems existed originally in the regions, and consequently in the whole country depending on its development on the other hand.

In the regions of subtropical zone of Adjara tea and citrus growing are considered as the main production trend. The analysis of the current situation in agriculture shows that the so-called cultures of the Union Significance (subtropical cultures) are mainly developed. However, the tea and citrus fields, and their average hectare productiveness have noticeably decreased as a result of complicated economic and political situation at the end of the previous century, and the loss of the traditional markets of product sale.

By the year of 2008 citrus fields occupied 5200 hectares, and tea plantations -3200 hectares compared to the data by 1990 when these areas covered 8377 and 7342 hectares respectively. In 2005 in Adjara the average citrus harvest per one hectare decreased from 169.7 to 3.2 centners, and tea yield decreased from 68.4 to 0.3 centners. The decrease of tea harvest is caused by imperfect conditions of tea plantations, the sparse growth of tea bushes, the maximum decrease

in the demand for raw tea, extremely low wages and many other factors.

In order to solve the problems in citrus growing it is necessary to transfer the citrus orchards to the intensive technology, to inculcate fast-ripening citrus plants stage by stage, to put in action the state special programmes, to support the farmers with investments and other actions. The rise of harvest and quality index getting fast-ripening product as well as the increase of farmers' income could be expected after accomplishing the above mentioned measures. The solution of the problems in tea-growing also requires inculcation of modern technologies, production of the competitive products, and privatisation of tea plantations of about 100 hectares; thus stipulating the satisfaction of population demands for domestic production, decrease of import and rise of income.

A lot of practical steps have been made in the subtropical agriculture of Adjara by the scientists, amateur experts and specialists. New prospective, fruitful, and intensive cultures, as kiwi (*actinidia*), and feijoa were brought in and acclimatised in the region. The areas of these cultures occupy 20 hectares, and the harvest equals to 330 and 450 tons respectively. Their cultivation is still amateurish, but for the productive potential these cultures are rather prospective, therefore the increase of kiwi and feijoa areas up to 70 and 50 hectares and the harvest up to 1500 and 800 tons is expected in the future (by 2010).

It is essential to support the industrial development of nuts. According to the specialists around 2000 families can grow 0.5-0.7 million nut bushes, which would occupy 1500-1700 hectares. Considering the principle of different field combining it is possible to grow the nut plantations on the area of 3500 hectares not suitable for tea and citrus plantations. Thus supporting the employment of farmers and raising their family income.

In accordance with socio-climate conditions the tobacco of "Samsung" species is widely spread in the

mountainous area of Adjara. This kind of tobacco is in great demand. In 1986-1990 about 3.5 thousand tons of high quality tobacco were produced, while by 1996 only 189 tons were produced due to the failing of storage system, extreme decrease in the purchase prices, changing market conditions, and other factors.

Despite the above mentioned facts, part of the population still grows tobacco, and tobacco production keeps on being the main factor in the formation of a family budget. The increase of tobacco production is necessary before inculcation of other intensive cultures, serving as prerequisite conditions to improve the income of mountain population and the social situation in the village. The progressive tobacco technology and rise of tobacco purchase price will be the basic condition for this improvement.

In the regions of Adjarian Autonomous Republic it is essential to develop cattle-breeding and vegetable-growing in order to satisfy the demands of urban population and resort infrastructure.

The development of cattle-breeding together with priority plant-growing is greatly important in Adjara. By 2008 the region accounted for annual 115 thousand granger's cattle, 2000 tons of meat, 50000 tons of milk and other dairy products, though the demand of Adjarian population is satisfied with 60-65% of imported milk and dairy products, meat and meat products. The problem in cattle-breeding is stipulated by the low quality of local species, shortage of local product at the consumption market and rapid rise of prices. It is necessary to support live-stock breeding, to create highly productive cattle and make cattle-breeding business more active to solve the existing problems.

The same situation is observed in the field of vegetable-growing. Nowadays the index of local vegetable producing is 10-15%. On conditions of tourism and resort infrastructure development the shortage of vegetables is expected to increase twice. The increase of consumption and seasonal shortage of vegetables can be overtaken by hotbed development, inculcation of intensive technologies and renewal of vegetable species.

Fruit growing is an important backlog to satisfy the increasing demand of population and tourist sector on grocery. The Adjarians have been cultivating fruitful and frost resisting cultural sorts from the wild fruits adopted with mountainous climate through centuries. Traditionally they make different kinds of dry fruit, jam, fruit butter, stewed fruit, and cooling fruit juice.

In the previous century the fruit orchards occupied 3650 hectares producing 23000 tons of fruit. By 2008 the orchard area has decreased to 1780 hectares and the harvest does not exceed 10000 tons stipulated not only by the soil erosion in mountainous regions of

Adjara, but also due to low level of agro-technical activities, spoiled qualities of fruit species, old age of fruit trees, defects in the fruit producing industry and imported fruit into the inner market.

On the one hand, a great attention must be paid to the growing of fruit tree plantations taking into consideration the soil-climate and relief peculiarities of Adjarian mountainous regions. It is considered as anti-erosion measure in the mountainous zone, and can be cultivated in the degraded areas and those erosive by hackling cultures. On the other hand it is necessary to improve agro-technical arrangements of plants, to put in action fruit producing industry, and to inculcate fruitful species of plant in order to satisfy the demand of population on fruit and to rise income.

Fruit producing industry potential creation in Adjara is stipulated not only by increasing fruit harvest in the private sector, but also by ecologically pure product taken from wild plants known in folk from the ancient period and widely used. Unfortunately, producing of forest fruit (wild apples, pears, quince, blackberries, strawberries, etc.) was not paid proper attention in the past, therefore these species nearly became extinct and their general area and harvest were reduced. According to the approximate calculation wild fruit areas occupy 121 hectares in subtropical zone and 472 hectares in highlands. Natural and manual expansion of the areas of separate species of fruit is possible, thus providing increase of the whole harvest and making the base for fruit producing industry development.

The products containing protein have been in great demand for the last years. By 2008 the production of fish and fish products in Adjara is quite low, but it is possible to increase it in case the rise of prices stops. However, it is necessary to support the development of fish farming and formation of simple fishponds, also, to put in action small plants for fishery, fish-smoking, fish-salt, and fish-tin industry.

So, at present the existing potential in each field of agriculture in the Adjarian region does not submit to the full implementation, that has caused the decrease of reproducing process, and unrip the links between the industry and agriculture.

The agricultural reformation that is let run itself, without any regulative system in the transition period to the market economy in Georgia, also the mechanism of wrong prices, taxes, financial, credit, insuring, customs system, and inefficient method of managing are considered as the reasons of above mentioned problems.

It is true that in traditional agricultural fields the existing potential submits to ineffective use of its ability, but despite it we think that "natural advantage" prompts the region which agricultural potential to produce, besides it is also necessary

to grasp the “gained advantage” together with the “natural advantage”, that will support not only the field development, but also the production of high quality products with little expenses.

The activities made by the government in order to develop the export fields will be successful and the “comparative losses” will become exhausted if Georgia could establish itself in the markets of international trading space.

It is necessary to develop a complex programme for long-term development for the maximal exposure of the existing potential in agricultural sector in future. The objective of this programme should be to ensure the food safety for the state and its regions, to replace the imported products by the native ones, and to develop exporting potential to the maximum indexes. It is essential to change the certain orientation in the foreign trade structure in order to provide the import of essential products and the export of domestically produced products.

We think that the quality submitted to the state regulative principles of the economic development of the region should fluctuate only within the frames of crisis situation insurance, and the state stimulation activities for the regional economic development should be accomplished in the regions with high growth potential taking into consideration the factors of territorial attractiveness.

Suggestions and recommendations

Starting from the demands of present and further prospects of agribusiness in Adjarian region, its specialization does not require radical deviation from the historical-traditional model. In our opinion, it is

necessary to undertake the following measures in the above mentioned spheres:

- to re-establish the inner territorial specialisation;
- to re-establish the forgotten traditional fields (beekeeping, silkworm breeding, etc.);
- to study the requirements in European and world markets, and to combine them with our abilities;
- to activate the use of modern technologies;
- to use the modern management methods;
- to create the beneficial system of taxation and credit; to develop corresponding investment programmes, and to introduce them to the foreign investors;
- to improve the current tax law in agribusiness, to rationalise foreign financial assistance, and to accomplish foreign target programmes.

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Reģionālās politikas ieviešanas izvērtēšanas nepieciešamība Necessity for the Assessment of Regional Policy Implementation

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Abstract

Regional policy is a government statement and focused action for regional development. Regional policy reflects changes that can be planned or not planned, and either be useful or even create new disparities. To avoid the latter it is necessary to evaluate regional policies, which are a key factor in guaranteeing the quality and rationality of the implementation of regional policy, and are intended to promote regional development. The evaluation provides directions for the correction of programmes and at the same time is the starting point for planning new actions. The aim of the paper is to display the main aspects for the evaluation of regional policy implementation, and to prove the necessity for the evaluation of regional policy implementation.

Key words: regional policy, regional development, evaluation of regional policy.

Ievads

Introduction

Reģionālā politika ir pamats veikt ilgtermiņa un harmonizētas attīstības plānošanu. Kopā ar telpiskās plānošanas politiku, reģionālā politika paredz tādas aspektus kā ekonomikas efektivitāti, sociālo vienlīdzību un dabas aizsardzību. Reģionālās politikas ieviešana rada apstākļus, kas veicina ekonomisko un sociālo attīstību visā valstī, novēršot negatīvas konsekvences, piemēram, nevienlīdzīgu investīciju piesaisti dažādiem reģioniem un harmonizē ekonomikas attīstību kopumā visā valstī.

Mūsdienu reģionālās politikas jēdziena un darbības prakses izvērtējums sākās divdesmitā gadsimta trīsdesmitajos gados, kad Lielbritānija un ASV uzsāka aktīvu valsts darbību, lai attīstītu problēmreģionus (Fadejevs, 1994).

Eiropas Komisija 1995. gadā pirmo reizi organizēja konferenci, kas izvērtēja Eiropas Savienības (ES) Struktūrfondu, kas ir viens no galvenajiem ES reģionālās politikas ieviešanas instrumentiem, darbību. Konferences galvenais mērķis bija analizēt ES struktūrfondu programmu un to projektu ietekmi uz reģionu attīstību. Kopš tā laika ES struktūrfondu izvērtēšanas konferences notiek ik pēc diviem gadiem. Tas nozīmē, ka īstenotās reģionālās politikas izvērtēšanas problēma vēl aizvien ir ļoti aktuāla un sarežģīta.

Pētījuma mērķis ir izpētīt reģionālās politikas ieviešanas izvērtēšanas galvenos aspektus un pierādīt izvērtēšanas nepieciešamību. Lai sasniegtu mērķi, izvirzīti šādi uzdevumi: analizēt reģionālās politikas izvērtēšanas aspektus, izstrādāt izvērtēšanas sistēmas

loģisko modeli un veikt izvērtēšanas sistēmas stipro un vājo pušu analīzi.

Pētījuma novitāte:

1. Izstrādāts reģionālās politikas izvērtēšanas galveno aspektu skaidrojums.
2. Piedāvāts reģionālās politikas ieviešanas izvērtēšanas cikla definējums, ietverot stratēģiskās vadīšanas pamatelementu – stratēģisko domāšanu.
3. Piedāvāts reģionālās politikas ieviešanas izvērtēšanas sistēmas loģiskais modelis.
4. Dots izvērtēšanas sistēmas novērtējums.

Pētījumā izmantotas šādas metodes: monogrāfiskā pētījuma metode, zinātniskās literatūras pētīšanas metode, indukcijas un dedukcijas metodes, salīdzināšanas un grafiskās metodes. Ir izvirzīta šāda hipotēze: lai nodrošinātu reģionālās politikas stratēģisko vadīšanu, regulāri jāveic reģionālās politikas ieviešanas izvērtēšanu.

Diskusijas un rezultāti

Discussion and results

ES reģionālā politika balstās uz solidaritātes un kohēzijas principiem. Solidaritātes princips ir vērsts uz to reģionu attīstības veicināšanu, kas pēc sociālekonomiskās attīstības rādītājiem atpaliek no ES vidējiem rādītājiem. Kohēzijas principa pamatā ir Eiropas Kopienas līdzsvarotas attīstības veicināšana.

Eiropas Kopienas uzdevums, lai veicinātu vispārējo harmonisku attīstību, ir izstrādāt un veikt darbības, kas stiprina tās ekonomisko un sociālo kohēziju.

Tikai 2000.-2006.gada ES struktūrpolitikas plānošanas periodā ir ieviesta realizēto programmu indikatoru sistēma, kas ļauj noteikt īstenoto programmu efektivitāti. Latvijā 2004.-2006.gada programmēšanas periodam izstrādātajā Vienotajā programmdokumentā (Attīstības plānā) ir ieviesta kvantitatīvo indikatoru sistēma. Ir noteikti šādi indikatori - interneta lietotāju skaita pieaugums, ceļa posmu, kas ir kritiskā stāvoklī, samazinājums u.c. Attīstības plāns satur ļoti daudzās prioritātes un pasākumus, kuras savā starpā ir grūti salīdzināmas, piemēram, kapacitātes celšana reģionālās attīstības plānošanā, nodarbinātības veicināšana, lauku ainavas saglabāšana. Tādēļ ir jādefinē ne tikai kvantitatīvie, bet arī kvalitatīvie kritēriji, kas palīdz salīdzināt un novērtēt ieviesto pasākumu un programmu iznākumu – rezultativitāti un efektivitāti. Papildus autore uzskata, ka kritēriji ir jādefinē saskaņā ar izvirzītajām prioritātēm - kritērijiem vienmēr jāatbilst prioritārajiem politikas mērķiem, piemēram, bezdarba rādītāju samazināšana u.c.

Reģionālās politikas izvērtēšanā var izdalīt trīs aspektus.

1. Reģionālās politikas izstrādes kvalitāte. Tiek rastas atbildes uz šādiem jautājumiem:
 - kas izstrādā reģionālo politiku;
 - kā izstrādā reģionālo politiku (kādi līdzekļi un metodes tiek pielietotas);
 - cik ilgā laikā tiek izstrādāta politika;
 - cik lielā mērā izstrādes procesā tiek iesaistīta sabiedrība.
2. Reģionālās politikas satura kvalitāte. Tiek rastas atbildes uz šādiem jautājumiem:
 - vai reģionālās politikas vadlīnijas atbilst ES reģionālās politikas vadlīnijām;
 - vai reģionālās politikas mērķi atbilst nacionālās politikas mērķiem;
 - vai ir definētas atbilstošas reģionālās politikas prioritātes.
3. Reģionālās politikas ieviešanas kvalitāte. Tiek rastas atbildes uz šādiem jautājumiem:
 - vai sasniegti iepriekš izvirzītie mērķi;
 - vai ir izvēlēti pareizie instrumenti (ES struktūrfondi, valsts un pašvaldību subsīdijas, mērķdotācijas, brīvo un speciālo ekonomisko zonu izveide u.c.) reģionālās politikas ieviešanai un kāda ir to iedarbība;
 - vai izvēlēta pareiza ieviešanas organizatoriskā struktūra.

Reģionālās politikas ieviešanas kvalitātes analīze sniedz vajadzīgo informāciju, kas veicina reģionālo attīstību. Tā ļauj izpētīt atsevišķu politikas instrumentu nozīmīguma pakāpi. Politikas ieviešanas izvērtēšana ir reģionālās politikas attīstības svarīga komponente un atvieglo politikas turpmāko ieviešanu. Autore

savā pētījumā turpmāk analizē reģionālās politikas ieviešanas izvērtēšanas nepieciešamību.

Reģionālās politikas ieviešanas izvērtēšana ir politikas ieviešanas procesa turpinājums, kas, no vienas puses, sekmē apjomīgu aktivitāšu plānošanu un no otras – palīdz pielāgoties mainīgajām prasībām un videi. Reģionālās politikas ieviešanas izvērtēšana sastāv no savā starpā cieši saistītiem secīgi sakārtotiem sešiem cikla posmiem (skat. 1.attēlu).

1. Izvērtēšanas mērķu noteikšana.
2. Izvērtēšanas plānošana.
3. Izvērtēšanas izpilde.
4. Izvērtēšanas datu bāzes izveidošana.
5. Iegūto rezultātu analīze.
6. Lēmumu pieņemšana.

Svarīgi izprast izvērtēšanas nepieciešamību un izvērtēšanas procesu kopumā.

Izvērtēšanas process ir atkarīgs no vērtētāju stratēģiskās domāšanas, pieredzes, kompetencēm un spējas sasaistīt vērtēšanas procesu ar reģionālās politikas īstenošanas vīziju.

Galvenais izvērtēšanas mērķis ir identificēt īstenotās reģionālās politikas atšķirības no plānotās un izanalizēt noviržu, ja tādas rodas, cēloņus.

Izvērtēšanas plānošana ir neatņemama reģionālās politikas izvērtēšanas vadības procesa sastāvdaļa.

Izvērtēšanas izpilde tiek veikta, savācot un apkopojot statistiskos un struktūras datus. Šajā procesā svarīgi ir tie rādītāji, kas ļauj izmērīt ieviestās politikas panākumus, piemēram, efektivitāti. Šajā posmā tiek izvērtēta izvēlēto reģionālās politikas ieviešanas instrumentu pamatotība.

Nākamais posms ir datu bāzes izveidošana. Šie dati tiek analizēti. Analīzes rezultāti ir pamats lēmumu pieņemšanai par reģionālās politikas īstenošanas tālāko gaitu.

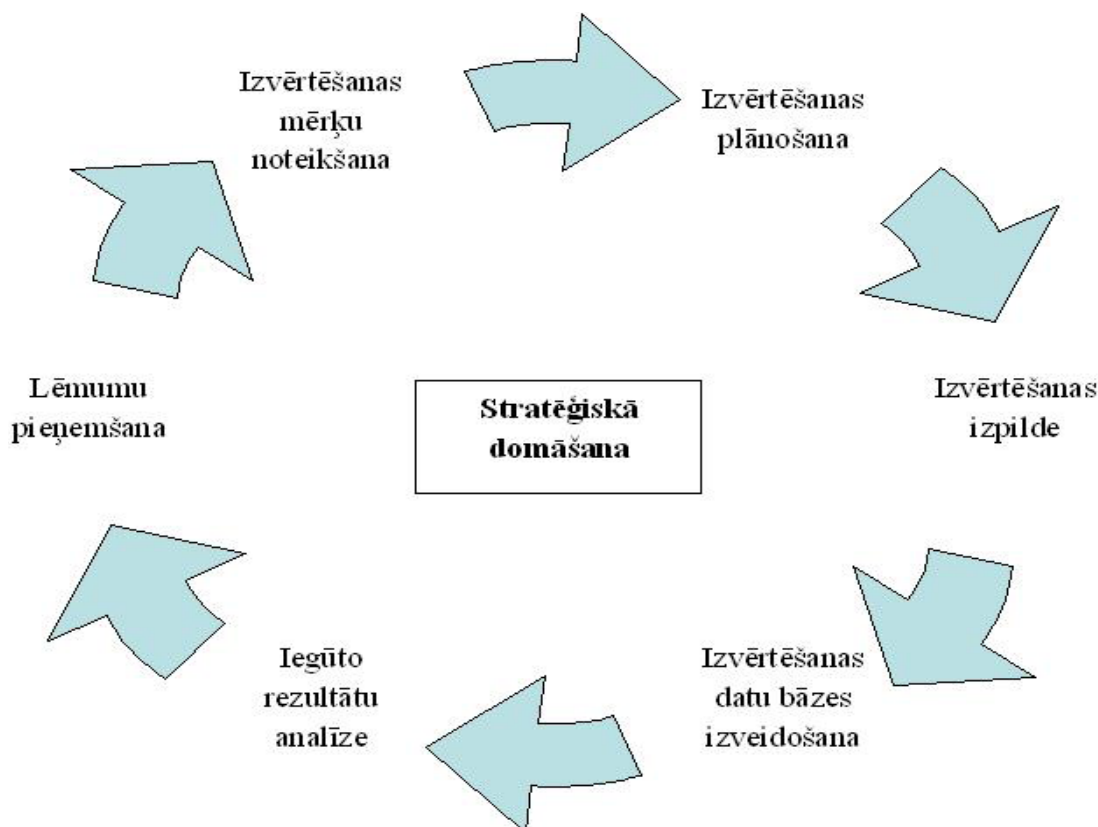
Veicot politikas ieviešanas izvērtēšanu, uzmanība ir jāpievērš tam, ka:

- izvērtēšana ir sistemātisks process.
- izvērtēšana nav tikai faktu konstatācija, bet arī to analīze ar mērķi pieņemt lēmumus, kas saistīti ar turpmākās reģionālās politikas īstenošanu.

Izvērtēšana ir jāveic regulāri, lai iegūtā informācija būtu aktuāla un varētu nekavējoties ieviest nepieciešamās korekcijas realizējamajā reģionālajā politikā, ieskaitot mērķu un vadlīniju maiņu.

Angļu reģionālās politikas speciālisti Armstrongs un Teilers (2000) definē šādus jautājumus, saistītus ar reģionālās politikas ieviešanas izvērtēšanu, ko pamatoti varētu izmantot arī Latvijā.

- Kas ir jāsasniedz, realizējot reģionālo politiku?
- Kādai ietekmei ir jābūt, realizējot reģionālo politiku, un kā tiks mērīts reģionālās politikas ieviešanas iznākums?



Avots: Autores veidota konstrukcija
Source: made by the author

1.attēls. Reģionālās politikas ieviešanas izvērtēšanas cikls
Figure 1. Evaluation cycle of regional policy implementation

- Kādu instrumentu pielietošanai ir vislielākā ietekme, lai sasniegtu reģionālās politikas mērķus?
 - Vai kāda pagātnes pieredze sniedz informāciju par efektīviem reģionālās politikas instrumentiem?
- Analizējot jautājumu, par reģionālās politikas ieviešanas iznākumu mērīšanu, ir jāpielieto gan kvantitatīvie, gan kvalitatīvie rādītāji.

Izvērtēšanas procesā rodas liels rādītāju skaits, kas būtiski sarežģīt izvērtēšanu. Tāpēc ieteicams ir atstāt būtiskākos un raksturīgākos rādītājus. Papildus jāveic regulāra analīze, kas ļautu aktualizēt nepieciešamos rādītājus atkarībā no mainīgajiem ārējās vides apstākļiem.

Autore piekrīt Osborna un Gaeblera (1992) viedoklim par politikas ieviešanas izvērtēšanas nepieciešamību, ko pamato šādi apgalvojumi.

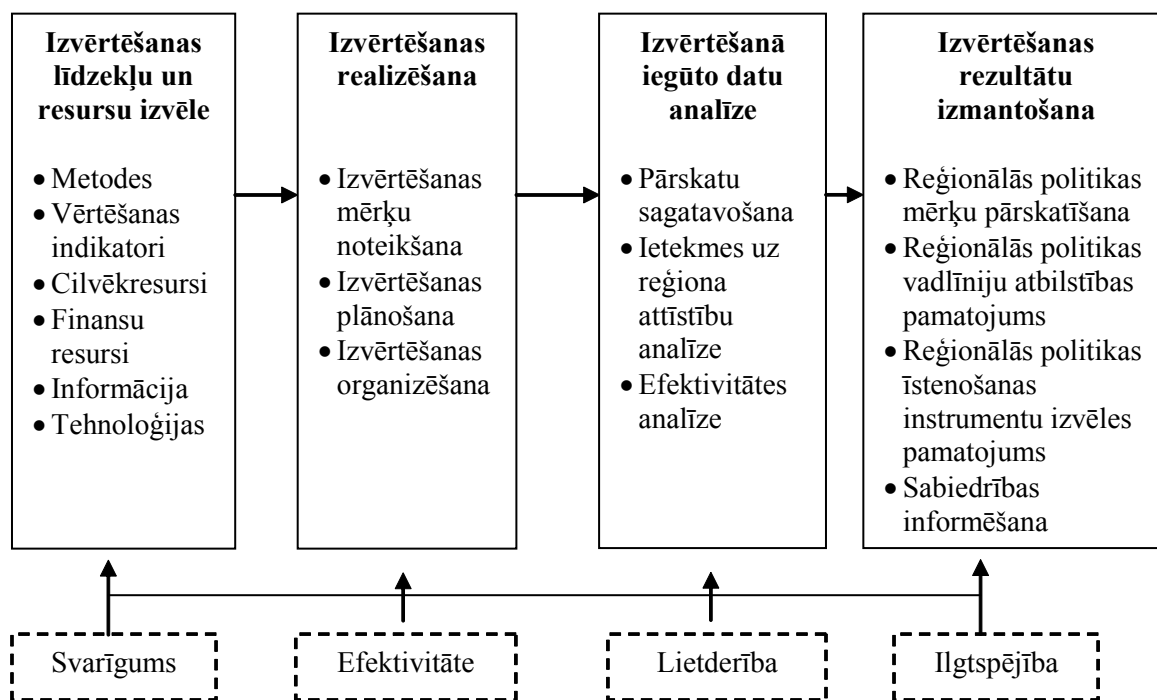
1. Ja jūs nevarat izmērīt darbības rezultātus, jūs nevarat atšķirt panākumus no neveiksmēm un kļūdām.
2. Ja jūs neredzat panākumus, jūs nevarat atlīdzināt par tiem.

3. Ja jūs nevarat atlīdzināt par panākumiem, jūs, iespējams, veiciniet kļūdas.
4. Ja jūs neredzat panākumus, jūs nevarat mācīties no tiem.
5. Ja jūs nevarat atklāt kļūdas, jūs nevarat tās izlabot.
6. Ja jūs varat parādīt pozitīvus rezultātus, jūs varat saņemt sabiedrības atbalstu.

Iepriekš minētie apgalvojumi parāda, ka darbības rezultāta izmērīšana un izvērtēšana ir cieši saistīta ar panākumu un kļūdu analīzi. Tikai veicot šo analīzi ir iespējams pieņemt argumentētus lēmumus attiecībā uz realizējamo un plānoto reģionālo politiku. Svarīgs ir arī fakts, ka, tikai sasniedzot pozitīvus rezultātus, ilgtermiņā ir iespējams saņemt atbalstu no reģiona iedzīvotājiem, kur tiek realizēti reģionālās politikas instrumenti.

Autore ir izstrādājusi reģionālās politikas ieviešanas izvērtēšanas sistēmas loģisko modeli (skat. 2.attēlu), kurā ir attēloti izvērtēšanu raksturojošie posmi un to skaidrojumi.

Ar izvērtēšanā iegūto datu analīzes raksturojošo rādītāju – efektivitāte – ir jāsaprot gan ekonomiskās efektivitātes analīzi, gan funkcionālās efektivitātes



Avots: Autores veidota konstrukcija
Source: made by the author

2.attēls. Reģionālās politikas ieviešanas izvērtēšanas sistēmas loģiskais modelis
Figure 2. Logical model for evaluation of regional policy system implementation

1.tabula/Table 1

Informācijas avotu stiprās un vājās puses
Strengths and weaknesses of information sources

Informācijas avots	Stiprās puses	Vājās puses
Reģionālās politikas ieviešanas izvērtēšanas sistēma	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tiek iegūti salīdzinoši aktuāli dati • Tiek iegūti nozīmīgi dati • Izvērtēšanu var veikt izmantojot nelielus laika intervālus • Informācija pieejama par visām programmām/projektiem 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Datus par atsevišķām programmām/projektiem ne vienmēr var apvienot • Dati par atsevišķām programmām/projektiem nav viegli salīdzināmi • Salīdzinoši augstas izmaksas
Statistiskie pārskati	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ticami dati • Apjomīgi dati • Salīdzināmi dati • Salīdzinoši viegli iegūstami dati 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dati ir grūti iegūstami atbilstoši izvirzītajam izvērtēšanas mērķim • Dati ne vienmēr ir iegūstami par nepieciešamo ģeogrāfisko teritoriju • Dati nav pieejami par aktuālo laika periodu
Citi pētījumi	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dati jau ir apstrādāti un ir veikta datu analīze 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dati nav pieejami par aktuālo laika periodu • Pētījumi nesniedz atbildes uz visiem jautājumiem

Avots: Autores veidota konstrukcija
Source: made by the author

analīzi. Efektivitāti raksturo resursu patēriņš uz vienu izpildes rādītāja vienību. Savukārt funkcionālā efektivitāte parāda, vai programmas/projekta ieviešana ir sasniegusi vēlamu rezultātu un kvalitāti, un papildus atbild uz jautājumu – vai programmas/projekta ieviešana atbilst paredzētajiem mērķiem.

Visu reģionālās politikas ieviešanas izvērtēšanas posmu īstenošanas principi ir šādi (skat. 2.attēlu):

- svarīgums;
- efektivitāte;
- lietderība;
- ilgtspējība.

Reģionālās politikas īstenošanas izvērtēšanai ir gan savi trūkumi, gan priekšrocības. 1.tabulā ir sniegtas izvērtēšanas sistēmas, statistisko pārskatu un citu pētījumu stiprās un vājās puses.

Kā viens no galvenajiem izvērtēšanas trūkumiem ir dažādu programmu/projektu iegūtie dati, kas savā starpā ir grūti apvienojami un salīdzināmi. Lai novērstu šo problēmu, veicot izvērtēšanu, ir jāpiemēro indikatoru sistēma, kas nav ietverta šajā pētījumā. Tā ļauj apvienot un salīdzināt dažādus iegūtos datus.

Secinājumi un ieteikumi

Conclusions and suggestions

1. Reģionālās politikas ieviešanas izvērtēšanu var definēt kā regulāru iegūto rezultātu, ieguvumu un programmu vai projektu ietekmes uz reģionālo attīstību salīdzināšanu ar plānoto.
2. Izvērtēšana ir integrēta efektīvas un veiksmīgas programmu un projektu vadības daļa.
3. Izvērtēšanas rezultātu analīze ir pamats reģionālajās politikas izmaiņu konstatēšanai un

prognozēšanai un pats būtiskākais – turpmāko lēmumu pieņemšanai.

4. Novērtēšanas gaitā jāpielieto netikai kvantitatīvie, bet arī kvalitatīvie rādītāji.
5. Iegūtos izvērtēšanas rezultātus ir jāizmanto maksimāli plaši – pārskatot reģionālās politikas vīziju, vadlīnijas, mērķus, prioritātes.
6. Par iegūtajiem izvērtēšanas rezultātiem ir jāsniedz informācija sabiedrībai.
7. Pētījuma novitāte ir izstrādāts reģionālās politikas izvērtēšanas posmu skaidrojums, piedāvāts reģionālās politikas ieviešanas izvērtēšanas cikla definējums, ietverot stratēģiskās vadīšanas pamatelementu – stratēģiskā domāšana, piedāvāts reģionālās politikas ieviešanas izvērtēšanas loģiskais modelis un dots izvērtēšanas sistēmas novērtējums.

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